



THE GOOD AND THE BEAUTIFUL

GRAMMAR & WRITING GUIDE



TABLE OF CONTENTS

Terms to Know.....	1	Conditional Sentences.....	22
Sentence Types.....	2	Conjunctions.....	23
Literary Terms.....	3	Correlative Conjunctions.....	24
Editing Marks.....	4	Dashes, Parentheses, and Brackets.....	25
Sentence Diagramming.....	5	Dependent and Independent Clauses.....	26
<i>Grammar, Punctuation, Usage</i>			
A Sentence Needs Three Things.....	10	Ellipses.....	26
Abbreviation and Acronym Rules.....	10	Gerunds.....	27
Absolute Phrases.....	11	Hyphens.....	28
Adjective & Adverb Rule #1: Sense & Appearance Verbs.....	11	Infinitive Phrases.....	29
Adjective & Adverb Rule #2: Real vs. Really.....	12	Interjections.....	30
Adjective & Adverb Rule #3: Double Negatives.....	12	Parallel Construction.....	31
Adjective & Adverb Rule #4: Comparisons.....	12	Participles & Participial Phrases.....	32
Adjective & Adverb Rule #5: Irregular Comparisons: Little and Bad.....	12	Prepositions and Prepositional Phrases.....	35
Adjective & Adverb Rule #6: Comparisons Ending in LY.....	13	Problems with Prepositions.....	36
Adjective & Adverb Rule #7: Correct Usage: Adjective vs. Adverb.....	13	Problems with Modifiers.....	37
Apostrophes.....	13	Problems with Pronouns.....	38
Appositives.....	14	Quotation Punctuation.....	39
Avoiding Faulty Comparisons.....	14	Relative Clauses.....	40
Avoiding Shifts in Person, Voice, and Number.....	15	Restrictive and Non-Restrictive Clauses.....	40
Avoiding Shifts in Verb Tense.....	15	Rules for Writing Numbers.....	41
Capitalization Rules.....	16	Run-On Sentences.....	42
Colons.....	18	Semicolons.....	42
Comma Rules.....	18	Sentence Structures.....	43
Comma Splices.....	21	Subject-Verb Agreement.....	44
Compound Items.....	21	Vertical Lists.....	45

Commonly Confused Words

Accept/Except	46	Dual/Duel	52
Allowed/Aloud	46	e.g./i.e.	53
All Together/Altogether	46	Effect/Affect.....	53
Allusion/Illusion	46	Emigrate/Immigrate.....	53
Already/All Ready	47	Endemic/Epidemic/Pandemic.....	53
Altar/Alter.....	47	Ensure/Insure.....	54
Among/Between.....	47	Everyday/Every Day	54
Anyone/Any One	47	Every One/Everyone.....	54
Appraise/Apprise.....	48	Farther/Further.....	54
Ascent/Assent.....	48	Fewer/Less.....	55
A While/Awhile	48	Flout/Flaunt	55
Bad/Badly.....	48	Good/Well.....	55
Belief/Believe	49	Grisly/Grizzly	56
Bi/Semi	49	Historic/Historical.....	56
Biannual/Biennial	49	If/Whether.....	56
Born/Borne	49	Immoral/Amoral.....	56
Canvas/Canvass	50	Imply/Infer.....	57
Capitol/Capital.....	50	In To/Into.....	57
Chord/Cord	50	Ingenious/Ingenuous	57
Clench/Clinch.....	50	Its/It's.....	57
Complement/Compliment.....	51	Lay/Lie	58
Composed of/Comprised of.....	51	Loath/Loathe	59
Concurrent/Consecutive	51	Loose/Lose.....	59
Council/Counsel	51	May Be/Maybe.....	59
Defuse/Diffuse.....	52	Of/Have	59
Desert/Dessert.....	52	Perspective/Prospective	60
Disinterested/Uninterested	52	Pour/Pore.....	60
		Precede/Proceed.....	60

Grammar and Writing Guide
Terms to Know/Parts of Speech

Adjective	a word that describes a noun or pronoun	The pretty bird sang. The kind man helped me.
Adverb	a word that describes verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs (not nouns)	He ran quickly . (<i>describes the verb "ran"</i>) My sock is very wet. (<i>describes the adjective "wet"</i>) He ran so quickly. (<i>describes the adverb "quickly"</i>)
Article	<i>the, a, an</i>	The horse ate an apple.
Coordinating Conjunction	a word that connects words, phrases, and clauses (<i>FANBOYS: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so</i>)	Dan and I made cookies, but they burned.
Direct Object	a noun or pronoun that receives the action of the action verb in a sentence	We kicked the ball . The bird sang a song .
Interjection	a word, phrase, or short clause that expresses strong emotion or surprise (<i>help, hey, hi, wow, look, stop, great, yikes!</i>)	Help! My foot is stuck. Ouch , that really hurts!
Noun	a word for a person, place, or thing (concrete or abstract)	The sunrise gives the girl joy .
Preposition	a linking word, often shows position in time or space (<i>of, off, at, on, by, in, out, below, from, under, into, through, during, after, inside</i>)	After lunch we walked over the bridge. The bouquet of flowers is from Dad.
Pronoun	a word that replaces a noun There are eight types of pronouns. (These examples are not complete lists.) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • personal (I, you, he, she, we, they, it) • possessive (his, her, hers, their, theirs, our, ours, your, yours, its) • demonstrative (that, this) • adjective (that, this, which, what, any, each) • relative (that, which, what, who) • indefinite (another, any, each, either, none) • interrogative (who, what, which) • reciprocal (each other, one another) 	We gave the book to her , and she loved it .

Capitalize	≡	Italicize	—
Add a Comma	^	Delete a Word or Letter	↶ ↷
Add an Apostrophe	ˆ	Start a New Paragraph	¶
Add a Question Mark	^?	Change the Order Of	~ ... later~
Add a Period	^.	Add a Space	# everyone
Add an Exclamation Mark	^!	Close Up Space	(every one
Add a Quotation Mark	ˆ"	Delete and Close Up Space	∩ backyard
Add a Semicolon	ˆ;	Em Dash or En Dash	<u> </u> <u> </u>
Make a Word Lowercase	lc or /	Cross out an incorrect word and write the correct word above the crossed-out word.	

