

Mount de Sales Academy Writing Handbook



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PARTS OF SPEECH

Nouns

A *noun* names a person, thing, quality, place, or idea.

- A *common noun* names a general class of things and does not use a capital letter (*book, child, store*).
- A *proper noun* names a specific person, place, or thing and begins with a capital letter (*Huckleberry Finn, Tommy Jones, Publix*).
- A *count noun* names a thing that is countable. Most add –s or –es to become plural (*student, students; puppy, puppies*). Some have irregular plural forms (*woman, women; child; children*).
- A *noncount noun* names things or qualities that are not countable (*water, soil, courage*). Noncount nouns do not form plurals.
- A *collective noun* names a group, but it is singular in form (*team, family, flock*).

Most nouns form the possessive by adding –'s.

Pronouns

A pronoun substitutes for a noun (*he, she, it, them, her, me, us, you*).

- A *personal pronoun* refers to a specific individual or to individuals (*I, you, he, she, it, we, they*).
- An *indefinite pronoun* does not refer to a specific noun (*anyone, everything, no one, somebody*).
- A *relative pronoun* relates a group of words to a noun or another pronoun (*who/whom, whoever/whomever, whose, which, that*, and sometimes *what, when, or where*).
- An *interrogative pronoun* introduces a question (*who, whom, whose, which, what*).
- A *demonstrative pronoun* identifies or points to a noun (*this, these, that, those*).
- An *intensive pronoun* emphasizes a noun or another pronoun (*myself, himself, itself, themselves*). *She herself is surprised by her success.*
- A *reflexive pronoun* indicates that the subject of the sentence also receives the action of the verb (*myself, himself, itself, themselves*). *She cut herself while slicing a watermelon.*

Verbs

A verb expresses an action (*run, grow, think*), an occurrence (*become, happen, occur*), or a state of being (*be, seem, remain*).

A *verbal* is a verb used as another part of speech (*participle, gerund, infinitive*).

Soaring majestically over the lake, the eagle sought its prey. (Participle)

Raising taxes made the politician unpopular. (Gerund)

The young researcher's goal is to cure cancer. (Infinitive)

Forms of Verbs:

- The *base (plain) form* is the dictionary form, used with plural subjects or *I, we, you, or they*. *I celebrate*.
- The *-s form* is used for third person singular and ends in *-s* or *-es*. *He celebrates*.
- The *past tense form* usually ends in *-d* or *-ed*. Irregular verbs do not follow this pattern. *They celebrated*. (Regular) *They spoke*. (Irregular)
- The *past participle form* is usually the same as the past tense form, except in irregular verbs. *They have celebrated often*. (Regular) *They have spoken*. (Irregular)
The past participle combines with forms of *have* or *be* (*have celebrated; was spoken*).
It is also a verbal used as an adjective to modify a noun or pronoun (*boiled peanuts*).
- The *present participle form* always ends in *-ing*.
The present participle combines with forms of *be* (*is swimming*).
It is also a verbal used as an adjective to modify a noun or pronoun (*swimming dolphin*).
The *-ing* form is also a gerund, a verbal used as a noun (*Swimming is my favorite sport*).

Adjectives/Articles

An adjective modifies (describes) a noun or pronoun (*beautiful scenery, prickly thorns*).

Both present and past participles may function as adjectives (*rushing water, broken glass*).

A *determiner* is a kind of adjective that marks a noun and always precedes the noun. Common determiners include:

- Articles (*a, an, the*)
- Possessive adjectives (*my, our, her, his, its, our, your, their*)
- Demonstrative adjectives (*that, these, this, those*)
- Indefinite adjectives (*any, most, many, few, one, several*)

Adverbs

An adverb modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. It usually answers one of these questions: When? Where? How? Why? How often? To what extent? Under what conditions? (*immediately, upstairs, joyfully, occasionally, fully*)

Many adverbs are formed by adding *-ly* to an adjective (*boldly, softly*). But not all words that end in *-ly* are adverbs (*friendly, lovely*), and some adverbs do not end in *-ly* (*often, now, there*).

Not and *never* are considered adverbs.

Prepositions

A preposition usually indicates a relationship between the noun or pronoun that follows it (its object) and another word in the sentence (*around the block, to the quarterback, after dinner*).

Common prepositions include:

about, above, according to, across, after, against, along, along with, among, around, as, aside from, at, because of, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, by, concerning, despite, down, due to, during, except, except for, excepting, for, from, in, in addition to, inside, inside of, in spite of, instead of, into, like, near, next to, of, off, on, onto, on top of, out, out of, outside, over, past, regarding, round, since, through, throughout, to, toward, under, underneath, unlike, until, up, upon, up to, with, within, without.

A preposition always has an object, which must be a noun or pronoun. To find the object, ask what? or whom? after the preposition (*around what? around the block; to whom? to the quarterback; after what? after dinner*). The answer to the question is the object (*block, quarterback, dinner*).

The preposition plus the object and any modifiers make up a *prepositional phrase* (*after our delicious Mexican dinner*).

Conjunctions

A conjunction is a connecting or joining word.

- A *coordinating conjunction* (*and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet*) joins elements of equal rank.
The Braves and the Cardinals played in the World Series. (Joins two subjects)
Janice struggled to understand the chemistry lectures, but she enjoyed the labs.
(Joins two independent clauses)
- A *correlative conjunction* (*both...and; not only...but also; either...or; whether...or*) is a pair of conjunctions joining elements of equal rank.
Both Simon and Nick are superb distance runners.
- A *subordinating conjunction* (*after, although, as, as if, because, before, even though, if, since, so, that, than, that, though, unless, until, when, where, whether, while*) introduces a subordinate clause and indicates its relationship to the rest of the sentence. Therefore, it joins elements of unequal rank.
While the marinara sauce simmered, the cook prepared the ravioli.
- A *conjunctive adverb* (*consequently, furthermore, however, moreover, nevertheless, then, therefore, thus*) is an adverb used as a transitional expression, making a connection between two independent clauses. The two independent clauses must be separated by a period or a semicolon.
Sheryl studied diligently. Therefore, she earned high grades.
Sheryl studied diligently; therefore, she earned high grades.

Interjections

An interjection is a word expressing surprise or emotion (*Oh! Hey! Wow! Hooray! Ouch!*) It is capable of standing alone. Interjections are not typically used in formal writing.

SENTENCES

A sentence consists of at least one independent clause, a word group that contains a subject and a verb and can stand alone. *The diligent student studied.*

Many sentences include additional clauses.

The diligent student studied, and he soon improved his grade. (Two independent clauses)

When the diligent student studied, he improved his grade. (A subordinate clause and an independent clause)

Parts of Sentences

Subject

The subject of a sentence names something. To identify the subject, ask who or what is acting or being described. The simple subject consists of one or more nouns or pronouns. The complete subject includes any modifiers.

A stunning young actress with a beautiful voice won the Academy Award for Best Actress.

(*Actress* is the simple subject; the underlined phrase is the complete subject.)

Subjects may be compound.

The leading actor and the director of the musical won prestigious awards.

Predicate

The predicate of a sentence describes an action by the subject or makes an assertion about the subject. The simple predicate consists of one or more verbs, and the complete predicate includes any words needed to complete the meaning of the verb(s).

A stunning young actress with a beautiful voice won the Academy Award for Best Actress.

(*Won* is the simple predicate; the underlined phrase is the complete predicate.)

This stunning actress is the best new talent to appear in several years.

(*Is* is the simple predicate; the underlined phrase is the complete predicate.)

Predicates may be compound.

My favorite actress sings and dances in the new musical.

Objects and Complements in Predicates

Direct object

A transitive verb is always followed by a direct object, a noun or pronoun that identifies the receiver of the action.

The tornado destroyed the house. (house is the direct object.)

You can identify a direct object by asking *whom?* or *what?* after the verb (*destroyed what?; destroyed the house*).

Indirect Object

In some sentences, a transitive verb may have both a direct object and an indirect object, a noun or pronoun that identifies **to/for whom or what** the action is performed. The direct object and indirect object refer to different people, places, or things.

Sara gave her mother a gift. (mother is the indirect object; gift is the direct object.)

Subject Complement

A subject complement follows a linking verb (*be, seem, appear, become, grow, remain, feel, look, etc.*) and either renames or describes the subject.

It may be a noun (renaming the subject) called a **predicate nominative** or **predicate noun**.

Rory McIlroy is a promising and talented young golfer.

It may be an adjective (describing the subject) called a **predicate adjective**.

Rory McIlroy is exceptionally talented in the sport of golf.

Object Complement

An object complement renames or describes the direct object. It may be a noun or adjective.

Our director considered the spring musical a great success. (Renames the direct object, musical)

Taking exams makes some students nervous. (Describes the direct object, students)

Clauses

A clause is a word group that contains a subject and a verb.

- **Independent (Main) Clauses**

An independent clause contains a subject and a verb and can stand alone as a sentence.

Lightning struck the tall pine tree.

- **Subordinate (Dependent) Clauses**

A subordinate clause contains a subject and a verb, but cannot stand alone as a sentence, because it begins with a subordinating word.

- An *adjective clause* modifies a noun or pronoun. It begins with a relative pronoun (*who, whom, whose, which, that*) or a relative adverb (*when, where*). It usually appears right after the word it modifies.

Lightning, which illuminated the midnight sky, struck the tall pine tree.

- An *adverb clause* modifies a verb, an adjective or adverb, or a whole word group. It begins with a subordinating conjunction (*although, because, if, unless, when*). It usually appears at the beginning or end of a sentence.

Because lightning struck the tall pine tree, it will likely die.

- A *noun clause* functions as a noun in the sentence, usually as a subject, subject complement (predicate nominative), or direct object. It usually begins with *how, who, whom, whoever, whomever, that, what, whatever, whether, or why*.

Why lightning struck the tall pine tree is a mystery. (Subject)

The subject of this article is how lightning develops. (Subject complement)

I would like to learn how lightning develops. (Direct object)

Phrases

A phrase is a word group that lacks either a subject or verb, or both. It cannot stand alone as a sentence. It functions as an adjective, adverb, or noun in a sentence.

- A **prepositional phrase** consists of a preposition and an object, plus any modifiers. It usually functions as an adjective or adverb.

The meteor in the night sky amazed the campers. (adjective)

I peeked around the corner. (adverb)

- A **verbal phrase** is made from a verb which functions as an adjective, adverb, or noun in the sentence.

Note: Verbals cannot serve as the main verb in a sentence.

- A **participial phrase** is a verbal phrase made from a present participle or a past participle and its object, complements, or modifiers. It always functions as an adjective, describing a noun or pronoun.

An angry bear, protecting her cubs, growled at the approaching hiker.

(Present Participle)

Exhilarated by their win in overtime, the players celebrated.

(Past Participle)

- A **gerund phrase** is a verbal phrase made from a gerund and its objects, complements, or modifiers. It always functions as a noun.
Keeping his crew safe is the captain's first priority.
- An **infinitive phrase** is made from the word *to* followed by the base form of the verb, plus any objects, complements, or modifiers. It can function as an adjective, an adverb, or a noun.
A daily jog through the park satisfied his dog's need to run. (Adjective)
Mom went to the store to buy milk. (Adverb)
To run through the park is my dog's favorite activity. (Noun)
- An **appositive phrase** is a noun phrase that renames or identifies another noun in the sentence.
Lady Gaga, her favorite performer, is appearing on tonight's show.
- An **absolute phrase** consists of a noun or pronoun followed by modifiers, often a participle or participial phrase or prepositional phrase. It modifies a whole clause or sentence.
Her arms pumping furiously, Juli raced toward the finish line.
Absolute phrases can often be identified as phrases which can be made into independent clauses by adding *was* or *were*. (*Her arms were pumping furiously* would be an independent clause.)

Types of Sentences

- A **simple sentence** consists of a single main clause and no subordinate clause.
A gentle breeze blew through the pine trees.
- A **compound sentence** consists of two or more main clauses and no subordinate clause.
A breeze blew through the trees, and the sun sparkled on the lake.
- A **complex sentence** consists of one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses.
When the eagle flew overhead, the mother duck moved her ducklings under the pier.
- A **compound-complex sentence** consists of two or more main clauses and at least one subordinate clause.
When thunder rumbled in the distance, the lifeguard quickly ordered all swimmers out of the water, and the children grudgingly obeyed, although they were disappointed.

A sentence may also be categorized as

declarative (a statement)	<i>The 2012 Summer Olympics were held in London.</i>
interrogative (a question)	<i>Which team won the gold medal in soccer?</i>
imperative (a command)	<i>Watch this video replay carefully.</i>
exclamatory (an exclamation)	<i>Michael Phelps won his eighteenth gold medal!</i>

SENTENCE GRAMMAR

Sentence fragments

Treating a piece of a sentence as if it were a complete sentence creates a fragment. A complete sentence must consist of at least one independent clause, which means it must have a subject and a verb and express a complete thought.

A subordinate clause standing alone is a fragment. (*When Molly came home from school.*)

A phrase may be incorrectly written as a fragment. (*Riding on the largest roller coaster in the world. The best vacation I have ever taken.*)

Often a fragment may be repaired by combining it with a nearby sentence. It may be repaired by adding a subject or verb, or both. It may need to be rewritten.

Occasionally a sentence fragment is written intentionally for emphasis and may be appropriate. However, it is rarely acceptable in academic writing and should be avoided.

Run-on Sentences (Fused Sentences and Comma Splices)

Run-on sentences are independent clauses that have not been joined correctly. There are two acceptable ways to join sentences into a compound sentence:

1) with a comma and a coordinating conjunction (*and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet*) or

2) with a semicolon, or occasionally with a colon or dash.

- In a *fused sentence*, two independent clauses are joined with no punctuation or conjunction.
The heat is sweltering today I think I'll go for a swim.
- In a *comma splice*, two independent clauses are joined with a comma, but no coordinating conjunction.
The heat is sweltering today, I think I'll go for a swim.
The heat is sweltering today, therefore, I think I'll go for a swim. (*Therefore* is a conjunctive adverb, not a coordinating conjunction.)

Comma splices are sometimes seen in popular, less formal writing and advertising, but are not appropriate in academic and professional writing.

Repair a run-on sentence by:

- Adding a comma and a coordinating conjunction to a fused sentence.
The heat is sweltering today, so I think I'll go for a swim.
- Adding a coordinating conjunction to a comma splice
The heat is sweltering today, so I think I'll go for a swim.
- Adding a semi-colon (or occasionally a colon or dash)
The heat is sweltering today; I think I'll go for a swim.
- Separating the clauses into two sentences
The heat is sweltering today. I think I'll go for a swim.
- Revising the sentence, perhaps by making one of the clauses subordinate
Because the heat is sweltering today, I think I'll go for a swim.

