GRAMMAR
Use words, phrases, clauses, and sentences to express clear and complete thoughts.

WORDS
Words are built from parts; an understanding of Greek and Latin roots, prefixes, suffixes, and word families will help you determine the meanings of unfamiliar words.

GREEK & LATIN ROOTS
1. Many English words have been built from roots, or units of meaning, that come from Greek (G) or Latin (L).
   - aqua (L), meaning “water,” as in aquarium and aquatic
   - bio (G), meaning “life,” as in biography and biology
   - chron (G), meaning “time,” as in chronic and chronology
   - dic (L), meaning “speak,” as in contradict and dictate
   - graph (G), meaning “write,” as in autobiography and autograph

PREFIXES
1. Letter combinations added to the beginnings of base words or roots are called prefixes.
2. Prefixes may change the meanings or parts of speech of base words.
3. The following prefixes are commonly used in English:
   - un-, meaning “not or in opposition to,” as in uncomfortable
   - re-, meaning “again or reverse,” as in rewrite and recall
   - il-, in-, and ir-, meaning “not or in opposition to,” as in illegal, impossible, indirect, and irregular
   - dis-, meaning “not or in opposition to,” as in disappear
   - em- and en-, meaning “cause to,” as in embody and encourage

SUFFIXES
1. Letter combinations added to the ends of base words or roots are called suffixes.
2. Inflectional suffixes indicate the forms of words, such as case, tense, part of speech, or number.
3. Derivational suffixes, which create new words, may change the meanings of base words.
4. The following suffixes are commonly used in English:
   - -es and -s indicate plurality, as in bushes and magazines
   - -ed indicates past tense, as in played
   - -ing indicates the present participle verb form, as in dreaming
   - -ly indicates a “characteristic of,” as in neighborly
   - -er and -or indicate a “person associated with,” as in preacher and inventor

SYNONYMS
1. Many words in English have similar meanings. Words with similar meanings are called synonyms.
2. By understanding the shades of meaning that distinguish synonyms, a writer can choose the best word to convey his or her meaning; for example,
   - sorry: “expression of apology or mild regret”
   - remorseful: “full of a deep sense of guilt over a wrong”
   - repentant: “characterized by a feeling of sorrow over a sin”

ANTONYMS
1. Many words in English have opposing meanings. Words with opposing meanings are called antonyms.
2. Writers may use antonyms to convey contrast.
   - The hikers are free to move about the nature preserve; there are no restricted areas.
   - The mother worked to pacify the cranky child with a toy. She did not want to agitate the child any further.
   - In the sorrowful days that followed the funeral, Mario could not appreciate the joyful emergence of spring.

ADOPTED WORDS
1. English is a melting pot of words that have been adopted from other languages.
   - cafeteria comes from Spanish
   - chimpunk comes from the North American Indians
   - cola comes from Africa
   - typhoon comes from Chinese

MULTIPLE-MEANING WORDS
1. Some English words have more than one meaning; some of these multiple-meaning words are different parts of speech.
   - count, a noun meaning “a European nobleman”
   - count, a verb meaning “to name numbers”
2. Often, readers must use the context of a sentence to determine which meaning a writer intends.
   - As part of Malik’s workout routine, he rotates his outstretched arms.
   - The police arrested the criminals and charged them with illegal arms dealing.
   - In the ancient temple, the monks began to chant.
   - As Kai sensed the onset of a migraine headache, she began rubbing her temple.

PARTS OF SPEECH
Words can be placed into categories based on function.

NOUNS
1. A noun is a word that names a person, place, object, or idea. Nouns can be common, proper, collective, countable, or uncountable.
2. A common noun names a nonspecific person, place, object, or idea (e.g., beauty, boy, and planet).
3. A proper noun names a specific person, place, or object (e.g., California, Maria, and Paris).
4. A collective noun is singular in form but names a group (e.g., audience, family, and team).
5. Some nouns are countable (e.g., one boy, nine planets, and fifty states).
6. Other nouns are not countable. These nouns represent unknown quantities (e.g., blood, sand, and traffic).

