

A stack of several books with worn spines and pages, set against a red background. The books are stacked horizontally, with the top book's pages visible. The lighting is warm, highlighting the texture of the paper and the binding.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND PUNCTUATION



The
Standard
Deviants®
Core
Curriculum

Instructor's Guide



Films for the
Humanities & Sciences®

Introduction

The Core Curriculum Series is designed to be a complete treatment of major topics covered in an introductory course on a given curricular subject. The series utilizes a unique educational approach that combines the best of visual and tutorial elements. Through high-end graphics, animation, and design techniques, academic concepts are broken down, thoroughly explained, and demonstrated through the creative use of presentational devices and examples.

Each individual subject series consists of up to 10 programs of approximately 20 minutes each. These programs can be integrated into the lesson plans for an entire course or as stand-alone supplements for specific topics, as needed.

Each program is accompanied by an instructor's guide that contains the following elements:

- Program Outline
- Key Terms and Definitions
- Quiz
- Solutions to Quiz
- Suggestions for Instructors

The Program Outline lists the main topics covered in each program, and also relates each program to the overall subject series. For example, if you choose to view Program 3, you'll also see how Program 3 fits into the overall 10-part series.

Program Outline

PROGRAM 1: INTRODUCTION TO GRAMMAR; PARTS OF SPEECH, PART I *page 6*

What is Grammar?

- Standard Edited American English (SEAE)

Nouns, Pronouns, and Adjectives

- Nouns
 - Common*
 - Proper*
 - Compound*
 - Collective*
- Pronouns
 - Personal*
 - Possessive*
 - Demonstrative*
- Singular and Plural Subjects
- Adjectives
 - Articles*

PROGRAM 2: PARTS OF SPEECH, PART II *page 11*

Verbs

- Conjugating
- Verb Tenses
 - Simple*
 - Perfect*
 - Progressive*
 - Perfect progressive*
- Verbals
 - Gerunds*
 - Infinitives*
 - Participles*

PROGRAM 3: PARTS OF SPEECH, PART III; SENTENCES *page 15*

Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections

Sentences

- Simple Sentences
 - Subject*
 - Predicate*
- Phrases
 - Appositive phrase*
 - Verb phrase*
 - Prepositional phrase*
- Objects
 - Direct*
 - Indirect*
 - Predicate nominatives*
 - Nouns of direct address*
 - Appositives*
- Compound and Complex Sentences
 - Independent clauses*
 - Dependent clauses*

PROGRAM 4: FLEXIBILITY IN ENGLISH; COMMON ERRORS, PART I page 20

Flexibility of the English Language

- Syntax
- Words as Different Parts of Speech

Proper Agreement

- Subject/Verb
- Nouns and Articles
- Indefinite articles
- Definite articles

PROGRAM 5: COMMON ERRORS, PART II; ACCEPTABLE ERRORS page 24

Sentence Problems

- Sentence Fragments
- Comma Splices
- Run-on Sentences

Avoiding Muddled Writing

- Tense Shifts
- Vague Pronoun References
- Faulty Parallels

Acceptable Grammar Errors

- Contractions
- Split Infinitives
- Ending Sentences with a Preposition

PROGRAM 6: INTRODUCTION TO PUNCTUATION AND THE END MARKS page 29

What is Punctuation?

End Marks

- The Period
Abbreviations
- The Question Mark
Interrogative sentences
- The Exclamation Point

PROGRAM 7: THE WILY COMMA page 33

The Middle of the Sentence—The Comma

- Separating Items in a List
- Introductory Clauses and Phrases
Interjections
Prepositional phrases
Participial phrases
Independent clauses
Dependent clauses
Subordinate clauses
- Interrupting Words and Phrases
Interrupting expression
Noun of direct address
Appositive phrases
Nonrestrictive clause
- Using Commas for Style

PROGRAM 8: THE SEMICOLON; THE COLON; THE DASH page 37

The Other Middle Marks

- The Semicolon
- The Colon
- The Dash

PROGRAM 9: SURROUNDING INFORMATION page 41

Surrounding Information

- Parentheses
- Quotation Marks
 - Direct quotations*
 - Created works*
 - Words or phrases being defined*
 - Sarcasm*
 - Single quotation marks*
 - Usage rules*
- Brackets
 - Editorial comment*

PROGRAM 10: PUNCTUATION POTPOURRI page 45

Inside the Word

- Hyphen
 - Compound words*
 - Turning groups of words into adjectives*
 - Certain numbers and fractions*
 - Line breaks*
- Apostrophe
 - Contractions*
 - Forming possessives*
 - Plural form*

PROGRAM 1: INTRODUCTION TO GRAMMAR; PARTS OF SPEECH, PART I

Key Terms and Definitions

Grammar is the way we correctly combine words and punctuation to communicate effectively.

Vocabulary is the collection of words used in a particular language.

Standard Edited American English (SEAE) is the established written use of the English language in the United States and associated areas; it is what we might call “correct grammar.”

The **parts of speech** are the groups words are placed in according to their form and function. The parts of speech include nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. It is possible for a particular word to be used as more than one part of speech.

A **noun** is a person, place, thing, concept, or idea.

A **common noun** is a general, run-of-the-mill noun. “Chalk,” “classroom,” and “map” are examples of common nouns.

A **proper noun** refers to a specific person, place, or thing. “Ms. Kowalski,” “White House,” and “Abraham Lincoln” are proper nouns.

A **compound noun** is a noun formed by combining two nouns. These two nouns can be separate, like “bicycle trail,” connected with a hyphen, like “night-light,” or combined into one word, like “classroom.”

A **collective noun** names a group of nouns, but is singular in form. “Family” is a collective noun.

A **pronoun** is a word that is used in the place of a noun. There are many different types of pronouns, including personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, and demonstrative pronouns.

A **personal pronoun** refers to a specific person, place, thing, concept, or idea. The most common personal pronouns are “I,” “you,” “he,” “she,” “it,” “we,” and “they.”

A **possessive pronoun** replaces a noun and shows ownership. The most common possessive pronouns are “my,” “mine,” “your,” “yours,” “his,” “her,” “hers,” “our,” “ours,” “their,” and “theirs.”

A **demonstrative pronoun** identifies the specific noun referred to. Common demonstrative pronouns are “this,” “that,” “these,” and “those.”

An **adjective** is a word that describes or modifies a noun or pronoun. “Big,” “marvelous,” “hungry,” and “silly” can all be used as adjectives.

Quiz

1. SEAE is
- a) the dialect of English spoken by most Americans.
 - b) the written dialect of English favored in American textbooks, newspapers, and most business documents.
 - c) the written dialects of English favored in personal correspondence and informal notes by Americans.
 - d) the spoken dialect of English most common in American business transactions of all kinds.

2. True or False: All speakers of a language use grammar. _____

3. Identify the following words as either **common noun**, **proper noun**, **compound noun**, or **collective noun**. (Note: A word may fit more than one term.)

- Mr. Williams _____
- doorstop _____
- table _____
- carriage _____
- crowd _____
- Juanita _____
- team _____
- honesty _____
- noun _____
- king _____
- flight attendant _____
- Congress _____

4. Mark each of the following as singular (S) or plural (P). Then write the plural form of each singular word and the singular form of each plural word. (Hint: Two of the words on the list are both S and P.)

	S or P	S or P form
media	_____	_____
basis	_____	_____
fish	_____	_____
appendix	_____	_____
artist	_____	_____
series	_____	_____
sergeant-at-arms	_____	_____

5. Fill in the blanks.

Pronoun	Person	Number	Type
I	_____	singular	personal
we	first	_____	_____
this	third	_____	demonstrative
they	_____	plural	_____
yours	_____	_____	possessive
_____	first	singular	possessive
those	_____	_____	_____
_____	second	plural	personal

6. The article is a part of speech in English. Name the three articles: _____, _____, and _____.
7. Fill in the blanks. An adjective _____ or _____ a _____.
(Choose from: replaces; paraphrases; summarizes; describes; verb; preposition; modifies noun; article; deletes; personifies; conjunction)
8. In a short essay, describe at least one difference between “grammar” and “vocabulary.” Then give an example of a difference between the “correct grammar” you learn in school and the grammar you use in informal conversation with friends.

Solutions to Quiz

1. b.