USING VERBS

Regular/Irregular Verbs

- For a *regular verb*, the past-tense and past-participle forms are the same, ending in *-ed* or *-d*
- An irregular verb does not follow this pattern.
Remember that the past participle is used after a form of *be* or *have*, or as an adjective.

You may consult a dictionary to find the proper past tense and past participle forms for a word.

Common Irregular Verbs

BASE FORM	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke, awaked	awaked, awoke
beat	beat	beaten, beat
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
bend	bent	bent
bite	bit	bitten, bit
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
cut	cut	cut

deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
dive	dove	dove
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamed, dreamt	dreamed, dreamt
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
fly	flew	flown
forget	forgot	forgotten
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	gotten, got
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
hang (suspend)	hung	hung
hang (execute)	hanged	hanged
hear	heard	heard
hide	hid	hidden
hold	held	held
keep	kept	kept
know	knew	known
lay (put)	laid	lain
lead	led	led
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie (recline)	lay	lain
lose	lost	lost
pay	paid	paid
prove	proved	proved, proven
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
shoot	shot	shot
shrink	shrank, shrunk	shrunk, shrunken
sing	sang	sung

sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid
speak	spoke	spoken
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
sting	stung	stung
strike	struck	struck
swear	swore	sworn
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
throw	threw	thrown
wake	woke, waked	waken, woke
wear	wore	worn
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

Helping verbs (Auxiliary verbs)

A *helping verb* is combined with a main verb to create a *verb phrase*.

A helping verb is required when the main verb ends in *-ing*, the main verb is *been* or *be*, or the main verb is a past participle.

Common helping verbs:

- Forms of be (*be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been*)
- Forms of have (*have, has, had, having*)
- Forms of do (*do, does, did*)
- Modals (*can, may, shall, will, could, might, should, must, would*)

Transitive/Intransitive Verbs

An **intransitive verb** does not take a direct object. *The dog howled.*

If there are words after an intransitive verb, they are adverbs or function as adverbs.

The dog howled incessantly at the moon.

A **transitive verb** requires a **direct object**, a noun or pronoun that identifies the receiver of the action.

The tornado destroyed the house. (house is the object.)

You can identify a direct object by asking *whom?* or *what?* after the verb (*destroyed what?; destroyed the house*).

In some sentences, a transitive verb may have both a direct object and an **indirect object**, a noun or pronoun that identifies **to/for whom or what** the action is performed. The direct object and indirect object refer to different people, places, or things.

Sara gave her mother a gift. (mother is the indirect object; gift is the direct object.)

You can consult a dictionary to determine if a verb is transitive or intransitive.

Linking Verbs

A linking verb links the subject to a **subject complement**, a word (noun or adjective) that renames or describes the subject. The most common linking verbs are the forms of *be* (*be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been*); other words that may function as linking verbs include: *seem, become, smell, taste, look, appear, grow, remain, sound, prove, and feel*.

Tenses of Verbs

Simple Tenses

- **Present tense** (Use for an action that is occurring now, occurs regularly, or is generally true.)

I	learn, drive, am	we	learn, drive, are
you	learn, drive, are	you	learn, drive, are
he/she/it	learns, drives, is	they	learn, drive, are
- **Past tense** (Use for an action completed in the past.)

I	learned, drove, was	we	learned, drove, were
you	learned, drove, were	you	learned, drove, were
he/she/it	learned, drove, was	they	learned, drove, were
- **Future tense** (Use for an action that will occur in the future)

I, you, he/she/it, we, they	will learn, will drive, will be
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Perfect Tenses

The perfect tenses express an action that was or will be completed at the time of another action. Use the **past participle form** of the verb, **preceded by a form of *have***.

- **Present perfect** (Use for an action that began in the past and is linked to the present.)
I, you, we, they have learned, have driven, have been
he/she/it has learned, has driven, has been
- **Past perfect** (Use for an action that was completed before another past action.)
I, you, he/she/it, we, they had learned, had driven, had been
- **Future perfect** (Used for an action that will be completed before another future action.)
I, you, he/she/it, we, they will have learned, will have driven, will have been

Progressive Tenses

The progressive tenses express a continuing action. Use the **present participle (-ing) form** of the verb, **preceded by a form of *be***.

- **Present progressive** (Use for an action in progress)
I am learning, am driving, am being
he/she/it is learning, is driving, is being
you, we, they are learning, are driving, are being
- **Past progressive** (Use for an action in progress at a specific past time.)
I, he/she/it was learning, was driving, was being
you, we, they were learning, were driving, were being
- **Future progressive** (Used for an action that will be in progress at a certain time in the future)
I, you, he/she/it, we, they will be learning, will be driving, will be being

Perfect Progressive Tenses

The perfect progressive tenses express a continuous past action that either continues in the present or was or will be completed before another specified time. Use the **present participle (-ing)** form of the verb, **preceded by a form of have plus a form of be**.

- **Present perfect progressive** (Use for a continuous action that began in the past and continues in the present.)

I, you, we, they	have been learning, have been driving, have been being
he/she/it	has been learning, has been driving, has been being

- **Past perfect progressive** (Use for a continuous action that began and continued in the past, until some other past action occurred.)

I, you, he/she/it, we, they	had been learning, had been driving, had been being
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- **Future perfect progressive** (Use for an action that is or will be in progress before another specified time in the future.)

I, you, he/she/it, we, they	will have been learning, will have been driving, will have been being
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Active/Passive Voice

In active voice, the subject of the sentence does the action. *Lightning struck the tree.*

In passive voice, the subject receives the action. *The tree was struck by lightning.*

Usually, it is best to choose active verbs. The active voice is stronger, clearer, and more concise.

The passive voice is useful when the subject is unknown or when the actor is less important than the recipient of the action.

In some academic writing, **notably in science lab reports**, the passive voice is required.

Mood of Verbs

Mood indicates the writer’s attitude toward what he or she is writing.

- The *indicative mood* is used for facts, opinions, and questions.
I walked to school this morning.
- The *imperative mood* is used for orders or advice. The subject, you, is omitted but understood.
Close the door behind you.
- The *subjunctive mood* is used for wishes, conditions contrary to fact, and requests or recommendations.
 - For present wishes and contrary-to-fact clauses, (which usually begin with *if* or *unless*), use the past-tense verb form; for *be*, always use *were*, even with a singular subject.
I wish that I *played* the guitar.
If I *were* a millionaire, I would travel the world.
 - For past wishes and contrary-to-fact clauses (which usually begin with *if* or *unless*), use the past-perfect tense verb form (*had* + past participle).
I wish I *had seen* the movie.
If I *had been* awake, I would have seen it.
 - For a request or recommendation (in *that* clauses that follow *ask*, *insist*, *recommend*, *urge*, *require*), use the base form of the verb.
Ms. Carlson *insists that* her students *write* in pencil.
We suggest that each paper *be* signed and dated.
Mom *requires that* Steven *eat* his vegetables.

SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT

In the present tense, the subject and verb of a sentence should agree in number (singular or plural) and person (first, second, or third person). The ending –s is added to a verb if the subject is third person singular; otherwise the verb takes no ending.

PERSON	NUMBER	
	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>First</i>	I play.	We play.
<i>Second</i>	You play.	You play.
<i>Third</i>	He/she/it plays.	They play.
	The dog plays.	Dogs play.

The verb *have* changes to *has* with third person singular subjects (*he has*, *she has*).

The verb *be* follows a different pattern:

PRESENT-TENSE FORMS OF BE		PAST-TENSE FORMS OF BE	
I am	we are	I was	we were
you are	you are	you were	you were
he/she/it is	they are	he/she/it was	they were

Words between Subject and Verb

- The subject is sometimes separated from the verb by other words. To verify agreement, identify the simple subject of the sentence, and be sure that the verb agrees with the simple subject, not with another noun that comes in between.
Several choices on the extensive dinner menu look delicious (choices is the simple subject, not menu).
The substitution of vegetables for French fries makes the meal more healthful (substitution is the simple subject, not vegetables or French fries).
The lasagna, as well as several of the burgers, sounds appealing (lasagna is the simple subject; burgers is not part of the subject).
- Verify subject-verb agreement by mentally taking away the modifiers. Think: “choices look”, “substitution makes”, “lasagna sounds”.

Subjects joined with *and*

- Compound subjects joined with *and* are usually plural (*Bob and Sam play on the same team*),
- unless the parts of the subject form a single unit (*Red beans and rice is offered on Jeanene’s menu*),
- or when preceded by the adjective *each* or *every* (*Every boy and girl deserves a good education*).

Subjects joined with *or* or *nor*

- In compound subjects joined with *or* or *nor*, make the verb agree with the part of the subject nearer to the verb (*Neither the teacher nor the students were pleased with the outcome of the experiment*).

Indefinite pronouns as subjects

- Most indefinite pronouns are singular: *anybody, anyone, anything, each, either, everybody, everyone, everything, neither, nobody, no one, somebody, someone, something*.
- These indefinite pronouns may be singular or plural, depending on the noun or pronoun they refer to: *all, any, none, some*.
- These indefinite pronouns are always plural: *both, few, many, several*.

Collective nouns as subjects

Collective nouns name a group of individuals or things.

- Collective nouns are usually treated as singular to emphasize the group or unit. *The team plays well under pressure.*
- But if the group's members are acting separately, use a plural verb. *The team leave for their homes immediately after the game.*
- There are some noncount nouns which are collective nouns, but always take plural verbs, including *clergy, military, people, police*, and any collective noun that comes from an adjective, such as *the poor, the rich, the elderly*. If you mean one representative of the group, rewrite the noun (*police officer, elderly person*).

Subjects after verbs

- Sometimes the sentence order is inverted so that a subject follows a verb, easily causing confusion. The subject always follows the verb in sentences beginning with *there is/was* or *there are/were*.
Around the corner lurk countless dangers. (The subject is *dangers*, which is plural.)
There are definitions and solutions in the back of the book. (The subject, *definitions and solutions*, is plural.)

Subjects with plural forms, but singular meanings

- Words such as *athletics, economics, mathematics, physics, politics, statistics, measles, and news* seem to be plural but are usually singular in meaning.
- Some of these words, especially *economics, mathematics, politics, and statistics*, also have plural meanings.
Statistics is a difficult course. *Statistics are sometimes misused for political purposes.*

Who, which, that as subjects

- When the relative pronouns *who, which, and that* are used as subjects of subordinate clauses, the verb agrees with the antecedent of the pronoun.
Choose a friend who is loyal and trustworthy. (The antecedent of *who* is *friend*.)
- When the clause begins with *one of the*, consider the meaning of the sentence. Do not assume that *one* is the antecedent.
Loyalty is one of the traits that make a great friend. (The antecedent of *that* is *traits*, not *one*.)

USING PRONOUNS

Pronoun Antecedent Agreement (singular vs. plural)

The antecedent of a pronoun is the word the pronoun refers to.

A pronoun and its antecedent should both be singular or both be plural.

Singular: *The student completed his homework.*

Plural: *The students completed their homework.*

Most errors occur when the antecedent is an indefinite pronoun, generic noun, or collective noun.

- **Indefinite pronoun as antecedent.**

These indefinite pronouns should be considered singular: *anybody, anyone, anything, each, either, everybody, everyone, everything, neither, nobody, no one, nothing, somebody, someone, something.*

Incorrect: *When someone studies for a test, they are likely to perform well.*

Repair it by replacing *they* with *he* or *she*, or replacing *their* with *his* or *hers*.

Correct: *When someone studies for a test, he or she is likely to perform well.*

If the sentence sounds wordy or awkward, make the antecedent plural (*When students study for a test, they are likely to perform well*), or rewrite the sentence (*Someone who studies for a test is likely to perform well.*)

- **Generic noun as antecedent**

A generic noun represents a typical member of a group, such as *a student*, or any member of a group, such as *any writer*. Because the noun represents an individual, it is singular. Use the same repairing strategies listed above.

Incorrect: *Every successful entrepreneur works long hours to achieve their goals.*

Correct: *Every successful entrepreneur works long hours to achieve his or her goals.*

- **Collective noun as antecedent**

Collective nouns are usually singular, emphasizing the group functioning as a unit.

The team celebrated its victory in the locker room.

If the members of the group are acting individually, the noun is considered plural.

The team put their uniforms in their lockers.

Pronoun reference (Clarity)

A pronoun should refer clearly to one specific antecedent and should be placed close to it, so that the reader can identify the antecedent and so that the sentence's meaning is clear.

- **Make the pronoun refer clearly to one antecedent.**

Confusing: *Mark Zuckerberg is sometimes compared to Bill Gates, but he is much more successful.* (Who is much more successful?)

Clear: *Mark Zuckerberg is sometimes compared to Bill Gates, but Gates is much more successful.*

- **Make the pronoun refer clearly to a specific antecedent, not a vague or implied one.**
This, that, which, or it should refer to a specific noun, not a whole word group.
Confusing: *After enduring her mother's scolding, Amy avoided her for the rest of the day.*
(There is no specific noun as the antecedent of *her*. The antecedent is implied in *mother's*.)

Clear: *Because her mother had scolded her, Amy avoided her for the rest of the day.*

Confusing: *I slept late and ate a big breakfast before meeting my friends, which was a special treat.*
(The antecedent of *which* is unclear. Which was the treat – sleeping late, eating breakfast, or meeting my friends?)

Clear: *I slept late and ate a big breakfast before meeting my friends. This relaxing day was a special treat.*
- **Place a pronoun close to its antecedent .**
Confusing: *Adam caught a fish in the lake that was unusually large.* (What is unusually large, the fish or the lake?)
Clear: *In the lake, Adam caught a fish that was unusually large.*
- **Use *which* or *what* for things, *who* or *whom* for people**
I have a favorite warm sweatshirt that keeps me warm on a winter evening.
There are too many people who text while they are driving.
- **Avoid indefinite use of *you*, *it*, and *they* in academic writing.**
 - Use *you* only when referring to the reader.
You may be able to substitute *one* or *someone*. It may be better to reword the sentence.
Incorrect: *You should apply sunscreen to protect your skin from burning.*
Correct: *One should apply sunscreen to protect one's skin from burning.*
It is wise to apply sunscreen to protect skin from burning.
 - Avoid constructions such as: *On the website, it says that....*
Incorrect: *In the first chapter of the novel, it describes the town of Maycomb.*
(There is no specific antecedent of *it*.)
Correct: *The first chapter of the novel describes the town of Maycomb;* or
In the first chapter of the novel, Harper Lee describes the town of Maycomb.

Pronoun case

The case of a pronoun shows the reader how it functions in a sentence.