PRONOUNS
1. A pronoun is a word that can assume the position and function of a noun, but it does not specifically name a person, place, object, or idea.
2. Pronouns can be subjective, objective, possessive, indefinite, or relative.
3. A subjective pronoun can function as the subject of a sentence.
   - He fed the cat.
   - She fed the cat.
   - It got extremely fat.
   - They wished they had fed it less.
4. An objective pronoun can function as a direct object, an indirect object, the object of a preposition, or the subject of an infinitive.
   - Mr. Iman called him at noon.
   - Yumi gave him the message.
   - The company expects him to respond.
5. A possessive pronoun demonstrates ownership.
   - My fax machine is malfunctioning.
   - I will borrow her fax machine.
   - She said that she began using their fax machine when her machine broke.
   - May I use your fax machine?
6. An indefinite pronoun, which may also be a subjective pronoun, makes a general rather than specific reference.
   - Anyone can attend the game.
   - Everybody

ADJECTIVES
1. An adjective is a word that describes or modifies a noun or pronoun by telling type, quantity, or specificity.
2. An adjective can be a proper, demonstrative, descriptive, quantitative, qualitative, or predicate adjective.
3. A proper adjective is formed from a proper noun (e.g., American, Democratic, and French).
4. A demonstrative adjective answers the question, Which one? (e.g., this, that, those, and these).
5. A descriptive adjective answers the question, What kind? (e.g., big, red, and small).
6. A comparative adjective answers the question, How many? (e.g., few, several, and three).
7. A qualitative adjective answers the question, How much? (e.g., considerable, little, and much).
8. A predicate adjective follows any linking or state-of-being verb.
9. In comparing the quality of nouns, adjectives change by degrees.
   - The positive degree covers one item: big, good.
   - The comparative degree covers two items: bigger, better.
   - The superlative degree covers three or more items: biggest, best.
10. A participle is a verbal that can function as an adjective. In a present participle, the verb ends with the suffix -ing. (NOTE: A verbal is a verb form that can function as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.)
   - The girl talking on the phone is Mary. (The participle talking modifies the noun girl.)
11. In a past participle, the verb typically ends with the suffix -ed.
   - The letter signed by John was ready for the mail. (The participle signed modifies the noun letter.)
12. An infinitive is another kind of verbal that can function as an adjective.
   - Everybody

VERBS
1. A verb is a word that expresses something a person, place, or thing can do.
2. A verb can be a transitive verb, which requires a direct object.
   - She fed the cat.
3. A verb can be an intransitive verb, which does not require a direct object.
   - It got extremely fat.
4. A verb can be an infinitive, a verb form that can function as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.
   - I will borrow her fax machine.
5. A verb can be a gerund, a verb form that functions as a noun.
   - Playing tennis is fun.
6. A verb can be a participle, a verbal ending that functions as an adjective.
   - His running is fast.

ADVERBS
1. An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.
2. Adverbs are classified as prepositional, adverbial, or relative.
3. Prepositional adverbs express position or manner.
   - The library, which houses many historical collections, attracts many visitors.
4. Adverbial adverbs express the time of an action.
   - The library, whose credentials are impeccable, conducts regular tours.
5. Relative adverbs express relationships.
   - The library, which houses many historical collections, attracts many visitors.
1. A verb is a word that describes the action or state of being of a noun or pronoun.
2. A verb can be transitive, intransitive, auxiliary, linking, or phrasal.
3. An intransitive verb requires an object to complete the action.
   - Push this bell if you want admittance.
4. An intransitive verb does not require an object to express action.
   - The sun shone brightly.

NOTE: The same verb may be transitive in some sentences and intransitive in others.

5. An auxiliary or helping verb appears before a main verb to express tense or mood.
   - They have studied diligently.
6. A linking verb demonstrates the state of a noun or pronoun by linking a subject with a word or phrase that follows and restates or describes the subject.
   - He is sad.
7. A linking verb modifies the verb to complete the action.
   - He seems happy.

NOTE: The same verb may be linking in some sentences and intransitive in others.

