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1,001 Grammar Practice Questions
1,001 Grammar Practice Questions

by Geraldine Woods
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Introduction

A bestselling book once claimed that anyone hoping to reach the highest level in a particular field must put in 10,000 hours of practice. That's a lot of hours! I'm pleased to inform you that you won't need 10,000 hours to work your way through these 1,001 grammar questions. I'm even more pleased to report that practicing the skills these questions address, even for only a few hours, will improve your grammar. If you already speak and write English well, this book helps you refine your knowledge of proper usage. If English is a language you're still learning, you can concentrate on questions that address basic concepts and gradually work your way to more advanced points.

In addition to 1,001 questions, this book provides answers and explanations, so you know why a particular expression is correct (or incorrect). In the explanations, I stay away from technical terms as much as possible, including only the specialized vocabulary you absolutely need to grasp the underlying logic or traditions of the language. I stay with the simplest terms and define them as they appear, in case you're not familiar with a term or you learned a different one in school. And you may have! Grammarians love jargon. For example, many bloody battles have been fought between those who favor the terms predicate nominative and predicate adjective and those who prefer the label subject complement. (Both apply to a word that follows a form of the verb to be.) Okay, I’m exaggerating a little. Maybe blood hasn’t been shed, but an ocean of ink has! My view is that as long as you know proper usage, you can call something a cantaloupe for all I care.

One warning: According to one study, English has nearly a million words that may be combined in varied — and grammatically correct — ways. For each question I provide the most common response, but at times you may come up with another answer that’s also acceptable. In such a situation, measure your version by the standards I provide in each explanation, and count yourself “right” if you’ve followed the rules.

What You’ll Find

This book contains 1,001 questions, neatly divided into 22 chapters. I take you through parts of speech (verbs, pronouns, and so forth), parts of a sentence (subjects, verbs, objects, descriptions, and the like), and what English teachers call mechanics (punctuation and capitalization). I also cover the most common mistakes, such as incomplete sentences, commonly confused words, and nonstandard expressions. Each chapter begins with a list of topics, followed by tips and traps — points to remember when you’re answering the questions in that chapter. You don’t have to complete every question in a section, and you don’t have to work on the chapters in order. You’re in charge! Select only the topics that stump you, if you want. When you’re checking your answers and reading the attached explanations, you may discover other areas worth exploring. For example, suppose you’re asked to select the proper pronoun for a sentence. In the answer section, you see that you need a subject pronoun. The problem is that you’re not sure how to locate a subject. No worries: Turn to Chapter 4 for practice in finding subjects.
How This Workbook Is Organized

This workbook includes 1,001 questions in Part I and answers to all of them, plus explanations, in Part II.

Part I: The Questions

Here are the topics covered by the 1,001 questions in this book:

- **Verbs**: Chapter 1 deals with locating the verb and selecting the right tense. Chapter 2 covers irregular verb forms, helping verbs, and verb forms that function as descriptions (participles, in grammar terminology). On a more advanced level, Chapter 17 deals with verbs in active and passive voice and subjunctive verbs.

- **Nouns and pronouns**: Chapter 3 checks your knowledge of singular and plural nouns and pronouns. The questions in Chapter 6 concern pronoun case — the difference between he, him, and his, for example.

- **Agreement**: In grammar, the principle of agreement is that singular pairs with singular and plural with plural. Chapter 4 focuses on subject-verb agreement, and Chapter 5 checks whether pronouns agree with the words they represent, also known as their antecedents.

- **Sentence completeness**: The building block of writing is a complete sentence. The questions in Chapter 7 deal with complete (and therefore correct) sentences, as well as run-ons (sentences improperly joined) and fragments (incomplete sentences).

- **Descriptions and complements**: Adding to the bare bones of the sentence, the subject-verb pair, are complements and descriptions. In Chapters 8 and 9 you distinguish between an adjective and an adverb, select the correct form, and place it in the right spot. In Chapter 10 you work on comparisons, so that yours are clear and logical.

- **Capitalization**: Names, quotations, seasons, titles — Chapter 11 checks whether you understand where to place a capital letter in these situations and many others.

- **Punctuation**: Lots of people shudder when they think about punctuation, but the rules actually make sense. In Chapter 12 you practice inserting and deleting commas. Chapter 13 hits you with questions about apostrophes and quotation marks.

- **Parallel structure**: Parallel is the word English teachers use to describe balance. In Chapter 14 you work on questions about parallelism, including lists, paired conjunctions (either/or, not only/but also, and so forth), tense, and person.

- **Style**: Do your sentences need to go on a diet? Chapter 15 permits you to trim some repetitive or wordy sentences. Chapter 16 prods you to vary sentence patterns.

- **Electronic media**: Do you know how to make a grammatically correct presentation slide or bulleted list? Chapter 18 questions you on this topic and tests the appropriate form and language for e-mail and texts. In Chapter 19 you examine formal and informal English and decide when each is appropriate.

- **Word traps**: Some word pairs can trick you — accept/except, affect/effect, rise/raise, and so on. In Chapters 20, 21, and 22, you practice choosing the appropriate word so that your writing always expresses your intended meaning.
Part II: The Answers

Scheherazade, a legendary Persian queen, told a story each night for 1,001 nights. She had to strike just the right note to keep the king’s interest. Mistakes were not an option, because the penalty facing her was execution. Luckily for you, the consequences for mistakes in answering 1,001 grammar questions are not so terrible. In fact, you receive no penalty at all. Instead, you have a chance to read the explanations and learn more about English grammar. Scheherazade, by the way, survived — and so will you!

Beyond the Book

This book gives you plenty of grammar questions to work on. Perhaps you want to track your progress as you tackle the questions, or maybe you’re having trouble with certain types of questions and wish they were all presented in one place. You’re in luck. Your book purchase comes with a free one-year subscription to all 1,001 practice questions online. You get on-the-go access any way you want it — from your computer, smartphone, or tablet. Track your progress and view personalized reports showing what you need to study the most. You can study what, where, when, and how you want.

What you’ll find online

The online practice that comes free with this book offers the same 1,001 questions and answers that are available here. The beauty of the online problems is that you can customize your online practice to focus on the topics that give you the most trouble. So if you need help forming comparisons or placing commas, just select those question types online and start practicing. If you’re short on time but want to get a mixed bag, you can specify the number of problems you want to practice. Whether you practice a few hundred problems in one sitting or a dozen, and whether you focus on a few types of problems or practice every type, the online program keeps track of the questions you get right and wrong so you can monitor your progress and spend time studying exactly what you need.

You can access this online tool using an access code, as described in the next section. Keep in mind that you can create only one login with your access code. After the access code is used, it’s no longer valid and is nontransferable, so you can’t share your access code with other users after you establish your login credentials.

This product also comes with an online Cheat Sheet that helps you increase your odds of improving your grammar skills. Check out the free Cheat Sheet at www.dummies.com/cheatsheet/1001grammar. (No access code required. You can access this info before you even register.)
How to register

To gain access to the online version of all 1,001 practice questions in this book, all you have to do is register. Just follow these simple steps:

1. Find your PIN access code.
   - **Print book users:** If you purchased a hard copy of this book, turn to the back of this book to find your access code.
   - **E-book users:** If you purchased this book as an e-book, you can get your access code by registering your e-book at www.dummies.com/go/getaccess. Go to this website, find your book and click it, and answer the security question to verify your purchase. Then you’ll receive an e-mail with your access code.

2. Go to http://learn.dummies.com and click Already have an Access Code?.
3. Enter your access code and click Next.
4. Follow the instructions to create an account and establish your personal login information.

That’s all there is to it! You can come back to the online program again and again — simply log in with the username and password you chose during your initial login. No need to use the access code a second time.

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Your registration is good for one year from the day you activate your PIN. After that time frame has passed, you can renew your registration for a fee. The website gives you all the important details about how to do so.

Where to Go for Additional Help

Each chapter begins with short explanations of the tips and traps associated with each topic, and the answer explanations give you still more information about grammar rules. If you need longer explanations and more examples, you may want to check out English Grammar For Dummies, English Grammar Workbook For Dummies, or Grammar Essentials For Dummies, all of which I wrote and Wiley published. My royalty statement and I thank you!
Part I
The Questions

1,001 Questions

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In this part...

You may have a love-hate relationship with answering questions; you enjoy challenging yourself, but you don’t like to fail. This part — 1,001 grammar questions — is set up so you won’t fail. When you have trouble, you can check the answer and read the explanation in Part II and then return to the questions, better prepared to answer the next one correctly. Specifically, here’s what you’ll find in this part:

- Basic parts of speech and essential elements of a proper sentence (Chapters 1–7)
- Descriptive elements and mechanics of capitalization and punctuation (Chapters 8–13)
- Ways to add style to your writing (Chapters 14–17)
- Considerations when writing for electronic media and varying levels of formality (Chapters 18–19)
- Commonly misused words and expressions (Chapters 20–22)
Chapter 1

Time Travel: Identifying the Verb and Choosing the Correct Tense

In science fiction films, a character can zoom into the past or hop into the future, usually with the help of a machine resembling a giant vacuum cleaner. You time travel too, when you choose verbs for your sentences. Verbs express action or state of being in the past, present, and future. In this chapter you practice locating the verb and selecting the appropriate tense. You also tackle singular and plural forms, plugging the right one into every sentence.

The Questions You’ll Answer

Here you find sentences that allow you to sharpen your verb skills in these ways:

- Locating the verb(s) in a sentence
- Selecting simple past-, present-, or future-tense verbs to fit the meaning of a sentence
- Choosing progressive verb forms to indicate ongoing action
- Placing past perfect, present perfect, or future perfect forms where they’re needed
- Finding the right tense to summarize speech and discuss literary or artistic works
- Expressing unchangeable facts in present tense
- Determining whether you need a singular or plural form

What to Watch Out For

Verb tense can be tricky, as can *agreement* — the matching of singular verbs to singular subjects and plural verbs to plural subjects. When you work through these questions, watch out for these issues:

- Zero in on the time period(s) covered in the sentence.
- Establish a timeline if more than one action or state of being is expressed in the sentence.
- Stay in the same tense unless the meaning of the sentence justifies a shift.
- Check whether the subject is singular or plural and match the verb to the subject.
- Ignore words that resemble verbs but function as descriptions or nouns.
### Locating the Verb

1. Eric and his band played five songs by the Beatles, to the delight of the audience.

2. Maria slipped out of the room quietly at the end of the lecture on the causes of World War I.

3. The twins will be happy on their birthday when they receive your present!

4. Perhaps because of my brother’s illness, my dog Tweet seems sad today.

5. The child searched for a tissue but found only a dirty candy wrapper.

6. The screaming figure at the left of the painting represents a mother’s grief.

7. Glenn has always carried the sizzling pizza in a special, heat-proof box.

8. The puppies, along with the kittens, were displayed in the shop window for all to see.

9. The last meeting of the council was bittersweet, as the members were now scattering for distant destinations.

10. To go faster, try not to look at the keyboard as you type.

11. Smiling, Barbara wrestled with the math problem until she calculated the correct answer.

12. Daniel’s pen, having run out of ink, sat on the shelf, unused and forgotten.

13. While copying the letter, Mike stuck his finger in the moving paper tray.
Chapter 1: Time Travel: Identifying the Verb and Choosing the Correct Tense

14. Norman has been judged “normal” by his doctor, but his friends view him differently.

15. Sliding down the mountain, the ski instructor guided his students.

16–55 Select the tense and form of the verb in parentheses that fits the meaning of the sentence.

16. I _____ (to start) my blog a year ago, and I do not intend to stop now.

17. Sheryl and her friend always _____ (to shop) on a Tuesday, when the store offers double discounts.

18. Next year, four boys _____ (to compete) for a single spot on the wrestling team.

19. Emma _____ (to snap) a picture of her brother Eric every year on his birthday, including today.

20. Last week I tossed a bit of my dinner under the table because the dog _____ (to beg) for scraps while I ate.

21. Start working on your lab report as soon as you _____ (to arrive) home.

22. Mr. Martin _____ (to trim) the tree after he had watered it.

23. While Harry _____ (to wash) the clothes, Oliver was brushing the dog’s matted fur.

24. Jackie _____ (to learn) Arabic when she lived in Tunisia.

25. Carla _____ (to fill) the gas tank before she realized that her credit card was not in her wallet.

26. By the time George gets home, Maria _____ (to gobble) all the cookies, and George hates all the other snacks.
27. When I____ (to bake) the cookies, I placed them on the dining room table.

28. Although the king commands instant obedience, his followers sometimes_____ (to disobey).

29. Marlene____ (to lecture) for two hours before she noticed that several audience members were asleep.

30. I____ (to live) in this neighborhood for about a year, and despite its problems, I still love my home.

31. The yellow and brown leaves began to fall; the autumn soon_____ (to end).

32. No one_____ (to work) harder than Ellen, who spent eight or nine hours a day on this project for the first two weeks and is now allotting ten or twelve hours a day to it!

33. Jared_____ (to jog) four miles every day as soon as he wakes up.

34. From now on, David_____ (to complete) his homework on time, to avoid detention and poor grades.

35. Elliot always_____ (to return) his library books late, so he pays many fines.

36. While Meredith_____ (to paint) the ceiling, a dog jumped on the ladder.

37. Place the dough in a warm spot, and in a few hours it_____ (to double) in size.

38. It_____ (to rain) every day for a month, including today, but tomorrow’s forecast calls for sunshine.

39. The soda had soaked into the carpet by the time the janitor_____ (to arrive) with a mop.

40. Right now, Catherine’s friends_____ (to gather) for her surprise party.
41. Once George _____ (to chop) down the cherry tree, the fruit was lost.

42. I paid the electric bill on the 17th, so I _____ (to receive) the next bill in about a week.

43. Although Eddie _____ (to dance) happily, Shirley turned off the music.

44. Clancy never _____ (to brush) his teeth by himself, even though he is five years old now.

45. As we speak, our enemies _____ (to attack) with great force, but we will not surrender.

46. The teacher _____ (to staple) the drawings on the bulletin board so that the parents could admire their children’s artwork.

47. By the time Eleanor and Henry are satisfied with the renovation, they _____ (to exceed) their budget by a wide margin.

48. Where the tulips _____ (to bloom), weeds eventually covered every inch of the garden.

49. In Maya’s fantasy novel, a wizard’s curse _____ (to turn) a little boy into a frog.

50. Amanda and her friends _____ (to study) Chinese for four years by the time they travel to that country.

51. Joe _____ (to practice) karate for many years and still takes an advanced class every Saturday.

52. In Shakespeare’s Othello, the title character wrongly _____ (to trust) Iago, one of the most evil villains in literature.

53. LGA Manufacturing has an old-fashioned policy; the company _____ (to market) its products only in a store, not on the Internet.

54. If my dog buries a bone every three days, how many _____ (to bury) by the end of the month?
55. In Dickens’s classic novel Great Expectations, Pip _____ (to learn) the identity of his benefactor in a chilling scene.

Consistently Choosing the Right Verb Tense

56–65 Select the tense and form of the verb in parentheses that fits the meaning of the sentence. Take care to avoid unnecessary shifts from one tense to another.

56. In my dream, a giant dinosaur ran into my dining room, and then he _____ (to stroll) around the room.

57. Perhaps because the president _____ (to campaign) for the mayor, the mayor won by a huge margin.

58. Linda _____ (to enter) the cafeteria and sits next to the most hated teacher in the entire school!

59. The orchestra _____ (to insure) the instruments every year, so no one ever worries about storm damage after the hurricane.

60. Last year I traveled to Europe, but next year I _____ (to tour) Asia.

61. In response to the reporter’s question, the zookeeper said that the lion _____ (to be) very friendly.

62. Morty declared that eight added to ten _____ (to equal) eighteen.

63. Arthur told me that he _____ (to need) a loan until payday and asked me to give him $10.

64. Shana reported that at the end of every show, the ballet dancers _____ (to bow) and ignored the boos from the audience.