2. True

3. **Common:** table, carriage, honesty, king, noun

Proper: Mr. Williams, Juanita, Congress

Compound: doorstep, flight attendant

Collective: crowd, team, Congress

4. **media:** P; medium

basis: S; bases

fish: S or P; fish or fishes

appendix: S; appendices

artist: S; artists

series: S or P; series

sergeant-at-arms: S; sergeants-at-arms

5. I	first	singular	personal
we	first	plural	personal
this	third	singular	demonstrative
they	third	plural	personal
yours	second	sing. or pl.	possessive
my or mine	first	singular	possessive
those	third	plural	demonstrative
you	second	plural	personal

6. a, an, the

7. describes, modifies, noun

8. The answer will note the distinction in the program between “grammar,” which we define as “how the parts of our language (words and punctuation) fit together to make sentences,” and “vocabulary,” which we define as “the words themselves.” The more sophisticated answers may note a distinction between “syntax” (the grammar of sentences) and “usage” or “semantics,” which refer to the meanings of words. The second part of the answer should show that the student understands this difference between grammar and vocabulary. Unacceptable answers will note a difference between “school” vocabulary and the slang used among friends. Acceptable answers will cite a difference in tenses, number, case, or some other grammatical category, even if the student doesn’t know the correct terms to identify the difference. Sample good answer:

“Grammar” is how we use words to make sentences. “Vocabulary” is just the words by themselves. “Team,” for example, is a word from our vocabulary, but I might use “teams” if it fits in a certain sentence. That’s a grammatical difference, not a difference in vocabulary. When I’m writing a paper for class, “correct grammar” teaches me to say, for example, “Danny and I went to the game against Central,” but in an informal conversation I’d more likely say, “Me and Danny went to the game,” because everyone else talks that way among friends. It’s not school grammar, but it’s still correct in that situation, because everyone understands it.

Suggestions for Instructors

1. This program attempts to teach some basic principles and terminology of Standard Edited American English in a format that students will find entertaining and, we hope, clear. We believe that learning these principles and terms will contribute to students' conscious understanding of the structure of the standard written dialect, as well as something about the structure of languages in general. However, research over many years does not support the idea that such formal study of rules and terms is the best, or primary, means of educating strong writers, readers, speakers, and listeners. Knowing rules and terms can help people refine their practice, but the true basics of language proficiency, in English or in any language, are regular practice of the language—heard, spoken, read, and written—and guidance in that practice by proficient users, such as parents, instructors, and knowledgeable peers. Hence, this video will work best if used as a minor part of a well-rounded program of daily language practice in all its forms.
2. The handful of sample test questions here is intended to stimulate your design of questions suited to your classes. We suggest your using these questions and others in these standard formats to help students learn the principles and terms taught by the program. You'll note that several of the questions (1, 2, 7) reinforce definitions and concepts only. Other questions (3, 4, 5, 6, 8) ask students to learn the principles and terms through application to specific words or situations. We suggest that questions of both types be designed in order to stimulate both kinds of thinking about language. Moreover, questions in these several recognizable formats (multiple-choice, fill in the blanks, matching, true/false) can help create the "game" atmosphere that makes learning enjoyable for many students. This atmosphere can be heightened further by getting students into the act—designing their own questions to stump their friends.
3. The short essay question (8) is intended both to measure students' understanding of the key concepts "grammar" and "vocabulary," and to have them think critically about what "correctness" means in practice in different language situations. We suggest that instructors regularly, both formally and informally, use such questions to push students to ask "why" and "how" they, and all mature users of language, vary their grammar from situation to situation. Asking such questions can help students become much more attentive to how they and others use language; as a result they can become better listeners and readers. Let them know that the best writers and speakers pay the most attention to how the language is used by real people in different contexts.

PROGRAM 2: PARTS OF SPEECH, PART II

Key Terms and Definitions

A **verb** is the “action” of a sentence. Verbs show action or states of being; verbs tell us what the nouns and pronouns are doing.

A verb can take many forms, depending on the subject it’s used with. **Conjugation** is a list of all the forms a verb can take. A singular noun takes a singular verb and a plural noun takes a plural verb.

An **irregular verb** is a verb that does not conjugate in a predictable way.

Verb Tenses

There are four major types of tenses: simple, perfect, progressive, and perfect progressive. Each of these tenses has a past, present, and future form.

The **simple tenses** express what happened, what is happening, and what will happen.

The **perfect tenses** express an action that has a beginning and an end. They are formed by combining the present tense of the helping verb “to have” and the perfect form of the verb.

The **progressive tenses** indicate continuing action. They are formed by adding “-ing” to the end to the main verb and using the proper form of the helping verb “to be.”

The **perfect progressive tenses** are similar to perfect tenses, except perfect progressive tenses describe continuing action. They are formed by adding “-ing” to the end of the main verb, and by using the correct forms of both of the helping verbs, “to have” and “to be.”

A **conditional statement** is used to express uncertainty or speculation. It is often used with the word “if.” Conditional statements also use the “were” form of “to be.”

A **verbal** is a verb form that functions like another part of speech in a sentence.

- A **gerund** is a verb ending with “ing” that is used as a noun. Example: “Biking is a terrific pastime.”
- An **infinitive** is a verb with “to” before it that is used as a noun or an adjective. Example: “To learn a foreign language is my next goal.”
- A **participle** is a verb that is used as an adjective. A **present participle** ends in “ing.” The phrase “flying money” is one example. A **past participle** is the perfect form of a verb and usually ends in “ed.” The phrase “the exhausted clown” is one example.

Quiz

- Circle the verb (or verbs) in each sentence:
 - Verbs denote action or state of being.
 - English words can be nouns, verbs, or other parts of speech in a given sentence, depending on their role in that sentence.
 - “Conjugate that sentence on the board,” the stern instructor demanded.
- Write the tense of the highlighted verb in each sentence:
 - In Twain’s novel, the boy **hides** on the island after he **has escaped** his drunken father. _____
 - Most readers **enjoyed** the book, even after a few communities **had banned** it. _____
 - The book is experiencing great sales, but **could fall** in popularity. _____

- Write the correct form of the verb:

	I am	I go
Present	_____	_____
Past	_____	_____
Future	_____	_____
Present Perfect	_____	_____
Past Perfect	_____	_____
Future Perfect	_____	_____
Present Progressive	_____	_____
Past Progressive	_____	_____
Future Progressive	_____	_____
Future Perfect Progressive	_____	_____

- True or False:
 - A gerund is a form of the verb that acts like a noun in a sentence. _____
 - Participles only occur in the present tense. _____
- Write the infinitive form of each listed verb:
 - Could have given _____
 - Went _____
 - Will have been _____
 - Had had _____

- Circle the gerund(s) and/or participle(s) in each sentence:
 - Dazed, Josh stumbled in his new running shoes.
 - Unafraid, Darya and Tamir went canoeing on the swollen river.
- Combine the following sentences into one sentence that uses a participial or gerund phrase.
The vegetables were cooked at low heat for ten minutes. The chef served them over white rice.

Solutions to Quiz

1. a. denote
b. can be (“depending” is a participle, and so serves as an adjective in the sentence)
c. conjugate; demanded

2. a. present; present perfect
b. past; past perfect
c. present progressive; conditional (or future conditional)

3. Present	I am	I go
Past	I was	I went
Future	I will be	I will go
Present Perfect	I have been	I have gone
Past Perfect	I had been	I had gone
Future Perfect	I will have been	I will have gone
Present Progressive	I am being	I am going
Past Progressive	I was being	I was going
Future Progressive	I will be being	I will be going
Future Perfect Progressive	I will have been being	I will have been going

4. a. True b. False

5. a. to give b. to go c. to be d. to have

6. a. Dazed (participle); running (gerund)
b. canoeing (gerund); swollen (participle)

7. Cooked at low heat for ten minutes, the vegetables were served by the chef over white rice.

OR

The chef served the vegetables, cooked at low heat for ten minutes, over white rice.

NOTE: Some students may try a sentence such as the following: “Cooked at low heat for ten minutes, the chef served the vegetables over white rice.” This nonsense sentence (implying that it was *the chef* who was cooked) perfectly exemplifies the “dangling participle,” a common error we define later in the program.