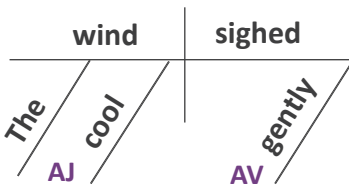


For more help: jennyphillips.com/videos

Steps 1–4: Subject, Verb, Articles, Adjectives, and Adverbs

- Start with a horizontal and vertical line.
- Write the subject (who or what is doing or being in the sentence) to the left of the vertical line.
- Write the verb to the right of the vertical line.
- Write articles (THE, A, AN), adjectives (words that describe nouns), and adverbs (words that describe verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs) on slanted lines under the words they modify.
- Write the letters AJ below adjectives and AV below adverbs.

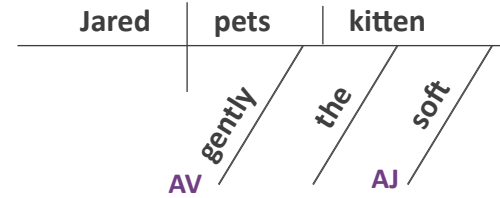
Example: The cool wind gently sighed.



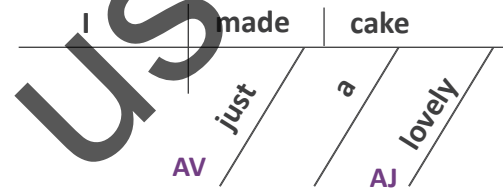
Step 5: Direct Objects

To diagram a direct object, draw a vertical line (that does not cross the horizontal line) after the verb, and then write the direct object to the right of the vertical line. A direct object is the noun or pronoun that receives the action of the action verb in a sentence (e.g., We washed the CAR. We kick BALLS.). Not all sentences have direct objects.

Example: Jared gently pets the soft kitten.



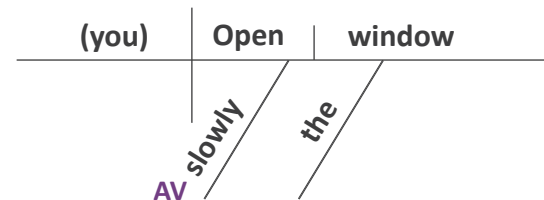
Example: I just made a lovely cake.



Step 6: Commands

When we diagram sentences that are commands, we put the implied subject in parentheses.

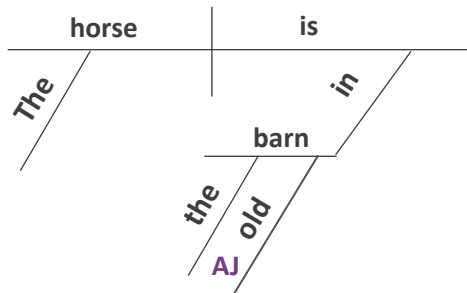
Example: Open the window slowly.



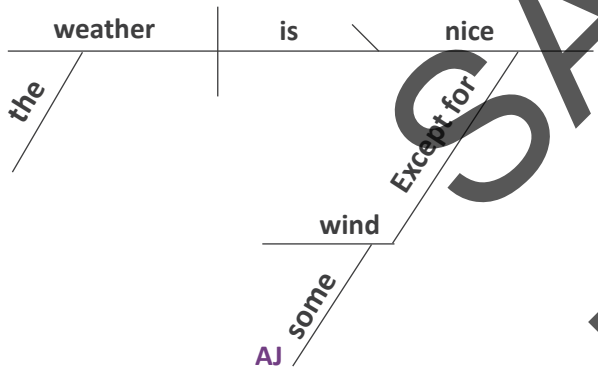
Step 13: Prepositional Phrases

A prepositional phrase always starts with a preposition. Prepositions can be more than one word (e.g., in front of, except for). First put the preposition under the noun or verb/verb phrase that it modifies. Put the direct object of the preposition on a horizontal line below it. Place words that modify the object of the preposition on slanted lines below the object of the preposition.

Example: The horse is in the old barn.



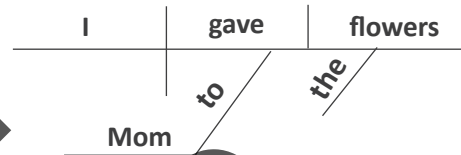
Example: Except for some wind, the weather is nice.



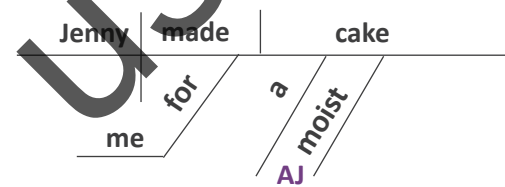
Step 14: Indirect Objects

An indirect object receives the direct object. For example, "I kicked the ball to James." Place the preposition that goes with the indirect object on a slanted line below the verb. Then place the indirect object on a horizontal line before it.

Example: I gave the flowers to Mom.

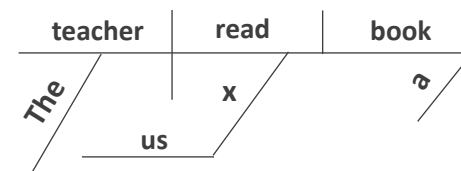


Example: Jenny made a moist cake for me.



Sometimes the preposition that accompanies an indirect object is unstated but understood. For example, in the sentence "Mom made me a cake," the word FOR is unstated but understood. In these cases, put an X in place of the unstated but understood preposition.

Example: The teacher read us a book.



A Sentence Needs Three Things

A sentence needs three things: a subject, a verb, and a complete thought. If a group of words is missing any of these things, it is called a **fragment** and is not a complete sentence.

<p>SUBJECT</p> <p>A subject shows who or what is doing or being.</p> <p>The tall CACTI stand like sentinels.</p> <p>CACTI is the plural of cactus.</p> 
<p>VERB</p> <p>A verb shows what the subject does. A verb can be an ACTION verb or BEING verb.</p> <p> A row of cacti LINES the mountain ridge.</p> <p>There ARE around 2000 different species of cacti.</p>
<p>COMPLETE THOUGHT</p> <p>If more to come is indicated but not told, it is an incomplete thought.</p> <p>Incomplete: When you visit the desert.</p> <p>Incomplete: If you see a cactus.</p> <p>Complete: If you see a cactus, take a picture.</p>



For more help: www.jennyphillips.com/videos
[A Sentence Needs Three Things](#)

Abbreviation and Acronym Rules

Rule 1: Very short words do not need to be abbreviated.