65. The astronomer told the youngsters that the earth _____ (to revolve) around the sun.
Chapter 2

Taking a Look at Irregular, Helping, and Descriptive Verb Forms

Every year, my students are upset to discover that English has so many irregular verbs. If I were the Queen of Grammar, I’d outlaw irregular verbs. Unfortunately, without them I wouldn’t be able to fashion the first sentence of this chapter, because are would be behind bars. So would has! Like it or not, and because I’m not the Queen of Grammar, you and I are stuck with irregulars. Not to worry: In this chapter you practice selecting irregular verbs, changing meaning with helping verbs (should, can, may, do, does, did, and the like), and employing verb forms that can act as descriptions, which grammarians call participles and infinitives and the rest of us call “pains in the neck.”

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on questions that develop these skills:

✓ Using irregular past-tense and participle forms correctly
✓ Selecting the proper form and tense of the irregular verbs to be and to have
✓ Adding shades of meaning with the helping verbs should, must, can, could, may, might, and would
✓ Creating questions with helping verbs
✓ Identifying participles functioning as descriptions
✓ Choosing the best form of participles and infinitives used as descriptions

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you answer the questions in this chapter:

✓ Check whether the past-tense form or participle is regular or irregular.
✓ Choose the correct tense of irregular verbs based on the meaning of the sentence.
✓ Employ reading comprehension skills to detect the need for a helping verb expressing obligation, possibility, condition, or ability.
✓ Rearrange word order and add helping verbs to create questions.
✓ Select present participles or infinitives as descriptions for actions in the past, present, or future.
Part I: The Questions

Handling Irregular Verbs

66–90 Choose the proper past, present perfect, past perfect, or future perfect form of the irregular verb in parentheses so that the verb fits the meaning of the sentence.

66. Joe _____ (to catch) the ball as it reached the top of the outfield fence.

67. The car was cruising along the highway smoothly until it _____ (to hit) a huge bump.

68. Dorothy and the baby _____ (to sleep) for two hours when they returned from a visit to Grandma.

69. At the end of the trial the judge _____ (to rise) from her chair and left the courtroom.

70. Last week the Yankees _____ (to beat) their fiercest rivals.

71. From 2010 through 2011, the confused clerk _____ (to put) all the forms in the wrong file cabinet.

72. The helicopter _____ (to fly) straight up into the sky and then headed south.

73. Glenn _____ (to see) the little dog and grabbed her before she could run away again.

74. I didn’t know that you _____ (to swim) in the deep water last summer; I thought you were less advanced in your swimming skills.

75. Nelson wouldn’t _____ (to get) sick if he had washed his hands more frequently.

76. The bully approached, but because my uncle _____ (to teach) me how to handle difficult people, I wasn’t afraid.

77. The doctor _____ (to do) everything in his power; now Allison must wait for the medicine to take effect.
78. Miriam _____ (to let) the dog out for a few minutes, but she will call him inside soon.

79. Although Adam _____ (to find) a good candidate already, the boss continued to interview others for the job.

80. “Who _____ (to begin) the fight, you or your brother?” asked Mother as she separated her battling children.

81. After you _____ (to send) the letter, shred the scrap copies.

82. At first the rain was simply annoying, but when it _____ (to freeze), the streets became very slippery and many pedestrians fell.

83. Albert _____ (to tear) his shirt when he crawled through the obstacle course.

84. “I _____ (to know) it!” exclaimed the detective as the murderer confessed.

85. When she attempted to pay for her coffee, Lee discovered that she _____ (to lose) all her coins because of a small hole in her pocket.

86. By midnight Angie _____ (to sing) that aria enough times to set a world record.

87. In ancient times, murderers were often _____ (to hang) in the public square.

88. The picture _____ (to hang) on the wall for years, but no one noticed it.

89. The janitor _____ (to sweep) the sidewalk before the students arrive, so expect a clean path.

90. The riflemen _____ (to lay) down their weapons but are ready to resume target practice at a moment’s notice.
Dealing with To Be and To Have

91–105 Select the proper form of the verb to be or to have to fit the meaning of the sentence.

91. The marble statue _____ (to be) on the shelf right now, but earlier it was in the sculptor's studio.

92. Along with Jack, I _____ (to be) bored and decided to watch a different show.

93. The co-presidents _____ (to have) no trouble persuading club members to go out for pizza when they suggest the excursion at the end of the meeting, because everyone will be hungry then.

94. Louisa rejected the sofa when it was delivered because it _____ (to have) a stain on one cushion.

95. Max _____ (to be) sick for the last two days, but the doctor predicts that his temperature will be normal tomorrow.

96. The lottery winners _____ (to be) difficult; they refuse to share their winnings.

97. If the referee and the coach can't agree, our efforts _____ (to be) fruitless because we will forfeit the game.

98. Shelley _____ (to have) difficulty getting up on time ever since her alarm clock broke, but she plans to buy a new one soon.

99. While the elevators were rising, the mechanic _____ (to have) doubts about the strange noises below.

100. We _____ (to be) here, patiently waiting, for more than four hours before Justin arrived.

101. When Doreen _____ (to be) 13, she struggled to start her business, but one day sales began to rise.
Chapter 2: Taking a Look at Irregular, Helping, and Descriptive Verb Forms

102. By the time it opens on Broadway, the show ____ (to have) four different directors.

103. Gina, who ____ (to be) your friend, begs you to forgive her.

104. Doug, who ____ (to be) very immature in those days, used to stick gum under everyone’s desk.

105. Sam thought that his mom ____ (to have) a stroke, but fortunately he was wrong; it was just a headache.

106. Shelly’s song ____ (to win, present tense, ability) her an award for “Best New Artist.”

107. Alice ____ (to fly, future, possibility) to Buenos Aires on business next week.

108. Your hands ____ (to be, present, obligation) clean before you perform surgery, Doctor!

109. Because she loves that color, Helen ____ (to choose, present, possibility) only green blocks for her playhouse.

110. On Saturday mornings, the whole family ____ (to attend, past, repeated action) Wendy’s softball games and cheer her on.

111. The workers ____ (to pave, past, obligation) the street more smoothly, but they did a sloppy job.

112. Margaret ____ (to jump, past, ability) over the fence easily, but instead she waited patiently for the guard to open the gate.

Adding Meaning with Helping Verbs

106–120 Choose the verb form that expresses the tense of the verb and the shade of meaning shown in parentheses.
113. Enter the house quietly because the baby _____ (to be, present, possibility) asleep.

114. The mathematician was told that she _____ (to calculate, present, obligation) the odds of failure before making a recommendation.

115. The sheriff _____ (to arrest, present, obligation) Josephine for murder, as he has collected an overwhelming amount of evidence of her crime.

116. If he graduates from high school with honors, Walter _____ (to enroll, future, ability) in college and continue on the path to success.

117. Seven hours ago, Otis said that he _____ (to prepare, past, possibility) dinner, but we are still waiting, hungrier than ever.

118. “You _____,” (to continue, present, permission) remarked the teacher as the student hesitated.

119. If it had not rained, Sam _____ (to go, past, condition) for a walk.

120. With a sharp pencil, Eliza _____ (to poke, past, repeated action) through the flimsy paper and then ask for a new sheet to write on.

Creating Questions with Helping Verbs

121–130: Change the underlined portion of the sentence, as needed, to turn the statement into a question. Note: The period at the end of the sentence has been replaced by a question mark already.

121. Mary owns a small but valuable art collection?

122. Bert was carrying a large carton of crayons to the daycare center?

123. Jefferson will attend the committee meeting this afternoon, despite his busy schedule?
124. Eugene has too many video games, according to his friend James?

125. After he had chewed his gum for an hour, Steven blew an enormous bubble?

126. The wire between the fenceposts sags so low that cattle cross easily from one field to the next?

127. Deborah is not interested in reading that poem aloud?

128. You will have eaten by the time George arrives at the restaurant?

129. Ellie went to the skating rink when it was closed?

130. The winning essay compared face-to-face communication with social media relationships?

131. In the flowing stream, Hank found a little paper boat.

132. Tom, pleased with his high test score, will celebrate with his family this evening.

133. In the last scene of the play, Daniel walks rapidly toward the setting sun.

134. Confused, Eliza is sorting through the instructions for her new computer and printer.

135. The mountains rising majestically in the background are a symbol of nature’s power.

136. The printed word, carrying meaning for centuries, will never be obsolete.
137. “I have done my homework!” screamed Andrew, tired of his mother's nagging.

138. The research was done by laboratories around the world, all funded by one generous donor.

139. Amelia is performing in the play, although she hates the conceited director, who, hired under a long-term contract, does whatever he wishes.

140. The snake, sunning itself on the rock, slithered away when hikers came near him.

141. (to prepare) the room for redecoration, Vincent discovered a crack that grew longer with every tug of the wallpaper he was removing.

142. (to speak) with intense emotion, the actor recites his lines every night without a trace of boredom.

143. (to water) the plants during vacations, Caroline installed an automatic sprinkler.

144. The mayor, (to vow, to fight) crime, will increase the number of police officers.

145. The cat raked sharp claws across the new desk (to stand) in the corner of the living room.

146. His funds (to exhaust), Nelson called home and begged for a loan from his parents.

147. Annie walked ten miles (to visit) her Aunt Marie.
21

Chapter 2: Taking a Look at Irregular, Helping, and Descriptive Verb Forms

148. _____ (to walk) the entire shoreline this morning, Ed can assure the reporters at tonight’s news conference that all the beaches are ready to reopen.

149. Barbara and Arnie, _____ (to confer) already, will need no introduction when they attend the next meeting.

150. “It’s great _____ (to meet) you!” exclaimed Paul as he shook hands with his new tennis partner, who had never seen Paul before in his life.
Chapter 3

One to Many: Forming Plurals of Nouns and Pronouns

According to one website, as of January, 2013, the English language was made up of 1,019,729.6 words. I don’t believe that anyone actually knows — or can know — how many words are in any language. (And what on earth is 0.6 of a word?) So you can forget about numbers when you study proper English, with one huge exception: You have to pay attention to singular and plural forms of nouns and pronouns. In this chapter, you practice with nouns, turning one (the singular form) into many (the plural form). You also sort singular and plural pronouns, so that you can match them appropriately with the words they represent.

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on questions that cover the following concepts:

✔ Forming plurals of common and proper nouns, both regular and irregular
✔ Creating plural forms of hyphenated and compound words
✔ Tackling difficult pronouns such as everything, one, either, all, some, that, which, who, and so forth

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

✔ Most nouns form the plural by adding the letter s. For nouns ending in ch, sh, x, s, and z, add es.
✔ Nouns ending in a y change the y to i and add es if the letter preceding the y is a consonant (any letter except a, e, i, o, or u).
✔ Add s or es to the most important word in a hyphenated or compound noun.
✔ These pronouns are always singular: one, everyone, everything, everybody, no one, nothing, nobody, someone, something, somebody, either, neither, each, other, and another.
✔ These pronouns are always plural: few, both, several, and many.
✓ Relative pronouns (*that, which, who*) are singular if they refer to singular nouns or pronouns and plural if they refer to plural nouns or pronouns.

✓ These pronouns can be either singular or plural: *all, any, most, some,* and *none.* If one of these pronouns refers to a plural (for example, *all of the shows,* in which *all* refers to *shows*), the pronoun is plural. If the pronoun refers to a singular (for example, *most of the air,* in which *most* refers to *air*), the pronoun is singular.
Chapter 3: One to Many: Forming Plurals of Nouns and Pronouns

**Forming Plural Nouns**

151–165 What is the correct plural form of these nouns?

151. stitch, telephone, tax

152. dye, splash, sandal

153. tomato, catch, mug

154. monkey, turkey, baby

155. zoo, success, edge

156. child, woman, man

157. deer, elephant, month

158. light, batch, biography

159. microphone, jelly, virus

160. delivery, essay, wife

161. Smith, Jones, O’Toole

162. leaf, pitch, copy

163. son-in-law, kangaroo, tooth
Part I: The Questions

164. alumnus, mass medium, Woods

165. species, statistic, vice president

Sorting Singular and Plural Pronouns

166–195 Identify the singular (S) and/or plural (P) pronouns in the sentence.

166. Isaac asked his aunt to reduce her workload, but she refused.

167. As the children opened their presents, they told Santa how great his selections were.

168. We must apply sunscreen to our arms, according to my mother.

169. “Where is your sneaker?” asked the babysitter as he searched the room I share with my little sister.

170. “Your yoga class will be delayed an hour,” I announced when the students had gathered in front of their lockers.

171. A friend of mine wants to go on vacation with them, but they prefer to travel by themselves.

172. The cookies are in his pocket; I saw them myself.

173. The football coach remarked, “Everyone is counting on you,” but I was too stressed to play.

174. Something is wrong with the computer, because it blinks constantly and flashes a warning sign every hour.

175. Several of the engineers have examined the platform and declared it safe, but when someone screamed, everyone ran.
176. One of the books has an index, but those on the top shelf do not, so we use them infrequently.

177. Both of us entered the international math competition; however, no one from our country won.

178. Neither of my uncles attended the graduation ceremony, so the principal mailed a diploma to each of them.

179. The talk show host directed the question to her audience, but someone on stage answered it anyway.

180. All of the birds flew to the pond, but most of the water had evaporated, and they soon left.

181. Either of the restaurants is fine with me, if anyone would like to stop for a snack.

182. Arthur located most of the films, but a few were hard to find, so we had to substitute others.

183. The hungry man asked me to give him some of my sandwiches.

184. Someone rang the bell, but no one was there when Judy opened the door, expecting to see her brother.

185. Everyone was required to bring his or her swimsuit to camp, but Anna forgot to pack hers.

186. All of the orange juice spilled, but no one wiped the table until Billy called the manager and asked for her help.

187. Each of Bobby's bicycles is missing one wheel, but Bobby thinks both of the bikes can be repaired.
188. Much of Gene's trouble stems from his reliance on everyone's admiration.

189. Sharla and Alex like one tattoo but hate the other; they have mixed opinions about mine, a blue star.

190. The shoes that Mark bought weren't comfortable, but they were more stylish than anything else he purchased yesterday.

191. Someone who should know better washed my best pair of pants in hot water.

192. The branches that tapped on the window made too much noise, so I cut them off.

193. While she waited to hear the winner's name announced, Lulu, who had bought three lottery tickets, crossed her fingers for luck.

194. The envelope and writing paper, which were stored in the desk, are hers, but the stapler is theirs.

195. The doctor treated eight patients who were stricken by the same disease, which was fatal for nearly all of them.
Chapter 4

Identifying Subjects and Perfecting Subject-Verb Agreement

What are you talking about, at this exact moment? That’s the subject of your conversation. While I’m on the subject of subjects, I must mention that every sentence has a subject — the who or what being discussed. The most important aspect of subjects is agreement: not smiling and saying, “Yes! Yes!” but rather ensuring that a singular subject pairs with a singular verb form and a plural subject pairs with a plural verb form. In this chapter, you find the subject and then play matchmaker between subjects and verbs. (If you have trouble identifying the verb, turn to Chapters 1 and 2 for extra help.)