Suggestions for Instructors

1. Exercises that give students practice in using a variety of verb tenses can enhance their versatility as writers, as well as make their writing more precise. Less sophisticated writers tend to use the simple tenses, thus limiting their ability to vary the sense of time within their essays and stories.
2. Similarly, exercises that teach students to form gerunds and participles, especially gerund and participial phrases, can enhance their skills as both readers and writers. In addition to prefabricated questions such as those exemplified here, we suggest that you have students use as raw material their own drafts and those of classmates. For example, you might choose a sample paragraph from a student essay, project it on an overhead, and engage the class in experimental efforts to reconstruct or combine certain simple sentences into sentences that use gerund or participial phrases.
3. Similarly, pieces by professional writers, chosen either by you or by the students, can be analyzed for how the admired writers vary their verb use. Song lyrics, stories, reviews, magazine features—any genre may be used. Almost any piece of professionally published writing will exhibit some of these features of verb variety, but you may wish to preview any piece that you would use for analysis by the class.

PROGRAM 3: PARTS OF SPEECH, PART III; SENTENCES

Key Terms and Definitions

Adverbs are words that describe verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. They usually answer the questions “how,” “how often,” “when,” and “to what extent.”

Prepositions are words that show relationships between other words, usually nouns. These relationships are usually in terms of time and space.

The **prepositional phrase** is made up of a preposition, and its noun that comes after it.

Conjunctions are words that provide transitions between phrases. Conjunctions can also show how phrases relate to each other. Examples: “and,” “but,” “or,” and “therefore.”

Interjections are words or short phrases that express emotion or surprise.

Syntax is the grammar of the sentence.

In a **simple sentence**, all of the elements within the sentence are part of either the **subject** or the **predicate**.

- The **subject** of a sentence is the part that performs the action of the main verb.
- The **simple subject** is the specific noun that is performing the action.
- The **complete subject** is everything modifying or relating to the simple subject.
- The **predicate** is the verb-part of the sentence.
- The **simple predicate** is the main verb.
- The **complete predicate** is essentially everything that is not part of the complete subject.

A **phrase** is a group of words that is not a sentence and that may contain either a subject or a predicate, but not both.

An **appositive phrase** is a descriptive phrase that either restates a noun in the sentence or adds new information about it.

A **verb phrase** is another way of saying the predicate of a sentence, and usually consists of the main verb plus any helping verbs.

A **direct object** receives the action of the sentence and often answers the question “who” or “what.”

An **indirect object** explains who or what the action of the sentence was done for. It answers the questions “to or for whom” or “to or for what.”

A **linking verb** links a subject to something else in the sentence. Common linking verbs: “to be,” “to become,” and “to remain.”

A **predicate nominative** is a noun that follows a linking verb and renames or identifies the subject of the sentence.

Compound sentences are two or more sentences joined by a conjunction or a punctuation mark, like a colon, semicolon, or dash.

A **clause** is a group of words that has a subject and predicate.

An **independent clause** is a clause that can stand on its own.

A **dependent clause** is a clause that cannot stand on its own.

Punctuation marks

- A **colon** is used when the second independent clause helps explain the first one. Whatever follows the colon helps to explain whatever is before the colon.
- A **semicolon** roughly means “and.”
- A **dash** is used when the second clause carries a surprising element or added information related to the first clause.

A **sentence fragment** is a portion of a sentence that cannot stand on its own.

A **complex sentence** is an independent clause and dependent clause combined.

A **compound sentence** is a sentence that consists of two or more simple sentences.

Quiz

1. Define “adverb.”

2. True or False:

- a. In the sentence “Mary ran fast,” “fast” is an adverb. _____
- b. In the sentence “Mary is fast,” “fast” is an adverb. _____
- c. In the sentence “Mary ran very fast,” there are two adverbs. _____

3. Identify the part of speech of the highlighted word.

Note: Part of speech is determined by the word’s role in the sentence.

- a. **After** the game, the players went out for pizza. _____
- b. **After** Sally read the book about spiders, she dazzled the family with her knowledge.

- c. The cat chased the chipmunk **out** the door. _____
- d. Sally told her brother, “Watch **out** for tarantulas!” _____
- e. **Hi** is a shortened form of “hello.” _____
- f. **Hi!** I’m sure surprised to see you. _____

4. Use an appropriate conjunction in each of the blanks.

The storm advanced on the city, _____ veered off into the suburbs, _____ it dissolved into white, fleecy clouds. The weather channel had forecast the storm, _____ the forecasters had predicted it wouldn’t arrive till evening; _____, most people were prepared when it did arrive.

5. Identify each of the following sentences as simple, compound, or complex.

- a. Caesar came, he saw, he conquered. _____
- b. The bright orange carrots, ripe and flavorful, tantalized the rabbits living just beyond the barbed-wire fence. _____
- c. Martha ran, then stumbled. _____

6. Combine each of the following pairs of sentences into a single sentence with an appositive phrase or clause.

- a. Potatoes grow underground. They may be cooked and eaten or used as seeds.

- b. Johnson led her league in goals scored. She was named MVP and captained the team.

7. Rewrite each sentence so that it contains a direct and an indirect object.

- a. The monkey received the banana from the zookeeper.

- b. The package of stolen goods was sent by mistake from the thieves to the rightful owner.

- c. Jimmy caught the ball that Chris threw.

Solutions to Quiz

1. An adverb modifies or describes a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.
2. a. True; b. False; c. True
3. a. preposition; b. conjunction; c. preposition; d. part of the verb; e. noun; f. interjection
4. The storm advanced on the city, **then** (or **but**) veered off into the suburbs, **where** (or **before**) it dissolved into white, fleecy clouds. The weather channel had forecast the storm, **although** (or **but**) the forecasters had predicted it wouldn't arrive till evening; **however** (or **nevertheless**, **still**, or **notwithstanding**), most people were prepared when it did arrive.
5. a. compound; b. simple; c. complex
6. a. Potatoes, which grow underground, may be cooked and eaten or used as seeds.
Potatoes, which may be cooked and eaten or used as seeds, grow underground.
b. Having led her league in goals scored, Johnson was named MVP and captained the team.
Johnson, who led her league in goals scored, was named MVP and captained the team.
7. a. The zookeeper gave the monkey the banana.
b. By mistake, the thieves sent the rightful owner the package of stolen goods.
c. Chris threw Jimmy the ball.

Suggestions for Instructors

1. Questions 4, 6, and (to some extent) 7 allow the student to apply the grammatical terminology in varied ways. In every case, the student needs to understand the context and then manipulate the language. We suggest that instructors encourage students to try out more than one response, to play with variations, and to observe how other students handle the same items. At the same time, instructors will need to point out to students when a variation doesn't meet the demands of the question. Instructors can get students into the evaluative act by challenging the class to note which variations are correct and which are not.
2. Students who are not native English speakers have a particularly difficult time with prepositions, which often, as the program points out, have highly idiosyncratic meanings when linked with certain verbs. An interesting exercise asks students to find verbs that change in meaning when certain prepositions are added, in effect, to create new verbs. We use variations on "look" in the tape, and this is an especially rich verb to use for such an exercise, but many verbs—e.g., play, point, watch, stand—can be shown to take on esoteric meanings when the preposition changes. This exercise may be disconcerting to the student who expects consistency in the use of vocabulary, but it teaches a valuable lesson in how English works.
3. Question 3 exemplifies how English words can change their purpose from sentence to sentence without changing form. After they have done question 3, ask students how they know that the same word can be a noun in one sentence and a verb in the next and an adjective in yet another context. Two principles should emerge: one, the role of a word can be determined to some extent by noting where it comes in the sentence (its position in relation to other words); two, the role of a word in a sentence also depends on which other words are in that sentence. For example, as the program states, most adjectives in English are positioned before the noun they describe, as in "Monkeys eat ripe bananas." But in a sentence such as "Monkeys eat bananas ripe," we understand that the order of adjective and noun has been inverted because banana is usually a noun and ripe is usually an adjective. Notice that word order alone can't tell us which is the adjective and which is the noun in this sentence: "The monkey ate a banana split." Challenge your students to tell you why.