- A pronoun in *subjective case* functions as a subject or subject complement.
- A pronoun in *objective case* functions as an object of the verb or preposition.
- A pronoun in *possessive case* shows ownership or source.

SUBJECTIVE CASE	OBJECTIVE CASE	POSSESSIVE CASE
I	me	my
we	us	our
you	you	you
he/she/it	him/her/it	his/her/her
they	them	their

- When the pronoun is part of a **compound subject or object**, use the same case form as you would if each noun or pronoun stood alone.

Incorrect: *Molly and me went to the concert Friday night.*

Correct: *Molly and I went to the concert Friday night.*

Incorrect: *Her and I went to the concert Friday night.*

Correct: *She and I went to the concert Friday night.*

Incorrect: *Will you come to the party with Sam and I?*

Correct: *Will you come to the party with Sam and me?*

Test for the correct pronoun by stripping away all of the compound structure except the pronoun, or write a separate sentence for each part of the compound.

(*Me went to the concert...*; *Her went to the concert ...*are incorrect.)

(*Will you come to the party with I?* is incorrect.)

- When the pronoun is part of an **appositive** (a noun phrase that renames a noun or pronoun), the appositive has the same function as the word it renames.

Incorrect: *The class officers, Shane, Cheryl, and me, planned the homecoming dance.*

Correct: *The class officers, Shane, Cheryl, and I, planned the homecoming dance.*

The appositive *Shane, Cheryl, and me/I* functions as the subject, because the word it renames, *officers*, is the subject.

Test for the correct pronoun by stripping away all of the compound structure except the pronoun and all of the words that the appositive renames.

(*Me planned the homecoming dance* is incorrect.)

- **Who or Whom?**

Who or *whoever* is used for a subject or subject complement.

Whoever prepared this delicious dinner is a master chef.

Her favorite player is whoever scores a touchdown in the game.

Whom or *whomever* is used for an object of a verb or preposition.

Whomever the American Idol judges reject is eliminated from competition.

To whom shall I address this letter?

- Use the *subjective case* for a **subject complement** (a pronoun that renames the subject after a linking verb).

The best students in the class are she and Tommy.

It is they who deserve the honor.

- **Pronoun before gerund.**

Use the *possessive case* of a pronoun to modify a gerund.

The chances of your being hit by lightning are slim.

- **Pronoun after *than* or *as*. (Elliptical constructions)**

In a comparison beginning with *than* or *as*, there are often words left out, but understood. To test for the correct pronoun, finish the sentence.

My sister is much taller than I. (...than I [am])

Sometimes I think Mom loves my sister more than me. (...than [she loves] me)

- **We or us before a noun**

When adding *we* or *us* before a noun, choose the pronoun that would be correct if the noun were omitted.

We teenagers often communicate through Facebook.

Social networking is important to us teenagers.

(Test by omitting *teenagers* from each sentence.)

USING ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

Use **adjectives** to modify nouns or pronouns.

Usually the adjective precedes the noun. *The black dog barked.*

An adjective can also function as a subject complement (a predicate adjective) following a linking verb.

The dog was black.

Use **adverbs** to modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

Common errors:

- Using adjectives instead of adverbs to modify verbs.
Incorrect: *Listen careful so that you hear all the instructions.*
Correct: *Listen carefully so that you hear all the instructions.*
Incorrect: *I am real happy that you came to see me.*
Correct: *I am really happy that you came to see me.*
- *Good/well*
Good is always an adjective.
Well is an adverb, unless it means “fit” or “healthy.”
I wrote a good essay.
I wrote well.
I feel well today.
- *Bad/badly*
Bad is an adjective and must modify a noun or pronoun.
Badly is an adverb and must modify a verb, adjective, or adverb.
They felt bad about their poor performance. (Bad modifies they.)
They performed badly in the competition. (Badly modifies performed.)

Comparative/Superlative

Most adjectives and adverbs have comparative and superlative forms.

Use the comparative form (-er or *more*) to compare two things.

My team is stronger than your team.

Use the superlative form (-est or *most*) to compare three or more things.

My team is the strongest team in the city.

Forming comparative or superlative adjectives:

For most one- and two- syllable adjectives, use the endings -er or -est.

calmer, hotter, happiest, brightest.

With longer adjectives, use *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*.

more invigorating, most vulnerable, less obvious, least interesting

Forming **comparative or superlative adverbs**:

Some one-syllable adverbs take the endings *-er* and *-est*

faster, fastest; sooner, soonest

Longer adverbs and all adverbs ending in *-ly* use *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*.

less often, more quickly, most artistically

Consult a dictionary if you are not sure of the correct ending.

Never use both *-er* and *more*; never use both *-est* and *most*.

If an adjective or adverb has an **absolute meaning** (*perfect, unique, dead, impossible, infinite*) it cannot logically be compared. Do not make comparative or superlative forms of these words.

Irregular Adjectives and Adverbs

Positive (Basic form)	Comparative	Superlative
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
little	littler, less	littlest, least
many	more	most
some	more	most
much	more	most
well	better	best
badly	worse	worst

PUNCTUATION

USING COMMAS

Commas help the reader and make writing less confusing. Use a comma in the following situations:

- **Before the coordinating conjunction that joins the independent clauses in a compound sentence.** The comma separates the two main clauses. The coordinating conjunction links the clauses. Use the comma BEFORE the conjunction, NOT AFTER it.
I must get up at 7:00, or I will be late for school.
Sea turtles lay their eggs in a nest on the beach, and the hatchlings must find their way to the sea.

Some writers omit the comma between very short clauses, but only if there is no chance of misreading. It is always correct to use the comma.

- **Setting off introductory elements.** Use a comma after any word, phrase, or clause that precedes the subject of the sentence.

When it is used respectfully, Facebook enhances communication. (Subordinate clause)

In the night sky, the North Star shines brightly. (Prepositional Phrase)

Splashing into the water, the dog swam to retrieve his ball. (Participial phrase)

Eventually, fashion fads become less popular. (Transitional expression)

Some writers omit the comma after a very short introductory element that does not seem to require a pause. It is never wrong, however, to use the comma, and we recommend using it after any introductory element.

- **Setting off nonrestrictive (nonessential) elements.** A nonrestrictive element is not essential to the meaning of the sentence. It may enhance the clarity of the sentence, but the meaning of the sentence would not be changed significantly if this element were removed. Set off this element with a comma; if it occurs in the middle of a sentence, use a comma both before and after the element.

The following elements may be either restrictive or nonrestrictive, and as a writer, you must identify how the element functions in the sentence.

- **Adjective clauses**

Nonrestrictive: *Simone, who earned a high GPA, was an exceptional student and athlete.*

Restrictive: *The students who earned high GPAs were exempted from taking final exams.*

- **Adjective or Adverb phrases (Prepositional or Participial Phrases which function as adjectives)**

Nonrestrictive: *The rookie catcher missed the ball and watched it bounce away from him, behind home plate.*

Her seats, behind home plate, offered the best views of the infielders.

Restrictive: *The seats behind home plate are the most expensive in the park.*

Nonrestrictive: *Our star relief pitcher, warming up in the bullpen, is ready to come into the game.*

Restrictive: *I hope that the pitcher warming up in the bullpen will perform better than the one currently on the mound.*

- **Appositives/Appositive Phrases**

Nonrestrictive: *President Barack Obama's wife, Michelle, campaigns against childhood obesity.*

Restrictive: *President Barack Obama's daughter Sasha is his oldest child, and her sister Malia is several years younger.*

The following elements are always considered nonessential and should be set off by a comma or commas.

- **Absolute phrases**
A huge grin on her face, she greeted the long-expected guest.
- **Parenthetical and transitional expressions.**
The problem, in my opinion, will not be solved quickly.
- **Contrasting elements.**
It is his talent, not his good looks, that made him famous.
- **Interjections.**
Oh, isn't her dress lovely?
- **Words of direct address.**
Students, please give me your attention.
- **Tag questions**
This is a beautiful morning, isn't it?
- **Yes and No**
Yes, I agree that Starbucks makes the best coffee.

- **Between items in a series.** Use a comma to separate three or more items of equal importance. The items may be words, phrases, or clauses.
The zookeeper was responsible for feeding the lions, elephants, and monkeys.
I washed the car, cleaned the kitchen, and shopped for groceries.
The light fades, a cool breeze blows, and a crescent moon appears on the horizon.

Do **not** separate the series from the rest of the sentence. Commas are used only within the series.

Incorrect: *My three favorite colors are, red, purple, and orange.*

Correct: *My three favorite colors are red, purple, and orange.*

- **Between coordinate adjectives.** Use a comma to separate two or more adjectives that equally modify the same word. Adjectives are coordinate if they can be connected with *and*. The order of coordinate adjectives can also be reversed without changing the meaning.
Three hungry, thirsty bears posed a danger for campers.
Cumulative adjectives cannot be connected with *and*. Also, the order cannot be reversed. Do not separate these with commas.
Three large male bears roamed the nearby woods.
- **Setting off direct quotations.** Use a comma to set off a **signal phrase** (*he said, she writes, etc.*) which identifies the source of quotation. When the comma follows the quotation, the comma is placed inside the quotation marks.
"It is best," said Mother, "to do your homework before eating dinner."
Jacob yelled, "Stay away from my room!"

Do not use a comma after a question mark or exclamation point.

"Stay away from my room!" yelled Jacob.

Do not use a comma to introduce an indirect quotation or a quotation that is integrated into the sentence, including one introduced by *that*.

Our principal believes that students perform better when attired in appropriate clothing.

Grandma used to say that "children should be seen and not heard."

- **In dates and addresses.**
 - In **dates**, the year is set off from the rest of the sentence.
On July 4, 1976, we celebrated the Bicentennial of the United States.
Do not use a comma between the month and year if the date is inverted (*4 July 1976*) or to separate a date consisting of only a month and year (*July 1976*).
 - In an **address**, separate all elements except the ZIP code.
Maria lives at 587 Poplar Street, Macon, Georgia 31201.
 - Within a sentence, any date, address, or place name that contains a comma should also end with a comma.
Macon, Georgia, was the home of Otis Redding.

Do NOT use a comma

- Between a subject and verb
Incorrect: *The best part of summer vacation, is sleeping late in the mornings.*
- Between a verb and object
Incorrect: *My brother chose, to attend the University of Georgia.*
- Between a preposition and object
Incorrect: *Kerry enjoys surfing despite, the danger.*
- In compound subjects, predicates, or objects
Incorrect: *Susan called me last night, and texted me this morning.*

USING SEMICOLONS

Use a semicolon **between related independent clauses that are not joined by a coordinating conjunction.**

- A semicolon can connect two independent clauses, in place of a conjunction.
Many dogs enjoy swimming; most cats abhor the water.
- A semicolon is also used between two independent clauses that are connected by a conjunctive adverb (*however, therefore, also, etc.*) or a transitional phrase (*as a result, for example, etc.*) The adverb or phrase is also set off by a comma.
My physics class is challenging; therefore, I devote much time to studying the material.
I studied my vocabulary words every day; as a result, I did well on the quiz.

You may also use a semicolon **to separate items in a series, if those items contain internal commas.**

- *The signers of the Declaration of Independence include John Hancock, president of the Continental Congress; Thomas Jefferson, future President of the United States; and Benjamin Franklin, respected elder statesman.*

Do NOT use a semicolon

- Between an independent clause and a subordinate clause or phrase. (Use a comma.)
Incorrect: *Ben purchased a scientific calculator; which he needed for his chemistry class.*
Incorrect: *According to scientists; global warming is causing ocean levels to rise.*
- Between an appositive and the word it refers to. (Use a comma.)
Incorrect: *Yesterday I spoke to Coach Myers; my swimming instructor.*
- To introduce a series or an explanation. (Use a colon.)
Incorrect: *We read three Shakespeare plays; Macbeth, Hamlet, and King Lear.*

USING COLONS

Use a colon **after an independent clause to introduce**

- **an explanation or example**
There is only one possible explanation for the suspect's bizarre behavior: he must be mentally ill.
- **an appositive**
Keith has autographs from three Atlanta Braves: Chipper Jones, Dan Uggla, and Jason Heyward.
- **a list or series**
To make popovers, you will need these ingredients: milk, flour, salt, and eggs.
- **a quotation**
The president concludes his speeches with a short benediction: "God bless America."

Other uses of the colon

Also use a colon after the salutation in a formal letter (*Dear Sir or Madam:*), between hours and minutes (*7:45 a.m.*), to show proportions (*A ratio of 3:1*), between a title and subtitle (*The World: An Illustrated History*), and between city and publisher in a Works Cited entry (*Macon: Mercer Press, 2010*).

Do NOT use a colon

- After a verb (between a verb and its object or complement)
Incorrect: *My three best friends are: Samantha, Rose, and Emma.*
Incorrect: *Cats prefer to eat: beef, chicken, and tuna.*
- After a preposition [between a preposition and its object(s)]
Incorrect: *The storm is heading toward: Macon, Warner Robins, and parts of Peach County.*
- After *such as, especially, or including*.
Incorrect: *Jan is allergic to many foods, including: peanuts, chocolate, and onions.*

USING APOSTROPHES

POSSESSION Use an apostrophe to show **possession**.

Singular nouns

Add an apostrophe and –s to most singular nouns, including those that end in s.

J.K. Rowling's novels are very popular.

The campus's beauty attracted prospective students to the school.

(Some writers use only an apostrophe to avoid awkward pronunciations: *Sophocles' plays, Jesus' miracles*. In MLA style, any singular proper noun takes an apostrophe and an -s.)

Indefinite pronouns

Add an apostrophe and –s to indefinite pronouns.

Someone's duffel bag was left in the locker room.

Plural nouns

Add only an apostrophe to plural words ending in s.

Several drivers' cars were damaged in the collision.

Add an apostrophe and -s to plural words that do not end in s.

The men's shoes are on the far wall of the store.

Mother is concerned about her children's welfare.

Compound words

Add an apostrophe and -s to the last word only.

I looked forward to my sister-in-law's phone call.

Two or more owners

To show joint possession, make only the last noun possessive.

I rode in Aunt Joan and Uncle Roger's new car.

To show individual possession, make each of the nouns possessive.

He argued that Faulkner's and Hemingway's writing styles are similar.

CONTRACTIONS Use an apostrophe to replace missing letters or numbers in a **contraction**.

it is or it has *it's*

they are *they're*

cannot *can't*

Class of 2013 *Class of '13*

Plural numbers, abbreviations, letters, words mentioned as words

Omit an apostrophe in the plural of numbers and abbreviations (*1970s, UFOs*).

Use of an apostrophe is optional for plural letters.