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on questions that cover the following concepts:

- Finding the subject in statements, questions, and commands
- Identifying compound subjects and pronouns acting as subjects
- Choosing the correct verb for every subject-verb pair

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

- To find the subject, first locate the verb(s) in the sentence. Ask who? or what? is performing the action or is in the state of being expressed by the verb.
- Don’t be fooled by location. Most subjects appear before the verb, but some follow the verb. Use your reading comprehension skills to answer the who? or what? questions.
- Most subjects and verbs show up with descriptions attached. Ignore distracting words or phrases and concentrate on the real subject-verb pair.
- Verb forms used as descriptions or as nouns may resemble verbs without functioning as the verb in the sentence. When you ask who? or what? to find the subject, be sure you’re working from the real verb.
- The subject in a command may be an understood, but not stated, you.
- Pronouns acting as subjects can be tricky. Check out Chapter 3 for help distinguishing singular and plural pronouns.
### Locating the Subject

**196–215 Identify the subject(s) in the sentence.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Sentence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>196.</td>
<td>The plastic tip of the shoelace slowly slipped through the hole as Juan marched down the street.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>197.</td>
<td>Marina and Tom are in the grocery store on the corner of Appleton Avenue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>198.</td>
<td>Eight security cameras constantly swiveled in their holders on the ceiling of the jewelry store.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>199.</td>
<td>In the garden behind the house, the bride and groom solemnly recited their vows.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200.</td>
<td>Only one girl in the crowd of 200 fans actually got an autograph.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>201.</td>
<td>Jumping on the trampoline is fun for Lily and Jane during the long weeks of summer vacation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>202.</td>
<td>Stop talking back to the teacher now!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>203.</td>
<td>Henry distributed sheets of paper to whoever needed some.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>204.</td>
<td>Does the new brand of peanut butter taste odd to you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>205.</td>
<td>There on the shelf sat four large statues of historical figures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>206.</td>
<td>Above the clouds and far from the violent storm, the plane flew safely toward its destination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>207.</td>
<td>The bus full of delighted tourists slowly circled the famous monument.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>208.</td>
<td>Each of the coffee cups has a small crack near the rim.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
209. Both of the parakeets happily land on my finger for a bit of birdseed and a bite of lettuce.

210. Allison and her former friend Pete parted angrily, snarling at each other and walking in opposite directions.

211. Grandpa, who loves hockey, was the goalie on his college team.

212. Either the apartment with a terrace or the townhouse will surely please that buyer.

213. The dog that I believe should win the contest is over there.

214. Courtney, along with her mother, spoke politely to the mayor about the need for longer library hours.

215. The fire truck, which is heading to a blaze downtown, speeds through the intersection.

216–240 In the context of the sentence, what form of the verb (V) in parentheses is correct, and what is the subject (S) of that verb?

216. Every morning Anna _____ (to open, present tense) the gate and _____ (to allow, present tense) her poodle to play in the yard.

217. On the way to work, Clare and David always _____ (to share, present perfect tense) funny stories about their boss.

218. The large-sized bottle of my favorite shampoo _____ (to be, past tense) on sale last week.

219. Alicia and I _____ (to plan, present progressive tense) a talent show to raise money for needy children.

220. The Cub Scouts _____ (to place, past progressive tense) candy apples in small, sticky piles in preparation for the Halloween party.
221. (to be, past tense) Hank pleased when he (to read, past tense) your letter?

222. The best exhibits in the museum (to seem, present tense) more crowded lately.

223. Matthew and I (to sing, past progressive tense) every single song until our voices (to break, past tense) from overuse.

224. (to have, present tense) you any extra icing for my birthday cake?

225. Through the dark, damp tunnel (to crawl, present tense) the chipmunks, eager to reach the picnic tables.

226. Ham and cheese (to be, present tense) my favorite sandwich, but salad (to be, present tense) a more nutritious choice.

227. “Your problem (to be, present tense) 17 unexcused absences,” commented the teacher as she explained why the student was scheduled for detention.

228. Politics (to influence, present tense) much of the debate on that issue, but the senators from that state always (to vote, present tense) according to their consciences.

229. John, not his friends, (to go, present progressive tense) to attend the ceremony.

230. Any of the solutions he (to offer, present tense) to the panel (to be, present tense) acceptable.

231. (to be, present tense) the House of Representatives in session now?
232. Most of the salt in those diets come (to come, present tense) from natural sources.

233. Two or three of the plants with red leaves droop (to droop, present progressive tense) to the ground because of the drought.

234. The study of economics seem (to seem, present tense) interesting, but I have never taken any courses about this subject.

235. Two hours of homework be (to be, present perfect tense) my usual amount, but I expect (to expect, present tense) to spend more time on my studies next year.

236. Every girl and boy in the kindergarten play (to play, present tense) with the plastic blocks, not the wooden ones.

237. That little girl be (to be, present tense) the only one of the dancers who make (to make, present tense) friends easily.

238. A thousand dollars be (to be, present tense) too much to pay for that broken-down car, which look (to look, present tense) like a rusty bucket.

239. Neither Ginger nor her aunts have (to have, present tense) keys to the house, but the landlord be (to be, present tense) able to supply an extra set.

240. Shelby sell (to sell, present progressive tense) me one of the cars that be (to be, present tense) energy efficient.
Chapter 5

Coming to a Clear Agreement: Pairing Pronouns and Antecedents

Pronouns are like socks. They have to fit perfectly, because if they don’t, you spend the day walking around with a lump around your toes or pulling up a too-short heel. They also have to match: no green and blue mixing allowed! Pronouns are stand-ins for other nouns or pronouns — their antecedents. Don’t worry about the terminology. Just be sure to select the correct pronoun. In this chapter you find practice for every situation likely to arise in matching pronouns to antecedents correctly and clearly.

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on questions that develop these skills:

✓ Identifying pronouns and their antecedents
✓ Pairing singular and plural pronouns with the appropriate antecedents
✓ Matching the gender of pronouns and antecedents
✓ Ensuring that the antecedent of every pronoun is clear

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

✓ To determine whether you’re using the proper pronoun, first identify the antecedent.
✓ Singular pronouns take the place of singular nouns or other singular pronouns.
✓ Plural pronouns take the place of plural nouns or other plural pronouns.
✓ Match masculine pronouns to masculine nouns, and feminine pronouns to feminine nouns. Use neuter pronouns for objects and ideas (it, those, and the like).
✓ Some personal pronouns refer to the speaker (I, me, we, and so forth) or to the person addressed (you, your, for example). These pronouns have no antecedent in the sentence. Other pronouns that refer to an undetermined person or thing (such as whatever or something) may also lack an antecedent in the sentence.
✓ Pronouns must express only one meaning. If the reader can’t grasp the pronoun-antecedent relationship, you have to reword the sentence.
Identifying Pronouns and Their Antecedents

241–250 Identify each pronoun in the sentence as well as the word(s) the pronoun replaces (the antecedent). Note: More than one pronoun may refer to the same antecedent, and sometimes a pronoun has no antecedent in the sentence.

241. Martin told his players they had to work harder.

242. Mary and her uncle watched their favorite show at his house.

243. In his sonnets, Shakespeare inspires readers to think deeply about the meaning of their lives.

244. My dog wants to chew on his bone, but I can’t find it.

245. Whoever broke the window should pay for it!

246. The motorcycle that Jean built from a kit won the race, which was sponsored by a local bank.

247. None of the computer programs work until someone enters a password and username.

248. John, who needs a shave, broke his own razor and then borrowed mine.

249. What you want is impossible, but I will try to do everything anyway!

250. The dentist to whom Mary entrusted her teeth took good care of them.
### Pairing Pronouns and Antecedents Correctly

**251–260** What are the correct pronouns for each blank in the sentence? The intended meaning of each pronoun appears in parentheses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Sentence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>251.</td>
<td>Sara was delighted to receive the book and read ____ (book) aloud to ____ (Sara’s) friends.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>252.</td>
<td>Gregory prepared three reports for ____ (Gregory’s) supervisor, but when ____ (Gregory) handed ____ (reports) in, the supervisor was not happy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>253.</td>
<td>Dora and I liked the dresses, but ____ (Dora and I) decided ____ (dresses) were too formal for the occasion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>254.</td>
<td>The company where ____ (Arthur’s) father works is expanding ____ (the company’s) business to Asia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>255.</td>
<td>The audience sat in ____ (audience’s) seats, patiently waiting for the performance to begin, but ____ (performance) was delayed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>256.</td>
<td>Counting ____ (a group including the speaker) votes is a simple task; ____ (inspectors) will ensure that ____ (task) is done properly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>257.</td>
<td>James, ____ (James) loves football, plans to play ____ (football) in college.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>258.</td>
<td>Because neither of the athletes has ____ (athlete’s) sneakers tied properly, ____ (the speaker) expect one of ____ (athletes) to fall.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>259.</td>
<td>Everyone in the restaurant wants ____ (everyone’s) meal right away, but Chef Helen will cook at ____ (Chef Helen’s) own pace.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>260.</td>
<td>When a person wins a prize, ____ (a group including the speaker) clap for ____ (someone).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Avoiding Vague Pronoun References

261–270 Which sentence(s) in the group of three use pronouns clearly and correctly?

261.  I. Ellen and her sister thought she got a good grade.
      II. The pitcher and catcher worked on his throwing speed.
      III. The umpire found his glasses just in time for the playoffs.

262.  I. The bowl was on the table with the green tablecloth; I washed it.
      II. Joe and I hung our posters on the south wall.
      III. I hope you like the figs; I picked them myself.

263.  I. He is tall and strong; those are attractive qualities.
      II. Summer gives me more free time than winter, so I prefer it.
      III. When I slammed the vase into the wall, I broke it.

264.  I. The boy Mary insulted walked away from her angrily.
      II. I love that horror film; there are five wonderfully scary monsters in it.
      III. Patrick wants to study law because his father is one.

265.  I. The tacks and nails from that store are very sharp, so I always buy them.
      II. The tacks covered all the seats, which were dangerous.
      III. I read many modern novels, and I usually like them.

266.  I. The library book has a stain on the cover, but I can’t remove it.
      II. The fish that Catherine bought had red spots on its tail.
      III. His grandmother introduced Mark to opera, and he loved it.

267.  I. The architect likes the new building, which was designed by his competitor.
      II. Gloria explained that she was late because her train left an hour past its scheduled time.
      III. Charlie watches football and baseball games all day long and wishes he could be a professional at it.

268.  I. Georgina put one more card on top of the four she had fashioned into a little house, but it fell.
      II. The computer mouse I dropped broke into three pieces, but I glued them back together.
      III. I did my homework in the middle of the night without a flashlight, which was a problem.

269.  I. In the paper it says that war may break out within the next two days.
      II. In an article in the paper it says that soldiers will report for duty tomorrow.
      III. The government hopes to avoid war because of its high cost in both money and lives.

270.  I. The Yankee was a great hitter, but the other team’s star was better at it.
      II. The shades let in some light; they were translucent.
      III. Allowing some sunlight reduces the need for strong electric lights, which may not be efficient in energy use.
Chapter 6

Solving the Case (of Pronouns)

You don’t have to be a detective to know that pronouns — the part of speech that takes the place of nouns — are important. The issue with pronouns is that their form sometimes changes depending upon how they’re used in the sentence — a quality known as case. In this chapter you work on all three cases — subject (also known as subjective or nominative case), object (also known as objective case), and possessive.

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on questions that involve these concepts:

✓ Identifying pronouns as subject, object, or possessive
✓ Choosing the correct pronoun case according to the pronoun’s role in the sentence

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

✓ Subject pronouns act as subjects, the who or what performing the action or in the state of being expressed in the sentence.
✓ Subject pronouns also follow linking verbs (forms of the verb to be or verbs that express sensory information, such as to sound, to feel, and so forth).
✓ Object pronouns act as objects: direct objects, indirect objects, and objects of a preposition or verbal (a verb form not functioning as a verb). You don’t need to worry about what type of object you have, as long as you know that the pronoun is acting as an object. An object answers the questions whom? or what? after a verb, preposition, or verb form.
✓ Possessive pronouns express ownership. When you say my book or our vacation, my and our are possessive pronouns.
✓ Some possessive pronouns function as subjects, objects, or other roles commonly played by nouns. In that book is mine, mine is a possessive pronoun because it expresses ownership, even though in this sentence it’s acting as a subject complement.
✓ You may run across a verb form ending in -ing that acts as a noun — a gerund, in English-teacher terminology. The pronoun preceding it is possessive. For example, in this sentence the possessive pronoun my precedes the gerund swimming: The coach doesn’t like my swimming, but he can’t stop me!
✓ Don’t confuse possessive pronouns with contractions — shortened forms of other words. It’s means “it is,” and its is a possessive pronoun. No possessive pronoun has an apostrophe.
### Part I: The Questions

#### Sorting Subject, Object, and Possessive Pronouns

271–285 Identify the underlined pronouns as subject (S), object (O), or possessive (P) pronouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Sentence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>271</td>
<td>As <em>they</em> built the shelter, the guides told <em>us</em> to watch carefully, in case <em>we</em> ever had to erect a hut like <em>it</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>272</td>
<td>Doreen and <em>I</em> caught five fish yesterday, but <em>she</em> threw <em>them</em> back into the water because <em>we</em> don’t like to eat salmon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>273</td>
<td>Lola is <em>my</em> friend; however, <em>you</em> are <em>her</em> enemy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>274</td>
<td>The flight attendant told <em>him</em> to turn off <em>his</em> computer and confiscated <em>it</em> when <em>he</em> refused.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>275</td>
<td>Al has placed Kerina and <em>you</em> at a lively table, but if <em>you</em> want to change seats, the choice is <em>yours</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>276</td>
<td>I know it was <em>she</em> on the phone because <em>I</em> always recognize voices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>277</td>
<td>Lulu’s parents hate <em>her</em> adding an extra course because <em>they</em> think <em>she</em> is too busy already.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>278</td>
<td>After Helen had examined the clothing thoroughly, <em>she</em> tried on a coat and declared, “<em>Mine</em> is more stylish and warmer,” as she threw <em>his</em> away.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>279</td>
<td>My jumbo slice of cake didn’t tempt <em>him</em>, perhaps because <em>yours</em> was dry and tasteless.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>280</td>
<td>The director loved <em>your</em> jumping in front of the runaway horse in the final scene, but <em>your</em> mom told herself not to look at the screen while <em>you</em> were in danger.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>281</td>
<td><em>Their</em> pitcher has a better record than <em>I</em>, but <em>my</em> team wins more games than <em>his</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>282</td>
<td>Give <em>your</em> food to <em>whoever</em> is hungry, even though <em>our</em> supply is low.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 6: Solving the Case (of Pronouns)

283. Melissa, whom the proctor scolded for lateness, says she actually arrived earlier than I.

284. When our computer crashed, James shook its screen and yelled, “Whose program was running recently?”

285. I won’t go to the pool with his family because that cousin splashes whoever is nearby.

Using Subject and Object Pronouns Correctly

286–320 What pronouns should be inserted in the blanks? Note: Check the parentheses for identifying information.

286. Scott and _____ (Scott’s) fellow racewalkers swing _____ (Scott’s and the racewalkers’) arms as _____ (Scott and the racewalkers) hurry to the finish line.

287. Keith and _____ (Pam) gave _____ (Pam’s) nephew five crayons, because Pam always prefers to select the colors _____ (Pam) likes.

288. Woody saluted _____ (Dan) before _____ (Woody and Dan) bowed to the audience and thanked _____ (referring to the speaker) for directing the play.

289. _____ (David) and _____ (referring to the speaker) will order food for 100 people, in case _____ (guests) all come.

290. Everyone but _____ (referring to the speaker) plays the guitar, but _____ (referring to the people being spoken to) understand the instrument and _____ (the instrument’s) construction too.

291. _____ (Toni-Anne) and _____ (Toni-Anne’s) favorite singer, Bob Cassino, have never met, but _____ (Toni-Anne) thinks of _____ (Bob Cassino) as a friend anyway.

292. Amy Tan’s novels provide Ira and _____ (Beth) with many hours of pleasant reading, but _____ (referring to the speaker) prefer the films and watch _____ (films) often.
293. Daniel and ___ (Pamela) weeded the garden together, but ___ (Daniel and Pamela) hired ___ (the speaker) to mow the lawn.

294. ___ (a group including the speaker) and the managers explain the insurance policy to clients whenever ___ (clients) request ___ (referring to the group including the speaker) help.