Months like May, June, and July need no abbreviations, while months like February, September, and November are often abbreviated because they are so long.

Rule 2: When using acronyms to represent words, use capital letters and no periods.

She worked for ABC, NASA, and the CIA.

FYI (for your information), BRB (be right back), LOL! (laugh out loud)

Rule 3: First spell out fully what will be used later on as an acronym.

I joined the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) in 1987. During my career at the FBI, I had many different jobs.

Rule 4: Use capital letters and periods when abbreviating the names for countries or academic degrees.

U.S.A., U.S.S.R., U.K., E.U.

B.A., B.S., M.A., M.B.A., Ph.D.

Rule 5: For abbreviations that include the first and last letters of a word, put a period at the end.

Mr., Dr., Jr., St., Ltd.,

(Note: British English does not usually add the period.)

Rule 6: When an abbreviation contains only the first part of a word, add a period at the end.

Fri., Nov., Matt., Inc., Admin., anon., adv., irreg., et al.

Avoiding Shifts in Person, Voice, and Number

Avoid shifts in person.

English has three persons: first person (I, we); second person (you); and third person (he, she, it, they, one). Avoid shifts in person within sentences, paragraphs, and entire essays.

Incorrect: When cooking, one should wear an apron. Otherwise, you might get dirty.

Correct: When cooking, you should wear an apron. Otherwise, you might get dirty.

Incorrect: Anyone can learn to play the piano if you practice.

Correct: Anyone can learn to play the piano if he or she practices.

Avoid shifts in voice.

Do not shift from active voice to passive voice, or vice versa, within a sentence when not necessary. In active voice the subject acts: "Ed sang." In passive voice the subject is acted upon: "The song was sung by Ed."

Incorrect: I brought cookies, and they were eaten quickly by the students.

Correct: I brought cookies, and the students quickly ate them.

Avoid shifts in number.

Do not shift from singular to plural nouns or pronouns.

Incorrect: Children who study hard are likely to become a good student.

Correct: Children who study hard are likely to become good students.



For more help: www.jennyphillips.com/videos
[Avoiding Shifts in Person, Voice, and Number](#)

Avoiding Shifts in Verb Tense

Verbs come in three basic tenses: **past** (already happened), **present** (happening now), and **future** (yet to happen).

The tenses can be broken down further, as this chart illustrates:

simple past	simple present	simple future
He walked in the garden.	He walks in the garden.	He will walk in the garden.
past continuous	present continuous	future continuous
He was walking in the garden.	He is walking in the garden.	He will be walking in the garden.
past perfect	present perfect	future perfect
He had walked in the garden.	He has walked in the garden since breakfast (and still is).	He will have walked in the garden.
past perfect continuous	present perfect continuous	future perfect continuous
He had been walking in the garden.	He has been walking in the garden all morning (and still is).	He will have been walking in the garden.

The verbs in a sentence or section of writing should not shift verb tense.

Incorrect: Though the lion is fierce, the lion tamers were not worried. (present/past)

Correct: Though the lion is fierce, the lion tamers are not worried.

Incorrect: The concert will be held tonight, and I was playing. (future/past)

Correct: The concert will be held tonight, and I will be playing.

However, sometimes it is necessary and correct to change verb tense.

Correct: Yesterday, I was so discouraged; but today I am trying to be more positive.

Conditional Sentences

Conditional sentences express that one event can happen only if another event happens first.

There are two parts to a conditional sentence: the **IF CLAUSE** and the **MAIN CLAUSE**. The conditions presented can be open (real or factual) or hypothetical (closed to possibility or unreal).

There are four main types of conditional clauses—also called zero, first, second, and third conditionals:

Type 0—simple truth (It will happen.)

If the horse show ever comes to town, we always go.

Type 1—If + simple present (will-future) (It is possible and quite likely that this will happen.)

If we finish our chores soon, Mom will take us to the horse show.

Type 2—If + simple past (would+infinitive) (It is possible but very unlikely that this will happen.)

If our chores were finished, we could go to the horse show.

Type 3—If + past perfect (would+have+past participle) (It is impossible that this could

happen because it refers to the past or to conditions that can never be.)

If we had finished our chores, we could have gone to the horse show.

If I were a bird, I'd fly up to the clouds.

An unusual type of conditional is the **Mixed Conditional—If + past perfect verb (would)** (Because this happened in the past, the results still affect the present.)

If I hadn't entered that art contest last month, I wouldn't have this award today.

If I hadn't planted the seeds in the spring, I wouldn't have this beautiful garden today.

COMMON MISTAKES WITH CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

Type 0—Both clauses are in the present tense. Do not use WILL in the main clause.

Incorrect: When children play, their strength will increase.

Correct: When children play, their strength increases.

Type 1—The present-simple is used in the if-clause, and WILL is used in the main clause. Don't put WILL in the if-clause.

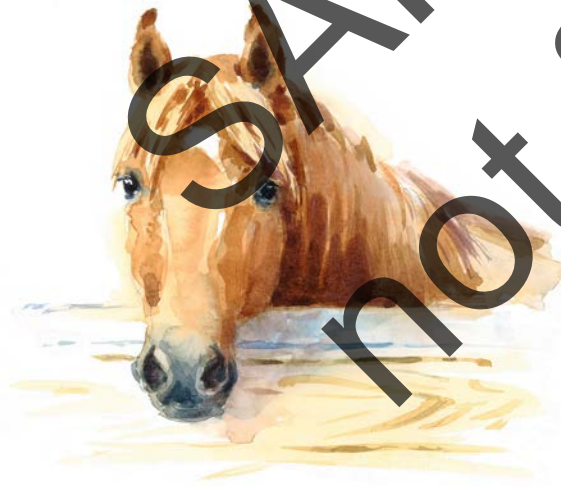
Incorrect: If you will do this, the party will go perfectly.

Correct: If you do this, the party will go perfectly.

Types 2 & 3—These types are for improbable or impossible situations, so don't put WOULD in the if-clause.

Incorrect: If you would learn to play, you could join the band.

Correct: If you learned to play, you could join the band.



Dashes, Parentheses, and Brackets

En Dash

An en dash is roughly the size of a small letter "n." It is slightly longer than a hyphen and shorter than an em dash.