Do NOT use apostrophes

- With nouns that are plural but not possessive
Incorrect: *The student's cheered for their volleyball team.*

With possessive pronouns (its, whose, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs)

Note: *It's* is a contraction for *it is*. *Its* is the possessive pronoun.

USING QUOTATION MARKS

Use quotation marks to **enclose a direct quotation**.

Franklin Delano Roosevelt said, "The only thing we have to fear is fear itself."

Use single quotation marks to enclose a quotation within a quotation.

My history teacher told us, "In his first inaugural address, President Franklin Roosevelt said, 'The only thing we have to fear is fear itself'."

A long quotation (more than four typed lines of prose or three typed lines of poetry) should be set off by indenting it one inch (or 10 spaces) from the left margin. **Do not** use quotation marks around an indented quotation.

Emily Dickinson reflects on the power of language in her poetry:

*A word is dead
When it is said
Some say.
I say it just
Begins to live
That day.*

Do not use quotation marks around an indirect quotation.

Aunt Mary once told me that swimming is the best form of exercise.

Use quotation marks around **titles of short works**: titles of articles, poems, short stories, songs, episodes of television and radio programs, and chapters or subdivisions of books.

Robert Frost's poem "Stopping By Woods on a Snowy Evening" is a classic.

Note: Titles of longer works (titles of books, plays, websites, television and radio programs, films, magazines, and newspapers) are put in italics when typed or underlined when handwritten.

Words used as words are usually italicized, but it is acceptable to set them off with quotation marks.

The words "affect" and "effect" are often confused.

Note: **Do NOT use quotation marks around the title of your own essay or paper.**

Using other punctuation with quotation marks.

Place **periods and commas** inside quotation marks.

Franklin Delano Roosevelt said, "The only thing we have to fear is fear itself."

"We must hurry," urged Mom, "or we will be late."

Exception: In MLA and APA parenthetical citations, the period follows the citation in parentheses.

Franklin Delano Roosevelt said, "The only thing we have to fear is fear itself" (Bartlett 779).

Place **colons and semicolons** outside of quotation marks.

Marty told me, "I'm sorry that I insulted you"; his tone of voice, however, did not convey sympathy.

Place **question marks and exclamation points** inside quotation marks unless they apply to the sentence as a whole.

On the long car trip to California, the children continued to ask, "Are we there yet?"

Have you read O. Henry's story, "The Gift of the Magi"?

(? applies to the whole sentence.)

When introducing quoted material, the appropriate punctuation varies with the context:

After a full independent clause (a formal introduction), use a colon.

In his Inaugural Address in 1961, President John F. Kennedy challenged Americans to active citizenship: “And so, my fellow Americans, ask not what your country can do for you; ask what you can do for your country.”

After an expression such as *he said* or *she said*, use a comma.

John F. Kennedy said, “And so, my fellow Americans, ask not what your country can do for you; ask what you can do for your country.”

When a quotation is blended into your own sentence, use either a comma or no punctuation, depending on the structure of your sentence.

Politicians and scholars debate the interpretation of the right of individuals, as provided by the Second Amendment to the Constitution, “to keep and bear arms.”

Thomas Paine described the American Revolution as “times that try men’s souls.”

After a quotation at the beginning of a sentence, use a comma, unless the quotation ends with a question mark or exclamation point.

“You will never be alone with a poet in your pocket,” wrote John Adams to his son.

“What is being served for lunch today?” asked the hungry student.

When a quotation is interrupted by explanatory words, set off the explanatory words with commas. If the explanatory words interrupt two complete sentences, use a comma after the first quoted sentence and a period after the explanatory words. Then write the second quoted sentence separately.

“Unearned suffering,” according to Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., “is redemptive.”

“There was an old woman who lived in a shoe,” begins the familiar nursery rhyme. “She had so many children she didn’t know what to do.”

USING END PUNCTUATION

Period

Use a period to end all sentences except direct questions or genuine exclamations.

Use a period with personal titles, Latin abbreviations, and designations for time.

Do not use a period in U.S. postal service abbreviations for states, organization names, most capitalized abbreviations, academic degrees, and designations for eras.

I will finish my homework before dinner.

Mr. Franklin's class begins at 10:30 a.m.

If a sentence ends with a period marking an abbreviation, do not add a second period.

Question mark

Use a question mark after a direct question.

Who is invited to your birthday party?

Do not use a question mark after an indirect question, one that is reported rather than asked directly.

She asked me who is invited to your birthday party.

Exclamation mark

Use an exclamation mark after a sentence that expresses exceptional feeling or deserves special emphasis. Do not overuse the exclamation mark.

Don't touch the hot stove!

USING OTHER PUNCTUATION MARKS (DASHES, PARENTHESES, BRACKETS, ELLIPSES, SLASHES)

Dash

Use a pair of dashes to set off material that deserves special emphasis or an appositive phrase that contains commas.

A tantalizing array of toppings— from ordinary chocolate chips to gourmet cinnamon sprinkles— were displayed in the ice cream shop.

In my backpack, I carry essential school supplies—paper, pencils, pens, calculator—along with my massive textbooks.

Use a dash to introduce a list, a restatement, or an amplification. A colon may also be used in these examples for a more formal effect.

Jerry likes his pizza loaded with toppings—pepperoni, sausage, onions, peppers, and mushrooms.

The plane traveled at the speed of light—186,000 miles per second.

Yesterday's high temperature broke a record—102 degrees set in 1932.

Use a dash to introduce a dramatic shift in tone or thought.

Nathan worked for two hours to carefully complete his math homework—and then discovered that he had done the wrong pages!

Do not overuse the dash.

Parentheses

Use parentheses to enclose supplemental material, minor digressions, and afterthoughts.

Susan corrected minor errors (spelling, punctuation, and tense) in her paper before turning it in.

Do not overuse parentheses. Often phrases can be set off by commas more effectively.

Use parentheses to enclose letters or numbers labeling items in a series.

There are three ways to repair a run-on sentence:

- (1) add a comma and a conjunction
- (2) add a semicolon, or
- (3) separate the two sentences.

Brackets

Use brackets to enclose any words or phrases inserted into an otherwise word-for-word quotation.

Dr. King declared, “The tortuous road which has led from Montgomery to Oslo [site of the Nobel Peace Prize ceremony] is a road over which millions of Negroes are traveling to find a new sense of dignity.”

The Latin word *sic* in brackets indicates that the quoted material contains an error, often in spelling.

The local newspaper reported, “The new stadium will accomodate [sic] twenty thousand spectators, bringing many opportunities to our city.”

Ellipsis mark

Use an ellipsis mark, three spaced periods, to indicate that material has been deleted from an otherwise word-for-word quotation. If you delete a full sentence or more, use a period before the three ellipsis dots.

The Preamble to the Constitution states, in part, “We the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect Union,...do ordain and establish this Constitution.”

Do not use an ellipsis mark at the beginning of a quotation. Do not use it at the end, unless you have cut words from the end of the final sentence quoted.

Slash

Use a slash to separate two or three lines of poetry that have been included in your text. Add a space before and after each slash.

Emily Dickinson often employs personification in her poetry: “Nature, like Us is sometimes caught / Without her Diadem.”

You may use a slash (sparingly) to separate options (*pass/fail, producer/director*)

Avoid using a slash for *he/she, and/or, and his/her.*

MECHANICS**CAPITALIZATION**

Capitalize the **first word of a sentence**.

Capitalize the **first word following a colon if it begins an independent clause** (Note: MLA and Chicago styles use a lower case letter; APA style uses a capital letter.)

Proper Nouns (which name specific persons, places, or things) and words derived from them are capitalized; common nouns are not.

Types of words	PROPER NOUNS	COMMON NOUNS
Names of Deities	God, Allah	a god
Religions	Judaism, Islam, Buddhism, Christianity	a religion, a denomination
Religious followers	Jews, Muslims, Buddhists, Christians	a follower, a believer
Sacred books	Bible, Koran, Torah, Genesis	a sacred book, a scripture
Words of family relationships	Grandma Edith, Uncle Sam, Father (used as a name)	your grandma, my father
Particular places	Lake Tobesofkee	a lake, the lake
	the Grand Opera House	an auditorium, a theater
	the South	a region, southern states
Countries, nationalities, languages, races, ethnic groups, tribes	Mexico, Mexican food, European, Hispanic, Mandarin, French, Cherokee, Creole	a country, an ethnic group, a language, a cuisine
Educational institutions	University of Georgia, Mount de Sales Academy	a university, a school
Degrees	Bachelor of Science	a bachelor's degree
Particular courses	AP World History, Advanced Calculus, English, French (all languages)	history, math, fine arts (school subjects)
Government agencies or departments	Department of Defense, Georgia Bureau of Investigation	a federal agency, a state law enforcement agency
Organizations	Fellowship of Christian Athletes	a club, a fraternity
Political parties	the Democratic Party, the Republican Party	a political party
Historical movements, periods	the Reformation, the Renaissance	the sixteenth century
Specific events	the Great Depression, the Civil War	a recession, a civil war
Documents	the Constitution	a treaty
Specific electronic sources	the Internet, the World Wide Web, Google	a computer network, a search engine
Trade names	Tylenol, Coca-Cola, Kleenex	a painkiller, soda, tissue
Months, holidays, days of the week	September, Memorial Day, Tuesday	summer, the tenth of July
Titles as parts of proper names	Dr. Mike Franklin, Martin Luther King Jr., Marcus Welby, M.D., President Obama	a doctor, a professor, the president
Titles of works	<i>Othello</i> , <i>Huckleberry Finn</i> , "God Bless America", "The Tell-Tale Heart"	A play, a novel, a song, a story

Abbreviations of government agencies, organizations, or corporations	FBI, EPA, OPEC, UNICEF, IBM	an agency, a corporation
Most acronyms	AIDS, NATO, PBS, SAT, USA, NCAA, ATM	scuba, laser, radar

ABBREVIATIONS

Most abbreviations are not appropriate in formal writing.

Appropriate abbreviations include:

Titles before and after proper names. *Mrs. Donna Washburn, Dr. Nash Mayfield, Sen. Saxby Chambliss, Pres. Barack Obama, Mitch Rodriguez, MD, Ken Griffey, Jr.*

Familiar abbreviations for organizations, corporations, and countries. FBI, EPA, NAACP, NATO, IBM, AP, PBS, USA. If an abbreviation is unfamiliar, write the full name followed by the abbreviation in parentheses at the first mention of the name, and then use the abbreviation in the rest of the paper.

BCE (before the Common Era), **CE** (Common Era), **BC** (before Christ), **AD** (anno Domini)

a.m., p.m., No., \$. Use these abbreviations only when accompanied by a specific number.

Latin abbreviations (such as e.g., et al., etc., and i.e.) and certain other abbreviations are appropriate in footnotes or works cited entries and in informal writing, but not in formal writing.

NUMBERS

Spell out numbers of one or two words. Use numerals for numbers that require more than two words to spell out.

She spent three years researching the topic, then wrote a detailed 235 page report on her findings.

Large numbers may be written with a combination of numerals and words. *3.8 million*

Numerals are appropriate for the following:

- **Dates:** January 1, 2012, 1 January 2012, 307 BCE, 2012 CE, 307 BC, AD 2012
- **Addresses:** 851 Orange Street, 505 - 1st Street
- **Percentages:** 78 percent or 78%
- With **abbreviations** or symbols:
- **Fractions, decimals:** $\frac{1}{4}$, 0.25
- **Scores:** 4 to 1, 102-88
- **Statistics:** average age 17
- **Surveys:** 3 out of 4
- **Exact amounts of money:** \$8.47
- **Divisions of books:** chapter 9, page 36
- **Divisions of plays:** act 2, scene 3 (or act II, scene iii)
- **Identification numbers:** driver's license number 58479-99345
- **Time of day:** 8:05 a.m.

If the subject of your writing involves frequent use of numbers (such as a scientific subject), use numerals for all numbers preceding units of measurement (*25 degrees, 14 millimeters*) and use numerals for numbers that are presented together and refer to similar things. Spell out other numbers.

According to Census Bureau projections, the population of the U.S. will increase over forty three years by 46%, rising from 301.3 million in 2077 to 439 million in 2050.

Spell out centuries in lowercase letters. *the twentieth century*

Always spell out a number that begins a sentence, or rewrite the sentence.

ITALICS/UNDERLINING

In handwritten papers, use underlining in place of italics.

In typed papers, use italics for:

Books, plays, long poems, pamphlets: *Fahrenheit 451, Othello, Paradise Lost, Driver's Manual*

(Do not italicize the names of sacred scriptures or their books/divisions.)

Periodicals (newspapers, magazines, journals): *Macon Telegraph, Newsweek, IMA Journal of Applied Mathematics*

Websites, databases, electronic games: *Amazon, WebMD, Google, GALILEO, Super Mario Bros.*

Films, television and radio programs: *The Lion King, American Idol, A Prairie Home Companion*

CDs, audiocassettes, record albums: *Thriller, Abbey Road, Whitney Houston-The Greatest Hits*

Dance performances: *The Nutcracker, Swan Lake*

Long musical compositions: *Handel's Messiah, Porgy and Bess, Faure's Requiem, La Boheme*

Do not italicize works identified only by type and number: Beethoven's Symphony No. 9

Works of visual art: *Mona Lisa, The Thinker*

Ships, aircraft, spacecraft: *USS Arizona, Air Force One, Apollo 11*

(Titles of short stories, articles, essays, songs, episodes, or short poems are enclosed in quotation marks.)

Foreign words used in an English sentence: Monique greeted us with a cheerful "*bonjour.*"

The volunteer's tireless efforts prove that working for social justice is his *raison d'être.*

Italics or quotation marks may be used to set off **words used as words, letters mentioned as letters, or numbers mentioned as numbers.**

Mom taught us to say *please* and *thank you.*

This week, the kindergarteners learned many words beginning with the letter *c.*

The Cubs retired the number *14* in honor of Ernie Banks.

WRITING STYLE

ACTIVE/PASSIVE VOICE

In **passive** voice, the subject is receiving the action. *A homerun **is hit by** the batter.*

In **active** voice, the subject is doing the action. *The batter **hits** a homerun.*

Passive: *A rousing rendition of the Mount de Sales fight song was played by the marching band.*

Active: *The marching band played a rousing rendition of the Mount de Sales fight song.*

Use active verbs when possible, because strong, direct verbs convey your meaning more clearly. However, in some situations, especially in scientific writing, passive voice is preferred.

PARALLELISM

Parallelism means writing items in a series or writing paired ideas in the same grammatical structure. Parallelism can be at the level of words, phrases, or clauses. Parallel structure in writing clarifies the meaning and creates a more pleasant rhythmic flow.