A phrasal verb is usually a two-word verb that combines a main verb with an adverb or preposition. In such cases, the two-word verb takes on its own meaning that may be separate from the meanings of the individual words.

- Joe and Mona decided to break up. (Joe and Mona decided to end their relationship.)
- The pile of unpaid bills began to eat at Rita’s sanity. (The unpaid bills are bothering Rita’s sanity.)
- Melanie ran into her chemistry professor over the summer. (Melanie met her chemistry professor unexpectedly.)

ADVERBS

An adverb is a word that describes or modifies a verb, adjective, or other adverb.

1. An adverb answers one or more of these questions: How? quickly, slowly, fast
2. When? now, then, never
3. Where? here, there, down, up
4. Why? because, after, so

A phrasal adverb is usually a two-word adverb that combines an adverb or adjective with a preposition or particle. In such cases, the two-word adverb takes on its own meaning that may be separate from the meanings of the individual words.

- John walked slowly.
- John walked faster than Peter.
- He rarely goes to the movies. (The frequency adverb rarely comes before the verb goes.)

An adverb that modifies an adjective or adverb precedes the word being modified.

- John walked surprisingly slowly for someone so tall.

2. The object of a preposition answers the question with whom? or to whom?

- Please hand me my envelope. (any envelope)
- Please hand me an envelope. (any envelope)
- Please hand me the book. (a specific book)

3. The time period.

- The race was run by John. (passive voice)

Nouns may also contain direct or indirect objects. In the second example, me is the indirect object and practice is the direct object of the infinitive to give.

- The football fans do not appreciate my playing the game.
- The coach agreed to give me some additional practice.

4. The object of a preposition answers the question whom, what, where, or when.

- John traveled to the country. (To where? The country.)
- The books are needed for comfortable walking. (For what? Walking.)

The subject of a sentence tells who or what a clause or sentence is about.

- The subject is often a noun or pronoun. The subject may be singular or compound.
- The pirates captured the ship and stole its treasure.
- The subject may be singular, noun subject
- She appreciated the jeweled gifts from the ardent, if criminal, suitor. (singular, pronoun subject)
- John and Peter quit their jobs to pursue a life at sea. (compound, noun subject)
- General, a subject appears before the verb, but it may be separated from the verb by modifiers or prepositional phrases. To determine a subject, ask, Who or what is the sentence about?
- The train runs. (Who or what runs? The train.)
- John, who is late for the train, runs. (Who or what runs? John.)

A subject may have a complement, or a noun, adjective, or phrase that appears after a linking verb for the purpose of restating or telling about the subject.

- Dr. Sawyer will become an outstanding university president. (Dr. Sawyer is the subject; president tells about Dr. Sawyer.)
- A gerund is a verb that features the -ing form of a verb and acts as a noun. Therefore, it can take any position in a sentence that a noun can take, including subject, object, subject complement, or object of a preposition. The -ing form may introduce a phrase. These gerunds or gerund phrases function as sentence subjects.
- Walking is a healthy exercise.
- Reading travel books is my hobby.

An infinitive is a verb construction that includes the word to followed by a simple verb. An infinitive may function as a noun, adjective, or adverb. When it functions as a noun, it may appear as a subject, direct object, or object complement. Make sure not to confuse the infinitive form with a prepositional phrase. The infinitive form may introduce a phrase. These infinitive phrases function as sentence subjects.

- To sing the national anthem at the World Series is a goal of the pop star.
- To travel by train across Europe has been a long-time dream of mine.

A noun phrase may also function as the subject of a sentence.

- That the在未来子里使用的一艘礁石，collection (450books) was painted on 9/11/2019 10:42 AM.