- The en dash is created in Google Docs and other programs by pressing **ALT + 0150** on your keyboard.
- To learn how to create an en dash in other programs, do an internet search (e.g., "how to create en dash in Pages").

The en dash is used in a span or range of numbers, time, or dates. The en dash could usually be replaced with THROUGH or TO. There should be no spaces on either side of an en dash.

The painting is by Hans Gude (1825–1903).

I need to read pages 15–50, which cover chapters 2–4.

The program runs for two hours: 3:00 pm–5:00 pm.

They voted 43–2 for the new policy.

If you introduce a span or range with the words FROM or BETWEEN, do not use the en dash.

Incorrect: She worked for the company from 1996–1999.

Correct: She worked for the company from 1996 to 1999.

Em Dash

An em dash is longer than an en dash—roughly the size of a small letter "m."

- The em dash is created in Google Docs and other programs by pressing **ALT + 0151** on your keyboard or typing two hyphens in a row.
- To learn how to create an em dash in other programs, do an internet search (e.g., "how to create em dash in Pages").

The em dash can take the place of commas, parentheses, or colons as a stylistic preference.

COMMAS

A pair of em dashes can be used in place of commas to greater emphasize the text being set off.

When Jane finished the book, three months later, she gave it back.

When Jane finished the book—three months later—she gave it back.

PARENTHESES

A pair of em dashes can be used in place of parentheses to greater emphasize the text being set off. Em dashes are less formal than parentheses.

When Jane finished the book (three months later) she gave it back.

When Jane finished the book—three months later—she gave it back.

COLONS

The em dash can be used in place of a colon to greater emphasize the conclusion of your sentence. Em dashes are less formal than the colon.

It is a lovely lake: the most lovely lake in the world.

It is a lovely lake—the most lovely lake in the world.



Numbers & Fractions

Hyphenate all spelled-out compound numbers from twenty-one through ninety-nine. Hyphenate all spelled-out fractions.

Twenty-three of the tomato plants were more than three-fourths of the size I thought they would be by now.



USE NO SPACES ON EITHER SIDE OF A HYPHEN.

Incorrect: The well - known actress signed autographs.

Incorrect: The well - known actress signed autographs.

Correct: The well-known actress signed autographs.

A HYPHEN MAY BE USED TO DESIGNATE A DUAL HERITAGE.

French-Canadian

Mexican-American

USE A HYPHEN IF A PREFIX ENDS IN A VOWEL AND IT IS THE SAME AS THE FIRST LETTER OF THE WORD

co-own

pre-empt



For more help: www.jennyphillips.com/videos

[Hyphens](#)

Infinitive Phrases

An infinitive phrase begins with TO and a verb, such as “to bake the perfect cake” and “to win the game.” Infinitive phrases can function as nonessential phrases, subjects, direct objects, predicate nominatives, adjectives, and adverbs.

nonessential phrase

My toe, to be honest, really hurts.

used as a subject

To read ten books is my goal.

used as a direct object

I hope to practice soccer tomorrow.

used as an adjective

She is the contestant to watch.

used as an adverb

To grow a garden, ask Grandpa for help.

used as a predicate nominative

My favorite chore is to sweep the floor.

Note: Do not confuse infinitive phrases with prepositional phrases. A prepositional phrase can begin with TO, but is not followed by a verb.

Note: Some infinitive phrases do not begin with TO. This course does not teach those uncommon exceptions.

Set off introductory, nonessential infinitive phrases with a comma. Set off nonessential (interrupting) infinitive phrases with commas.

To avoid being late, I arrived early. (NONESSENTIAL infinitive phrase at the beginning of sentence)

To find fault with others is easy. (ESSENTIAL infinitive phrase at the beginning of sentence functions as the subject of the sentence)

I am not ready, to be honest, for the science test. (NONESSENTIAL infinitive phrase as an interrupter)

I forgot to mail the letter. (ESSENTIAL infinitive phrase, functions as the direct object)

Participles & Participial Phrases

Why Learn About Participles?

Participial phrases have special comma rules you should know in order to punctuate sentences correctly. Participial phrases are very common, so it is important that you know how to punctuate them. You should learn to recognize “misplaced” and “dangling” participial phrases. Dangling participles are a common grammar mistake and a subject on tests such as the ACT.

What are Participles and Participial Phrases?

Participles are verbs that act as adjectives. They usually end with ED or ING. A present participle uses the present tense (e.g., “smiling widely”). A past participle uses past tense (e.g., “baked today”). Participles usually end in ED or ING, but not always (e.g., “The hymn sung today is lovely”). (Gerunds are also verbs ending in ING, but they function as nouns.)

Participles do not act as verbs in a sentence. Participles act as adjectives.

PRESSED used as a verb: Sam pressed the button.

PRESSED used in a participial phrase: Pressed against the wall, Sam was stuck. (PRESSED describes Sam’s condition.)

SWEATING used as a verb: Sam is sweating.

SWEATING used as a participle: Sweating, Sam passed the finish line. (“Sweating” describes Sam’s condition when he passed the finish line.)

A participial phrase includes a participle and all the other words that complete its meaning. Participial phrases always act as adjectives.

Surprised by their generosity, I started to cry.

Amy, scared of getting sick, put on her warmest coat.

Listening intently for sounds of a bear, we continued on the trail.

My dog, holding a stick in his mouth, swam across the lake.

My dog swam across the lake, holding a stick in his mouth.

Enjoying the sound of the birds, we continued on the trail.

We continued on the trail, enjoying the sound of the birds.



Prepositions and Prepositional Phrases

Prepositions link words in a sentence, usually by showing relationship ("Book OF Ruth") or position in time or space such as ABOVE, BELOW, AFTER, and DURING. The most common prepositions are ON, OF, IN, AT, TO, BY, FOR, FROM, and WITH.

Common Prepositions

about	behind	instead of	regarding
above	below	like	since
according to	beneath	minus	through
across	beside	near	to
after	beyond	next to	toward
along	by	of	under
among	down	off	underneath
apart from	during	on	until
around	except	onto	unlike
as	for	out	up
as well	from	outside	upon
at	in	over	with
because of	into	past	within
before	inside	plus	without

The noun (or pronoun) that follows the preposition is called the object of the preposition.

Example: She walked over the bridge. (OVER is the preposition; BRIDGE is the object of the preposition.)