Parallel items in a series or list

Parallel items are most often connected with a coordinating conjunction (*and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet*). All items in a series should be in the same grammatical form—all nouns, all verbs, all prepositional phrases, for example.

Incorrect: *In Shakespeare's plays, we find examples of puns, oxymorons, and using figurative language.* (Two nouns and a gerund)

Correct: *In Shakespeare's plays, we find examples of puns, oxymorons, and figurative language.* (All nouns)

Incorrect: *The rudiments of baseball are batting, throwing, and to catch the ball.* (Two gerunds and an infinitive)

Correct: *The rudiments of baseball are batting, throwing, and catching the ball.* (All gerunds)

Parallel ideas presented as pairs

Paired ideas may be connected with

- A coordinating conjunction (*and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet*)
- A pair of correlative conjunctions (*either...or; neither...nor; not only...but also; whether...or; both...and*)
- A word of introduction, usually *than* or *as*

Incorrect: *Breaking a school rule may result in a demerit or being suspended from school.* (One noun; one gerund)

Correct: *Breaking a school rule may result in a demerit or suspension from school.* (Two nouns)

Correct: *Breaking a school rule may result in receiving a demerit or being suspended from school.* (Two gerunds)

SHIFTS (in tense, voice, point of view, questions/quotations, style)

An abrupt change often results in inconsistency and confusion. Although occasionally a writer makes a deliberate shift, usually it is best to be consistent.

Consistent Verb Tense

Do not change tenses without a good reason. Choose a suitable tense and stay with it.

Note: When writing about literature, the accepted practice is to write in present tense.

Incorrect: *When I was practicing my trumpet music for the concert, my little brother interrupts me and tells me to stop.*

(Shifts from past to present tense)

Correct: *When I was practicing my trumpet music for the concert, my little brother interrupted me and told me to stop.*

(Stays in past tense)

Consistent Voice

Do not shift between **active voice** (subject is doing the action) and **passive voice** (subject is receiving the action) without a good reason.

Note: In some types of writing, often scientific writing, passive voice is preferred, but usually active voice is clearer and more direct.

Incorrect: *Our teacher announces our homework assignments in class, and the assignments are written on the board and posted on Moodle.* (Shifts from active to passive voice)

Correct: *Our teacher announces our homework assignments in class, writes the assignments on the board, and posts them on Moodle.* (Stays in active voice)

Consistent Point of View (in person and number)

Do not shift between **first person** (*I, we*), **second person** (*you*), and **third person** (*he, she, it, one, they*) without a good reason. Choose a suitable perspective and stay with it.

Incorrect: *One will score well on the exam if you review your notes.* (Shifts from third person to second person)

Correct: *You will score well on the exam if you review your notes.* (Stays in second person)

Correct: *One will score well on the exam if he reviews his notes.* (Stays in third person)

Incorrect: *Our football team began workouts last week. You were expected to run sprints and lift weights to get in shape.* (Shifts from first person to second person)

Correct: *Our football team began workouts last week. We were expected to run sprints and lift weights to get in shape.* (Stays in first person)

Do not shift between **singular** and **plural** without a good reason.

Incorrect: *A student athlete is under tremendous pressure to perform at a high level in their sport and in their academic work.* (Shifts from singular to plural)

Correct: *Student athletes are under tremendous pressure to perform at a high level in their sport and in their academic work.* (Stays plural)

Correct: *A student athlete is under tremendous pressure to perform at a high level in her sport and in her academic work.* (Stays singular)

Consistent Questions (indirect or direct)

An **indirect question** reports, rather than asks, a question. *I asked him where he lives.*

A **direct question** asks the question. *Where does he live?*

Do not suddenly shift between indirect and direct questions.

Incorrect: *I asked him where he lives and where does he go to school.* (Shifts from indirect to direct)

Correct: *I asked him where he lives and where he goes to school.* (Stays indirect)

Consistent Quotations (indirect or direct)

An **indirect quotation** does not use someone's exact words. *Mr. Andrews said that the algebra test is not difficult.*

A **direct quotation** states someone's exact words. *Mr. Andrews said, "The algebra test is not difficult."*

A direct quotation requires quotation marks.

Do not suddenly shift between indirect and direct quotations.

Incorrect: *Mr. Andrews said that the algebra test is not difficult, but remember to show our work.* (Shifts from indirect to direct)

Correct: *Mr. Andrews said that the algebra test is not difficult, but reminded us to show our work.* (Indirect)

Correct: *Mr. Andrews said, "The algebra test is not difficult, but remember to show your work."* (Direct)

Consistent Mood of Verbs

There are three moods in English: the indicative (for facts), the imperative (for orders or advice), and the subjunctive (for wishes or conditions contrary to fact).

Do not shift between moods.

Incorrect: *Our teacher instructed us to write our papers legibly. Be sure to proofread our papers, too.* (Shifts from indicative to imperative)

Correct: *Our teacher instructs us to write our papers legibly. She reminds us to proofread our papers, too.* (Stays in indicative mood)

Consistent Style (formal or informal)

Do not shift between formal and informal tone and diction (word choice).

Incorrect: *Lord of the Flies* is set during the Cold War, a time of heightened geopolitical tension, when everyone was scared to death of Russian nukes. (Shifts from formal to informal style)

Correct: *Lord of the Flies* is set during the Cold War, a time of heightened geopolitical tension, when many people were frightened about the possibility of nuclear warfare. (Stays in formal style)

EMPHASIS (COORDINATION/SUBORDINATION)

COORDINATION: Use **coordination** to **combine two equal ideas**, to give the ideas equal emphasis.

Join two equal words or phrases with

- a coordinating conjunction (*and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet*)
*My favorite desserts are chocolate cake **and** strawberry cheesecake.*
- a pair of correlative conjunctions (*either...or; neither...nor; not only...but also; whether....or; both....and*)
***Neither** daily watering nor careful pruning could save the dying maple tree.*

Join two equal independent clauses with

- a comma and a coordinating conjunction;
*I studied for several hours, **but** I still feel unprepared for this test.*
- a semicolon;
The sun peeked out from behind dark clouds; a warm breeze rustled through the leaves.
- a semicolon followed by a conjunctive adverb (therefore, however, etc.) or a transitional phrase (*for example, in other words, etc.*)

*Heavy rains fell for four consecutive days; **as a result**, the river rose above flood level.*

SUBORDINATION: Use **subordination** to **combine two unequal ideas**, to emphasize one idea more than another. Place the main idea in an independent clause and less important ideas in subordinate clauses or phrases.

***Because I have demonstrated my responsibility**, my parents trust me to make wise decisions.*

(Subordinate clause followed by main clause)

*My younger brother, **an impulsive child with poor judgment**, is allowed less freedom to choose.*

(Subordinate appositive phrase placed between subject and verb of main clause)

CONCISENESS

Concise writing eliminates unnecessary words or phrases

To make your writing more concise and less wordy:

- **Eliminate redundant (repetitive or unnecessary) words and phrases.**
It is a true fact that the basic essentials of success are determination and hard work. (Omit the underlined words)
- **Eliminate empty, inflated, or vague words and phrases**
In my opinion, Brutus is a tragic hero whose downfall is caused by hamartia. (Omit the underlined phrase)
Because of the fact that he is curious, Odysseus decides to explore the Cyclop's cave. (Omit the underlined words)
- **Replace wordy phrases**
Wordy: *at all times* Concise: *always*
Wordy: *in the event that* Concise: *if*
Wordy: *due to the fact that* Concise: *because*
- **Avoid unnecessary repetition**
Wordy: *Romeo and Juliet are tragic heroes. The reason they are tragic heroes is because their tragic flaws cause their deaths.*
Concise: *Romeo and Juliet are tragic heroes because their tragic flaws cause their deaths.*
- **Use strong verbs**
Wordy: *The quarterback is important to the team's victory.*
Concise: *The quarterback leads the team to victory.*
- **Avoid unnecessary expletives (*there is, there are, it is*)**
Wordy: *There are many students at Mount de Sales who perform valuable community service.*
Concise: *Many students at Mount de Sales perform valuable community service.*

Wordy: *There is a Greek myth that explains why the sun rises and sets.*
Concise: *A Greek myth explains why the sun rises and sets.*
- **Use active verbs/active voice**
Wordy: *Many love sonnets were written by William Shakespeare.*
Concise: *William Shakespeare wrote many love sonnets.*

APPROPRIATE WORD CHOICE

Choose a voice appropriate to the type of writing and the audience.

In academic writing, use formal language. However, clear and concise language is usually preferable to fancy, flowery language that may sound pretentious.

- **Avoid slang and colloquial language** (conversational language often specific to a region or group): *stuff, gonna, dude, kids, dumb down, selfie, y'all, back in the day, hanging out*
- **Avoid jargon** (words specific to a group, profession or trade) unless you are sure that your audience will understand it : *LOL(a computer term), sacrifice fly (a baseball term), brief (a legal term)*
- **Avoid clichés** (overused figures of speech): *beat around the bush, as old as the hills, scared to death*
- **Avoid these conversational expressions** in which the subject and predicate do not make sense together: ***is when, is where, the reason...is because***
Informal: *Perjury is when someone tells a lie under oath.*
Corrected: *Perjury is the act of telling a lie under oath.*
Informal: *Plagiarism is where someone uses another author's ideas without giving credit to the author.*
Corrected: *Plagiarism is using another author's ideas without giving credit to the author.*
Informal: *The reason I failed the test is because I did not study.*
Corrected: *I failed the test because I did not study.*
Corrected: *The reason I failed the test is lack of studying.*

Use standard idioms

Idioms are expressions that do not follow specific rules. You should memorize them and look them up as needed. The prepositions in idioms are often troublesome.

Accuse of a crime

Capable of

Afraid of

Concerned about or with

Angry with

Different from a person, not different than

Arrive in or at, not arrive to

Oblivious of or to

Aware of

Off, not off of

Based on

Try to, not try and

Avoid sexist or biased language

Use firefighter, not fireman (Don't assume that all firefighters are male.)

Use Asian, not Oriental (Use the names that groups use to describe themselves.)

SENTENCE VARIETY

Your writing will be more interesting if you vary the sentence structure

- Vary sentence openings. Don't always begin with the subject. Sometimes add a modifier at the beginning, or occasionally invert a sentence by placing the verb before the subject.
- Vary sentence length. If most sentences are long, add occasional short sentences for emphasis. If most sentences are short, combine some sentences into compound, complex, or compound-complex sentences. Strive for a mix of sentence structures.
- Participial phrases, prepositional phrases, appositive phrases, absolute phrases, and infinitive phrases can be placed in a variety of positions in a sentence—at the beginning, between the subject and verb, or at the end. Adverbs and adverb phrases can easily be moved within a sentence.

MISPLACED MODIFIERS

Modifiers should point clearly to the words they modify. Keep related words close together. A misplaced modifier falls in the wrong place in a sentence, causing confusion.

Misplaced: *Contrary to common stereotypes, all teenagers are **not** irresponsible.*

Corrected: *Contrary to common stereotypes, **not** all teenagers are irresponsible.*
(**not** modifies, or limits, *all teenagers*, not *irresponsible*)

Misplaced: *Danny saw a black bear **driving along a country road**.*

Corrected: ***Driving along a country road**, Danny saw a black bear.*
(the participial phrase modifies *Danny*, not *a black bear*)

DANGLING MODIFIERS

Dangling modifiers do not directly modify anything in the sentence. The action is suggested but the actor is missing. They usually appear at the beginning or end of a sentence. You can correct them by naming the actor, either in the modifier or in the subject.

Dangling: ***Driving on the interstate**, the rain obscured my vision.* (The rain was not driving.)

Corrected: *Driving on the interstate, I found that the rain obscured my vision.*

Dangling: ***As a puppy**, his owner took him to obedience school.* (The owner was never a puppy.)

Corrected: *When Fido was a puppy, his owner took him to obedience school.*

PROOFREADING/REVISION SYMBOLS

Proofreading Marks

The mark	What it means	How to use it
	Delete: take out something here.	car y mufflers should shou ld
	Insert: add something here.	You ^{are} afraid o ^f mice.
	Add space here.	Jugglers buy a lot of eggs.
	No space: close the gap.	some <u>body</u>
	Delete and close the gap.	the gir r affe
	New paragraph here.	"Yes." said Jack. [¶] "All right." said Jill.
	No paragraph: keep sentences together.	The meeting was brief. <u>It lasted twenty minutes.</u>
	Transpose: switch these things.	fr e nds <u>both</u> were <u>l</u>
	Change or insert this letter.	l ⁱ ke ^c sucess
	Make this a capital letter.	old dr. <u>sm</u> ith
	Make this a small letter.	My U ncle lost a S hovel.
	Spell it out.	His <u>2</u> friends are Fido <u>&</u> Spot.
	Insert a period.	It was raining. I got wet.
	Insert a comma.	"London, England," he said.
	Insert an apostrophe.	It's a dog's life.
	Insert quotation marks.	"You're a pane," said the door.
	Is this correct? Check it.	Columbus sailed in <u>1942</u> . <u>?</u>

Proofreader's Marks

PROOFREADERS' MARK	DRAFT	PROOFREADERS' MARK	DRAFT
○ Delete space	art work	() Insert parentheses	arrives May 6 (tomorrow)
# ^ Insert a space	# ^ It was here.	_ Insert underscore	a <u>very</u> heavy package
/ OR / Delete a word	numbers are not correct	u Delete underscore	He's <u>always</u> on time.
^ Insert a word	is ^ It simple.	¶ Start a new paragraph	¶ Provide quality service.
↺ Transpose	recommen d n	no ¶ Remove paragraph break	no ¶ This is true.
↶ Move as shown	They are not here.	ss [Single space	ss [This is the most useful information.
^ OR ^ Insert a letter	h refresments are provided	ds [Double space	ds [Those are manufactured at our headquarters.
/ OR / Delete a letter and close up	necess ar y items	+1 l st Insert one line space	+1 l st Cost: dependent upon quantity
/ OR / Change a letter	a ^{ffect}	-1 l st Delete one line space	-1 l st The requirements are specified.
/ OR / Change a word	less ^e more than ^{two} one	▭ Indent two spaces	▭ Computer ▭ technology
○ Add on to a word	ely direct to you	⇒ Move to the right	⇒ \$4500 ⇒
^ Insert a comma	pencils, pens, and paper	[Move to the left	[Turn off the power.
○ Insert a period	Mr. Frazer	∨ Raise above the line	∨ 4 x 10 ^e
∨ Insert an apostrophe	the auditor's records	^ Drop below the line	^ CO ₂
∩ Insert quotation marks	The "easy jog" was really a ten-mile run. Stet (don't change)	He already left.
= Insert a hyphen	full =time job	= Align horizontally	Re: = Cost Analysis
- - Insert a dash or change a hyphen to a dash	She's here ^ finally!	Align vertically	To: Mr. Smith From: Ms. James
○ Spell out	⑤ people		
/ Use lowercase letter	First Q uarter		
≡ Capitalize	Wilbury av enue		