Account: 89918184

1. A conjunction is a word that joins or links parts of a sentence.
2. A conjunction can be coordinating, correlative, subordinating, or adverbial.
3. A coordinating conjunction joins words, phrases, or clauses of equal importance.
   - Joe and Mary went to the show.
   - You will find it in the cupboard or under the counter.
4. A correlative conjunction is a pair of words that link words, phrases, or clauses of equal importance.
   - Neither Tom nor Jane was impressed by this.
5. A subordinating conjunction causes one clause to be dependent on another.
   - Tom and his brother won the tournament because they practiced hard.
6. A conjunctive adverb joins main clauses. A conjunctive adverb is always preceded by a semicolon (;) and followed by a comma (,).
   - She knew her lack of studying would be a detriment; nevertheless, she took the test.
   - She was sick and tired of all this nagging about studying; however, she did find the chart useful.

PREPOSITIONS

1. A preposition is a word that conveys a relationship between a noun or pronoun and another word. The following are common prepositions:
   - about, above, according to, across, after, against, along, among, around,
   - before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, by
   - down, during, except
   - for, from
   - in, in place of, inside, into
   - off, on, out, outside, over
   - past
   - since
   - through, to, toward
   - under, until, up, upon
   - with, within, without

2. A preposition introduces a prepositional phrase, which is made up of a preposition plus its object and any modifier and functions as an adverb or adjective.
   - The mouse under the table ate crumbs. (The prepositional phrase under the table modifies the subject mouse.)
   - The students in the lab made aspirin with a chemical reaction. (The prepositional phrase with a chemical reaction modifies the verb made, and the phrase in the lab modifies the subject students.)

ARTICLES

1. An article is a word that precedes a noun and conveys specificity, either indefinite (a, an) or definite (the).
   - Please hand me a doughnut. (any doughnut)
   - Please hand me an envelope. (any envelope)
   - Please hand me the book. (a specific book)

2. Use a with nouns that begin with consonant sounds (doughnut, eulogy) and an with nouns that begin with vowel sounds (envelope, honor).

INTERJECTIONS

1. An interjection is a word or phrase that functions alone to convey intense emotion.
   - Goodness!
   - Oh my!
   - Wow!
SENTENCE TYPES & FORMS

**Types**
1. A declarative sentence makes a statement and ends with a period.
   - Today is my birthday.
2. An imperative sentence gives a command and ends with a period. In an imperative sentence, the subject you is often implied.
   - (You) Close the door on your way out.
3. An interrogative sentence asks a question and ends with a question mark.
   - Who was that woman?
4. An exclamatory sentence expresses strong feeling and ends with an exclamation point.
   - What a beautiful morning!
5. A simple sentence contains a subject and a verb and expresses one complete thought.
   - On such a beautiful morning, I love to run!

**Forms**

**Simple Sentence**
1. A simple sentence contains a subject and a verb and expresses one complete thought.

**Independent Clauses**

**Dependent Clauses**

**Noun Clauses**
1. A noun clause functions as a noun.
   - That she had not finished the paper was the reason for her low grade.
     (The noun clause is the subject.)
2. An adjective clause modifies a noun or pronoun.
   - I know what I will do today. (The noun clause is the direct object of the verb know.)
   - She wondered about what she should do next. (The noun clause is the object of the preposition about.)

**Adjective (or Relative) Clauses**
1. An adjective clause points out or describes any noun or pronoun in a sentence.
2. A relative pronoun (who, whom, whose, which, that) usually introduces an adjective clause. However, an adjective clause can sometimes be introduced with a relative adverb (where, when, why).
3. Adjective clauses may be restrictive or nonrestrictive.
   - The car that is parked by the curb belongs to me. (The adjective clause restricts meaning to clarify which car.)
   - The car, which is parked by the curb, belongs to me. (The adjective clause provides nonessential, additional information about the car.)

**Adverbial Clauses**
1. An adverbial clause functions as a modifier.
2. An adverbial clause is introduced by a subordinating conjunction (after, although, as, as if, because, before, if, since, so that, that, unless, until, when, where, while).
3. When an adverbial clause begins a sentence, set it off with a comma.
   - Generally, do not use a comma when the adverbial clause appears at the end of a sentence.
   - Because he stepped on her toe, she was annoyed. (The adverbial clause modifies the adjective annoyed.)
   - She was annoyed because he stepped on her toe.