PROGRAM 4: FLEXIBILITY IN ENGLISH; COMMON ERRORS, PART I

Key Terms and Definitions

Parts of speech

- **Noun:** A person, place, thing, concept, or idea.
Examples: Abraham Lincoln, Illinois, paper, justice.
- **Pronoun:** A substitute for a noun in a sentence.
Examples: I, you, he, she, it, we, they.
- **Adjective:** A word that describes or modifies a noun.
Examples: big, funny, colorful.
- **Verb:** The action of a sentence.
Examples: to run, to teach, to eat, to be.
- **Adverb:** A word that describes a verb, adjective, or another adverb. It often answers the questions “how,” “how often,” “when,” or “to what extent.”
Examples: warmly, only, just.
- **Preposition:** A word that shows a time or space relationship between other words.
Examples: in, out, over, under, around, before, after.
- **Conjunction:** A word that provides a transition between parts of sentences.
Examples: and, but, or, therefore.
- **Interjection:** A word or short phrase that expresses emotion or surprise.
Examples: Wow! Hey! Super!

Subject/verb agreement: The form of the verb should match the subject.

Noun number can be either singular or plural. “I,” “you,” “he,” “she,” and “it” have a singular noun number. “We” and “they” have a plural noun number.

A **collective noun** uses one word to represent a group of different nouns.

Example: “family” represents “mom,” “dad,” “sister” and “brother.”

Indefinite articles: “a” and “an.” Indefinite articles are used when the noun can be any noun. In general, use “a” for nouns starting with a consonant, and “an” for nouns starting with a vowel. A exception is for nouns that sound like they start with a vowel (“*an* hour” but “*a* horse”).

Definite article: “the.” A definite article is used when the noun is specific.

Quiz

1. Underline the simple subject in each of the following sentences:
 - a. The championship team, the Mustangs, runs on to the field.
 - b. There lay the stolen emeralds, partly covered in leaves.
 - c. Is happiness just a dream?

2. Underline the verb (simple predicate) in each of the following sentences:
 - a. The walking child is approaching the school.
 - b. Will the mail arrive today?
 - c. Yesterday, after the storm, the temperature reached eighty.

3. Correct syntax in SEAE is flexible because
 - a. standards in all languages change over time.
 - b. there are many different dialects in American English.
 - c. different kinds of documents follow slightly different standards.
 - d. all of the above
 - e. a and c only

4. True or False:
 - a. In SEAE, the number of the subject must agree with the number of the verb. _____
 - b. In SEAE, when the subject is a collective noun, it almost always takes a singular verb. _____
 - c. Errors of agreement never occur because the writer confuses the number of the subject with the number of the noun in an appositive phrase. _____
 - d. The term “idiom” refers to consistent rules that govern a language. _____

5. Choose the correct (in SEAE) sentence(s) from among the following:
 - a. The family, consisting of six children, two parents, four grandparents, and six aunts and uncles, gather for the holiday meal.
 - b. The Joneses, a large family, come from a distant city.
 - c. The children goes to a public school.
 - d. The school run many courses for adults.

6. Fill in the blanks with the correct (in SEAE) article. Leave the blank empty if no article is needed:

The new student took _____ English language course at _____ local university. She found _____ course to be quite difficult, so she worked with _____ tutor in addition. _____ tutor gave her _____ exercises that augmented what she studied in _____ class. With _____ additional investment of time she was able to pass _____ course with _____ “A.”

Solutions to Quiz

1. a. team; b. emeralds; c. happiness
2. a. approaching; b. Will; arrive; c. reached
3. e. Note: b and d are not acceptable because a standard dialect by definition varies from the many other dialects that always exist in a language. However, you should give a student credit if he or she cogently argues that standard dialects change because of pressure from other dialects over time.
4. a. True; b. True; c. False; d. False
5. b only. In “a,” the singular subject “family” requires the singular verb “gathers.” In “c,” the plural subject “children” requires the plural verb “go.” In “d,” the singular subject “school” requires the singular verb “runs.”
6. The new student took **an** English language course at **the or a** local university. She found **the** course to be quite difficult, so she worked with **a** tutor in addition. The tutor gave her **[leave blank]** exercises that augmented what she studied in **the [or leave blank]** class. With **the** additional investment of time she was able to pass **the** course with **an** “A.”

Suggestions for Instructors

1. Challenge your students to choose an English word and try to use it as each of the following in appropriate sentences: noun, verb, adjective, adverb, and interjection. (Students may add *-ly* to the word to form the adverb.) Have students compare examples and perhaps vote on the most inventive choices.
2. Ask your students to find one or more of the following “errors” in published writing: split infinitives, contractions, sentences ending in prepositions (all of which are defined in the program). Have students compare the examples they’ve found and then lead a discussion of how and why “correct usage” changes.
3. Have students review the agreement errors covered in this portion of the program, and then have them scour published sources until they find one or more of these errors made in printed work or in respected online sources (e.g., online versions of well-known newspapers). Have students use the following questions to analyze the errors and their contexts:
 - a. What kind of error is it?
 - b. Is the error made more than once in the source?
 - c. Have the students seen or heard this error in other sources and other media?
 - d. Does it occur frequently in everyday speech?
 - e. Do they predict that this error will become so frequent that it will cease to be an error?
4. The conventions of agreement covered in Program 4 are difficult for native speakers of many other languages to learn, for several reasons. For example, many languages do not inflect (change the form of) the noun or the verb to denote a change in number. Also, many non-European languages do not use articles before nouns, and so the often subtle, frequently idiomatic, differences between the use of “the,” “a”/“an,” and no article in English with a given noun in a given sentence may confuse non-native speakers for many years. Indeed, the idiomatic nature of much article use confuses even native speakers at times. Hence, it is important for instructors to exercise great patience in teaching and responding to these kinds of errors. For more information on ways to work with non-native speakers of English, we strongly recommend programs and materials sponsored by the international organization Instructors of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) (www.tesol.org).
5. Furthermore, some dialects of American English differ in their rules of subject-verb agreement from SEAE. It has become recommended practice in schools for instructors to respect these differences in syntax rules by noting the non-standard usages not as “wrong” but as what they are—different. The TESOL site noted above can be a useful source for additional information for instructors on ways to discuss and work with these differences in dialect.

PROGRAM 5: COMMON ERRORS, PART II; ACCEPTABLE ERRORS

Key Terms and Definitions

A **run-on sentence** is an error in which two independent clauses are joined together without any punctuation.

A **tense shift** is an error that occurs when verb tenses are switched midway through the sentence.

Vague pronoun reference occurs when the noun a pronoun refers to is unclear.

Parallels are elements in a sentence that perform the same function, and should therefore be formed the same way. **Faulty parallelism** occurs when these elements are not constructed consistently.

A **split infinitive** occurs when one or more words is between the “to” and the verb form of the infinitive. Example: “to boldly go.”

Quiz

1. Which of the following are sentence fragments?
 - a. Who is president of the Booster Club?
 - b. Steven, who is president of the Booster Club.
 - c. Go.
 - d. Fire!
 - e. Because the vegetables were overcooked.

2. Revise the following into acceptable sentences. (Note: one of the following does not need to be revised.)
 - a. She is my friend we like the same music.

 - b. My poem was accepted. Which made my parents proud of me.

 - c. Quoth the raven, "Nevermore!"

 - d. He said he was innocent, I knew he was lying.

 - e. Eating our dinner after the concert, which lasted until eleven.

3. Revise the following paragraph to eliminate unacceptable tense shifts. DO NOT change the first verb in the passage.

I usually plant my vegetables in early spring, well after the last frost had occurred. Last spring, I was planting in March, but, sad to say, the frost catches me and I lose my seedlings. Next year, once my seedlings sprout, I water them at least three times a week and then I thinned them out so that they'll be no closer than four inches apart.

4. Which of the following is a run-on sentence, according to the definition on the program? Revise the run-on into an acceptable sentence.
 - a. He was sad I wasn't.
 - b. Because he was upset over his plants dying and sad because of the team's defeat, he said he couldn't go to the party—the best one of the year—at Sandy's house on Friday the 13th.

5. "Vague pronoun reference" is shown in which of the following?
 - a. The office didn't return her call; the check got lost in the mail; the bank wouldn't give her credit. This was a real problem.
 - b. Tom, who served on the council, lost the election, which was won by Joan.
 - c. Martha asked Carol to help with the planning. She had been secretary for two months at that time.

6. Revise the following list of accomplishments from a student's college application in order to honor the principle of parallel construction:

- Membership chair for the Key Club
- I ran the ticket booth at the class picnic
- Blood Drive
- Essay contest—Honorable Mention
- Happymeadows Garden Center—part-time job

- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____

Solutions to Quiz

1. b, e

2. She is my friend we like the same music.

She is my friend: we like the same music.