A prepositional phrase consists of the preposition, the object of the preposition (which can be a noun or pronoun), and any words that modify the object.

We walked over the old bridge.

I am running next to the river.

I am late because of the accident.

Prepositional Phrases and Commas

1. **Use a comma to separate a prepositional phrase from the sentence when the phrase is at the beginning of the sentence AND is four words or more.** (Some style books say 3+ words while others say 5+, but you get the idea—a long introductory phrase should be set off from the sentence with a comma.)

Instead of coming the dog ran away. (The prepositional phrase is less than four words. No comma needed.)

Underneath the big shade tree, I like to sit and read. (The prepositional phrase is five words; a comma is helpful.)

2. **Nonessential prepositional phrases should be set off by commas (even if a phrase is less than four words) anywhere in a sentence.**

A nonessential phrase adds helpful detail that is not entirely necessary. Omitting a nonessential phrase will not change the meaning of the sentence. (Omitting an essential prepositional phrase, however, will change the meaning of the sentence.) Because a nonessential phrase interrupts the flow of a sentence, it is set off with a comma(s).

I put the book underneath the table. (The prepositional phrase "underneath the table" is essential to the sentence, so no comma is needed.)

My new bike, over by the barn, already has a flat tire! (The prepositional phrase "over by the barn" provides extra information but is not necessary to the meaning of the sentence, so it is set off with commas.)

Problems with Modifiers

A modifier is an optional word, phrase, or clause that describes, modifies, or clarifies another word, phrase, or clause. Modifiers can be adjectives, adjective clauses, adverbs, adverb clauses, absolute phrases, infinitive phrases, participial phrases, and prepositional phrases. Typically, the modifier can be removed without affecting the grammar of the sentence.

Dangling Modifiers

A dangling modifier is an adjectival participial phrase that describes something that is not in the sentence, and thus is unclear and considered to "dangle." To identify a dangling modifier, first ask, "What is the subject of the sentence?" and then look to see if the subject is being modified in the sentence. If it is not, you have a dangling modifier.

Dangling Modifier: Hoping to fix the problem, the note was written.

The subject of this sentence seems to be "the note," but the note is not "hoping to fix the problem." The real subject is missing and needs to be added.

Improved Sentence: Hoping to fix the problem, Hapo wrote the note.

Dangling Modifier: After weeding the garden, the clean rows gave me a feeling of satisfaction.

The subject of this sentence seems to be "rows," but the rows are not "weeding the garden."

Improved Sentence: After weeding the garden, I had a feeling of satisfaction from seeing the clean rows.



Misplaced Modifiers

A misplaced modifier is a modifier that is placed too far from the word or words it modifies, thus causing confusion.

Misplaced Modifier: I served apples to the children on paper plates.

This sentence makes it seem as if the children are on paper plates.

Improved Sentence: I served the children apples on paper plates.

Misplaced Modifier: Mom said on Tuesday we could go to the park.

Did she say this on Tuesday or would they go to the park on Tuesday? For fixes, move the phrase to either end, depending on which meaning was intended.

Misplaced Modifier: I had a delicious bowl of chili at the lodge.

This sentence makes it seem like the bowl is delicious.

Improved Sentence: I had a bowl of delicious chili at the lodge.

Misplaced Modifier: Dion only grew three tomato plants this year. (*He also grew many other things in his garden.*)

This sentence makes it seem like the only things Dion grew this year were three tomato plants.

Improved Sentence: Dion grew only three tomato plants this year.



For more help: www.jennyphillips.com/videos
[Dangling Modifiers](#)



For more help: www.jennyphillips.com/videos
[Misplaced Modifiers](#)

Accept/Except

Accept - verb

to take or receive what is offered or to consider as true or reasonable

Examples: I accept your apology. | He will accept your help.

Except - preposition or subordinating conjunction

but, leaving out, excluding

Examples: Everyone came except Elise. | I like all colors except brown.



SUPER SIMPLE TIP: The prefix EX means “out.” So if you are talking about leaving something out, use except.

Allowed/Aloud

Allowed

acceptable, admitted

Examples: No dogs are allowed in the park.
We were allowed to play until supper time.

Aloud

to use the voice

Examples: He said his prayers aloud.
My teacher wanted me to read the book aloud.
Aloud and with great passion, I read the exciting story.

All Together/Altogether

All Together

everyone/everything in one place

Examples: We read the book all together.
I love it when we are all together.

Altogether

thoroughly, entirely, on the whole

Examples: I am altogether excited!
The trail seemed to disappear altogether.



Allusion/Illusion

Allusion

a brief, indirect reference to a person, place, thing, or idea of historical, cultural, literary, or political significance

Example: There was an allusion in my book to Scrooge from *A Christmas Carol*.

Illusion

a deception, a false reality or belief

Example: Because of the magician's skilled illusion, I really thought he pulled the rabbit out of his hat!

Defuse/Diffuse

Defuse

to make less dangerous; to take a fuse from an explosive device

Examples: To help defuse the situation, the mayor backed down.
The bomb expert quickly defused the ticking bomb.

Diffuse

to spread out, soften or weaken

Examples: The smoke diffused into the air and drifted away.
Diffused light from the stained glass window gives the room a warm and cozy look.

Desert/Dessert

Desert [DEZ-ert] - (noun)

an arid region

Example: We saw a big cactus in the desert.



Desert [dih-ZERT] - (verb)

to abandon

Example: I would never desert her.

Dessert [duh-SERT] - (noun)

a sweet treat, usually the last course of a meal

Example: We are having ice cream for dessert.



SUPER SIMPLE TIP: The desert has one sun above it. SUN only has one S and so does the word DESERT.

Disinterested/Uninterested

Disinterested

to have no opinion for or against; i.e., to have no "side"

Examples: The woman on the jury was a disinterested party.
Three disinterested panelists were chosen to judge.

Uninterested

to have no interest or to not care about something

Examples: Tom was uninterested in playing any type of sport.
Though the offer was generous, she was uninterested.

Dual/Duel

Dual - adjective

made of two parts; double

Examples: She has dual citizenship in America and Canada.
The dual weights made it stable.