295. Did ___ (Derek) hit ___ (the ball) and run around ___ (the bases)?

296. Seeing Laura and ___ (James) pulling ___ (Laura and James’s) wagon up the hill was impressive, because ___ (the hill) was very steep.

297. To satisfy ___ (the teacher), Mr. Palgrove, Beth and ___ (the speaker) handed in an excellent paper that we wrote by ___ (Beth and the speaker), without extra help.

298. Do ___ (Helen and Maria) know the boy ___ (the boy) designed the winning sailboat for ___ (Henry)?

299. All of ___ (referring to the group of speakers) students worried about the test ___ (the test) was scheduled for ___ (referring to the group of speakers).

300. Everyone ___ (referring to everyone) borrowed bowling shoes must return ___ (the shoes) to ___ (referring to the speaker) by 5 o’clock.

301. It was ___ (Eve) at the front desk; Peter and ___ (referring to the speaker) are sure ___ (Peter and the speaker) recognized ___ (Eve).

302. When a stuffed toy loses ___ (toy’s) nose, ___ (toy) looks even more adorable.

303. Ken doesn’t know ___ (referring to ownership by an unknown person) chewing gum is stuck to the table, but ___ (Ken) wants ___ (gum) removed.

304. Deborah, ___ (referring to Deborah) is sitting in the second row, will watch ___ (Bill) with great attention in case Bill forgets ___ (Bill’s lines).
305. Please don’t tell _____ (Allison) and _____ (the speaker) any jokes while _____ (Allison and the speaker) are trying to concentrate.

306. The bus with _____ (the bus’s) 20 passengers flew by _____ (referring to the speaker) stop, so _____ (the speaker) was late for _____ (referring to the person listening) barbecue.

307. Watson and Sons pays _____ (Watson and Sons’) employees too little compared to _____ (Watson and Sons’) competitors.

308. Are Jason and _____ (Frank) the funniest comedians in the show, or is _____ (Valerie)?

309. Jeff told _____ (Jeff) that _____ (Jeff) would understand the question and write _____ (essay) quickly.

310. Mack told the secret to Al and _____ (Wendy) before _____ (Mack) told _____ (the speaker), but _____ (Mack) gave _____ (the speaker) more details.

311. Jeremy is as nervous as _____ (Gloria) when _____ (Jeremy and Gloria) visit _____ (Gloria’s) parents.

312. Elizabeth hates _____ (referring to the speaker) calling _____ (Elizabeth) “Liz” and has forbidden _____ (referring to the speaker) to do so.

313. Fran, _____ (Fran) Charlie thinks should take a course in public speaking, is not open to _____ (the course’s) subject matter.

314. Between you and _____ (referring to the speaker), no one is happier about _____ (referring to the person being spoken to) getting a new puppy than _____ (referring to the speaker).

315. Don’t _____ (referring to the person or people being spoken to) think _____ (anyone in the group) wants to succeed should study harder than _____ (Christopher)?
316. Alex and ____ (referring to the speaker) plan to read the article and respond to ____ (anyone in the group) has complaints about ____ (referring to the speaker) work.

317. The top students, Nick and ____ (James), will receive awards from the school, which always honors ____ (the school’s) scholars at the end of the year.

318. The letter tucked into the bottle began, “To ____ (referring to any person) finds this bottle”; ____ (referring to the speaker) read ____ (the letter) eagerly.

319. The dancer and ____ (referring to the speaker) believe that it is ____ (Frances) _____ (Frances) stole the salt shaker.

320. When Jason told you to ask ____ (referring to anyone in a group) you like to work on the project with ____ (Jason), did you choose ____ (Mary and Frances)?
In court, witnesses must swear to tell “the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth.” In grammar, you have to write “the sentence, the whole sentence, and nothing but the sentence.” In other words, complete sentences rule — not fragments (partial or incomplete sentences) or run-ons (two or more ideas improperly thrown together). In this chapter you practice identifying and creating complete and grammatically correct statements and questions.

The Questions You’ll Work On
In this chapter, you work on questions that involve these skills:

✔ Recognizing whether a sentence is complete or incomplete
✔ Joining two or more ideas correctly
✔ Editing fragments and run-ons to create complete sentences

What to Watch Out For
Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

✔ Every sentence must express a complete thought.
✔ Be sure the sentence has a matching subject-verb pair.
✔ All sentences need endmarks — periods for statements, question marks for questions, and exclamation points for exclamations.
✔ Don’t assume that short sentences are incomplete and long sentences are complete. Meaning, not length, is your guide.
✔ Semicolons (;) and conjunctions such as and, but, or, nor, for, since, because, where, when, and others link one clause (a grammatical unit containing a subject-verb pair) to another.
✔ Relative pronouns — who, whoever, whom, whomever, that, and which — relate one idea to another, usually by replacing a noun. For example, in this sentence the relative pronoun that replaces book: The book that I bought is very heavy.
✔ Adverbs such as however, consequently, therefore, then, also, nevertheless, and others may not link one complete sentence to another. Use these words to add meaning, but be sure that you use a semicolon or a conjunction between the sentences.
Recognizing Complete Sentences

321–331 Identify the complete sentence(s).

321. I. Have eaten?
   II. Have you eaten
   III. Have you eaten?

322. I. Boris, along with Helena and her best friends from school.
   II. Boris, along with Helena and her best friends from school
   III. Boris, along with Helena and her best friends from school!

323. I. At the army museum, many exhibits caught our attention.
   II. At the army museum, many exhibits caught our attention
   III. At the army museum, many exhibits catching our attention.

324. I. Balloons of all colors of the rainbow above us in the sky!
   II. Balloons of all colors of the rainbow floated above us in the sky!
   III. Balloons of all colors of the rainbow floated above us in the sky

325. I. Around the corner on tiptoes came the burglar.
   II. The burglar came around the corner on tiptoes.
   III. On tiptoes, around the corner the burglar came.

326. I. I dance.
   II. I dance on stage.
   III. On Sundays, I dance.

327. I. Standing in the aisle, Charlotte scanned the audience, searching for an empty seat.
   II. Standing in the aisle, Charlotte scanned the audience and searched for an empty seat
   III. Standing in the aisle, Charlotte, scanning the audience, searching for an empty seat.

328. I. The little dog, chewing his food quickly and then running off to play.
   II. The little dog chewed his food quickly and then ran off to play.
   III. The little dog chewed his food quickly and then ran off to play.

329. I. Who is solving the puzzle.
   II. Who is solving the puzzle?
   III. Who is solving the puzzle!

330. I. Alan, having changed his clothes, was ready for the dance.
   II. Having changed his clothes, Alan, ready for the dance.
   III. Having changed his clothes, Alan was ready for the dance.

331. I. Nice to meet you.
   II. Nice meeting you!
   III. It was nice to meet you.

Combining Ideas Correctly

332–346 Identify the sentence(s) in which ideas are joined correctly.

332. I. The table fell over, but it didn’t break.
   II. The table fell over, it didn’t break.
   III. The table fell over but didn’t break.
333. I. Miami has a warm climate, Greenland is much colder.
II. Miami has a warm climate, and Greenland is much colder.
III. Miami has a warm climate, but Greenland is much colder.

334. I. Although she had reviewed the material thoroughly, Lisa was still nervous before her test.
II. Lisa was still nervous before her test, although she had reviewed the material thoroughly.
III. She had reviewed the material thoroughly, Lisa was still nervous before her test.

335. I. Tomorrow Laura will hike two miles, or she will work out for an hour at the gym.
II. Tomorrow Laura will hike two miles, and she will work out for an hour at the gym.
III. Tomorrow Laura will hike two miles, she will work out for an hour at the gym.

336. I. The baby cried for hours, no one could quiet her.
II. The baby cried for hours, and no one could quiet her.
III. The baby cried for hours, because no one could quiet her.

337. I. Before she met the ambassadors, the President examined their credentials carefully.
II. The President examined their credentials carefully before she met the ambassadors.
III. The President first examined their credentials carefully, and then she met the ambassadors.

338. I. The can is full, so please empty it.
II. The can is full, you should empty it.
III. The can is full, please empty it.

339. I. Although they had arrived late, the manager refused to shorten the team practice.
II. The manager refused to shorten the team practice, although they had arrived late.
III. They had arrived late, but the manager refused to shorten the team practice.

340. I. Even though George has never studied French, he understands a few simple words.
II. George has never studied French, however, he understands a few simple words.
III. George has never studied French, he understands a few simple words anyway.

341. I. Stamp collecting is a fascinating hobby, it can be expensive.
II. Stamp collecting is a fascinating hobby, although it can be expensive.
III. Stamp collecting is a fascinating hobby, additionally it can be expensive.

342. I. Jim dropped the fragile vase, consequently, it shattered into a thousand pieces.
II. Jim dropped the fragile vase; consequently, it shattered into a thousand pieces.
III. Jim dropped the fragile vase, and consequently it shattered into a thousand pieces.
Correcting Run-Ons and Fragments

347–361 What changes, if any, should be made to the underlined words in order to create a complete sentence?

347. Teresa holding the tray as I placed the glasses on it.

348. Generous donors drop coins in the box their contributions fund scholarships.

349. Who likes ice cream

350. Place the carton in the corner of the lobby, Margaret.

351. The dictionary resting on a shelf in the corner.

352. I find knitting relaxing, my aunt prefers embroidery.

353. Those mountain peaks covered with snow even in the summer.

354. Mattie, having read the paper, went for a walk.
355. Park the truck in the lot, be sure to lock it.

356. A pen and pencil on the desk in the corner of the living room.

357. Which performs better in the annual talent show

358. Accepting an internship, Bert, always planning his next career move, which will lead him to success.

359. When the handle turns, the fire hose sprays water with great force in the direction indicated on the dial.

360. Picasso’s statue has a gently curved side, which highlighting the grain of the marble.

361. While swimming, Harriet tangled her foot in a fishing line.
Chapter 8

Moving Beyond the Basics: Adding Descriptions

A complete sentence (see Chapter 7) can be as short as two words: Marjorie raps, for example. Life would be very boring, though, if you relied only on subjects and verbs to get your meaning across. Add in some adjectives and adverbs — the descriptive parts of speech — and your listener or reader perks up. These “extras” give us Marjorie raps often or Marjorie raps superfast or Little Marjorie raps every single day. In this chapter you practice with short descriptions — one-word or slightly longer expressions that attach to nouns, pronouns, verbs, and other adjectives and adverbs.

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on questions in these areas:

- Identifying adjectives and adverbs
- Selecting the appropriate adjective or adverb for a particular situation
- Knowing when to use a or an
- Inserting hyphens in compound descriptions

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

- Adjectives describe nouns and pronouns, telling you how many, which one, how much, or what kind of thing or person you’re talking about.
- Adverbs describe verbs, telling you how, when, where, why, or under what conditions an action or state of being occurs.
- Adverbs also describe adjectives and other adverbs, expressing the intensity or degree of the quality the adverb describes.
- The article an precedes a word beginning with a vowel sound (a, e, i, o, or u). A precedes a word beginning with a consonant sound (any letter except the vowels listed in the preceding sentence).
- If two or more words function as one description, you generally hyphenate them, as in second-place finish, green-and-yellow hat, hard-working waiter, and so forth.
When Luke sounded hoarse, his trusted voice coach gave him honey and lemon.

Identical twins are playing one role in that Broadway play.

A vacant building, unguarded, may attract squatters who live there illegally.

Be smart. Drive defensively, and you'll arrive safely and enjoy a lovely vacation.

The production crew is responsible for setting the props on stage before the curtain first rises.

Chef John is justly famous for his use of extremely fresh ingredients and fast preparation of complicated dishes.
Chapter 8: Moving Beyond the Basics: Adding Descriptions

Placing Adjectives and Adverbs in Sentences

374–393 Insert an adjective or an adverb in each blank, choosing from the words in the parentheses.

374. The reporter was ________ (pleased, pleasingly) to see his ________ (local, locally) story attract ________ (national, nationally) attention.

375. Are ________ (common, commonly) electronic devices ________ (bad, badly) for ________ (social, socially) connections?

376. Wading into ________ (deep, deeply) waters, Ron felt ________ (cool, coolly) ________ (immediate, immediately).

377. Ben strummed his ________ (new, newly) guitar ________ (energetic, energetically) but not ________ (good, well).

378. The ________ (large, largely) delivery van runs ________ (smooth, smoothly), so its contents remain in ________ (good, well) condition.

379. Our show’s ________ (loyal, loyally) audience protests ________ (loud, loudly) whenever the network ________ (serious, seriously) threatens to cancel it.

380. Jackson’s gift was ________ (extreme, extremely) ________ (generous, generously), even though he considered the donation ________ (minimal, minimally).

381. Dave feels ________ (happy, happily) because the voters ________ (sure, surely) agree with his position on the ________ (controversial, controversially) issue.

382. “Play ________ (nice, nicely),” exclaimed the ________ (over, overly) strict babysitter, but the children continued their ________ (rough, roughly) games.

383. It’s ________ (real, really) ________ (unusual, unusually) for an amateur to discover such a ________ (rare, rarely) fossil.

384. Mina worked ________ (hard, hardly), but the ________ (low, lowly) grade she ________ (sad, sadly) read on her paper did not reflect her efforts.
Part I: The Questions

385. Children who behave _____ (bad, badly) should be scolded _____ (prompt, promptly) and then given a chance to improve with the _____ (gentle, gently) guidance of their caretakers.

386. _____ (Ripe, Ripely) plums taste _____ (sweet, sweetly), but fruit picked too soon may be _____ (bitter, bitterly).

387. Walk _____ (rapid, rapidly) down the hall and turn _____ (sharp, sharply) when you reach the _____ (first, firstly) door on the left.

388. I feel _____ (bad, badly) that I spoke _____ (insulting, insultingly) to my most _____ (important, importantly) client.

389. Eileen appeared _____ (merry, merrily) at the party, but afterwards she sounded _____ (sad, sadly) and _____ (nervous, nervously).

390. Anything _____ (wicked, wickedly) makes us feel _____ (uncomfortable, uncomfortably), at least for a _____ (short, shortly) time.

391. It’s _____ (certain, certainly) true that young children often wait less _____ (patient, patiently) for their turns to play _____ (fun, funnily) games.

392. The _____ (wide, widely) seen broadcast was _____ (sure, surely) helpful to the show’s _____ (dismal, dismally) ratings.

393. The senator _____ (sudden, suddenly) interrupted to declare _____ (firm, firmly) that she was _____ (political, politically) neutral.

Dealing with Articles

394–402 Choose a or an to precede each expression.

394. apple, orange, banana

395. card, printer, outdoor trip

396. bicycle, old-fashioned girl, modern woman
Chapter 8: Moving Beyond the Basics: Adding Descriptions

397. everyday dish, light, history

398. amusing story, unusual incident, original song

399. initial impression, very happy child, additional payment

400. historic occasion, important dictionary, telephone

401. herb garden, fir tree, balcony

402. orphan, adventure, e-mail message

Hyphenating Descriptions

403–411 Identify the description(s) that correctly include or omit hyphens.

403. I. self-cleaning oven
    II. best-dressed list
    III. package of blue-pens

404. I. recently passed law
    II. brown-eyed boy
    III. poorly-expressed idea

405. I. third base coach
    II. very-shallow water
    III. sixth-grade math

406. I. nine-year-old kid
    II. constantly-changing world
    III. nearly-enough candy

407. I. tension-relieving exercise
    II. a job well done
    III. newly formed committee

408. I. three-blind mice
    II. very-happy puppy
    III. less-valid argument

409. I. elementary school desk
    II. Yankees baseball team
    III. book review section

410. I. more interesting story
    II. red haired ape
    III. extremely difficult problem

411. I. annual-dental exam
    II. language-proficiency test
    III. mostly-boring material
Taking the Long View: Descriptive Phrases and Clauses

As you text or tweet, short descriptions seem like a good idea. (Chapter 8 provides practice with almost everything you need to know about these one- or two-word descriptions, also known as adjectives and adverbs.) Longer descriptive elements — phrases and clauses — may not make it into a tweet, but they’re valuable nonetheless. In this chapter you have a chance to show that you know where to place descriptions — mostly the long form, plus a couple of tricky short descriptions — so that they express your intended meaning.