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

Your high school research assignments will prepare you for the extensive research and writing required in college. When you are assigned a research project, follow these steps:

- Read your teacher's instructions carefully and ask questions to be sure that you understand the requirements. Choose a topic in accordance with those requirements. You may need to narrow or broaden the topic as you begin to research.
- Find credible sources. Evaluate internet sources with great care. Determine who wrote the articles and evaluate their expertise and credibility. Determine what organizations sponsor the websites and evaluate their credibility. Be aware of bias (a subjective viewpoint, or too much opinion). Avoid websites like *Wikipedia* that can be edited by the public. Be sure that you trust each source and can explain why you trust it.
- On the Library page of the Mount de Sales website, you will find links to
 - the catalog of the Knott Library (the MDS library) on the InfoCentre link
 - the catalogs of the Macon-Bibb and Houston County public libraries;
 - GALILEO, a database which is especially useful for finding periodical articles;
 - e-book websites, such as The Online Books Page and Project Gutenberg
- Read closely in the sources and take notes. Follow your teacher's instructions to write note cards, write notes on paper, or type notes.
 - Summarize and paraphrase in your own words
 - Restate the source's meaning in your own words
 - Suggestion: Avoid writing notes in complete sentences to reduce possibility of plagiarism by copying too closely.
 - Place quotation marks around any direct quotes (however, you should limit the use of quotations)
- Keep a detailed record of all sources by making source cards or another form of working bibliography, following your teacher's instructions. (Follow the models on the attached chart for MLA style, or consult the *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers* for situations not included on the chart.)
- Write a working thesis and organize your notes by making an outline and/or placing your note cards in sequence.
- Write or type a draft, following your teacher's instructions and using the appropriate style. Be sure to cite sources in your text.
- Carefully revise, edit, and proofread the draft, referring to your teacher's requirements.
- Type the final copy, following a model in the appropriate style.

AVOIDING PLAGIARISM

Plagiarism is submitting another person's words, thoughts, or ideas as your own. This includes copying another person's words directly or too closely, as well as using another person's ideas without giving proper credit. Follow these procedures from the beginning to avoid plagiarism in a research paper:

- Take notes in your own words. Avoid copying whole sentences or phrases unless you intend to quote them directly. Try to take notes in a short format, not in sentences.
- Use sources that you can understand; if the vocabulary is too difficult, find sources that are better suited to your reading level.
- Document your sources carefully as you take notes. Record the source and page number on your notes.
- When you write, summarize and paraphrase in your own words. Change the sentence structure, not just the words.
- Cite your sources carefully in the draft. Every idea that came from another person must be cited.
- Be sure that your in-text citations match the entries on the Works Cited page.
- Do your own writing. Ask anyone who helps you edit your paper to circle errors or point them out to you verbally, rather than making corrections to your paper.

STYLES OF RESEARCH DOCUMENTATION AND FORMAT

You will use the MLA (Modern Language Association) style for most of your research papers at Mount de Sales. In college, you will typically use MLA style for humanities and APA (American Psychological Association) style for the sciences. Some college professors may prefer use of the Chicago style, or another accepted style. Whatever style is assigned, you will be expected to closely follow instructions and models. ***The details are important.***

MLA STYLE

Paper:

Use 8 ½ X 11" white paper. Print on one side only.

Heading (Identification):

On the first page of the paper, type your name, your instructor's name, the class title, and the due date on separate lines, double spaced, at the left margin.

Title:

Type the title, centered, immediately after the heading.

Pagination:

Type your last name, then a space, then the page number in the upper right corner of each page, ½ inch below the top of the paper. Set this up in the header of the word processing program.

Margins:

One inch margins on all four sides.

Line spacing:

Double space throughout the paper. Do not add extra spaces in the heading, above or below the title, or between paragraphs.

Paragraph Indents:

Indent each paragraph ½ inch, or 5 spaces.

Long Quotations:

When a quotation is longer than 4 typed lines of prose or 3 typed lines of verse, set it off by indenting 1" or 10 spaces from the left margin. The quote should be double-spaced, with no extra space above or below. Quotation marks are not needed.

Citations:

You must cite the sources of all ideas that come from another author. Use the author's last name and page number (if the source has pages). If there is no author, use the title of the article. The citation should match the beginning of the Works Cited entry.

The author's name or title may be placed within the sentence or in parentheses at the end of the appropriate sentence or paragraph. The page number is always in parentheses at the end of the sentence or paragraph.

- *He was then sent to serve one of the emperor's sons, Xhu Di, who gave him the surname Zheng after he proved himself a valiant warrior in battle (Viviano 34).*
Viviano is the author; 34 is the page number.
- *Edward Dreyer describes the adult Zheng He as a devout Buddhist (69).*
Edward Dreyer is the author; 69 is the page number.
- *The fleet contained many specialized vessels, such as boats to carry horses, supply ships, carriers of fresh water, and warships (Gunde).*
Gunde is the author; the source has no page numbers.
- *In an effort to promote Chinese-Indonesian friendship and trade, this project emphasizes his peaceful goals and respect for other religions ("New Zheng He").*
"New Zheng He" is the title of the article; the source has no author and no page numbers.

Works Cited list:

- Begin a new page at the end of the paper for the Works Cited list.
- The title of this list is always: Works Cited. Type the title, centered, 1" from the top of the page.
- Continue pagination with your last name and consecutive page numbers.
- Alphabetize entries by last names or authors. If a work has no author, alphabetize by first word of the title other than A, An, or The.
- Use a hanging indent: Begin each entry at the left margin, and indent any additional lines ½" or 5 spaces.
- Double space throughout the list. Do not add extra space between entries.

Use the sample research paper "The Voyages of Zheng He's Treasure Fleet" as a model.

See the following specific instructions for typing in MLA format using Office 2010/Word 2010.

MLA format for writing papers:

Using Office 2010

Paper size and orientation

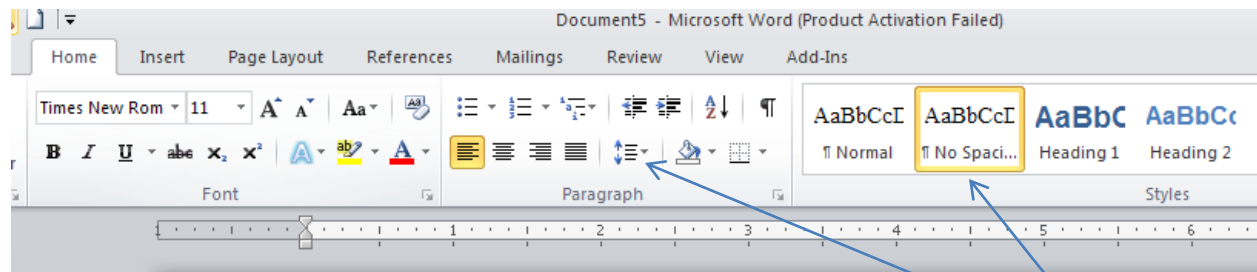
The paper is to be typed on letter sized paper in a portrait orientation. This can be checked under the File Print option on the menu bar. Standard paper is 8½” (width) by 11” (height). In Office 2010 this is referred to as “**letter**” sized paper. Also, Office 10 will list the printing width of the paper first and then the height – so a reference of 8½ x 11 is a reference to 8½” width and 11” height. The **portrait orientation** is when the printed page is taller than wide. **Landscape orientation** is when the printed page is wider than tall. The default printing orientation/paper size in Office 2010 is portrait, letter. A **default setting** is the configuration that is set in the software when it is installed on the computer. The default printing option is portrait, letter size. Default settings apply to all computer software. Printing a research paper in the portrait, letter size format is ALSO the default for the MLA format. Since the default can be changed, you should always check this configuration before printing.

Margins

MLA style requires 1” margins on all sides. This includes top, bottom, left and right. Margins are the white space found around the edges of your document. The default margins in Office 10 are 1” on all sides and can be checked under the **File** tab, **Print** option on the menu bar.

Line Spacing

Computers can be set up differently. Before starting, use the image below to set the Styles to No Spacing and then the line spacing to 2 for double spacing the paper.

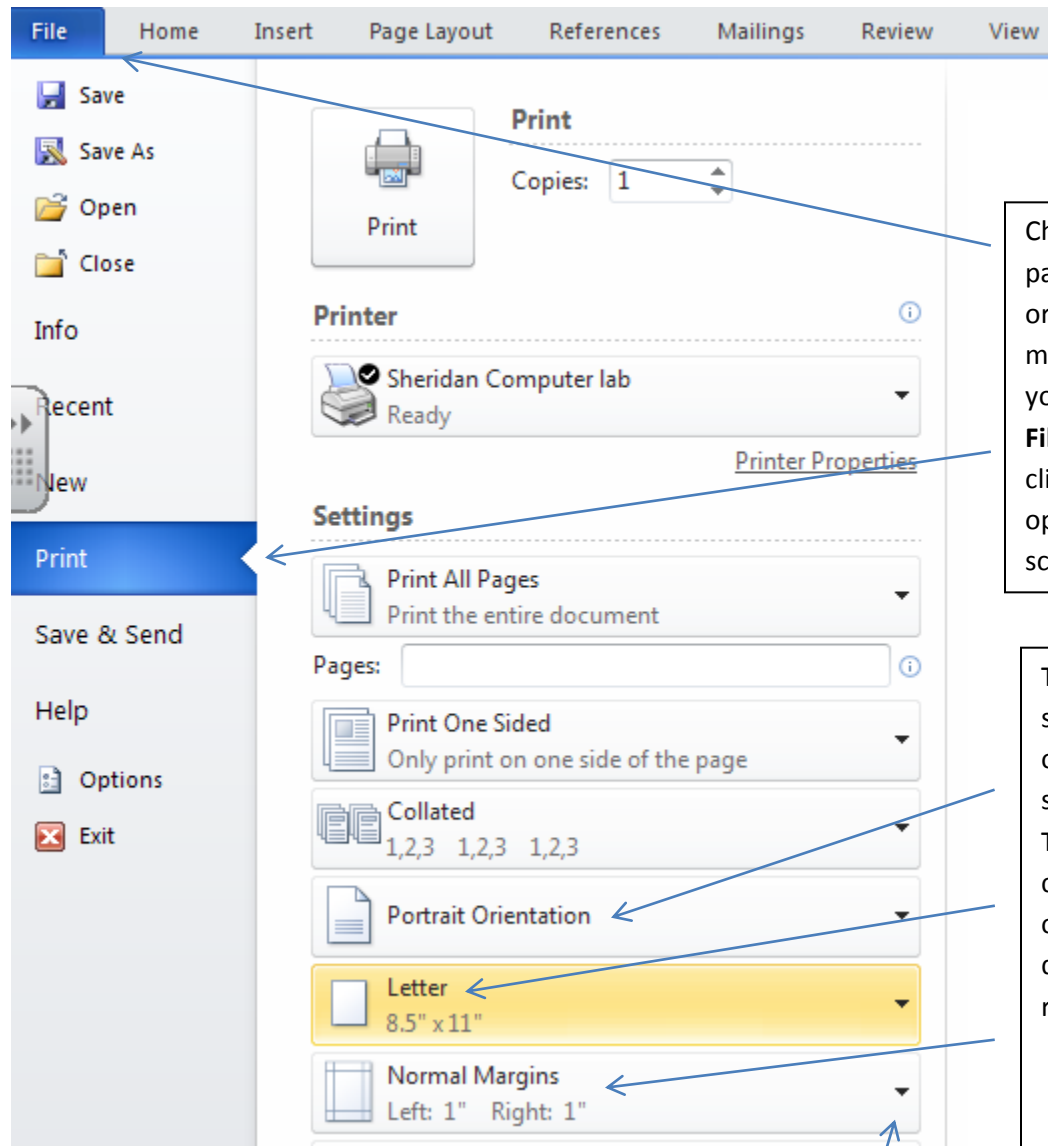


Today is Monday. Tomorrow is Tuesday.
finally at the end of the week will be

BEFORE TYPING ANY TEXT, click on the “no spacing” icon under the Home tab. This will set up a standard single space format. The default for Word 2010 is a non-standard spacing and this will correct this issue.

NOW, click on the line spacing icon and set it to “2”.

Checking for page size, page orientation and margins for MLA format in Office 10



Check for your paper size, paper orientation and margins (Before you start, click on **File** tab, and then click on **Print** option to see this screen.)

The defaults are shown here for orientation, paper size and margins. These can be changed by clicking on the small, black down arrows to the right of the format.

This is the down arrow to be clicked to change a setting.

CLICK HOME ON THE RIBBON TO RETURN TO THE DEFAULT ICONS.

Font

The font used should be a legible and reasonable size. MLA recommended font is **Times New Roman**. This is called the **font face or font style**. The recommended font size is 12. This is often referred to as the **point size** – which is often abbreviated as pt. The settings for font face and size are found on the **Home** tab of the menu bar.

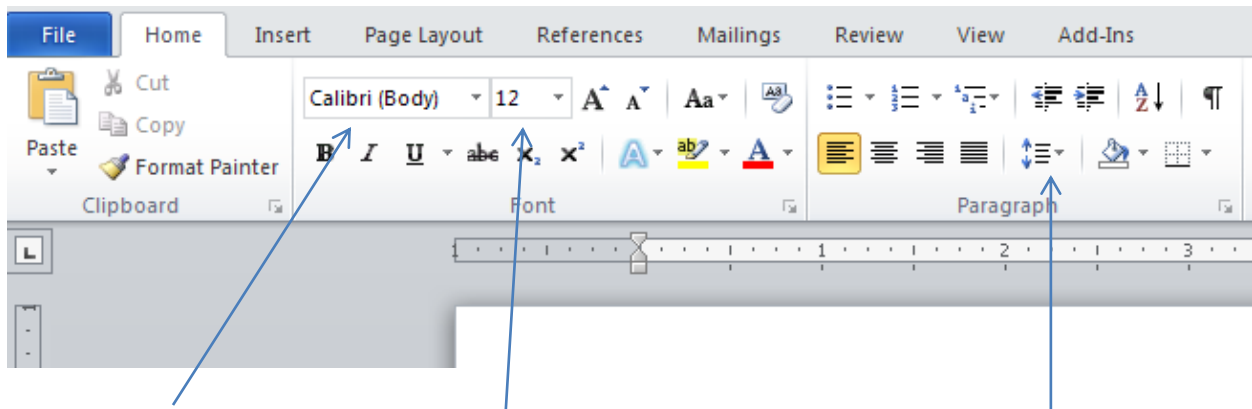
Spacing

The MLA style requires double-spacing throughout. This means that there is one blank line between each line of text (including the title and between paragraphs). Set this spacing prior to starting in Office 10. The paragraph spacing is found on the Home tab in the middle of the ribbon. The **ribbon** is the area of Office 10 where the commands are found at the top of the screen. When you click on the **line and paragraph spacing icon**, you can select the double space format.