Duel - noun or verb

a formal fight between two people; to struggle for power

Examples: I challenge you to a duel!
They duelled for who would rule the land.

e.g./i.e.

e.g.

for example

Examples: I have many hobbies (e.g., running, chess, and drawing).
Sean is allergic to several foods, e.g., eggs and fish.

i.e.

in other words

Examples: I will give you the standard discount, i.e., 20%.
I am leaving for my favorite vacation spot, i.e., Hawaii.

Always put a comma after i.e. and e.g. when a list or example follows.

Effect/Affect

Effect - noun

a result or a consequence

Examples: The verse had a profound effect on me.
The effects of the medicine wore off quickly.

Affect - verb

to change or influence

Example: Violence affects your mind.



SUPER SIMPLE TIP: AFFECT is a verb (and EFFECT is not). Think of the beginning letter of AFFECT, which is A to remind you of an "action" verb (A for "Action").

Emigrate/Immigrate

Emigrate

to exit one's current homeland

Example: Because of the good economy, not many chose to emigrate.

Immigrate

to come into another country to live permanently

Example: We immigrated to Canada when I was a teenager.

Immigrate is usually followed by TO. Emigrate is usually followed by FROM.



SUPER SIMPLE TIP: Emigrate is from the point of view of the departure. Think E for EXIT. Immigrate: Think I for IN.

Endemic/Epidemic/Pandemic

Endemic

a disease that is constantly found in one area or location

Example: Malaria and typhoid fever are endemic in India.

Epidemic

a disease that breaks out, spreads in a contained area, then goes away

Example: A measles epidemic hit our city hard.

Pandemic

a disease that spreads across an entire nation, continent, or world

Example: The 1918 Influenza Pandemic killed more people in one year than WWI did in four years.

Abstract vs. Descriptive Language

Descriptive writing portrays people, places, things, or events with enough detail to paint a vivid and convincing picture in the reader's mind. Although some types of writing call for more description than others, the ability to describe something effectively is a valuable skill in both fiction and nonfiction writing.



Learning to write descriptively may take some practice, but it will make your writing more interesting and effective.

Imagine you are at a museum and two paintings of the same house are hung side by side. The house in the first painting is made of simple black and white abstract shapes. Conversely, the house in the second painting has precise detail, using vibrant, beautiful colors. Ivy climbs up the side of the house, a dog with floppy ears rests on the front porch, yellow and orange leaves carpet the front lawn, gables and wooden shutters adorn the front of the house, and the soft, golden glow of the setting sun reflects warmly off the windows.

Both paintings portray the same house, but the abstract simplicity of one does not pull you into the details of the scene nearly as much as the concrete description of the other.

Writing can be the same. Abstract language, which is vague, does not bring to mind specific visual images and can leave readers feeling like they are

looking at the abstract house made of simple black and white shapes. Descriptive language, on the other hand, colorfully conveys the writer's message. Including specific, vivid details that readers can visualize makes writing entertaining and engrossing; it paints a picture so real that the reader feels like he could reach out and touch it.

Replacing abstract language with concrete language is like adjusting the focus on a camera, making the image clearer and allowing the reader to notice small details. Indeed, the reader may feel transported into the scene.

Consider these examples from *Carry On, Mr. Bowditch*:

Abstract	Descriptive
He was tired.	His eyelids sagged.
Nat was nervous.	Nat's knees began to shake.
Nat was worried.	Nat felt a cold lump in his stomach.
Nat had a hard time eating.	Nat couldn't seem to swallow. He chewed and chewed each bite until it somehow went away.
The fire burned.	The fire sputtered out in red tongues.
Father came up the stairs.	Father tramped up the steep stairs, bending his dark head where the roof slanted.
They stopped in front of a house.	They stopped in front of a weather-beaten little cottage in a weed-grown yard.
That evening it stormed.	That evening, just after supper, the wind rose, and the rain fell down the wide chimney and hissed in the fire.
He looked at the sky.	He stared out the window and watched the April breeze chase clouds across the stars.
It was hot.	The decks of the Putnam oozed tar.

Annotating & Summarizing Difficult Texts

Never were there times which inculcated more forcibly than those in which we live, the wisdom of seeking a happiness beyond the reach of human vicissitudes.

Would you be able to summarize the passage above by William Wilberforce? You may recognize the passage as being written in English, but you may feel like you do not understand Wilberforce's words very well. In order to summarize texts, which means to briefly and concisely state the main points, you must first thoroughly understand the material.

Understanding Difficult Texts

If you do not understand a difficult text on your first reading, you are not alone. Even expert readers have to reread and study challenging texts. Practice and experience with note taking and annotating can improve and quicken your abilities to understand complex material.

How to Annotate

Annotate means to add notes or comments to a text.

1. Look up unfamiliar words in the dictionary. Words will often have more than one meaning. Use the meaning that best fits the context.
2. Break the text down into the smallest sections needed to decipher it, then write what each section means in your own words. If you do not understand a paragraph, first decipher the meaning of individual sentences within the paragraph. If you do not understand a sentence, break the sentence into phrases, write the meaning of each of the phrases, and put them together in a sentence.
3. Underline or highlight key parts of the text.
4. Write your own notes in the margin, including summaries and interpretations of symbolism, allegories, or figurative language.

ANNOTATION EXAMPLE #1
William Wilberforce

To instill, gradually but firmly establish

changing conditions

pertaining to the Earth

not lasting

#1 Earthly possessions are dependent on circumstances beyond our control. They are uncertain & do not last.

dependent on circumstances beyond one's control

the period or term of holding something

#1 Simplified more
It is wise to seek happiness that is not dependent on changing human circumstance. Sometimes those lessons come forcibly.

? out of reach, not dependent on changing human conditions.

#2

#1 To understand how it is wise to seek happiness that isn't dependent on changing human circumstances.

#1 The times in which he lived force us

Never were there times which inculcated more forcibly than those in which we live, the wisdom of seeking happiness beyond the reach of human vicissitudes. What striking lessons have we had of the precarious tenure of all sublunary possessions! Wealth and power, and prosperity, how peculiarly transitory and uncertain!

The image shows a handwritten annotation of a text by William Wilberforce. The text is enclosed in a box. Various parts of the text are highlighted in different colors (red, green, blue). Handwritten notes in circles and ovals are connected to the text by arrows. Some notes explain words or phrases, while others provide summaries or interpretations. A large diagonal watermark 'SAMPLE FOR USE' is overlaid on the image.