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on these concepts:

- Recognizing the word or words described by phrases and clauses
- Placing phrases and clauses so that they are clear and describe the appropriate word

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

- Prepositional phrases may describe nouns or pronouns (adjective phrases) or verbs (adverb phrases).
- Infinitives and participles may also act as descriptions. Infinitives (to + verb, such as to meet, to greet, to sleep) may describe nouns, pronouns, or verbs. Participles (the part of a verb you use with has, have, or had, such as given, driving, and the like) may describe nouns or pronouns.
- Clauses (units of a sentence that contain a subject-verb pair) may describe nouns, pronouns, or verbs.
- Every description, no matter how long or short, must be placed as near as possible to the word it describes. Only, just, almost, and nearly must be placed right before the word or words they apply to, not earlier in the sentence.
- Steer clear of vague descriptions that may describe one or more words in the sentence. Your meaning must be clear.
- When a verbal phrase begins a sentence, it must describe the subject of the sentence.
Part I: The Questions

418. Two puppets, which belonged to my grandmother, played important roles in our show.

419. Before Dennis applied for a scholarship, he researched many possible awards and found several that seemed within his reach.

420. Sheltering beneath their mother’s arms, the twins smiled shyly at the doctor, who offered each of them a cherry lollipop.

421. Shirley visited France and took only one photo of the Eiffel Tower.

422. The boy who cried wolf is a famous fairy tale and an accurate depiction of human nature.

423. Nancy’s detective stories were always fun to read about, although sometimes she seemed to benefit from too many coincidental clues.

424. No matter how many times he mopped the floor, Doug couldn’t keep up with the water flowing through the cracks in the foundation.
425. The team manager discussed the price of new uniforms at his meeting last night.

426. When Tom finally threw down his spoon, he had been stirring the sauce for nearly an hour.

427. While carrying wood, the lumberjack dropped a few logs on the lawn, and the birds quickly scattered in fear.

428. Conscientious assistants take notes of everything their supervisors say, regardless of how unimportant the comments seem.

429. David and his puppy, rolling together in a mock fight, knocked over a lamp and two tables before they were finished.

430. Last month I traveled to Seattle, a beautiful city, to see my family.

431. Receiving a medal for what he accomplished during his time in office, the principal bowed to his audience and praised both students and faculty.

432–451 In which of these sentences are the descriptions placed correctly?

432. I. The ruby earrings rested on the nightstand next to my bed that I wore to the dance.
   II. The ruby earrings that I wore to the dance rested on the nightstand next to my bed.
   III. The ruby earrings rested on the nightstand that I wore to the dance next to my bed.

433. I. The crosstown bus filled with holiday shoppers inched slowly through heavy traffic.
   II. Filled with holiday shoppers, the crosstown bus inched slowly through heavy traffic.
   III. The crosstown bus inched slowly through heavy traffic filled with holiday shoppers.

434. I. Elena only has three children, though she had hoped for a larger family.
   II. Elena has only three children, though she had hoped for a larger family.
   III. Elena has three children, though she had only hoped for a larger family.

435. I. George’s scowling unnecessarily alarmed people.
   II. George’s unnecessary scowling alarmed people.
   III. George’s scowling alarmed people unnecessarily.
Part I: The Questions

436. I. Tracy and the cat licking fur curled up on the couch.
   II. Tracy and the cat curled up on the couch licking fur.
   III. Licking fur, Tracy and the cat curled up on the couch.

437. I. The letter said that she had won the lottery in Alice’s mailbox.
   II. The letter in Alice’s mailbox said that she had won the lottery.
   III. The letter said that in Alice’s mailbox she had won the lottery.

438. I. He drove the car down the highway that he bought last year.
   II. That he bought last year, he drove the car down the highway.
   III. He drove the car that he bought last year down the highway.

439. I. Although the lobby renovation is taking longer than expected, we are sure that everyone will like the new floor tiles from Greece when it reopens in September.
   II. Although the lobby renovation is taking longer than expected, we are sure that when it reopens in September, everyone will like the new floor tiles from Greece.
   III. Although the lobby renovation is taking longer than expected, when it reopens in September we are sure that everyone will like the new floor tiles from Greece.

440. I. My hands, breaking into a thousand pieces, were slippery, and the dishes fell.
   II. My hands were slippery, and the dishes fell, breaking into a thousand pieces.
   III. Breaking into a thousand pieces, my hands were slippery, and the dishes fell.

441. I. She almost won with 500 votes; the loser received 410.
   II. She won with almost 500 votes; the loser received 410.
   III. With almost 500 votes, she won; the loser received 410.

442. I. The highway boundary, painted white, was visible even at night.
   II. Painted white, the highway boundary was visible even at night.
   III. The highway boundary was visible even at night, painted white.

443. I. Because Harry is on a diet that emphasizes fruits and vegetables, he just bought ice cream once a month.
   II. Because Harry is on a diet that emphasizes fruit and vegetables, he bought just ice cream once a month.
   III. Because Harry is on a diet that emphasizes fruit and vegetables, he bought ice cream just once a month.

444. I. Jack avoided the mugger who was standing still and pointing a gun, running into the woods.
   II. Running into the woods, Jack avoided the mugger who was standing still and pointing a gun.
   III. Jack, running into the woods, avoided the mugger who was standing still and pointing a gun.

445. I. Eleanor told me during the class the teacher was boring.
   II. During the class, Eleanor told me the teacher was boring.
   III. Eleanor told me the teacher was boring during the class.
446. I. When you’re dealing with unreasonable people, making decisions quickly causes arguments.
   II. When you’re dealing with unreasonable people, making decisions causes arguments quickly.
   III. When you’re dealing with unreasonable people, making quick decisions causes arguments.

447. I. Lying asleep in her crib, the nanny checked on the child.
   II. The nanny, lying asleep in her crib, checked on the child.
   III. The nanny checked on the child lying asleep in her crib.

448. I. The house Agnes once visited sold for a million dollars.
   II. The house Agnes visited sold for a million dollars once.
   III. The house Agnes visited once sold for a million dollars.

449. I. Testifying for the defense, the eyewitness account from Mr. Jones was compelling.
   II. Testifying for the defense, Mr. Jones’s eyewitness account was compelling.
   III. Testifying for the defense, Mr. Jones gave a compelling account of what he had witnessed.

450. I. The commissioner explained the environmental impact of mining with a slide presentation.
   II. The commissioner explained with a slide presentation the environmental impact of mining.
   III. With a slide presentation, the commissioner explained the environmental impact of mining.

451. I. The tattoo artist injected ink into the client’s upper arm, which was thickly muscled and hard to draw on.
   II. Thickly muscled and hard to draw on, the tattoo artist injected ink into the client’s upper arm.
   III. The tattoo artist injected ink, thickly muscled and hard to draw on, into the client’s upper arm.
Part I: The Questions
Chapter 10

For Better or Worse: Forming Correct Comparisons

While everyone else is dabbing away tears or snapping photos, do you find yourself wondering why wedding vows pledge “for better or worse” instead of “for more good or more bad”? If so, this chapter is for you. Here, you’re challenged to create comparisons of all types — with one word or many. You also identify and correct vague, illogical, or impossible comparisons.

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on questions that involve the following tasks:

✓ Choosing the correct word(s) to compare two elements (the comparative form, such as nicer) or three or more elements (the superlative form, such as nicest)
✓ Inserting more, most, less, and least properly
✓ Dealing with irregular comparisons — good, better, best and bad, worse, worst
✓ Identifying words that can’t be compared
✓ Avoiding incomplete and illogical comparisons

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

✓ Short words often form positive comparisons by adding -er or -est to the base word, and if the base word ends in y, you generally change the y to i before adding -er or -est.
✓ Don’t double up: If you add -er or -est, don’t use more or most too.
✓ Use the comparative (-er or more, less) when comparing two elements and the superlative (-est or most, least) when comparing three or more elements.
✓ Absolutes — perfect, unique, and similar concepts — can’t be compared.
✓ Good, bad, well, many, and much are irregular.
✓ All comparisons must be complete and clear.
✓ Use other or else when comparing someone or something to the group that includes the person or thing being compared.
Creating Comparative and Superlative Forms

452–476 Which comparisons of the base word are correct?

452. Base word: neat
   Comparisons: neater, more neat, less neat, nearest, least neat

453. Base word: close
   Comparisons: more close, closer, most close, less close, closest

454. Base word: beautiful
   Comparisons: beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful, less beautiful

455. Base word: scary
   Comparisons: scarier, scariest, more scarier, most scariest, least scary

456. Base word: competent
   Comparisons: competenter, less competent, less competenter, least competent, least competentest

457. Base word: pretty
   Comparisons: prettier, prettiest, prettiest, less pretty

458. Base word: softly
   Comparisons: softlier, softliest, more softly, most softly, less softly

459. Base word: fast
   Comparisons: faster, fastest, less fast, least fast, most fast

460. Base word: tall
   Comparisons: taller, tallest, more tall, most tall, less tall

461. Base word: rapidly
   Comparisons: more rapidly, most rapidly, less rapidly, least rapidly, rapider

462. Base word: concerned
   Comparisons: more concerned, less concerned, most concerned, least concerned, concernest

463. Base word: nimbly
   Comparisons: nimbler, nimblest, more nimbly, more nimble, most nimblest

464. Base word: merry
   Comparisons: more merry, most merry, more merrier, most merriest, merrier

465. Base word: loudly
   Comparisons: loudlier, loudest, more loudly, most loudly, more loudlier

466. Base word: curved
   Comparisons: curveder, curvedest, less curved, least curved, most curved
Avoiding Incomplete, Illogical, or Vague Comparisons

477–501 How should the underlined expression be changed to create a correct comparison? Note: Check the parentheses, if present, for clues to the intended meaning of the sentence.

477. Alice is **happier**. (comparing Alice to her sister)

478. When Peter quit his job, he was **poorer**.

479. George Washington may be **more famous** than any President of the United States.

480. This allergy season is **equally as** bad as last year’s season.

481. Compared to his brother, Levi has **the most** freckles.

482. During the boring lecture, five people fell asleep, and Darian snored **the loudest**.
483. Dmitri Smith and his wife Alicia Alvarez are both dentists, but Alicia earns the least.

484. My parakeet Robbie has the curviest tail. (comparing Robbie to all birds)

485. Veronica likes Archie less than her friend Bob.

486. The invention of the touch screen was more important than any technological innovation of that year.

487. Ending on page 1,000, that Victorian novel is longer than most modern novelists.

488. The dance teacher claimed that Fred, nervous and self-conscious, tried not to look dumb and “ended up looking dumber.”

489. After examining 50 antique statues, the curator said that the one from Mesopotamia was more incomparable.

490. Elizabeth Bennet, the main character in *Pride and Prejudice*, is less self-aware than she thinks she is.

491. “Oranges are juicier than any fruit,” exclaimed Ann as she bit into a freshly picked piece.

492. Julia’s accent is less comprehensible than Alicia.

493. A circle that is 2 inches in diameter is rounder than one with a 4-inch diameter.

494. Marcy loaned money to her friend, whose house is the messier in the neighborhood.

495. Henry’s strategy for achieving a perfect score on the SAT was less efficient as referenced to mine.

496. Of all the minutes in a day, the baby had to pick the worse one to fall asleep!
497. My suitcase is as heavy, perhaps even heavier than, yours.

498. George does a better job repairing shoes than either Mac or Nelson.

499. Sidney’s hair, before his recent trip to the salon, was curlier than Anthony.

500. Discussing his role in the negotiations, Mr. Alexander claimed to be the more effective of the two union representatives.

501. This lamp is as bright, if not brighter than, all the others in my house.
Would you like to stay out of Grammar Jail? If so, place your capital letters where they’re needed and nowhere else. Sounds easy, right? It is — mostly. Just know the rules and follow them. Then the Grammar Cops won’t come after you.

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on these questions:

- Deciding when to capitalize people’s names and titles, relationships, and ethnicity
- Choosing capitals or lowercase letters for dates, seasons, geographical names, and regions
- Selecting capitals for the titles of literary and scientific works and historical eras or events
- Placing capitals in references to school years and courses
- Following the rules for capital letters in quotations

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

- Proper names and the personal pronoun I are capitalized, as is a title used as a name or preceding the name of the person holding that title.
- Seasons of the year aren’t capitalized, but the names of months and days are.
- The proper names of countries, regions, and geographical features are capitalized. Generic geographical references are in lowercase.
- The first letter of a sentence, title, or subtitle is always capitalized. In headline style, nouns, verbs, and other important words in titles are capitalized; less important words aren’t. Titles of scientific works generally follow sentence style, capitalizing only the first word of the title and subtitle, as well as any proper names.
Part I: The Questions

- References to God are customarily capitalized.
- School years are in lowercase. Subject areas, except for languages or references to countries, aren’t capitalized. The names of courses are capitalized in headline style.
- The first word of a quotation that is connected to a speaker tag (he said, I stated, and so forth) is capitalized. Quotations inserted into a sentence without a speaker tag begin with a lowercase letter, unless the first word is a proper name or the pronoun I. The second half of an interrupted quotation begins with a lowercase letter.
Chapter 11: Avoiding Capital Punishment: Placing Capital Letters Properly

### Capitalizing Names, Titles, Relationships, and Ethnicity

#### 502–521 Which words should be capitalized?

502. I celebrate Thanksgiving with my family at Mary’s house.

503. The ambassador told President Fowler that war was avoidable if both countries signed the treaty.

504. Yesterday Peter expressed his belief that God is present at all times.

505. Recently Professor Smith, Dean of Faculty, revised the requirements for promotion to department head.

506. The display of African-American art at the museum drew huge crowds; more than 50 artists were represented.

507. Did you know that Aunt Elizabeth always invites Grandma and Grandpa to her son’s birthday party?

508. Louise Smith, Chief of Operations at Medico Incorporated, introduced Vice President Ellis to the staff.

509. Conchetta, a distant cousin, recently met the President of the United States.

510. A famous grocery, Ballocco’s Italian Specialties, has both a website and a physical store.

511. The preacher explained in detail how to worship the Lord.

512. The district attorney gave me five pages of testimony from the principal prosecution witness, General Rodriguez.

513. His Polish girlfriend taught Aunt May and me how to dance the polka, playing many songs suitable for that type of dance.

514. One famous Secretary-General of the United Nations, Dag Hammarskjold, received the Nobel Peace Prize in 1961.
515. Janice Jones, treasurer of our religious study group, asked for a moment of silence to praise God and his works.

516. The annual Greek-American parade takes place tomorrow, according to Archbishop Kerakalos, the head of the Greek historical society.

517. How many non-European hockey players participate in the International League of Ice Hockey, the organization that oversees the schedule and salaries?

518. My favorite film star, Jeffrey O. Phelps, won the Oscar for Best Supporting Actor.

519. The mayor fired Daniel Ellis, a supervisor with the Department of Parks, after Hurricane Sandy.

520. Her brother worked for Consolidated Edison, which supplies electricity to the city, until 2012, when he retired with the rank of vice president.

521. Does Mother know that Uncle Bill just left for Alabama, where he will run for senator?

522. My French teacher is from Tunisia, a country in Africa where that language is widely spoken.

523. When Alan was a sophomore, he spent every Monday in December working on a mural for the school cafeteria.

524. Last winter Marian said, "Every snowy day is a treasure."

525. Lucy loves her history class, but she excels in science and math.

526. In the spring you should take Introduction to Biology instead of Nuclear Physics.
Chapter 11: Avoiding Capital Punishment: Placing Capital Letters Properly

527. Lou thinks that sandals are “light and airy.”

528. To reach the Rocky Mountains, I drove west for three days last summer.

529. Ruining the entire month, April 15th is the deadline for filing tax returns for each year.

530. “I invest in fine art,” remarked Jean, “because I like to support local artists.”