Centering

The main title and the Works Cited title should be centered. Highlight the title and click on the center icon found in the paragraph section of the ribbon. Be sure to turn it off for the next row of text as the body of the research paper is not to be centered.

NOTE: When looking for icons on the ribbon, you can place the mouse pointer over the icon (without clicking) and you will get a “screen tip” that identifies the icon. Using the mouse in this way is a “**hover**.”



Font face or font style

Font point size

Line and paragraph spacing

ANOTHER MLA FORMAT:

Use only one space after sentences.

SAVE YOUR WORK FREQUENTLY – especially prior to changing a format so data is not lost because of an incorrect format that can't be “undone.”

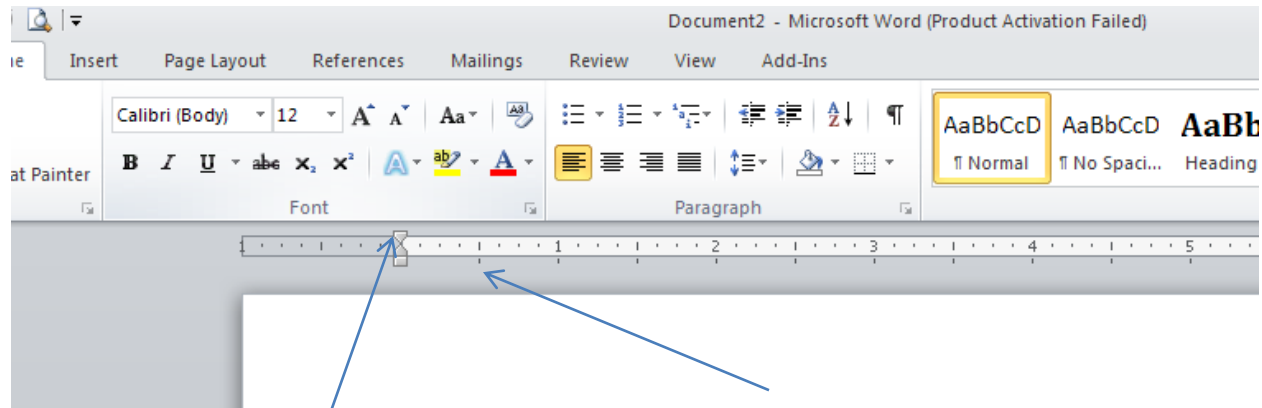
Paragraph Indents – SHOULD BE SET BEFORE TYPING

MLA format requires indentation of the first line of each paragraph ½” from the left margin.

The MLA standard requires you to use the **tab key**, NOT to space with the spacebar, and YES your instructor can tell when viewing the electronic copy. See the end of this document on how you can check just as your instructor checks!

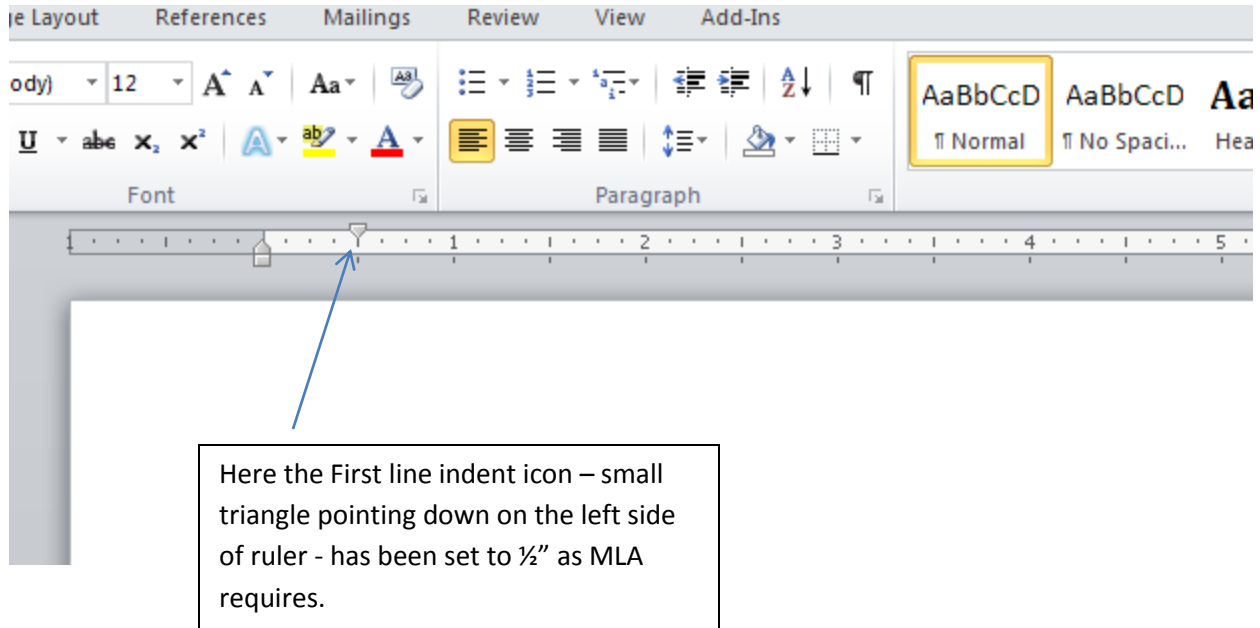
To check and set your indentation tab, you must have a **ruler**. This is found between the ribbon and the electronic view of the page. If you don't have a ruler, select the View tab and click on the box next to Ruler so there is a check.

To set the **first line indent**, click on and drag the top triangle on the left that points DOWN. If you hover over this triangle, it will give you the screen tip of “First Line Indent”. Drag this icon to the ½” mark on the ruler. Below, see a visual on this setting and how it will look when you are finished.



Ruler – Click on the View tab, and then click on the checkbox to the left of Ruler.

First line indent icon – small triangle pointing down on the left side of ruler. Click and drag to the ½” mark on the ruler. See next diagram.



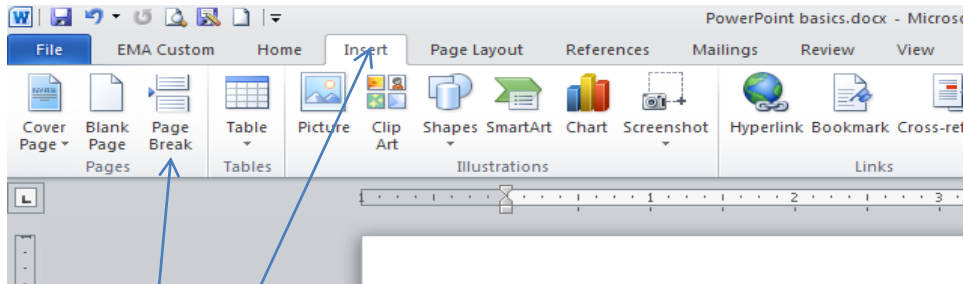
NOTE: As a new paragraph starts, press the tab key to create a first line indent.

Inserting a page break

When moving from the body of the document to the Works Cited page, do not use the enter key to move to a new, blank sheet in your document. Use the Insert Page Break command (found under the Insert command, or press CTRL-ENTER). This inserts a special character that indicates to Word that the text has ended on this page (often before the bottom of the page) and that the remaining text is to be located at the top of a new page. Below, see how to insert a page break.

This is important – if you edit and either ADD or DELETE text, the position of the Works Cited page will remain the same because when Word comes to the “page break” symbol created by this command, it will automatically move to the top of the next Word page.

MDS Writing Handbook



Position your cursor at the end of the text (or where you want the page break to appear).

Click on the Insert Icon and then click on the Page Break icon.

Word will move to the top of the next

PowerPoint Terms

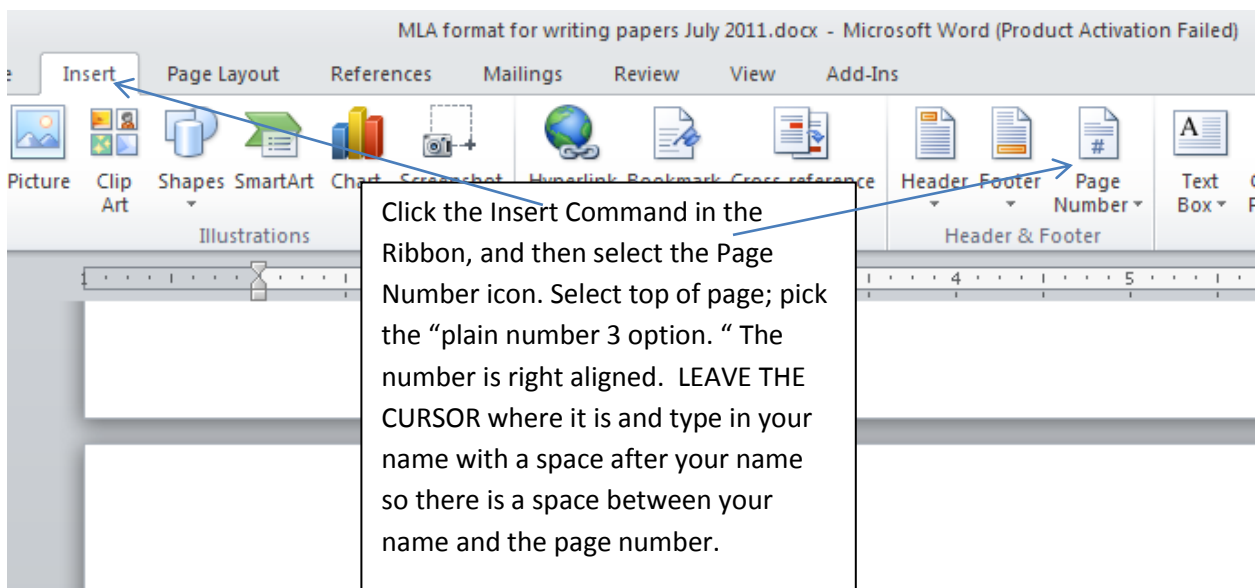
Presentation: The primary type of file PowerPoint uses. The file extension is `.pptx` (MS Office 2010); however, as Adobe Acrobat documents with the file extension `.pdf`.

Slides: Individual parts of a presentation. Slides are individual pages in a presentation document and can contain text, graphics, and a

Inserting a header

Insert a header (right aligned) with your last name, a space, and the page number. The page number should change with each page. If you completed the Works Cited page correctly, it should be positioned correctly on the page.

Directions to insert a header



Click the Insert Command in the Ribbon, and then select the Page Number icon. Select top of page; pick the "plain number 3 option." The number is right aligned. LEAVE THE CURSOR where it is and type in your name with a space after your name so there is a space between your name and the page number.

Double click in the BODY OF THE TEXT to leave the "header" section of your paper.

Works Cited page

This page references the research material used in your paper. This document addresses the way the page is configured from a technology standpoint, not HOW to cite any particular reference material.

The Works Cited page is to be separate from the last page of the research paper (not found on the bottom of the last page). Insert a page break to make a clean transition to this page.

The Title is Works Cited and should be centered (see above in this document).

Each work cited should be double spaced and have a hanging indent. This is an indent that has the first line flush with the left margin and the second line indented 1/2 inch. The spacing should be set BEFORE you add the text.

How to set up the Works Cited page

Insert a page break at the end of your research paper.

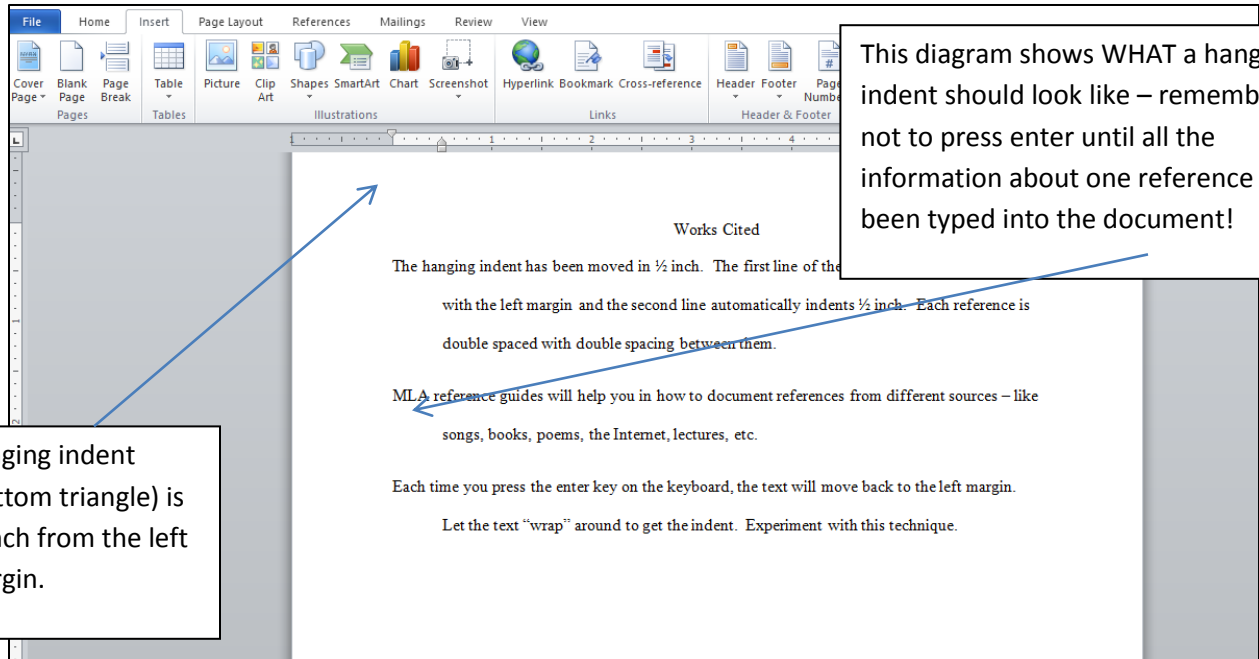
Enter the title Works Cited and center this title (do not bold, underline or change the font)

Check to make sure the cursor is at the left margin. If needed, press enter to move the cursor to the left margin (if the cursor is centered, click on the center icon again to make this line “uncentered”).