My poem was accepted. Which made my parents proud of me.

My parents were proud of me because my poem was accepted.

Quoth the raven, "Nevermore!"

[Correct as is.]

He said he was innocent, I knew he was lying.

He said he was innocent, but I knew he was lying.

Eating our dinner after the concert, which lasted until eleven.

We ate our dinner after the concert, which lasted until eleven.

NOTE: Many other correct variations of each sentence are possible.

3. I usually plant my vegetables in early spring, well after the last frost has occurred. Last spring, I planted in March, but, sad to say, the frost caught me and I lost my seedlings. Next year, once my seedlings sprout (or have sprouted), I will water them at least three times a week and then I will thin them out so that they'll be no closer than four inches apart.

4. a. Among the acceptable revisions:

He was sad; I wasn't.

He was sad, but I wasn't.

Although he was sad, I wasn't.

5. a. "This" is the vague pronoun, since it is unclear which of the occurrences is being referred to as the "real problem."

c. It is unclear whether "she" refers to Martha or to Carol.

6. One of the possible acceptable revisions:

- Chaired the membership committee for the Key Club
- Ran the ticket booth at the class picnic
- Helped conduct the Blood Drive
- Won Honorable Mention in the essay contest
- Worked part-time at the Happymeadows Garden Center

Here the application of parallel construction consists of the past tense of the active verb followed by an object phrase.

Suggestions for Instructors

1. The errors described and illustrated in this program are among the most resistant to change, and they affect native speakers of English and non-native speakers alike. To some extent, the three “sentence boundary” errors (fragments, “comma splice,” and run-on) reflect students’ lack of familiarity with such marks of punctuation as the semicolon, colon, and dash (covered in some detail in Program 8), so some of the examples in the answers to the quiz questions employ one or more of these marks. However, these errors also reflect lack of understanding of the concepts of compound and complex sentences, which are addressed in Program 3. Be prepared to exercise patience in dealing with these errors.
2. Lack of parallel construction usually reflects the inexperienced writer’s lack of awareness of the needs of readers. Exercises like that illustrated in question 6 can teach this principle in a practical way. In addition, have students bring to class pages of their favorite stories, then have them study the pages for examples of how the writers have used parallels. Maybe select one page of interesting published writing, display it with an overhead (or online), and lead the class in a study of how parallel structure is used in the excerpt.
3. Similarly, have students mark in these favorite pages (1) how and when the authors have used contractions (and instances when they have avoided them), (2) when the authors have split infinitives (and when they have avoided splitting them), and (3) when they have ended sentences with prepositions. After these instances have been marked, have the students revise some of these instances in order to remove the contraction, the split infinitive, or the preposition-ended sentence. Perhaps lead the class in such an exercise, again using the overhead projector. Have the students observe and discuss how the revisions change the rhythm, the tone, or the effectiveness of the sentences. Urge the students to keep in mind that these options are not matters of syntactic rule, but are tools that writers can use to vary style.

PROGRAM 6: INTRODUCTION TO PUNCTUATION AND THE END MARKS

Key Terms and Definitions

Punctuation is the system of marks that accompanies words in the making of sentences and paragraphs. It makes sentences easier to read and tells the reader how words are meant to be spoken.

Periods are used to end regular sentences like statements and commands. They can also be used to abbreviate words, like ‘mister,’ that have a common abbreviated form everybody knows.

Question marks are used to end interrogative sentences, or sentences which ask a question. They can also be used with other kinds of sentences to show sarcasm or disbelief.

The **exclamation point** is a stylistic punctuation mark used to end sentences that are meant to show extreme emotion, like excitement, terror, or rage.

Quiz

- Punctuation in English is useful because:
 - along with words, it conveys meaning
 - it can indicate how a word is to be pronounced
 - it indicates relationships between ideas in a sentence
 - it can establish tone and intensity of feeling
 - only a and c
 - a, b, c, and d
- Change only the punctuation of the following in order to drastically change the meaning:
 - “I know who stole the diamonds,” Sherlock Holmes said. “Inspector Lestrade.”

 - The farmer said, “The fox ate the chickens. Of course; not the wolf.”

- Place periods within or after the following abbreviations, where appropriate. Do not place periods within or after abbreviations that don’t require them.
 - Rob (for Robert)
 - PC (for personal computer)
 - etc (for *et cetera*)
 - Rd (for Road)
 - www (for World Wide Web)
 - St (for Street)
- Place a period or a question mark after each sentence, where appropriate.
 - I wonder if we take this form to the office on the right or the office on the left__
 - He wondered, “Do I take the form back to the counter__”
 - She couldn’t believe what she’d just heard. “So Mortimer is the killer__ It can’t be.”
 - Mortimer was the killer__ Of that he was certain.
- An exclamation point ...
 - always make a sentence more emphatic.
 - is intended to heighten the impact or emotional tone of a statement.
 - can’t compensate for the dullness of writing it tries to intensify.
 - should be used frequently to make writing more exciting.
 - a, b, and d
 - b, c
- Mark each of the following sentences as **D (declarative)**, **I (interrogative)**, or **C (command, or imperative)**:
 - Run for help! _____
 - Fire! _____
 - If you come to a red light, don’t turn right unless there is no traffic coming from either the left or the opposite lane. _____
 - You’re telling me that new PC’s are selling for \$100? _____
 - I’m going, and I think you should, too. _____

Solutions to Quiz

1. f
2. a. "I know who stole the diamonds—Sherlock Holmes," said Inspector Lestrade.
b. The farmer said, "The fox ate the chickens? Of course not—the wolf!"
3. a. Rob (for Robert)
b. PC (for personal computer)
c. etc. (for et cetera)
d. Rd. (for Road)
e. www (for World Wide Web)
f. St. (for Street)
4. a. I wonder if we take this form to the office on the right or the office on the left.
b. He wondered, "Do I take the form back to the counter?"
c. She couldn't believe what she'd just heard. "So Mortimer is the killer? It can't be."
d. Mortimer was the killer. Of that he was certain.
5. f
6. a. C b. D c. C d. I e. D

Suggestions for Instructors

1. While people readily admit that they can improve as readers and writers by improving their vocabulary of words, most don't see a similar benefit in improving their vocabulary of punctuation. That's because they aren't aware of the power of punctuation to convey meaning. Indeed, most students never learn most punctuation marks, but stop with the period, question mark, comma, exclamation point, apostrophe, and (perhaps) quotation marks. Further, they try to make commas do all sorts of things that commas can't do, and they drastically misunderstand the apostrophe.

One purpose of this program is to help students see how creative and varied punctuation use can be (we know you're laughing, but we're serious—at least sort of). The questions on this quiz are intentionally tricky, to heighten the “play” aspect of language learning, and to help students see that subtle changes in punctuation can cause major changes in meaning and emotional tone. We encourage you to create exercises with a similar intent.

2. Program 5 features the most common errors in recognition of what are called “sentence boundaries.” As we point out in the “Suggestions for Instructors” there, often such errors as sentence fragments, comma splices, and run-ons are caused as much by lack of knowledge of punctuation as they are by lack of “sentence sense.” We suggest that Programs 5 and 6 be taught in reference to one another rather than as wholly separate units. For example, you may find that students will continue to create sentence fragments as they attempt to apply lessons being taught here about the period, so you may need to replay Program 5 as part of the teaching of Program 6.
3. The questions in the quiz illustrate how mere shifts in end marks can greatly affect tone and meaning in sentences. Create exercises and assignments that reinforce this emotional richness possible by clever use of these simple marks. For example, have students write stories in which they deliberately leave off the end punctuation of their sentences; then have fellow students play with these stories by trying out periods, question marks, and exclamation points in new places. Have them read their new concoctions aloud, letting the punctuation guide their inflection and intensity.
4. To bring home the message about overuse and misuse of exclamation points, give students the challenge of creating dramatic—scary, surprising, hilarious, powerful—fictional or true stories without letting them use that mark. After they have written their pieces and shared them with classmates (perhaps by reading their work aloud), have them read a published work in one of these genres that also accomplishes strong emotion in the reader without the use of exclamation points. By having first made their own attempts through writing, they will be more alert to how the experienced writer accomplishes vivid effects through words and punctuation.