**Compound Clauses**

**Compound Sentence**
1. A compound sentence contains two or more independent clauses and expresses more than one complete thought.
   - Bobbie likes John, she loves vacations. (subordination)
   - Although Bobbie likes John, she loves vacations. (comma and coordinating conjunction)
   - Although Bobbie likes John, she loves vacations. (semicolon, conjunctive adverb, and comma)
   - Although Bobbie likes John, she loves vacations. (subordination)

**Compound-Complex Sentence**
1. A compound-complex sentence contains at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause.
   - If you are going to walk, be sure to stay on the path. (If you are going to walk is the dependent clause; be sure to stay on the path is the independent clause.)

**Sentence Structure & Clarity**

**Sentence Structure**

**Fragments**

1. A sentence fragment does not express a complete thought because it does not contain both a subject and a predicate. A fragment may also be a dependent clause. For these reasons, a fragment cannot stand on its own as a complete sentence.
   - Enjoyed the movie. (no subject)
   - Speaking of movies, Joe, Lucy, and I. (no predicate)
   - Although I enjoyed the movie. (dependent clause)

2. To fix a fragment, add the missing component or join it with a complete sentence.
   - I enjoyed the movie.
   - Speaking of movies, Joe, Lucy, and I saw Quakes yesterday.
   - Although I enjoyed the movie, I prefer romantic comedies.

**Comma Slices**

1. A comma splice occurs when a writer places a comma between the two or more independent clauses in a compound sentence.
   - Bobbie likes John, she loves vacations.
   - Bobbie likes John, but she loves vacations.
   - Bobbie likes John; however, she loves vacations.
   - Although Bobbie likes John, she loves vacations.

2. To fix a comma splice, use one of these constructions:
   - Bobbie likes John. She loves vacations. (period)
   - Bobbie likes John, but she loves vacations. (comma and coordinating conjunction)
   - Bobbie likes John; however, she loves vacations. (semicolon, conjunctive adverb, and comma)
   - Although Bobbie likes John, she loves vacations. (subordination)

**Fused or Run-on Sentences**

1. A fused or run-on sentence occurs when a writer places no punctuation between independent clauses.
   - Bobbie likes movies John likes vacations.
   - Bobbie likes movies, John likes vacations. (period)

2. To fix a fused or run-on sentence, use one of these constructions:
   - Bobbie likes movies, John likes vacations. (comma and coordinating conjunction)
   - Bobbie likes movies; John likes vacations. (semicolon)
   - Although Bobbie likes movies however, John likes vacations. (semicolon, conjunctive adverb, and comma)
   - Although Bobbie likes movies, John likes vacations. (subordination)

**Agreement**

**Verbs**
1. A verb has four basic forms: infinitive (to plus the verb stem), past tense, present participle, and past participle. Each form works alone or with other verbs to express times of action and states of being.
2. The simple tense of a verb expresses when the action takes place: past, present, or future.
3. The progressive tense of a verb expresses the continuance of an action.
4. Writers must be careful to maintain a consistent verb tense when writing.

**Person**
1. A verb must match the subject in person.
2. You are hoping for rain. (first person)
3. You are hoping for rain. (second person)
4. He is hoping for rain. (third person)

**Number**
1. A verb must match its subject in number.
2. A singular verb requires a singular subject; a plural verb requires a plural subject.
3. The woman was tall.
3. When two singular subjects are joined by and, the verb is plural.
   - The man and the woman were tall.
4. When two subjects are connected by or, either...or, or neither...nor, the verb agrees with the nearest subject.
   - Neither the teacher nor the students are tall enough to dunk the basketball.
5. When a noun is collective (crew or a family) or without the suffix -s, the verb is generally singular.
   - The tall, coed basketball team wins the game.
6. The news reports the win.
7. With many indefinite pronouns, the verb is third-person singular.
   - Someone is measuring the height of each man and woman.
8. With other indefinite pronouns, use context to determine whether the verb is singular or plural.
   - Some of the women are tall.
   - Some of the height comes from their mothers.
9. With relative pronouns, the verb agrees with the antecedent.
   - If I have a teammate who jumps high.
10. When the subject comes after the verb, make sure that the verb agrees with the subject.
    - There are three courses of action the team can take.
11. A verb agrees with the subject, not the subject complement.
    - The strategy books that I received were technical.