531. Joe lives in Tribeca, a neighborhood in Manhattan, but he’s originally from the Midwest.

532. Having gobbled up my French fries, Johnny then wiped his greasy fingers on my best Egyptian cotton towels.

533–541 Which words in each title should be capitalized? Note: Check the parentheses to see whether the work follows headline or sentence style.

533. The love song of Benny and Jenny (headline style)

534. Penicillin: an examination of the safety and effectiveness of a common antibiotic (sentence style)

535. Superbug, Snakefeet, and Fish Teeth: A History of Three Rock Bands (headline style)

536. Serafina My Love: How Two Star-Crossed Lovers Met Their Fate (headline style)

537. Traffic Circulation Patterns: An Analysis of Driver Choice from 2005–2015 (sentence style)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>538.</th>
<th>hospital sanitary practices: a guide for administrators (sentence style)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>539.</td>
<td>you get more than you pay for by bargaining! (headline style)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>540.</td>
<td>basil: an invasive crop or helpful newcomer? (sentence style)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>541.</td>
<td>are you listening? a musician’s memoir of an auditory education (headline style)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 12

Exercising Comma Sense: Placing Commas Correctly

A tiny curved line, the comma has more power than most elected officials. It can make your meaning clear or change the meaning of a sentence entirely. Placing commas where they belong isn’t rocket science, but it does require you to notice every detail. In this chapter you practice paying attention to commas and exercising “comma sense.”

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on questions that exercise the following skills:

✓ Punctuating lists with commas and inserting semicolons where needed
✓ Differentiating between essential and nonessential information by inserting commas
✓ Using commas to set off introductory elements and interruptions in the sentence
✓ Creating direct address with commas
✓ Separating clauses with commas and conjunctions

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

✓ Elements of a list are generally separated by commas. The comma before and is optional, though most people include it.
✓ If items in a list contain commas, use semicolons to separate the items.
✓ Set off nonessential descriptions from the rest of the sentence using commas. Essential information is not set off by commas.
✓ Nonessential clauses (subject-verb statements) often begin with which. Essential clauses often begin with that.
✓ Commas set off words in a sentence that interrupt the flow of meaning (direct address, exclamations, and the like).
✓ When you join one complete sentence to another with a conjunction (and, or, but, for, yet, nor), place a comma before the conjunction.
### Commas in Lists

**542–556** Punctuate the list by adding commas and semicolons as needed. 

**Note:** Some optional commas already appear in the lists.

| 542. | ham eggs bacon cereal milk, and toast |
| 543. | drizzle hurricane hail sleet, and rain |
| 544. | vanilla and chocolate |
| 545. | vanilla and chocolate and strawberry ice cream |
| 546. | slid teetered, and fell flat |
| 547. | the dirty ripped faded shoes |
| 548. | three blind noisy mice |
| 549. | a constantly changing mysterious personality |
| 550. | my oldest kindest friend and her extremely strict parents |
| 551. | became angry went to the boss, and vented his passionately held beliefs |
| 552. | algebra which I hated geometry which I loved, and calculus which I enjoyed |
| 553. | your penetrating unusually creative mind |
| 554. | Peter Walsh her former sweetheart Richard Dalloway her husband Hugh Whitbread an old friend **(Note:** This list contains the names of three people, each followed by an explanation of his or her identity.** |
| 555. | sealed the crucially important envelope and mailed it |
| 556. | five sides equal in length width, and height |
Johnny playing with his toy cars was not old enough to drive a real vehicle.

Sodium chloride better known as salt is a flavorful addition to most meals.

The toddler playing in the sandbox was reluctant to leave the playground.

The chairman of the board Mr. Smith resigned yesterday.

The law enacted at midnight represented a compromise between the opposing parties.

The office decorated in blue our state color displays paintings with patriotic themes.

Six o’clock when my alarm rings is the time I jump onto my exercise bike and pedal for an hour.
570. A cheerleader who doesn’t concentrate can easily fall and suffer an injury.

571. I didn’t join the club because we’re friends; I am interested in its activities.

572. The herb Debby sprinkles on most of her salads dill is easy to grow.

573. Catherine laughed as she told the story.

574. Sarah won’t slap you because she avoids violence at all costs.

575. I have seen the funniest film ever made Caddyshack about 30 times.


577. Yes I hate geraniums and roses.

578. Max however would like to pilot a jet.

579. Oscar I think you could become a superstar.

580. Eloise closed the door and then she locked it.

581. The clerk slapped a price sticker on each tube and placed the merchandise on the shelf.

582. Go to your room Henry before I lose my temper!
583. Oh no one remembered to bring the ketchup or mustard!

584. Really she’s so elegant that I can’t imagine her in a kitchen laundry, or basement.

585. He walked two miles through the park but he took a bus home.

586. The itsy-bitsy spider went up the water spout you know.

587. Nevertheless you must complete all your chores before you watch the playoffs.

588. Your calculator is broken and your answer therefore is incorrect.

589. By the way Gloria your zipper is open and so is your mouth.

590. Logging more than a thousand hours flying that plane Albert is an expert pilot.

591. Although it’s too difficult for beginners the course is great for advanced students.
Chapter 13

Little Things That Mean A Lot: Apostrophes and Quotation Marks

Apostrophes and quotation marks cause much confusion, but these tiny bits of ink serve a purpose. Apostrophes indicate ownership and omitted letters or numbers. Quotation marks identify words from someone other than the writer. In this chapter you answer questions about the proper placement of apostrophes and quotation marks.

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on questions in the following areas:

- Placing apostrophes to show ownership by one or more people
- Shortening words or numbers with apostrophes
- Using apostrophes with expressions of time and money
- Distinguishing between quoted and paraphrased material
- Situating periods, commas, and other punctuation marks in quoted material, citations, and titles

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

- Don’t use an apostrophe to create a plural. (Exceptions to this rule exist, but they’re not in common use.)
- To create a possessive, singular noun, add ‘s. To create a possessive, regular plural, add an apostrophe after the s. To create the possessive form of an irregular plural, add ‘s.
- In contractions, replace omitted words or numbers with an apostrophe. (A few irregular contractions, such as won’t for will not, don’t follow this rule.)
- Always surround quoted material and titles of short works (poems, short stories, and the like) with quotation marks.
In Standard American English, single quotation marks appear only when one quotation nests inside another quotation. Place periods and commas before the closing quotation mark. Place semicolons and colons after the closing quotation mark.

If you’re quoting a question, the question mark precedes the closing quotation mark. If the sentence is a question but the quotation isn’t, place the question mark after the closing quotation mark. Follow the same pattern for exclamation points — before the closing quotation mark if the quoted words are an exclamation and after the closing quotation mark if the sentence, but not the quotation, is an exclamation.
Chapter 13: Little Things That Mean A Lot: Apostrophes and Quotation Marks

Creating the Possessive Form of Nouns

592–600 What is the possessive form of these nouns?

592. Dora, stars, girl

593. lamps, Robin, pencils

594. lawyer, peanuts, parakeet

595. child, children, boys

596. men, rugs, dinosaur

597. workbook, french fries, women

598. son-in-law, deer, Martin

599. buildings, brothers-in-law, who

600. fish, oranges, Ms. Jones

Creating Contractions with Apostrophes

601–609 Where appropriate, create contractions of these word pairs by omitting letters and inserting apostrophes.

601. do not, I will, is not

602. it is, they are, you have

603. he is, she was, we are

604. will not, should not, I would

605. has not, must not, why is
606. cannot, would have, she had

607. might have, it was, does not

608. who would, could have, how is

609. what is, let us, should have

610–616 Insert apostrophes where they are needed and delete them where they are not appropriate.

610. The class of 55 will celebrate its reunion in two month’s.

611. Jane bought two new camera’s but isn’t pleased with her purchase.

612. Don’t wait until 2018 to start saving; six years earlier, in 12, start to pile up dollar’s.

613. They should’ve given us more time to take those exam’s.

614. Bagel’s were very popular breakfast foods in 1909’.

615. I’m tired of doing two hours homework every night; Mary’s assignments are easier.

616. Who'd work two weeks for only a day’s pay?

617–624 Look at this script, in which two friends discuss a baseball game. Read the sentences following the script. What, if anything, should be surrounded by quotation marks?

Script:

JEFF: Hey, did you go to the game last night?

JANE: Yeah, and I’m glad I did. Did you see Marcus hit in the third inning? It was stupendous! It shot over the left-field wall like a rocket. Were you there?
JEFF: No. I stayed home to do the most boring math homework in the universe. You know what? The teacher didn’t even collect the homework! She didn’t grade it. Isn’t that, like, against the law or something?

617. Jane told Jeff that Marcus hit a home run.

618. Jeff explained, I stayed home to do the most boring math homework in the universe.

619. Jane replied, I’m glad I did, when Jeff asked Jane whether she had attended the game.

620. Jane believes that Marcus’s home run was stupendous.

621. Jeff asked Jane whether not collecting or grading assigned homework was illegal.

622. According to Jeff, the teacher didn’t grade the homework.

623. Did Jeff ask Jane, Were you there?

624. Jeff claims that he did the most boring math homework in the universe.

Placing Quotation Marks and Other Punctuation

625–638 Place commas, periods, question marks, exclamation points, and quotation marks in the sentence as needed. Also capitalize letters as needed. Note: Directly quoted words are underlined. You decide whether the quoted words merit quotation marks.

625. The heat wave will end on Saturday, the forecaster promised.

626. Mark screamed let her go!

627. Wilbur asked did Christine take a taxi to the theater?

628. Pilar was born in Ecuador, where, she says, the weather is often hot and humid.

629. Xavier eventually declared that his unusual name was awesome.
I wonder where the birthday candles are, Grandma whispered, and if we have enough.

According to the authorities, police officers were called brave and heroic by all who witnessed the daring rescue.

Marisa explained that she was completely exhausted; she and Lola went home immediately.

Henry requested many things, including a pocket knife and a pony.

When he learned to read, Daryl was five, declared Jordan, not ten years old.

Robbie explained the teacher thinks I am supersmart. (Note: Supersmart is a quotation from the teacher.)

It is going to rain, Harry predicted the picnic will be postponed.

Will said that the cheese smelled funky: It had been in the refrigerator for more than a year.

Jacobs argues that the colonies were motivated by a desire for freedom, not additional markets for their goods.

Rich’s poem, Diving into the Wreck, explores gender and other themes.
642. **Going to Savannah**, a poem by Agnes Little, is on the reading list.

643. The chorus’s version of *You Are My Sunshine* relies on three-part harmony.

644. In homage to Shakespeare, the main character considers whether to be truthful or not to be truthful (line 23).

645. When she wrote *Killer Whales and Their Prey*, Maxine Davis asserted that these animals are endangered (44).

646. The essay explores the relationship between voter turnout and weather and claims that weather is less important than other factors (Dooley 23).
Part I: The Questions
Chapter 14

Not Just for Railroad Tracks: Parallelism

Picture railroad tracks as a train chugs along. What happens if the tracks aren’t perfectly parallel? Derailment and disaster! The damage to your sentence may not be as obvious, but it occurs, nevertheless, if your sentence isn’t parallel. Watch out when you write lists, comparisons, and any sentences with two or more matched elements (subjects, verbs, clauses, and so forth); they’re only parallel if everything performing the same function has the same grammatical identity — perhaps all infinitives or all gerunds or all clauses. Don’t worry about the grammar terms. Just listen to the voice inside your head reading your words. If a sentence or list sounds balanced, it’s probably parallel. In this chapter you answer questions on all sorts of parallel situations.

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on these types of questions:

✔ Ensuring that lists are parallel
✔ Keeping elements parallel when they’re joined by paired conjunctions (either/or, neither/nor, both/and, not only/but also)
✔ Writing parallel comparisons with rather/than, as much as, more/than, and other connectors
✔ Avoiding unnecessary shifts in verb tense, person, and active/passive voice

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

✔ When you’re dealing with a pair of conjunctions, check that the same grammatical structure follows each half of the conjunction pair. In other words, if a subject-verb pair follows either, a subject-verb pair must follow or.
✔ Check all comparisons to be sure that the items compared have the same grammatical structure. You can compare a description to a description or a verb to a verb, but not a verb to a description.
✔ Avoid switching from active (I wrote a speech) to passive voice (the speech was read by me).
✔ Unless the meaning of the sentence requires a change in tense, be consistent.
✔ Don’t change from one person (say, third person, as in they study) to another (such as the second-person statement you learn) unless you have a good reason to do so.
Identifying Parallel Elements in Lists

647–661 Which of these are parallel?

647. I. skiing, skating, complaining
   II. to plant, to sow, to reap
   III. going to sleep, waking up, ready for work

648. I. smart, creative, has immense energy
   II. keeps score, notifies the umpire, encourages the team
   III. over the mountain, through the woods, to Grandmother’s house

649. I. Jane calculates, Artie summarizes, Peter plans
   II. riding a bike, walking in the garden, to relax
   III. around the corner, sneaky as a fox, behind the fence

650. I. came, saw, conquered
   II. coming, seeing, conquering
   III. come, see, conquered

651. I. silk, thread, carefully sewn
   II. jump, twirl, fall
   III. ignoring, bought, sold

652. I. sung by the Beatles, recording a hit song, performed by the school chorus
   II. heard everywhere, is popular, has many fans
   III. Ringo plays the drums, Paul strums the guitar, I sing along

653. I. who needs a computer, that costs a fortune, which the store displays in the window
   II. in the basement, energy-efficient furnace, in need of cleaning
   III. with remote control, flanked by speakers, sharp picture quality

654. I. early opening, excellent service, committed to quality
   II. Lisa’s spying on her neighbors, the detective tapping her phone, the judge hearing the case
   III. because I said so, when the blizzard rages, after the game ends

655. I. a bulldozer piled up sand, the dump truck carted it away, the jackhammer broke the pavement
   II. gliding, smoothing the ice, stopping by the fence
   III. soil rich in nutrients, in the botanical garden, endangered species of plants

656. I. screamed, threw food, epic tantrum
   II. buying a cottage, replacing the roof that was damaged in the storm, redecorating
   III. hid under a chair, away from other players, whispered

657. I. as time goes by, if I applied to that college, before midnight at the latest
   II. why the card is wet, while it is raining lightly, before the monsoon ends
   III. he had been told, he had been warned, he had been suspended
Chapter 14: Not Just for Railroad Tracks: Parallelism

658. I. Mary wrote the chapter, she proofread it, the chapter was revised by her
   II. the editor liked it, he praised the writing, reviewers went wild
   III. on the remainder table, off the bestseller list, the book tanked

659. I. the apple he picked, the grapes he harvested, the grass he mowed
   II. stop, look, listen
   III. while you cook, Henry irons the scarf, although the wedding is tomorrow

660. I. the puppy to watch, to take to the park, the kitten to cuddle
   II. whoever is hungry, whatever you need, whomever I ask
   III. when winter comes, the snow piles up, the plow scourc{s the streets

661. I. twist and shout, dance the night away, went to the movies
   II. the parrot with yellow feathers, the dog running away, a zoo is out of control
   III. tomorrow, yesterday, soon

662. I would rather work in the library than to go home.

663. Style depends not only how you look but also on attitude.

664. Oliver's supposed masterpiece was both tuneless and it was too long.

665. When you apply for a selective school, either you will be accepted or rejected; you won't know unless you try.

666. Recipes in that cookbook contain meat rather than they have vegetables.

667. Both the soldiers and the general agreed, so the proposed change to the battle plan was accepted.

668. The doctor was pleased with both the patient's blood pressure and slower heart rate.

669. Mary was not only fair but she also was careful to explain her decision to the contestants.
Part I: The Questions

670. Neither Jean’s absence nor that her coworkers were on a coffee break mattered, as no customers called.

671. Ximena neither explained nor cared if someone mispronounced her name.

672. The film director will not only emphasize special effects but also she will design them herself.

673. Participants in the study either have worked in a laboratory or they plan to do so within five years.

674–682 How should the underlined portion of the sentence be changed, if at all, to create a parallel comparison?