PROGRAM 7: THE WILY COMMA

Key Terms and Definitions

Commas are used to show the reader where to pause and to visually separate parts of a sentence that might otherwise run into each other. The most common uses of commas:

- to separate items in lists
- to separate introductory phrases and clauses from the rest of the sentence
- to isolate interrupting elements from the rest of the sentence
- to add emphasis to a particular word or phrase in a sentence
- to prevent misreadings

An **interjection** is a word or phrase that shows strong emotion, and by itself it usually ends in an exclamation point. Generally, when an interjection is used to begin a sentence, it is followed by a comma.

A **prepositional phrase** is made up of a preposition and the noun that comes right after it, along with any articles or adjectives that are hanging on for the ride. Generally, when a prepositional phrase is used to begin a sentence, it is followed by a comma.

A **participle** is a verb that functions as an adjective in a sentence, and usually ends in either *-ing* or *-ed*. The words associated with a participle in a sentence combine with it to form a **participial phrase**. Generally, when a participial phrase is used to begin a sentence, it is followed by a comma.

A **subordinate clause** is a dependent clause that begins with a subordinating conjunction. Generally, when a subordinate clause is used to begin a sentence, it is followed by a comma.

Nouns of direct address are words that are used to specifically address the person to whom the sentence is being spoken, and are separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

An **appositive** is a word or phrase that restates or elaborates on another noun in the sentence, and is separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

A **nonrestrictive clause** is a dependent clause that elaborates on a noun in the sentence but isn't crucial to understanding the main point of the sentence. Nonrestrictive phrases are separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Quiz

1. The comma is used to ...
 - a. separate items in a list.
 - b. separate an introductory phrase or clause from the main clause.
 - c. separate “interrupting elements,” such as appositives, from the main clause.
 - d. create stylistic effects, such as slowing down a reader to build suspense.
 - e. connect two complete sentences rather than using a period after the first sentence.
 - f. b, c, e
 - g. a, b, c, d
 - h. all of the above

2. Insert commas where they belong. (Remember, some comma use is optional, but some is not. Be ready to back up your choices with evidence from the program.)
 - a. The big brown ugly bear ate the picnic sandwiches.
 - b. The bear that ate the sandwiches was big brown and ugly.
 - c. Ms Jones who entered Congress in 1967 retired last year.
 - d. After retiring last year Ms Jones the former representative moved to France.
 - e. Wow it’s an honor to meet you Ms Jones!

3. Mark sentences “C” that show correct use of the comma. Mark those “I” which use the comma incorrectly.
 - a. ___ The carrots were cooked perfectly, the potatoes were overcooked.
 - b. ___ Speaking tentatively, the senator appeared anxious, fatigued, and confused.
 - c. ___ Apples, pears, rutabagas and yellow squash make a festive dessert.
 - d. ___ After the meal we ate last night, no wonder we’re not hungry this morning.
 - e. ___ Hey, is that Rudy, the kid who got the new bike riding over there?

4. True or False:
 - a. The main purpose of the comma is to tell the reader where to pause. _____
 - b. The main purpose of the comma is to separate parts of a sentence in order to avoid confusing the reader. _____
 - c. Adjectives in a list are always separated by commas. _____
 - d. A restrictive clause in the middle of a sentence should be surrounded by commas. ___
 - e. A participial phrase beginning a sentence should not be followed by a comma. _____

5. Read the following correctly punctuated sentence, then answer the True or False questions which follow the sentence.

My brother, Jim, loves these meals: tuna casserole, franks and beans, lasagna and salad.

 - a. The speaker of the sentence has more than one brother. _____
 - b. The sentence lists four meals. _____

6. In cases when comma use is optional, decide on the basis of these criteria:
 - a. the number of words from the previous comma
 - b. the clarity of the sentence to the reader
 - c. your desire to slow or quicken the pace of the reading
 - d. the length of the introductory phrase or clause
 - e. the overall number of commas in the sentence

Solutions to Quiz

1. g
2. a. The big brown ugly bear ate the picnic sandwiches.
b. The bear that ate the sandwiches was big, brown, and ugly.
c. Ms Jones, who entered Congress in 1967, retired last year.
d. After retiring last year, Ms Jones, the former representative, moved to France.
e. Wow, it's an honor to meet you, Ms Jones!
3. a. I b. C c. I d. C e. I
4. a. F b. T c. F d. F e. F
5. a. F b. F
6. b, c

Suggestions for Instructors

1. Since some comma usage is truly optional and some is strictly governed by convention, students need specific practice in observing comma usage in professional writing and in deciding when to use commas in their own writing. Go beyond the lessons in this program and in this guide by having students analyze, perhaps as a whole class, one or more extended excerpts (a paragraph or more) from one of their favorite stories or essays. Stop at each comma and ask students to state why the comma is appropriate in that spot. Is comma usage in that place required? Is it optional? If optional, what does the writer achieve by using the comma?
2. Experiment with having students create their own “grammar of the comma.” Before having students watch the program and take this quiz, do the analytical exercise noted above. Have students write down the reasons they come up with for justifying the use of each comma in the excerpt. Next, have the class review the list of reasons and then have them speculate on some “rules” for comma use based on the items on the list. There’s a good chance that they will “discover” in this process all or most of the conventions that the program describes (and perhaps more, since the program far from exhausts all comma conventions). After having done this exercise, the class will be primed for the ideas and examples on the tape—and ready to argue for their choices in optional situations.
3. Be alert for one of the most common misuses of the comma—the comma splice—which we cover in Programs 5 and 6. As students create their own work, their individual, small-group, and whole-class analysis of comma usage will probably discover several erroneous uses of the comma in place of the period. If students are attuned to watching for comma use, they are likely to pick up these misuses more quickly and to understand the error. Moreover, once students detect comma splices on their own, they’ll be ready to hear your (and the program’s) explanation and illustration of the other “mid-sentence” punctuation (in particular colons, semicolons, and dashes) that help the writer do correctly and effectively the work that the writer ineffectively attempts with the comma splice.

PROGRAM 8: THE SEMICOLON; THE COLON; THE DASH

Key Terms and Definitions

Semicolons are punctuation marks that show balance between two related sentences. They can be used to link two independent clauses into one big compound sentence. Another important use of semicolons is to separate items in a list, but only when one or more of the items already contain commas.

According to the “**furthermore**” test, when we’re unsure as to whether or not it’s okay to use a semicolon, we can substitute the word “furthermore” for the semicolon to see if the sentences still make sense.

Colons are used to tag additional information to the end of an independent clause. It doesn’t matter what comes after the colon, but the information before the colon must be in the form of an independent clause.

According to the “**and here it is**” test, when we’re unsure as to whether or not it’s okay to use a colon, we can substitute “and here it is” for the colon to see if the sentences still make sense.

Colons have so much implied meaning that occasionally they can serve as the verb in a sentence fragment. These are called **permitted fragments**, and are an allowed sentence form in SEAE.

The **dash** is used to interrupt a sentence in order to introduce some dramatic element. Unlike semicolons and colons, there are no formal rules governing where you can put a dash. Since a dash has so much drama associated with it, they shouldn’t be used too frequently in writing.

According to the “**and oh you’re gonna love this, are you ready, because here it is**” test, when we’re unsure as to whether or not it’s okay to use a dash, we can substitute “and oh you’re gonna love this, are you ready, because here it is” for the dash to see if the sentences still make sense.