**MODIFICATION**

**Voice**

1. In a sentence, a subject may perform or receive the action of a verb. This condition is called voice.
   - John hits the ball.
2. Voice may be active or passive.
   - The horse is ridden by the jockey.
3. In the active voice, the subject does the action.
   - The horse was ridden by the jockey.
4. In the passive voice, the subject is acted upon. The passive form consists of a form of be plus the past participle.
   - She was ridden by a jockey.
5. In general, writing should favor the active voice over the passive voice.
   - The ticket seller was annoyed by the chattering.

**Mood**

1. The mood of a verb expresses the writer’s attitude toward the action.
2. A verb may be indicative, imperative, or subjunctive.
   - People often misbehave.
   - You must stop smoking.
3. The indicative mood makes a statement or asks a question.
   - The student won the championship.
4. The imperative mood expresses a command, request, suggestion, or entreaty where the subject (usually the pronoun you) is understood.
   - Please sign the form before returning it.
   - (NOTE: This is also an imperative sentence.)
5. The subjunctive mood equals the past tense in structure and is used after if and unless when the statement is contrary to reality.
   - I wish I were a rich woman.
   - (NOTE: Use were for both singular and plural subjects.
6. If I knew her number, I would call her.

**PRONOUNS**

**Case**

1. Errors in pronoun case occur when a writer uses one type of pronoun to do the job of another.
   - Marco and me want to attend the soccer game. (objective pronoun acting as a subjective pronoun)
2. The ticket seller was annoyed by them chattering. (objective pronoun acting as a possessive pronoun)
3. To fix an error in pronoun case, make sure the form of each pronoun matches its function in a sentence.
   - Marco and I want to attend the soccer game. (correct use of subjective pronoun)
   - The ticket seller was annoyed by their chattering. (correct use of possessive pronoun)

**SENTENCE FLOW & PHRASING**

**Paraphrase**

1. Sentences must show fluidity and logic.

**Parallelism**

1. To convey comparison or contrast, effective writers use the same form for words, phrases, clauses, or sentences. This practice creates parallelism.
   - The horses like prancing, galloping, and running. (parallel)
   - The horses like prancing, galloping, and to run. (To run is not parallel with prancing and galloping.)
2. Transitions
   - First, next, then, so

**Word Choice**

1. Choosing words identify the type of writing, the purpose, and the audience. Then consider these issues:
   - Bias: Words that show favoritism toward a particular subject at the expense of another.
   - Clichés: Words or phrases that are overused and lack originality.
   - Denotation and connotation: The dictionary definition of a word versus the associations readers make with a word.
   - Formality: The appropriateness of language for a given purpose and audience, including slang, idioms, or jargon.
   - Tone: The writer’s attitude toward the subject.
   - Wordiness: The use of many words where a few will yield greater clarity.

**Action Verbs**

1. When selecting verbs, choose verbs that favor action above states of being whenever possible.
   - I am creative. (state of being)
   - I create. (action verb)

**MISPLACED & DANGLEMODIFIERS**

1. A modifier, such as an adjective or adverb, provides additional information.
2. To avoid the confusion of a misplaced modifier, place a modifier near its subject in a sentence.
   - The boys unpacked computers from the boxes that were damaged. (What are damaged? The computers or the boxes?)
3. The boys unpacked computers that were damaged from the boxes. (In this case, the author intends to say the computers are damaged.)
4. Make sure a modifier gives information about only one subject.
   - The damaged computers that angered Paulo enormously amused Santo. (Is Paulo enormously angered, or is Santo enormously amused?)
5. The damaged computers that angered Paulo amused Santo enormously. (In this case, the author intends to say that Paulo is enormously amused.)
6. Make sure to state the subject to be modified; an unstated subject produces a dangling modifier.
   - Observing the damaged computers, a call to the manager was placed. (Who observes the computers?)
   - Observing the damaged computers, Paulo placed a call to the manager. (Paulo observes the computers.)
7. By studying consistently over several weeks, Steve easily passed the test. (Steve studied the test.)
8. By studying consistently over several weeks, Steve was easy to pass the test. (Who studies?)
9. By studying consistently over several weeks, Steve was easy to pass the test. (Who studies?)
PUNCTUATION

APOTROPHES

Apostrophes show possession, plurality, and contracted word forms.