674. To play baseball is as appealing to Suri as baking cookies.

675. I would rather go to the movies than walking around the mall.

676. Lillian is equal in height and in weight to her twin, Lola.

677. George’s mother was upset with him more because of his lateness than that he tracked mud on the kitchen floor.

678. That small dinosaur was probably more aggressive than it was passive.

679. Are your scores on the real SAT as high as what you got on the practice test?

680. Rather than eating at the diner, Lou enjoys dining in a fine restaurant.

681. Spelling is easier for me than John.

682. We have as much to prepare today as tomorrow.
Chapter 14: Not Just for Railroad Tracks: Parallelism

Keeping Sentences Parallel

683–696 How should the underlined portion of the sentence be changed, if at all, to make the sentence parallel?

683. Pursued by a bear, Nicholas ran as fast as possible to the car, and then he locks the door.

684. Before you disconnect the water pipe, the valve should be turned off by you.

685. To travel in Sweden was relaxing; coming home was not.

686. Dr. Weber admitted the patient, Ms. Smith, to the hospital, and the patient was later examined by him.

687. They should capture the audience’s attention right away, so an actor must speak forcefully when the curtain rises.

688. The stage set has colorful lighting, costumes, curtains, and rugs that are colorful too.

689. Shirley smiled when she saw the backyard, which was bordered by daisies, shaded by oak trees, and a pond cooled it.

690. To study other cultures, learn new languages, and to visit foreign countries are worthwhile pursuits.

691. Bicycle riding helps people become physically fit and you will find bikes convenient too.

692. Many dictionaries do not include slang words nor common texting abbreviations.

693. An apple, pear, and banana are in the fruit bowl.
694. Successful politicians greet each supporter in person, and social media is used too.

695. As a short-term solution for hurricane victims and in prevention of future storm damage, this plan is excellent.

696. A current teacher must recommend a student applying for an honors course, or they can submit an essay explaining why the workload will not be too challenging.
Chapter 15

Slimming Down: Cutting Repetition and Wordiness

Do your sentences need to go on a diet? Are they chubby around the middle, with repetitive or wordy elements? If so, consider this chapter your path to trimmer, more powerful expression.

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on these concepts:

✓ Identifying synonyms or other repetitious expressions
✓ Writing concisely by eliminating unnecessary words

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

✓ Many words are close in meaning. *Tense*, for example, refers to how you feel when your muscles clench as tightly as possible. *Nervous*, on the other hand, describes the jitters that zing through your nervous system. Chances are you don’t need both *tense* and *nervous* to describe one mood. Look for the right word, the one that truly fits the situation in your sentence.

✓ Shorter isn’t always better, but nobody likes to waste time. Look for extra words: doubled descriptions, unnecessary explanations, and overly complicated sentence structure. When you find these issues, revise the sentence.
703. Georgina’s diagnosis — an untreatable disease, fatal in most cases — dismayed and frightened her so much that she retreated to her bed and stayed there.

704. Undoubtedly the best in his field, the biographer is thorough, checking original papers as well as secondary sources.

705. Attempting to cross Niagara Falls on a high wire with an audience of 300 million television viewers, the wire walker tried to reach the other shore.

706. The popular hit series is set in a small Southern town that has 500 inhabitants.

Writing Concisely

707–721 How should the original sentence best be revised, if at all, to avoid wordiness? Note: Be sure the revision you choose is grammatically correct and faithful to the meaning of the original sentence.

707. Original sentence: The title character in Macbeth is ambitious, and it is this ambition that leads him to crime.

I. The title character, Macbeth, has ambition and leads him to crime.

II. Leading to crime, the title character in Macbeth is ambitious.

III. Ambition leads to crime in Shakespeare’s Macbeth.

IV. The ambition of the title character of Macbeth leads him to crime.
Chapter 15: Slimming Down: Cutting Repetition and Wordiness

708. Original sentence: Jill was always fair and reasonable, and she saw the advantages and disadvantages of both sides in every argument.
   I. Fair and reasonable, Jill saw the advantages and disadvantages of both sides in every argument.
   II. Jill was always fair and reasonable, and she saw each side’s advantages and disadvantages.
   III. Jill seeing the advantages and disadvantages of both sides in every argument fairly.
   IV. Jill’s fairness and reasonableness led her to see both sides.

709. Original sentence: It was this place, Illinois, that saw the birth of Abraham Lincoln, one of the greatest presidents who ever headed the United States.
   I. Illinois saw the birth of Abraham Lincoln, one of the greatest presidents who ever headed the United States.
   II. Abraham Lincoln, one of the greatest presidents of the United States, was born in Illinois.
   III. Illinois, which was what saw the birth of one of the greatest presidents, was the place where Abraham Lincoln was born.
   IV. Illinois was where one of the greatest presidents of the United States, Abraham Lincoln, was born and he headed the government.

710. Original sentence: Fifi, who is a dog, loves going to the park; the park is where she plays with other dogs.
   I. Fifi loves going to the park, where she plays with other dogs.
   II. Fifi, who is a dog, loves going to the park and plays with other dogs.
   III. Fifi, who is a dog, loves going to the park with other dogs.
   IV. Fifi, a dog who loves going to the park, plays with other dogs there.

711. Original sentence: When I asked Dr. Spencer about his training, he told me that he had studied at Oxford University in Britain.
   I. Dr. Spencer told me that he had studied at Oxford University in Britain.
   II. Dr. Spencer studied at Oxford University in Britain.
   III. Dr. Spencer told me that his studies took place at Oxford University in Britain.
   IV. Dr. Spencer trained at Oxford.

712. Original sentence: Handcuffed with their wrists restrained, the burglars then proceeded to demand phone calls, lawyers, and immediate release.
   I. Handcuffed with their wrists restrained, the burglars proceeded to demand phone calls, lawyers, and immediate release.
   II. Handcuffed with their wrists restrained, the burglars then demanded phone calls, lawyers, and immediate release.
   III. Handcuffed, the burglars then proceeded to demand phone calls, lawyers, and immediate release.
   IV. Handcuffed, the burglars then demanded phone calls, lawyers, and immediate release.
713. Original sentence: After 12 years of experience at his previous jobs, all positions in marketing, Edward was interested in pursuing a different career path that wasn’t marketing.

I. After 12 years of experience at his previous jobs, in marketing, Edward was interested in pursuing a different career path, not marketing.

II. After 12 years of experience in marketing, Edward’s previous job was due for a change.

III. After 12 years in marketing, Edward was interested in a different career.

IV. After 12 years of experience at his previous jobs, Edward was interested in a different career path outside of marketing.

714. Original sentence: Smith Publishing, which publishes some books that deal with science and math, employs many experts in science and math to check its publications and eliminate any errors.

I. Smith Publishing, which publishes some books about science and math, employs many experts in science and math to check its publications and eliminate any errors.

II. Smith Publishing employs many experts to eliminate errors in its science and math publications.

III. Smith Publishing, publishing some books about science and math, employs many experts in science and math to check its publications.

IV. Smith Publishing, which publishes some books about science and math, employs many experts to check its publications and eliminate any errors.

715. Original sentence: We were already sitting in seats when the orchestra, all musicians, began to play at the direction of the conductor, who raised his baton to start the performance.

I. We were already seated when the conductor raised his baton and the orchestra began to play.

II. We were already sitting when the orchestra, all musicians, began to play as the conductor, he raised his baton to start the performance.

III. The conductor raised his baton and the orchestra began to play and we were sitting in seats then.

IV. We were already sitting in seats when all musicians began playing at the direction of the conductor, who raised his baton to start the performance.

716. Original sentence: Oliver Twist, which some consider Charles Dickens’s finest novel, focuses on a young boy, not very old, who is forced to steal.

I. Oliver Twist, considered Charles Dickens’s finest novel, focuses on a boy who is not too old who is forced to steal.

II. Oliver Twist, which some consider Charles Dickens’s finest novel, focuses on a young boy forced to steal.

III. Oliver Twist, which some consider Charles Dickens’s finest novel, focuses on a boy who is forced to steal.

IV. Oliver Twist, Dickens’s finest novel, focuses on a boy who is forced to steal.
717. Original sentence: It was then, at the moment when the cell divided, that the researchers hoped that the new medication would make a difference.
   I. It was then, when the cell divided, that the researchers hoped that the new medication would make a difference.
   II. Then, at the moment when the cell divided, the researchers hoped that the new medication would make a difference.
   III. The researchers hoped the new medication would make a difference during cell division.
   IV. The researchers, hoping the new medication would make a difference at the moment when the cell divided.

718. Original sentence: For four hours, quasars — high energy objects — were observed in that galaxy.
   I. Quasars were observed for four hours in that galaxy.
   II. For four hours in a galaxy, quasars were observed.
   III. Galaxy quasars were observed for four hours.
   IV. For four hours of time, quasars — high energy objects — were observed.

719. Original sentence: Unanimous votes do not (or when they do, only rarely) occur in that committee, the reason for this fact being that committee members hold strong but opposing views.
   I. Unanimous votes do not (or only rarely) occur in that committee, the reason for this fact being that committee members hold strong but opposing views.
   II. Unanimous votes rarely occur in that committee, because committee members hold strong but opposing views.
   III. Unanimous votes only rarely occur in that committee, the reason being that committee members hold strong but opposing views.
   IV. Unanimous votes only rarely occur in that committee, because committee members oppose each other's views.

720. Original sentence: As I said before, Colles' fractures are fractures of the arm bone near the wrist.
   I. Colles' fractures are fractures of the arm bone near the wrist.
   II. As I said before, Colles' fractures occur when the arm bone breaks near the wrist.
   III. Colles' fractures occur when the arm bone breaks near the wrist.
   IV. Colles' fractures occur when the arm bone near the wrist breaks, as I said before.
721. Original sentence: In this novel, the author discusses various themes and ideas, all very important concepts that the reader should ponder.

I. In this novel, the author discusses various themes, all very important concepts that the reader should ponder.

II. The novel’s author discusses various themes and ideas, all very important concepts that the reader should ponder.

III. In this novel, the author discusses various ideas, all important concepts that the reader should ponder.

IV. This novel presents important ideas that the reader should ponder.
Chapter 16

Aiming for Style: Creating Interesting Sentences

You can — and should — develop a sense of style when you’re writing. Style comes from many factors. In this chapter you work on combining ideas in interesting, fluid ways and experimenting with sentence patterns.

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on questions targeting the following:

✔ Inserting information into basic sentences with clauses and phrases
✔ Ensuring that sentences express the intended meaning
✔ Punctuating complicated sentences correctly
✔ Varying the normal subject-verb-complement pattern of a sentence
✔ Experimenting with sentence structure

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

✔ Clauses (subject-verb statements) beginning with who, whom, whose, which, or that usually insert descriptions of nouns or pronouns. Other types of clauses describe verbs, giving information about time, place, method, or reasons.

✔ Some clauses play crucial roles inside other clauses, acting as subjects or objects. These clauses often begin with whoever, whomever, or that.

✔ Placed properly, verbals — words that resemble verbs but function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs — make your writing flow more smoothly. Consider using infinitives (to + a verb), gerunds (the -ing form of a verb acting as a noun), and participles (a verb form that may function as an adjective) to spice up your sentences.
When you work with participles and infinitives, check the tense. The present form places the action or the state of being at the same time as the verb in the sentence. The past tense places the action or state of being prior to what the main verb of the sentence expresses.

When you add clauses or phrases, take care that your sentence is complete (no fragments!) and properly punctuated (no run-ons!).

Essential, identifying information isn’t set off from the rest of the sentence by commas. Extra information is surrounded by commas.

When a sentence begins with a verbal, the subject of the sentence must be the one performing the action or in the state of being expressed by the verbal.

Mature writers vary sentence length and pattern.
Weaving Complex Sentences

722–751 Which sentence or sentences combine the listed ideas smoothly and correctly?

725. Ideas: This container is for food scraps. The food scraps form compost. The compost fertilizes the garden.
   I. Food scraps form compost in this container fertilizing the garden.
   II. In this container there are food scraps, and they form compost, and they fertilize the garden.
   III. This container is for food scraps, which form compost to fertilize the garden.

726. Ideas: The suitcase is heavy. The suitcase has wheels. I don’t have to carry the suitcase. I am glad.
   I. The suitcase is heavy, but fortunately, it has wheels and I don’t have to carry it.
   II. I’m glad I don’t have to carry the heavy suitcase, which has wheels.
   III. The heavy suitcase has wheels, and I don’t have to carry it, and I am glad about not carrying it.

727. Ideas: The sun came out. The temperature rose. The ice melted.
   I. The sun coming out, the temperature rising and ice melting.
   II. When the sun came out, the temperature rose and the ice melted.
   III. The sun came out, so the temperature rose, so the ice melted.
728. Ideas: I saw the play. The play was suspenseful. I gasped at times.
   I. The suspenseful play made me gasp at times.
   II. Seeing the play, which was suspenseful, was something that made me gasp at times.
   III. The play was so suspenseful that I gasped at times.

729. Ideas: The air is dry. The plant needs water more often.
   I. Because the air is dry, the plant needs water more often.
   II. In dry air, the plant needs water more often.
   III. Needing water more often, the air is dry for the plant.

730. Ideas: Jonathan has many clients. His clients trust him. He handles their taxes.
   I. Jonathan has many clients who trust him to handle their taxes.
   II. Jonathan, with many clients, is trusted by them to handle the taxes they have.
   III. Handling their taxes, Jonathan has many clients, and they trust him.

731. Ideas: My boss works on Saturdays. He likes Saturdays for work. The office is empty on Saturdays. No one interrupts him on Saturdays.
   I. My boss, working on Saturdays, likes that the office is empty and that no one interrupts him on Saturdays.
   II. My boss likes to work on Saturdays because the office is empty and free of interruptions.
   III. My boss likes working on Saturdays in an empty office without interruptions.

732. Ideas: Consumers like fruit and vegetables that have bright colors. Some fruit and vegetable growers add artificial color. They add color when the fruit and vegetables are harvested.
   I. At harvest time, some growers add artificial color to fruit and vegetables to satisfy consumer demand for such produce.
   II. Because of consumer demand for brightly colored fruit and vegetables, some growers artificially add bright color to the fruits and vegetables when the fruits and vegetables are harvested.
   III. Demanding bright colors for fruit and vegetables for consumers, some growers add the color artificially.

733. Ideas: Smartphones run apps. “Apps” is short for “applications.” Apps today are more advanced. Apps written some years ago were less advanced.
   I. The applications, also known as “apps,” for smartphones are more advanced now than the apps were some years ago, being less advanced then.
   II. Being more advanced now, smartphones running better apps.
   III. Smartphone applications, or “apps,” are more advanced now than they used to be.

734. Ideas: Some trains run at high speeds. At high speeds it takes a while for a train to stop. A sudden stop cannot happen at high speed.
   I. A train running at high speed cannot stop suddenly.
   II. Running at high speed, a train cannot stop suddenly.
   III. Sudden stops, they cannot happen for high-speed trains.
Chapter 16: Aiming for Style: Creating Interesting Sentences

735. Ideas: Fluorescent bulbs are efficient. They use less energy than many other bulbs. Energy costs decrease. Consumers pay less when they use fluorescent bulbs.
   I. Fluorescent bulbs are energy efficient, so they use less energy, and customers’ electric bills are lower.
   II. Energy-efficient fluorescent bulbs decrease customers’ electric bills.
   III. Fluorescent bulbs, being energy efficient, decrease customers’ electric bills.