Quiz

- In the following sentences, replace commas with semicolons as needed for correctness.
 - The oranges were sour, however, the plums were sweet.
 - Three people were honored: John, who had won the long jump, Paul, who had won the discus, Anne, who had won the dash.
 - When the cub saw the snake, the tiny bear immediately froze.
 - We sent four delegates to the assembly, because there were four clubs represented.
 - The cub saw the snake, it immediately ran back to its mother.
- The semicolon replaces the period when ...
 - the writer wishes to connect an independent and a dependent clause.
 - the writer wishes to show a relationship between two clauses that could stand alone as complete sentences.
 - an abbreviation comes at the end of a sentence.
 - the writer wishes to indicate some doubt about whether or not the clause is independent.
- Use the colon, where appropriate, in the following sentences.
 - The three finalists were Kenyatta, Gelila, and Andy.
 - The panel announced the three finalists Kenyatta, Gelila, and Andy.
 - The judge reached a verdict the defendants owed the plaintiffs two million.
 - Here's what the judge said "I've never seen a clearer case of fraud."
 - The attorneys said the ruling was hasty, unfair, and excessive.
- Mark **colon (C)**, **semicolon (S)**, or **either (E)** after each sentence, to indicate which mark is more appropriate in the blank. Be prepared to argue for your choices by citing evidence from the program.
 - There were four choices for dinner ___ there were five for breakfast. ___
 - There were four choices for dinner ___ swordfish steak, linguini with clam sauce, beef stew, and a vegetable plate. ___
 - The kids did their homework ___ therefore, they could watch the horror movie. ___
 - The leaves thickly covered the yard ___ it was time for raking. ___
 - Here comes the sun ___ warm, bright, and creating strange shadows in the forest. ___
- The dash ... [mark all that apply]
 - can indicate a sudden shift in emotion in the sentence.
 - can do some of the same things as a colon.
 - can come before an independent clause, a dependent clause, a phrase, or a single word.
 - is the same thing as a hyphen.
 - often is accompanied by a second dash in the same sentence.
- Mark **dash (D)** or **comma (C)** after each sentence, to indicate which is more appropriate in the blank(s).
 - The tape you ordered ___ Mr. Carruthers ___ came in last night. ___
 - Is that really your name ___ John Smith ___ or are you really that archfiend we've been tracking? ___
 - The next street ___ I think ___ is the one we're looking for. ___
 - Saturday ___ how wonderful ___ is my birthday! ___
 - The detectives turned the corner ___ a hail of gunfire greeted them. ___

Solutions to Quiz

1. a. The oranges were sour; however, the plums were sweet.
b. Three people were honored: John, who had won the long jump; Paul, who had won the discus; Anne, who had won the dash.
c. When the cub saw the snake, the tiny bear immediately froze.
d. We sent four delegates to the assembly, because there were four clubs represented.
e. The cub saw the snake; it immediately ran back to its mother.
2. b
3. a. The three finalists were Kenyatta, Gelila, and Andy. NO CHANGE
b. The panel announced the three finalists: Kenyatta, Gelila, and Andy.
c. The judge reached a verdict: the defendants owed the plaintiffs two million.
d. Here's what the judge said: "I've never seen a clearer case of fraud."
e. The attorneys said the ruling was hasty, unfair, and excessive. NO CHANGE
4. a. S b. C c. S d. E e. C
5. a, b, c, e
6. a. C b. D c. C d. D e. D

Suggestions for Instructors

1. The semicolon, colon, and dash are among the punctuation marks most neglected by students and, sad to say, instructors. However, professional writers—and proficient writers in business—use them all to good effect. The quiz can be a good start toward gaining your students' attention to these useful marks, but the learning can be best reinforced by having your students use them in their own writing. Have students create, for small group discussion and your review, their own sentences that attempt to use these marks in creative—and correct!—ways. Be patient with their efforts and reward their creative risks, but don't hesitate to point out when the marks are used incorrectly.
2. We've mentioned "comma splices" in several previous programs. Knowing the semicolon can be the best way for students to avoid this error. Indeed, it's been theorized that the comma splice, rather than revealing students' inability to recognize a complete sentence, merely reveals their ignorance of the semicolon. Nevertheless, once students are introduced to the semicolon as a corrective to the comma splice, they often have a tendency to use them to replace commas in other situations where the comma is the correct mark (an example of the common linguistic error known as overcompensation). Merely marking the punctuation usage wrong will not help many students understand the error. You may need to invest some follow-up class time in reviewing rules and situations; one class period in which you work on many examples similar to those in Question 1 can also be helpful.
3. A strategy that may work well with any of the grammar and punctuation programs in the series is to have the students develop their own quizzes to use with their classmates. Students often are intrigued by the opportunity to "turn the tables" on typical teaching by being the ones who create the devilish multiple-choice, true/false, and fill-in-the blanks questions rather than being the ones subjected to the trickery. Instructors who have used this strategy report that students get into lively debates about the design of questions, not to mention the quality of the "right" or "best" answers. Not only does the exercise and ensuing discussion help teach the grammatical principles that are the focus of the quizzes, but the exercise is valuable practice in writing within a very difficult genre. As a culminating part of the project, have the students vote on the best quiz and discuss the criteria they used in making the selection.

PROGRAM 9: SURROUNDING INFORMATION

Key Terms and Definitions

Parentheses are used to insert in a sentence a piece of information that isn't directly connected to the sentence's main point.

The material inside parentheses is called a **parenthetical expression**, and can take any grammatical form.

Quotation marks have four main uses—direct quotations; titles of songs, poems, magazine articles, and short stories; defined words or words that are referred to as words; and words or phrases that are meant to be sarcastic.

Normally **double quotation marks** are used, but if you need to quote material inside other quoted material, use single quotation marks for the inside quoted material.

Brackets are used to insert an editorial comment into a direct quotation. Like parentheses, you can use any grammatical form inside brackets.

An **editorial comment** is a piece of information the writer wants to include in a direct quotation that isn't really a part of the original quotation, like commentary or an explanation.

Quiz

1. True or False:

- a. Quotation marks must be used when quoting a person's exact wording. _____
- b. Parentheses may contain a sentence, a clause, a phrase, or a single word. _____
- c. A period never goes inside parentheses. _____
- d. A comma should not be placed just before a parenthetical expression. _____
- e. An indirect quotation does not require that quotation marks be used. _____

2. Evaluate the punctuation of the following sentences. Correct as necessary.

a. Marco asked, "May I go the party at Sylvia's on Friday"?

b. The statement read (and I am quoting exactly) that "children may not feed candy to the animals between the bars."

c. The boss said, "Get back to work;" however, the new employee ignored the command.

d. After the party, (when everyone else had gone home) Marco stayed to help Sylvia clean up.

e. Did Sylvia really ask, "Marco, will you stay to help?"?

3. Quotation marks ... [mark all that apply]

- a. can be used to show irony or sarcasm.
- b. can be used in academic papers to indicate the titles of complete books and long plays.
- c. should not be used if you are paraphrasing a person's words.
- d. always occur in pairs.
- e. can occur as pairs of single marks (‘) within pairs of the more usual double marks (").

4. Parenthetical statements (also called parenthetical expressions) ... [mark all that apply]

- a. are often used, like the dash, to insert comments into otherwise complete sentences.
- b. can never stand alone as complete sentences.
- c. often contain reference items such as the names of authors and dates of publication.
- d. usually indicate the most important information in the sentence.
- e. should be brief enough to not confuse the reader about the sentence's main purpose.

5. Fill in the blanks with the most appropriate punctuation.

a. The professor said__ __I want you to have read the story __A Good Man Is Hard to Find__ by Monday__ __

b. __Professor__ __ asked Terry__ __do you want us to read the story by Monday's class, or is the title of the story __A Good Man Is Hard to Find by Monday__ __

6. Brackets ...

- a. are used interchangeably with parentheses.
- b. are used within quotations to show editorial comments.
- c. are like parentheses, but are used within quotations.
- d. should be brief enough to not confuse the reader about the quotation's main purpose.
- e. b, c, and d only

Solutions to Quiz

1. a. T b. T c. F d. T e. T
2. a. Marco asked, "May I go the party at Sylvia's on Friday?"
b. The statement read (and I am quoting exactly) that "children may not feed candy to the animals between the bars." NO CHANGE
c. The boss said, "Get back to work"; however, the new employee ignored the command.
d. After the party (when everyone else had gone home), Marco stayed to help Sylvia clean up.
e. Did Sylvia really ask, "Marco, will you stay to help?"? NO CHANGE
3. a, c, d, e
4. a, c, e
5. a. The professor said, "I want you to have read the story 'A Good Man Is Hard to Find' by Monday."
b. "Professor," asked Terry, "do you want us to read the story by Monday's class, or is the title of the story 'A Good Man Is Hard to Find by Monday'?"
6. e

Suggestions for Instructors

1. SEAE conventions for punctuating with quotation marks are logical, with a couple of exceptions. Even proficient writers will sometimes break the rule that states that periods and commas always go inside the second (or closed) quotation mark. Logic would dictate that the period or comma should go outside the closed quotation, as in the sentence

I love to use the word “sesquicentennial.”

Logic would seem to say that since the period is not part of the quotation, the period should follow the quotation mark. No so. Not logical, but a rule just the same. Hence, we suggest that you work with students to help them understand how logic works in punctuation conventions, but also be honest about what is illogical—yet nevertheless needs to be remembered and followed. Also, as we’ve frequently suggested throughout this guide, you can reinforce these lessons by analyzing with the class the uses of these marks in an excerpt or excerpts of published prose that the students enjoy.