Summary

The times in which Wilberforce lived showed the wisdom in finding happiness that was not dependent on changing human conditions. Earthly possessions are dependent on circumstances beyond our control; they are uncertain and do not last.

Avoiding Plagiarism

The Merriam Webster Dictionary defines plagiarism as “stealing and passing off the ideas or words of another as one’s own.”

Common Knowledge

You do not need to cite a source for material considered common knowledge. Following are guidelines to determine if information is common knowledge:

CONSIDERED COMMON KNOWLEDGE

- Information that the majority of people know or can easily look up, such as a famous person’s birthdate, the date of a battle, who won the Super Bowl, how many books an author has published, the fact that the moon orbits the earth, the fact that carbon monoxide is dangerous, or the state flower of Arizona
- Information available from a number of reliable sources
- A common proverb or saying

NOT CONSIDERED COMMON KNOWLEDGE

- Statistics, results, or findings of a certain study or survey
- Someone’s unique theory, findings, process, ideas, or instructions
- Facts that are not well known and are not easy to find in a number of reliable sources

Quoting

Whenever you use another person’s specific words, you must put quotation marks around the words and cite the source.

John Durand explains, "Line engraving, it must not be forgotten, was at this period of art development the sole means by which the inaccessible works of a painter could be made widely known" (Durand, John, *The Life and Times of A.B. Durand*, 1894).

You also must not change or rearrange a few words in a sentence and pass it off as your own writing. For example, you cannot change the quote as follows and pass it off as your own:

Line engraving was the sole means during this period of art development by which the works of a painter could be made widely known.

However, you may take the general concepts from the quote (because they are common knowledge) and rewrite them in your own words as follows (without citing the source):

During this period of time in art history, photographic processes had not yet been created. Thus, line engraving was the sole means of reproducing paintings and making them available to many people.

Paraphrasing

To paraphrase is to put someone’s original ideas (*ideas that are not common knowledge*) into your own words. This is acceptable as long as you cite the source. For example, John Durand wrote this about his father, Asher Durand:

The habit of the boy in satisfying natural curiosity in his father's workshop, the privilege of roaming the fields and woods which kept his mind in fresh contact with nature, and the indulgence of feelings and sympathies indoors that required no theoretical training, was an education of the best kind.

Here is one way you could paraphrase that quote:

Asher Durand's son John believed that Asher received the best kind of education—an education that satisfied natural curiosity—in his father's workshop and through the privilege of roaming the fields and woods, which kept his mind in fresh contact with nature (Durand, John, *The Life and Times of A.B. Durand*, 1894).



For more help: www.jennyphillips.com/videos

[Avoiding Plagiarism](#)

Citing Sources: Part 1

Several widely accepted style guides, such as the APA, Chicago Manual of Style, and MLA, give guidance on citing sources. This course teaches a simplified MLA format. You do not need to list the city of publication, the publisher's name, nor the medium of publication, which are usually included in MLA format. The important thing to learn from citing sources in this course is not a particular format, but how to follow the guidelines you are given with close attention to detail. If in the future you take a higher education class that requires you to write a paper with sources, strictly follow the guidelines in the style guide used by the class.



For more help: www.jennyphillips.com/videos
[Citing Sources: Part 1](#)

FOLLOW THESE GUIDELINES WHEN CITING A SOURCE:

ITALICIZE THESE TITLES

Books	Magazines	Newspapers
Websites	Plays	Album Names

WRITE MONTHS AS FOLLOWS

Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
------	------	------	------	-----	------	------	------	-------	------	------	------

FORMAT DATES AS FOLLOWS

day month year Examples: 5 July 2002 | 24 Oct. 1993

PUT THESE TITLES IN QUOTES

Articles	Short Stories	Poems
Speeches	Essays	Songs

INCLUDE THIS INFORMATION

Books	Author's Last Name, Author's First Name, Title of Book, Year of Publication.	Examples: Allen, James, <i>As a Man Thinketh</i> , 1910. Smith, Adam, <i>Wealth of Nations</i> , 1776.
Articles	Author's Last Name, Author's First Name, Title of Article, Title of Magazine/Newspaper/Encyclopedia, Month and Year of Publication.	Example: Douglas, Chadwick, "Ghost Cats," <i>National Geographic</i> , Jan. 2014.
Websites	Author's Last Name, Author's First Name (if listed), Title of Article (if applicable), Title of Website, Date of Publication (if listed).	Examples: "Emily Dickinson: The Writing Years," www.emilydickinsonmuseum.org . [No author or publication date listed] Mallonee, Laura, "The Imaginative Man," www.poetryfoundation.org . [No publication date listed] Klein, Christopher, "A Perfect Solar Storm," www.history.com , 14 Mar. 2012.

Note: MLA formats often change with new editions of the MLA handbook. The purpose of this course is not to teach an exact format, but to teach the student how to carefully follow a given format.

Essay Writing



For more help: www.jennyphillips.com/videos

[Thesis Statements](#)

Thesis Statements

An essay builds upon a **thesis statement**, which is composed of one or two sentences near the beginning of an essay (usually at the end of the introductory paragraph). The thesis statement indicates the focus or argument of an essay, helps the reader know what to expect, and helps the writer focus and avoid wandering from the main idea.

There are two kinds of thesis statements:

An informative thesis statement declares the focus of an essay that is based on fact, not opinion. In an essay with this type of thesis statement, a stance is not taken and opinions are not given; facts are simply stated.

Examples:

#1: Fridtjof Nansen accomplished much as an explorer, scientist, diplomat, and humanitarian. (You would then expect the essay to provide factual information explaining the work Nansen did in those fields.)

#2: The US national obesity rate, in both adults and children, has been rising for decades. (You would then expect the essay to give factual information on this topic.)

A persuasive thesis statement declares the focus of an essay that is based on opinion. Writers use their own thoughts and ideas, along with facts or quotes by others, to support their opinion.



Examples:

#1: Fridtjof Nansen was not just a great explorer, he was also a great man who showed character traits I would like to emulate. (Expect the essay to focus on Nansen's work as an explorer and the writer's thoughts and opinions of Nansen's character.)

#2: It is the parent's responsibility to do something about the national obesity rate, which has been rising for decades. (Expect the essay to explain how the obesity rate has risen and present an argument about why parents should do something about it.)

What Makes a Good Thesis Statement?