Possession

1. Add ’s to form the possessive of most singular nouns, irregular plural nouns not ending in s, and indefinite pronouns not ending in s.
   - My mother’s purse held many treasures.
   - The Women’s League is very active.
   - Can anyone’s dog enter the kennel show?
2. This rule also applies to singular proper nouns ending in s, or z.
   - We listened to the stereo Chris’s new car.
   - Liz’s dress was the sensation of the party.
3. The Bible speaks admirably of Moses’s wisdom.

NOTE: A less common convention is to add only an apostrophe to singular nouns ending in an s or ess sound if the addition of the ’s would create awkward pronunciation.

4. Add only an apostrophe to form the possessive of plural nouns ending in s.
   - The cats’ toys were spread around the room.
   - The latest car designs were engineered for drivers’ comfort.
   - Did you receive an invitation to the Vanderbilts’ party?
5. To form the possessive of compound nouns, add ’s to only the last word.
   - My mother-in-law’s furniture was imported from Havana.
   - Webster’s brother-in-law’s office was vandalized.
6. To show joint possession, make only the last noun possessive.
   - James and Susan’s dog chased our cat.
7. To show individual ownership, make both nouns possessive. In the following sentence, two cars have been vandalized—James’s and Susan’s.
   - James’s and Susan’s cars were both vandalized.
8. Do not use an apostrophe with possessive pronouns.
   - Ours is the bright red Mustang. (not our’s)
   - The squirrel held an acorn in its paws. (not it’s, which is the contraction for it is)

PHRASAL VERBS

1. Some style guides recommend the use of an apostrophe to form certain plurals, while others do not.
   - Phillips’s report card had three A’s and two B’s. (Modern Language Association)
   - Phillips’s report card had three As and two Bs. (Chicago, Turabian)

Conventions

1. Use an apostrophe to indicate contractions, or shortened forms of words. In these cases, the apostrophe indicates missing letters or numbers.
   - I’m not permitted to enter the restricted zone. (I am)
   - The ’92 hurricane left a wide swath of damage through the Miami area. (1992)

2. Do not confuse contractions with possessive pronouns: for example, your possessive (you’re) are (their) they’re (they are), is (its) it’s (it is).

BRACKETS

1. Brackets enclose editorial comments inserted within quoted material.

2. Make sure that words in brackets provide context or clarity for the original quotation. Do not use bracketed comments to change the meaning of the original quotation.

3. Machiavelli, the political pragmatist, argues that “princes [in positions of power] have accomplished most who paid little heed to keeping their promises.”

COLONS

1. Colons introduce additions, modifications, and basic examples, including
   - Frank introduced four kinds of fish into his new aquarium: three angels, six tetras, a pair of Bala sharks, and a spotted catfish.
   - After a few months, Frank encountered a problem with his new aquarium setup algae growth.
   - Lamara suggested a solution: “I keep quite a few snails in my aquarium. They eat the excess algae.”

2. Do not use a colon inside a main clause.
   - Frank’s favorite fish is the angelfish. (incorrect)
   - Frank’s favorite fish is the angelfish. (correct)

3. However, a colon may link independent clauses when the second modifies the first.
   - Frank earned a savings account maintenance: Do not overfeed fish, as this action causes the water to cloud.

NOTE: Some style guides recommend capitalizing the word after the colon, while others only do so if the independent clause before the colon introduces more than one complete sentence.

A colon has several other uses; for example,

- Biblical citation: Genesis 1:1


- Formal business letter salutation: Dear Mr. Brown.