2. As with semicolons, colons, and dashes, students rarely employ parentheses in their writing, though, as we’ve tried to show in the program, parenthetical expressions can be creative and interesting insertions into sentences. After they have viewed the program, have students practice creating sentences that use parenthetical expressions in ways that shift or undercut tone. You might collect their attempts and share them with the class. As always, you will need to monitor the experiments for correctness while also encouraging them to take creative risks with their writing.
3. The study of quotation marks will inevitably raise questions about when, why, and how it’s useful or necessary to quote sources in one’s writing. Hence, it might be useful to combine the study of this punctuation with the study of the uses of quotation. For example, discussion of quotation can lead to discussion of the use of dialogue in story writing; certainly, students are always interested in when, how, and why they need to cite sources in their research reports. This discussion in turn can lead—and perhaps should lead—to confrontation with the topic of plagiarism: what does it mean, for example, to quote a person’s words exactly versus paraphrasing the writer’s ideas? If a student paraphrases, does the student have the same obligation to cite a source as when directly quoting? And so forth.

Again, we suggest that part of this discussion of conventions of quotation and citation can be helped by your using excerpts of published writing for analysis by the class. Stories that use dialogue in clever and powerful ways, or nonfiction essays that effectively use quoted material from published sources or interviews, can help students see how and why good writers use both direct quotation and paraphrase—and how they protect their integrity by citing the material they use.

PROGRAM 10: PUNCTUATION POTPOURRI

Key Terms and Definitions

Hyphens have four main uses:

- to write some compound words, like “mother-in-law”
- to transform some groups of words into adjectives, if the new hyphenated adjective comes right before the noun it describes
- to write the numbers between twenty-one and ninety-nine, and to write fractions
- to indicate word breaks at the end of a line of text when typing or writing by hand

Apostrophes have three main uses:

- to combine two words into a contraction, with the apostrophe standing in for letters that have been omitted
- to write the possessive form of nouns
- to write the plural form of letters, numbers, and defined words

Slashes have three main uses:

- to separate lines of poetry
- to show a choice between two or more words
- to write fractions

Ellipses are usually used to indicate omitted text in a direct quotation. They also can show a trailing-off at the end of a sentence, or a long pause.

Quiz

1. Hyphens ... [mark all that apply]
 - a. are used the same ways that dashes are.
 - b. are used within some compound words.
 - c. are used to change some phrases into adjectives.
 - d. are used to connect prefixes to some words.
 - e. usually are used in pairs.

2. According to the program, there is no logical system for knowing when a given compound is written as two words, a hyphenated word, or as a single word. Indeed, two or all three of these options may be correct at the same time. Why would you imagine that this is so?

3. Mark **(C) correct** or **(I) incorrect** after each of the following sentences to indicate if the apostrophe has been used correctly or incorrectly.
 - a. Mr. Johnson's mailbox fell over in the storm. ____
 - b. The Johnsons' letter carrier reported the accident. ____
 - c. There are two Johnson's living at that address. ____
 - d. It's a shame that they had to replace that brand-new mailbox. ____
 - e. The problem was the post; it's foundation was too shallow. ____
 - f. Ms. Ross's mailbox, across the street, didn't fall. ____

4. True or False:
 - a. An apostrophe can never be used in making a plural. ____
 - b. An apostrophe can be used to form the plural of a number, as in "There are two 7's in 277." ____
 - c. When writing a contraction, the apostrophe takes the place of a missing letter or letters. ____
 - d. An apostrophe may not be used to form the plural of a letter, as in "There are two ls in your name, Billy." ____

5. Fill in the blanks.
 - a. the possessive form of each of the following:
dress_____ it____ children_____ bosses_____

 - b. the contraction of each of the following:
will not _____ are not _____ I had _____ they will _____

6. Ellipses ... [mark all that apply]
 - a. indicate where words have been left out of quoted material.
 - b. should always be used when quoting part of a longer passage.
 - c. sometimes indicate that words have been left out in order to mislead the reader.
 - d. include four "dots" (the ellipsis plus a period) when the omission occurs at the end of a sentence.

7. The slash ... [mark all that apply]
 - a. allows the writer to insert editorial commentary into an otherwise complete sentence.
 - b. is used to indicate line breaks in poetry, when the poem is printed as part of a sentence.
 - c. is used like the ellipsis to indicate omitted words.
 - d. is used to indicate options among two or more listed items.
 - e. is used in typing mathematical fractions.

Solutions to Quiz

1. b, c, d
2. The answer should be something like this:

The formation of compound words shows how change occurs in the English language, often quite rapidly. Two words that were formerly thought of as separate, such as “base” and “ball” in the 19th century, or “electronic” and “mail” in the late 1980’s, quickly become thought of as a single term, either because of a technological change (as in “electronic mail”) or because of some other social change, like the emergence of a popular sport (e.g., “base ball”). Over time, and sometimes in just a few years, the two words are spoken and written so much in tandem that they no longer seem to most people to be two words. So people begin to write them as, first, a hyphenated word, such as “base-ball,” or even as an abbreviated and hyphenated word, as in “e-mail.” If the terms continue to be popular, the hyphen eventually disappears and a true compound word is formed, as in “baseball” or “email.” During this transitional period, which can last for years, several options are acceptable.

3. a. C b. C c. I d. C e. I f. C
4. a. F b. T c. T d. F
5. dress’s, its, children’s, bosses’; won’t, aren’t, I’d, they’ll
6. a, c, d
7. b, d, e

Suggestions for Instructors

1. Question 2 asks for some speculation and analysis on the part of students, since there is no explicit discussion of this language process in the program. However, we feel it is a fair question because the students are highly attuned in everyday conversation, reading, and media consumption to the rapid introduction of new terms into the language.

The question is of a type that we feel instructors should challenge students with from time to time. Not only do such challenges respect the students as analysts and further developers of their own language, but they help students to see that “correctness” at any time is always being gradually redefined—and that our common tools of establishing linguistic “right” and “wrong,” such as dictionaries, grammar books, and even punctuation videos (!) can never keep up with the pace of change.

2. With the possible exception of the comma, there is no more misunderstood and misapplied punctuation mark than the apostrophe. Although by convention in SEAE the “s” indicates the possessive form of the singular of most nouns, while simple “s” indicates the plural of most nouns, inexperienced writers frequently use “s” to form the plural of nouns. Have your students look for examples of this misapplication in such examples of popular, unedited writing as commercial signs, personal websites, informal newsletters, and correspondence from community organizations. As in the suggestion just above, treat this search as linguistic investigation: Are there in some cases good reasons why the “s” was used rather than simple “s”? Do students feel that use of “s” in these cases causes confusion of meaning, or is the meaning clear despite the “error”? Do students feel that the usage represents a recognizable change in the language and therefore should be considered a valid option, or do they agree that the usage is in error? Again, such exercises treat students as serious scholars of their own language, not as mere subjects of the dictates of grammarians.
3. As with the semicolon, colon, dash, and parentheses, the creative usefulness of hyphens, slashes, and ellipses is usually not pointed out to students; hence, these tools never become part of their “alphabet,” as it were. Give students opportunities to be creative with, for example,
 - The use of the hyphen in creating new adjectives out of strings of words (e.g., “hippopotamus-infested” or “in-your-face,” both cited in the program)
 - The use of the slash to indicate options among listed items; e.g., “He was so changeable that he considered himself a liberal/conservative/radical/moderate.”
 - The use of ellipses to distort meanings through calculated omissions of words in direct quotations (e.g., the misuse of the movie review in the program).

As we’ve mentioned before, have students share their creations with one another and encourage their creativity, while also being alert to any misunderstanding of the concepts.

Contributors

The Core Curriculum Series: English Grammar and Punctuation was designed by the Standard Deviants Academic Team, including Chris Thaiss, Ph.D., George Mason University, and Charles Fisher, M.A., The Madeira School

Instructor's Guide prepared by Chris Thaiss, Ph.D., George Mason University, headed by David Sturdevant, Director of Writing, MFA, University of Louisville



Films for the Humanities & Sciences

A Wealth of Information. A World of Ideas.

PO Box 2053, Princeton, NJ 08543-2053

CALL 800-257-5126 • FAX 609-671-0266

10614
for use with
11785, 10568