Set up a hanging indent – on the ruler, click and move the bottom triangle ½ inch from the left margin. By default the bottom triangle sits on the left margin.

As you type, the first line will be flush (even) with the left margin and the SECOND line will be indented ½ inch. This is called a hanging indent and is used for each reference on this page. Each resource is double spaced with a double space between each reference. See the diagram below for information

[Type a quote from the document or the summary of an interesting point. You can position the text box anywhere in the document. Use the Drawing Tools tab to change the formatting of the pull quote text box.]



This diagram shows WHAT a hanging indent should look like – remember not to press enter until all the information about one reference has been typed into the document!

Hanging indent (bottom triangle) is ½ inch from the left margin.

Other Guidelines

- Create a header that numbers all pages consecutively in the upper right-hand corner, one-half inch from the top and flush with the right margin. (Note: Your instructor may ask that you omit the number on your first page. Always follow your instructor's guidelines.)
- If you have any endnotes, include them on a separate page before your Works Cited page. Entitle the section Notes (centered, unformatted).

Textilus Pro Set-up Instructions

(See more details and screenshots at tech.mountdesales.net)

Tap on **Documents**.

Create and name a folder.

- Tap on + icon
- New Folder
- Tap on title and change it.
- Tap on the folder to open it.

Create and name a new document.

- Tap on + icon
- New Document
- Type your name in upper left corner.

Set up style (you will need to type some text first).

Tap on text, tap on **t** icon.

- Layout:**
- Line Spacing 2.0;
 - Paragraph Spacing 0.0;
 - Line Indent 0.0;
 - Paper Size – Letter;
 - Top Margin 1.0;
 - Bottom Margin 1.0;
 - Left Margin 1.0;
 - Right Margin 7.5.
- Style:**
- Font – Times New Roman;
 - Font Size – 12;
 - Left Justify.
 - Set as Default for New Documents.

Set up **Header:** Tap text and then the **+** icon.

Header text should be: your last name, then a space, then [pagenumber].

Example: Carlson [pagenumber].

- Set font (Times New Roman),
- Font size (12),
- Top Margin 0.5,
- Right Justify.

Tap **Show Header Preview** to check the header.

Before you type the **Works Cited page**, insert a **Page Break:**

Set cursor to the appropriate position. Tap the **+** icon, then Insert Markers/Symbols, then Page Break. Center the title of the Works Cited page. Remember to use a “hanging indent” – first line of each item is at the left margin, all subsequent lines indented.

Sample Paper

**This document starts
on the next page.**

Eileen Carlson

Mrs. Tate

English 9-8

30 March 2007

The Voyages of Zheng He's Treasure Fleet

From 1405 to 1433, while Europe was still emerging from the Middle Ages and not yet exploring the world, massive Chinese fleets commanded by Zheng He, a eunuch in the court of the Ming emperor Yongle, were sent on seven extravagant journeys through Southeast Asia, eventually traveling as far as Africa. By 1500, Chinese rulers were no longer sponsoring expensive maritime voyages, and in fact discouraged foreign trade and diplomacy. Historians debate the reasons for this change in policy. Many historical records of this period were destroyed, and only recently has research uncovered the fascinating stories of Zheng He and his treasure fleets (Kristof). If China had continued similar expeditions, expanding Chinese influence to Africa and the Americas, our world might look and sound quite different today.

In 1371 a boy known as Ma He was born to a Muslim family of Central Asian ethnicity in Yunnan Province, which was then ruled by the Mongols. The army of the new Ming dynasty of China invaded Yunnan and overthrew the last of the Mongols in 1382. Ma He's father, a local official, was killed, and the ten year old boy was taken captive. According to custom, young male captives were castrated. He was then sent to serve one of the emperor's sons, Zhu Di, who gave him the surname Zheng after he proved himself a valiant warrior in battle (Viviano 34). After the death of the emperor, Zheng He helped Zhu Di seize power from a nephew. As a result of this successful

military coup, Zhu Di became the third Ming emperor, taking the name Yongle, in 1402.

Zheng He was rewarded with the command of China's impressive treasure fleet and displayed his intelligence, military expertise, and diplomatic skills in leading seven voyages to Southeast Asia, the Middle East and as far as the African coast (Hsu).

According to Loren Crabtree's biography, Zheng He maintained the Muslim beliefs of his childhood, but also showed a great interest in Buddhism, Hinduism, and folk religions as an adult (254). Edward Dreyer describes the adult Zheng He as a devout Buddhist (69).

Some Western historians have emphasized the exploration conducted by Zheng He's fleets. Details are difficult to prove because many first hand records were destroyed by later Confucian rulers, but Edward Dreyer's research of Chinese documents shows that Emperor Yongle's goal was not to explore, but to show the wealth and power of China to other countries. This was part of an established tributary system in which China gave gifts to the foreign rulers, displayed China's military might, and expected gifts of local products and loyal recognition of the Chinese emperor in return (33-34). The treasure ships were accompanied by merchants who brought silks and porcelain from China in exchange for spices, jewels, and tropical woods (Gunde). Much of the information known about the voyages was recorded by Ma Huan, a Chinese Muslim who was an Arabic translator on three of the journeys and published detailed records in 1451 (Viviano 37).

The fleets, ranging from 48 to 317 ships, were much larger than European fleets of a century later. Crews numbering up to 28,000, mostly military men, embarked on these long journeys. The treasure ships, the largest of the fleet, were up to 400 feet long. In comparison, Columbus's largest ship was 85 feet in length. The fleet contained many specialized vessels, such as boats to carry horses, supply ships, carriers of fresh water,

and warships (Gunde).

Zheng He's crews had several tools available to help them navigate. They used a water compass in which a magnetized needle floated in seawater. Sticks of incense were marked in ten segments of 2.4 hours (a "watch") each day; as the incense burned, time was marked. Ancient Chinese sailors used the stars and a board called a qianxingban to measure latitude. In addition, on longer parts of the journey, a 21 foot long sailing chart would be used. It showed compass directions, landmarks, and geographical features in picture symbols (Levathes 95-96).

The first voyage left China in 1405, stopped in Champa, now southern Vietnam, then headed through the Strait of Malacca, between Sumatra and the Malay Peninsula (Crabtree 254). This was an important trade route, but a dangerous one for merchants because a notorious pirate named Chen Zuyi ruled the waters there. When the treasure fleet came through, Chen surrendered, but Zheng He soon learned from an informant that this was a favorite tactic, soon to be followed by an attack. So Zheng He's warships launched a surprise attack, destroying the pirate fleet and killing 5,000 men. Chen was captured and sent to China for execution, and the informant became a valued ally of China (Viviano 36-37).

On the third voyage, from 1409 to 1411, the fleet traveled to Java, Malacca, Sumatra, Ceylon (present day Sri Lanka), and finally to Calicut on the western coast of India. On the island of Ceylon, which was troubled by civil war, Zheng He and about two thousand of his men engaged in a military confrontation with a local king who had shown disrespect and hostility to the Chinese. The king was defeated and captured (Dreyer 65-68). Zheng He's men installed a monument at the port of Galle in Ceylon

which is dated 15 February 1409 and inscribed in three languages. It praises Buddha in Chinese, a local incarnation of the Hindu deity Vishna in the Tamil language, and Allah in Persian, hoping to secure favor and protection for Chinese ships from all of these diverse gods (Dreyer 71).

One of the enduring stories about Zheng He in Chinese history and legend is the capture of a "qilin", a mythical beast, which was really a giraffe from Malindi, in present-day Kenya. The giraffe, along with other African animals, was brought back to China as tribute on the fifth voyage. The fifth and sixth voyages had again sailed through Southeast Asia, but continued to the Middle East, stopping in the ports of Aden and Hormuz, near the Persian Gulf. From there, they sailed down the coast of Africa (Dreyer 89-90).

The trips to Africa have sparked much curiosity among modern historians and reporters. Nicholas Kristof traveled to Pate, off the coast of Kenya, and visited the Swahili natives, hearing an oral tradition of a Chinese shipwreck and sailors who swam ashore and married local women. Some of the residents believe they have Chinese ancestry as a result, and their appearance is vaguely Asian. Kristof found basket weaving techniques similar to those used in China, graves which look similar to Chinese graves, and remnants of Chinese ceramics. He discovered that the natives knew the story of the giraffes. Kristof believes, but cannot yet prove, that these natives may be descendants of some of Zheng He's crew members.

The most controversial theory is presented by Gavin Menzies, a retired Royal Navy Commander and amateur historian, in a best selling book. After studying ancient maps and charts and finding evidence of Chinese influence in Central and South

America, he claims that Zheng He actually sailed to the Americas long before Columbus. Jack Hitt of the New York Times is skeptical of Menzies' evidence; he points out that Menzies misinterprets drawings on some of the ancient maps on which he relies. Other scholars have also said the Menzies places too much faith in those maps. Hitt writes that "navigating a safe course through Menzies' evidence made Odysseus' voyage past Scylla and Charybdis seem like a breeze."

Effects of Zheng He's journeys are still evident in Southeast Asia today. Some of the many Chinese merchants in his fleet settled in other countries, creating ethnic Chinese communities in regions that later became part of Vietnam, Malaysia, Thailand, and Indonesia. These established Chinese communities are a strong influence on the economy, and emigration also continues (Hsu). In parts of Indonesia, Zheng He is worshipped as a local god, and his story is used as a tool of modern diplomacy. In Semarang, Indonesia, a new temple dedicated to Zheng He was built in 2005 at a cost of \$1 million. In an effort to promote Chinese-Indonesian friendship and trade, this project emphasizes his peaceful goals and respect for other religions ("New Zheng He").

Zheng He's story, as well as his tomb, were ignored for many years, but recent times have brought renewed interest in the story. The monument erected in Ceylon in 1409 was rediscovered in 1911 being used as a drain cover and is now in a museum in Sri Lanka, a country still plagued by civil war between ethnic groups, just as it was in 1409 (Perry). When Kristoff visited Zheng He's tomb in 1999, and when Adi Ignatius visited it in 2001, it was hidden by weeds and in disrepair, and the nearby museum was closed. Communist China has, however, shown a renewed interest in the stories of the treasure fleet. Joseph Kahn notes that a \$50 million memorial was recently built to commemorate

the 600th anniversary of the first voyage. He believes that Communist party officials have used the publicity surrounding the anniversary to try to change China's image by illustrating its peaceful intentions and emphasizing its ancient accomplishments and glory, although not all scholars agree with the peaceful image of Zheng He as a goodwill ambassador.

Modern archaeology and new research techniques will uncover evidence which helps us understand the technology and accomplishments of Zheng He and his sailors and shipbuilders. Close study of ancient documents will reveal more about the man, his life and career, the history of the Ming dynasty in China, and Chinese influence on the world. However, it is the question of "what might have been" that will continue to fascinate thinkers in the modern world.

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2 Feb. 2007.

Viviano, Frank. "China's Great Armada." *National Geographic*, July 2005, pp. 28-53.

MLA Documentation: Preparing the Works Cited List
MLA Handbook, Eighth Edition, 2016

- The Core Elements of an entry are listed below in the order in which they should appear. An element should be omitted if it is not relevant to the work being documented. Follow each element with the punctuation mark shown unless it is the final element, which should end with a period.
- When the source (such as an article or a book) forms a part of a larger whole (such as a book, a magazine, a website, or a database), the larger whole is called a container. The title of the container is italicized and followed by a comma.
- A container can be nested in a larger container or containers (such as a periodical found in a database such as *GALILEO*). In this case, repeat the core elements beginning with the title of container for each additional larger container.
- For an online source, the date accessed is an optional but recommended element in MLA style. Please provide this date as the final element of the entry.
- If a source does not easily fit one of the following categories, see your teacher or librarian, who will help you consult the *MLA Handbook*.

Core Elements:	Author. Title of source. Title of container, Other contributors, Version, Number, Publisher, Publication date, Location. Optional Elements.	
SOURCE	TYPICAL ELEMENTS (omit any which do not apply)	SAMPLE WORKS CITED ENTRY
Website	Author's last name, first name. "Title of Webpage or Article." <i>Title of Entire Website</i> , Name of organization, Date created or updated, URL. Date accessed.	Gunde, Richard. "Zheng He's Voyages of Discovery." <i>UCLA International Institute</i> , UCLA, 20 April 2004, www.international.ucla.edu/china/article/10387. Accessed 2 Feb. 2007.
Article in a Periodical, accessed in print	Author's last name, first name. "Title of Article." <i>Title of Periodical</i> , volume, issue/number, date, pages.	Viviano, Frank. "China's Great Armada." <i>National Geographic</i> , July 2005, vol. 208, no. 1, pp. 28-53.
Article in a Periodical, accessed on a website	Author's last name, first name. "Title of Article." <i>Title of Periodical</i> , volume, issue, date. <i>Title of Website</i> , URL, Date accessed.	Kristoff, Nicholas D. "1492: The Prequel." <i>The New York Times Magazine</i> , 6 June 1999. <i>The New York Times</i> , www.nytimes.com/1999/06/06/magazine/1492-the-prequel.html?pagewanted=all. Accessed 2 Feb. 2007.
Article in a Periodical, accessed in a database (ie. GALILEO)	Author's last name, first name. "Title of Article." <i>Title of Periodical</i> , volume, issue, date, pages. <i>Title of Database</i> . <i>Title of Larger Database (GALILEO)</i> , URL. Date accessed.	Hitt, Jack. "Goodbye, Columbus." <i>New York Times Magazine</i> , 5 Jan. 2003, pp. 18-21. <i>MasterFILE Elite</i> . <i>GALILEO</i> , eds.b.ebscohost.com/eds. Accessed 1 March 2007.
Book	Author's last name, first name. <i>Title of Book</i> . Name of publishing company, Date published.	Dreyer, Edward L. <i>Zheng He</i> . Pearson Longman, 2007.
Book by two or more authors	First author's last name, first name, and Second author's full name. <i>Title of Book</i> . Name of publishing company, Date published. <i>[Three or more authors: follow the first author's name with et al ("and others"): First author's last name, first name, et al. Title]</i>	Meriwether, Adam, and Judith Harrington. <i>Stories from Classical Mythology</i> . Southern Press, 1987.
Article in an anthology or reference book.	Author's last name, first name. "Title of Article." <i>Title of Book</i> , Name of editor, volume, Name of publishing company, Date published, Pages.	Crabtree, Loren W. "Cheng Ho." <i>Dictionary of World Biography</i> , edited by Frank N. Magill, vol. 2, Fitzroy Dearborn Publishers, 1998, pp. 253-256.