- Title and subtitle: Dudes: My Story

COMMAS

1. Use commas to separate main clauses within sentences, which are joined by
   - coordinating conjunctions
   - Mary council students, and she volunteers at the local hospital.
   - John planned to invest his tax return, but he bought a computer instead.
   - Doug will play the game, or he will move the lawn.

2. Use commas to separate elements that introduce and modify sentences.
   - Sandra won’t be going with us, so she returned her application too late.
   - The bank lowered its interest rates, so we decided to refinance our mortgage.
   - I haven’t seen the new house, yet I know how to get there.

3. Do not use commas before these prepositions or their common short forms.
   - Mary counsels students, and delivers meals to shut-ins. (incorrect)
   - Mary counsels students, and delivers meals to the shut-ins. (correct)

4. Use commas to separate elements that introduce and modify sentences.
   - On December 7, 1941, Japanese warplanes bombed Pearl Harbor.
   - On Wednesday, December 28, 2011, I will celebrate my 30th birthday.

5. Use commas with address and place names.
   - The president of the United States lives at 1600 Pennsylvania Ave., Washington, DC.
   - We visited Nashville, Tennessee, last summer.

6. Use commas with large numbers.
   - The city marina cost $8,479,000 to construct.
   - Jill’s dress has over 2,500 hand-sewn beads.
   - Martin planted 1,500 marigold plants.

7. Use commas with quotations to separate the quoted words from the sources.
   - John F. Kennedy said, “Ask not what your country can do for you—ask what you can do for your country.”
   - Sometimes love is stronger than a man’s convictions, wrote Isaac Bashevis Singer.
   - “I never forget a face,” said Groucho Marx, “but in this case, I’ll make an exception.”
   - “Don’t speak to me,” she sighed. “Your words are meaningless.”

8. Use commas with parenthetical words and phrases.
   - John’s new car, in my opinion, is a lemon.

9. Use commas with words of direct address.
   - Adam, do you want to plant the palms this afternoon?

10. Use commas with interjections.
    - Well, that about does it for today.

11. Use commas with coordinate adjectives that modify nouns separately.
    - Coordinate adjectives can be joined with and, or, or and their positions can be changed without altering the meaning of the sentence.

12. Use commas with dates.
    - We felt the salty, humid air near the beach. (We felt the humid, salty air near the beach.)

    - Martha created a three-tiered, white, flower-covered wedding cake for Jason and Renee. (Martha created a flower-covered, three-tiered, white wedding cake for Jason and Renee.)

    - Adam bought two tall palms. (Not Adam bought tall two palms.)

13. Often a character from a mysterious ancient Greek ceramic funeral urn

    - Turned a sherd from a funeral ancient Greek ceramic mysterious urn.

14. Use commas with nonrestrictive elements.
    - Nonrestrictive elements can be omitted without affecting meaning.

    - Frank’s new aquarium, a marine tank, hosts brilliant coral and brightly colored fish.

15. Use commas with parallel words, phrases, and lists or series.
    - The department store offered a suit, a shirt, and a tie for one low price.

    - The kitten stalked the ball of yarn, behind the curtain, over the television, and under the table.

16. Use commas to prevent misreading and to indicate omissions.
    - To Susan, Jason’s choice of costume was unacceptable. (The comma clarifies that there are two people: Susan and Jason.)

    - As soon as we left, Marilyn closed the store. (The comma indicates the omission of the store.)

    - Helen bought a new television: Mark, a laser printer; and Sarah, a stereo system. (Commas indicate the omission of the verb bought.)

DASHES

1. Dashes emphasize material within a sentence more emphatically than commas.

    - I would suggest—or should I say, argue—that all aspects of the present economy must be changed.

    - Three members of the board of regents—even the newly appointed member—voted to reduce the education budget.

    - Adam’s mother—a woman of high energy, intelligence, and wit—always hosts the best parties.

2. In dashes show number, page, or similar parenthetical information.

    - March 22, 1989 — June 3, 1995

    - John 1: 12

    - 7th South St.

3. Dashes show number ranges.

    - pages 21–53

    - April 5–10, 1998

    - 37A–37A

    - 1980:44–49