- **It should not be too narrow nor too broad.** Every paragraph in an essay must point to the thesis statement, so the thesis statement should be broad enough to cover everything you want to cover. On the other hand, make sure you are not trying to say too much in one essay. Essays are easier to write if a thesis statement is narrowed down to a few specific aspects of the topic.
- **Do not use worn-out, weak phrases.** Don't use phrases like "I believe," or "In my opinion," or "In this paper I will be discussing."
Weak: In this paper I will discuss the problem of rising obesity and the need to do something about it.
Stronger: Obesity is a rising problem—a problem that requires our serious attention and action.

Essay Writing

Developing and Outlining an Essay

Once you have used the prewriting process to establish your topic (see the section titled [Prewriting](#)), it is time to start developing your idea and come up with a solid thesis statement.

Gathering More Information

Before you can write your thesis, you may need to gather more information—especially if you are not exactly sure where you stand on the issue. You may need to do some research on what experts and others say on the topic and decide with which points you agree or disagree.

Developing Your Thesis and Supporting Ideas

Once you can answer the question, “What is my position and why?”, then you can write your thesis. For example, if you selected the topic of “children borrowing against their allowance” and decided that your view on borrowing against allowance is never permissible, you may write a thesis like this:

If parents want to teach their children to avoid debt when they are grown, then they should never allow their children to borrow against their allowance. **This practice will help children cement the idea of no debt in their lives, and it will help them learn to save and plan ahead for unforeseen needs or wants.**

The sentence in bold contains the main supporting ideas, which do not have to be included as part of the thesis or introduction—it is up to you. However, written or not written in your thesis, you do need main supporting points. Everything you write in your essay will need to fall under one of these main supporting points. The required length of your paper will help determine how many supporting points you should have. If you can not come up with enough supporting points, you might need a new thesis that you can better support.

Outlining your Essay

Once you have developed your thesis (or the first draft of your thesis—it may change as you continue the organizing and writing process), you will write a simple outline for your essay. A short essay does not require an extensive outline. Include the following to create a simple outline:

I. INTRODUCTION

- Starts with an attention-getting opener
- States your thesis
- Possibly includes the specific points you plan to cover

II. BODY

- Body paragraphs explore the supporting points of your thesis.
- The body paragraphs provide evidence for each of your supporting points followed by your own commentary about the evidence.
- Each paragraph focuses on one specific supporting point unless that point takes more than one paragraph.

III. CONCLUSION

- Summarizes your main points and brings them together
- Refers back to the main points of your thesis in some way

Creating an outline may seem tedious, but it is an important step in creating an effective essay. Do not skip outlining, but also do not feel restricted to following your outline exactly when writing your essay. You may find that your outline needs to change during the writing process. Your outline is simply your plan, and plans often change as you delve deeper into the writing process.

Essay Writing

Beyond the Five-Paragraph Essay

Many courses, including this one, teach an essay pattern called a "Five-Paragraph essay" that is organized like this:

Introduction: State thesis and three main points.

Body Paragraph One: Discuss point one.

Body Paragraph Two: Discuss point two.

Body Paragraph Three: Discuss point three.

Conclusion: Summarize and restate your thesis.

This format provides a simple organizational structure, is easy to teach and grade, and can be a great starting point for younger or struggling students. The Five-Paragraph essay can also be a useful strategy for some essay exam questions.

However, the Five-Paragraph organization can be a restrictive format that does not allow for creativity or produce effective writing. Five-Paragraph essays can easily become repetitive, predictable, and boring. Most newspapers, college essays, magazine articles, and scholarly articles do not use this method.

This course teaches you this basic pattern and also the foundational principles of effective essay writing. You are then encouraged to determine the best structure and format for your specific topic and your personal style.

- Sometimes your introduction might be more than one paragraph long.
- Sometimes you might include a paragraph after the introduction that gives background information before digging into your main points.

- Sometimes you might just follow the Five-Paragraph model.

The important things are that

- your introduction pulls the reader into your essay
- you stick to your thesis and support it with main ideas
- your conclusion wraps everything up
- your essay is logically organized
- your writing is compelling, interesting, and grammatically correct

If you are taught only the five-paragraph essay format, it could be hard for you to be creative and expressive with your essays now and in the future. However, if you are trained well in the foundational principles of effective essay writing, you would easily be able to write a Five-Paragraph essay if ever needed.



Varying Sentence Structure and First Words

When a paragraph is composed of sentences that are similar in length, structure, and first words, the writing can be ineffective and uninteresting. For example, read this paragraph, which is composed of sentences with the same structure and similar length:

Bab raced on. Betty went in the opposite direction. They went around the house. They met with a crash. The thief did not appear.

Now read the following paragraph the way Louisa May Alcott wrote it:

Away they went, Bab racing straight on, and bewildered Betty turning obediently round to trot in the opposite direction as fast as she could, with the water splashing all over her as she ran, for she had forgotten to put down her pail. Round the house they went and met with a crash at the back door, but no sign of the thief appeared.

Both paragraphs contain the same main events, but the second paragraph displays more effective and appealing writing. Why? When sentences are the same length, are the same type of sentence structures, are stripped of descriptive language, and start with the same words, the writing becomes predictable, simplistic, choppy, and boring.

Here are some ways to vary sentence structures and first words:

Combine sentences with a Comma and a Coordinating Conjunction

Choppy Sentences: It started to rain. Abe closed the windows.

Improved Sentence: It started to rain, so Abe closed the windows.

Start with a Dependent Clause

Choppy Sentences: It started to rain. Abe closed the windows.

Improved Sentence: When it started to rain, Abe closed the windows.

Start with an Introductory Word or Phrase and/or Combine Sentences

Choppy Sentences: It started to rain. Abe closed the windows.

Improved Sentences: Suddenly, it started to rain. Abe quickly closed the windows.

Add a Prepositional Phrase

Choppy Sentences: It started to rain. Abe closed the windows.

Improved Sentences: Out of the dark sky, torrents of rain began to fall. In just three seconds, Abe shut the windows and secured the shutters.

Start with a Participial Phrase

Choppy Sentences: It started to rain. Abe closed the windows.

Improved Sentences: Working quickly, Abe shut the windows and secured the shutters.

Start with an Infinitive Phrase

Choppy Sentences: It started to rain. Abe closed the windows.

Improved Sentences: To everyone's great surprise, it suddenly started to rain. Abe quickly closed the windows.