736. Ideas: Some artists study anatomy. Artists usually draw better drawings of human figures after the artists study anatomy.
   I. Studying anatomy may help artists draw human figures.
   II. To study anatomy, which some artists do, is that which helps artists when they draw human figures.
   III. Studying anatomy, some artists when they are drawing human figures work better.

737. Ideas: Mosquitoes don’t fly well. It is hard to fly into the wind. A fan generates wind. A fan can keep mosquitoes away.
   I. Because mosquitoes don’t fly well, especially into the wind, a fan can repel mosquitoes.
   II. A fan can repel mosquitoes because they fly poorly into the wind.
   III. Generating wind, a fan may repel mosquitoes, which don’t fly well.

738. Ideas: A computer produces sound. Programming can change the sound. Computer sound may resemble the sound of musical instruments.
   I. Programmed properly, computers can mimic musical instruments.
   II. Programming different sounds on a computer results in musical instrument sounds.
   III. To create sounds resembling musical instruments, computer programmers can do that.

739. Ideas: Emily has a mirror. The mirror was her favorite possession. The mirror cracked. It wasn’t Emily’s favorite then.
   I. Before the mirror cracked, it was Emily’s favorite possession.
   II. A favorite possession, Emily’s mirror was cracking and then wasn’t favored.
   III. Until it cracked, Emily’s favorite possession was the mirror.

740. Ideas: Cheating is a disgrace. Henry cheats.
   I. That Henry cheats is a disgrace.
   II. Henry, cheating, is a disgrace.
   III. To cheat is a disgrace for Henry.

741. Ideas: People mishear a word. People misunderstand the meaning of the word. Eventually, the mistaken meaning is accepted. The wrong meaning becomes the right meaning.
   I. After mishearing and misunderstanding a word, people eventually accept the “wrong” meaning as right.
   II. To mishear and to misunderstand a word, the meaning is accepted as right, even though it used to be wrong.
   III. Because people mishear and misunderstand a word, they accept mistakes and go from wrong to right.

742. Ideas: Letter carriers are on strike. They want more money.
   I. Letter carriers that want higher salaries are on strike.
   II. Letter carriers, that want higher salaries, are on strike.
   III. Letter carriers, who want higher salaries, are on strike.
743. Ideas: Some ink washes away. Some ink is permanent. Jim’s shirt has ink stains. Jim washed the shirt. Some stains remain. Those stains are from the permanent ink.
   I. Jim washed his shirt, but the stains made with permanent ink remained.
   II. Jim couldn’t remove stains, made with permanent ink, from his shirt.
   III. Made with permanent ink, Jim couldn’t remove stains from his shirt.

744. Ideas: Charlotte visits Indianapolis. Her grandmother lives in Indianapolis. Charlotte saw her grandmother. She went to Indianapolis for that purpose.
   I. To see her grandmother, Charlotte visited Indianapolis.
   II. Charlotte visited Indianapolis to see her grandmother.
   III. For seeing her grandmother, Charlotte visited Indianapolis.

745. Ideas: The football was in the air. It hurtled through the air. The football cleared the goalposts.
   I. Hurting through the air, the football cleared the goalposts.
   II. To hurtle through the air, the football cleared the goalposts.
   III. Clearing the goalposts, the football hurtled through the air.

746. Ideas: There is an essay. The writing is polished. The essay will win a prize.
   I. The essay that is a polished piece of writing and that will win a prize.
   II. Polished, the essay is a piece and writing and it will win a prize.
   III. A polished piece of writing, that essay will win a prize.

747. Ideas: Ben stayed up all night. He fought to keep his eyes open at work the next day.
   I. Staying up all night, Ben fought to keep his eyes open at work the next day.
   II. Stayed up all night, Ben fought to keep his eyes open at work the next day.
   III. Having stayed up all night, Ben fought to keep his eyes open at work the next day.

748. Ideas: Everyone wore masks and odd clothes to the costume party. No one recognized anyone else.
   I. Wearing masks and odd clothes, no one at the costume party recognized anyone else.
   II. Having worn masks and odd clothes to the costume party, no one recognized anyone else.
   III. Had worn masks and odd clothes, no one at the costume party recognized anyone else.

749. Ideas: She had a goal. Her goal was to see Mount Everest. Her goal was not easy.
   I. To see Mount Everest, her goal, wasn’t easy.
   II. Being her goal, seeing Mount Everest not being easy.
   III. Her goal, to see Mount Everest, wasn’t easy.

   I. I want the book, that has an index.
   II. I want the book that has an index.
   III. Having an index, I want that book.
Chapter 16: Aiming for Style: Creating Interesting Sentences

751. Ideas: I did the laundry yesterday. You should do the laundry today.
   I. Doing the laundry yesterday, you should do it today.
   II. Having done the laundry yesterday, I think you should do it today.
   III. The laundry done yesterday, you should do it today.

**Varying Sentence Patterns**

752–766 Read these sentences, some of which change the common sentence pattern. Which sentence or sentences, if any, are correct?

752. I. On the bus, did he?
   II. On the bus, was he?
   III. Was he on the bus?

753. I. In the courtroom stood the new lawyer, awestruck.
   II. Awestruck, the new lawyer stood in the courtroom.
   III. Awestruck, in the courtroom stood the new lawyer.

754. I. Around the corner, just in time, came a police officer.
   II. Just in time, around the corner came a police officer.
   III. Coming around the corner, just in time, a police officer.

   II. Loved Chinese food, he avoided Japanese food.
   III. Chinese food he loved, but Japanese food he avoided.

756. I. Finished everything, have they?
   II. Everything finished, have they?
   III. Have they finished everything?

757. I. Creating perfect ice for hockey, through the pipes flowed Freon under the surface.
   II. Creating perfect ice for hockey, Freon flowed through the pipes under the surface.
   III. Through the pipes Freon under the surface flowed, creating perfect ice for hockey.

758. I. His winning a gold medal, no goal more important to him.
   II. Winning a gold medal, his goal, was more important to him.
   III. No goal was more important to him than winning a gold medal.

759. I. That Jane’s motives were pure was all that mattered to Joe.
   II. To Joe, that Jane’s motives were pure was all that mattered.
   III. All that mattered to Joe was that Jane’s motives were pure.

760. I. No matter what Agatha says, don’t listen.
   II. Whatever Agatha says, it does not matter, don’t listen.
   III. Not mattering what Agatha says, don’t listen.

761. I. What he does, you don’t have to do too.
   II. Whatever he does, too, you don’t have to.
   III. You not having to do what he does.

762. I. Breaking through the cloudy skies was a rainbow.
   II. A rainbow, breaking through the cloudy skies was.
   III. Was a rainbow breaking through the cloudy skies.
763. I. Whatever attracts attention, such as a feather-and-glue dress, she wants.
   II. Whatever attracts attention — a feather-and-glue dress, perhaps — she wants.
   III. Wanting a feather-and-glue dress, attracting attention.

764. I. Moving to Lithuania, he experienced his ancestors’ culture.
   II. His ancestors’ culture moving to Lithuania he experienced.
   III. He, moving to Lithuania, experienced his ancestors’ culture.

765. I. On the track, speeding along, the blue racing car stood out.
   II. Standing out, on the track the blue racing car, speeding along.
   III. Standing out and speeding along, the blue racing car on the track.

766. I. Of love he knew nothing.
   II. Nothing he knew of love.
   III. Knowing nothing, he of love.
How’s your voice? I’m not asking whether you sing in the shower. Instead, I’m inquiring about your knowledge of active and passive verbs (qualities known as voice in the grammar world). In this chapter you also get in touch with mood — specifically, when and how to use a verb in subjunctive mood. Sounds complicated, right? It isn’t. Those important-sounding grammar terms mask some very simple principles: active verb forms are nearly always better than passive, and if/then statements require special attention. In this chapter you find practice questions on the voice and mood of verbs.

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on these types of questions:

- Distinguishing between active and passive verb forms
- Changing passive verbs to active where appropriate
- Selecting the proper verb forms for if/then statements

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

- When a sentence has a verb in active voice, the subject performs the action or is in the state of being expressed by the verb, as in Pete applied for a position with the Peace Corps.
- With a passive-voice verb, the subject receives the action, as in The job notice was posted on the bulletin board.
- In general, use passive voice only when an active-voice sentence is awkward or impossible (when you don’t know who performed the action, for example).
- If you discuss a situation that isn’t true, use subjunctive mood for the if statement and the conditional helping verb would for the other portion of the sentence. Were creates a subjunctive statement for being verbs; had does the same thing for action verbs.
- If you’re talking about a real possibility, don’t use subjunctive in an if/then statement.
- The if statement never includes the helping verb would.
- Sometimes in an if/then statement, the if is implied. You still need a subjunctive verb in the clause that sets up the hypothetical situation. Here’s an example, with the subjunctive verb underlined: Had Natalia understood Italian, she would have scolded the waiter. The hypothetical statement may also begin with as if or as though.
Part I: The Questions

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Identifying Active and Passive Verb Forms

767–774 Identify active verb forms (AV) and passive verb forms (PV). Note: In addition to words functioning as verbs, label descriptive verb forms (participles) as active (AV) or passive (PV).

767. The ruins were uncovered early in 1912.

768. France and England were first connected by high-speed trains when the Chunnel, a tunnel under the English Channel, was constructed.

769. Fog blanketed the area, but somehow Raymond found the path home.

770. Carlos’s poetry class is working hard; the poems he writes are imaginative.

771. William rejected 30 applicants representing 16 schools because, he says, not one was properly trained.

772. Played at maximum volume, Doug’s music stunned and pleased the crowd.

773. Having been summoned to jury duty, Richard was absent from work last week.

774. Smallpox, which terrified and afflicted so many, has been eradicated.

Changing Passive Voice to Active

775–781 How should the sentence be changed, if at all, so that the verb is in active voice? Note: A verb may be active and need no change, or a change to active voice may not be possible.

775. The letter was stamped by the clerk after Louella had paid the postage.

776. Two candles were blown out by the smiling toddler.

777. Did Max’s umbrella hit you when the wind whisked it out of his hand?
778. Isaac hopes that taxes will be lowered when Governor Mary Smith takes over.

779. Helmets should be worn at all times during bicycle rides.

780. Large suitcases must be checked before boarding, but some passengers take them into the cabin anyway.

781. Ten minutes had passed before we realized that she was absent.

782. If the heat wave continues, Eric will buy another air conditioner.

783. If I was a lottery winner, I would circle the globe on a first-class ticket. Unfortunately, I didn’t win.

784. If Marty was promoted, he would have taken us to a fancy restaurant to celebrate. Instead, we treated him to a hot dog from the corner stand.

785. If Alex would be suspended, he will miss at least 50 games; the commissioner will announce his decision tomorrow, and Alex will know his fate.

786. Anna would have bought more snacks if she had known how hungry her guests were.

787. Being Dmitri an accomplished magician, he would pull a rabbit out of a hat. Because he’s still learning, he can retrieve only a scarf from a baseball cap.

788. Had Sparky Firedog gotten lost, the firefighters would not have rested before locating their mascot.

789. On the way to the used car lot, Lola made up her mind: If the convertible were in good shape, she would buy it.
790. If the chef added seasoning to that food, it would have tasted better and more diners would have eaten it.

791. If Maddy were to answer the phone, hang up!

792. The clerk asked if Ali would like to have the toy gift-wrapped.

793. If the pitcher had thrown a fast ball, the batter would of hit a home run.

794. The mathematician spoke as if Jordan was his equal, but Jordan has trouble adding two and two.

795. Cary looks as though he were 60, but he’s only 30 years old.

796. Dialing the repair shop, Johnny wishes he bought the computer at a store, not at a flea market.
Chapter 18

Dealing with Electronic Media

One of the best educated people I know recently said, “Grammar in e-mail? You’re kidding! I’ve never put a comma in an e-mail. I don’t use them in presentations either.” Well, I do. I put commas in text messages too, as well as in instant messages. I don’t tweet, but if I did, I’d probably throw in a couple of commas there also. Granted, I’m stricter than normal people (in other words, nongrammarians). Plus, I have to admit that communication media change so rapidly that the rules for writing with them have to be fluid also. Most people feel free to drop at least some conventions of grammar when they pull out a smartphone or a tablet or project a presentation slide. But before you toss all the rules, you should know today’s commonly accepted standards for writing e-mails, texts, and instant messages. Furthermore, you should know how to write a list with bullet points — the sort you see on PowerPoint, Prezi, or Keynote presentation slides — without inflicting a fatal wound on Standard English. For help with these skills, read on.

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on questions testing these skills:

✔ Capitalizing titles and bullet points in presentation slides and subject lines
✔ Punctuating bulleted lists, e-mails, texts, and instant messages
✔ Creating parallel bulleted lists
✔ Communicating clearly and achieving the right degree of formality in electronic media

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

✔ The title of a presentation slide, if it has one, follows the headline style of capitalization. Subject lines of e-mails usually do so also, though you have more leeway there.
✔ All the items on a bullet-point list should be parallel. In other words, they should have the same grammatical identity.
 ✓ If the bulleted list begins with an introductory sentence, use a colon if the sentence is complete or if the bullet points aren’t part of the introductory statement. Don’t place any punctuation after an introductory statement that ends with a linking verb (any form of *to be*) or if the bullet points combine with the introductory statement to form a complete sentence.

 ✓ Commonly used (and mutually understood) abbreviations are fine in instant messages and texts. Breaking some rules of capitalization and punctuation is generally accepted in these short forms, as long as the meaning is clear. Words may also be omitted or implied, unless they are necessary for clarity.

 ✓ When writing to someone who outranks you (a supervisor, a teacher, an elderly relative), follow the rules of Standard English.
Chapter 18: Dealing with Electronic Media

Presentation Slides

797–814 What changes, if any, should you make to the underlined material to create a grammatically correct presentation slide?

797.

american Pioneers of Aviation

• Inventors and builders of the first airplane – Wright Brothers
• First pilot to fly nonstop across the Atlantic Ocean – Charles Lindbergh
• first female pilot to fly solo across the Atlantic Ocean – Amelia Earhart

798.

The advantages of teleconferencing include the following:

• no transportation expense.
• convenience
• More employees can attend.
• spontaneity

799.

Important Facts about Calvin Coolidge

• served as Governor of Massachusetts (1919 – 1921)
• vice president of the United States (1921 – 1923)
• President of the United States (1923 – 1929)

800.

• what we need for the annual dance.
  • decorations
  • refreshments
  • Music

801.

April Fool’s Day stunts in the past were

• glue on the boss’s chair (2009)
• We made a fake engagement announcement for Pam and Steve (2010).
• firecrackers in supply locker (2011)

802.

“B Vitamins”

• Include thiamin, riboflavin, and other compounds
• Heat and light affect them.
• Plants make them.
803. Goals for this year include the following:
- to expand our Asian markets
- to increase brand recognition
- hiring 50 new researchers

804. Themes of Adrienne Rich’s Poem
    Diving into the Wreck
- gender identity
- self-discovery
- role of perspective
- existential loneliness

805. Stradivarius Violins Are Expensive
    Because Of
- their sound quality
- their limited number
- the inability of modern violin makers to re-create them

806. All student journalists must
    - Research all stories thoroughly
    - Check quotations for accuracy
    - cite written or electronic sources used
    - submit articles before the deadline

807. Our new Park-It-Now application has
- The app flags unoccupied parking spots within ten blocks.
- More than 3000 drivers have already downloaded the app.
- An approval rating of more than 90% from users of the app.

808. Check your closet today for
- outdated fashions
- clothing that doesn’t fit
- clothing with stains
- possible charity donations

809. Useful arts and crafts materials
- Glue Sticks (Any Brand)
- Scissors
- Markers
- Felt and Fabric Scraps
- Crayons

810. Before registering, all students are:
- given a list of available courses
- allowed to visit classes (one session only)
- encouraged to meet with their advisors
- informed about school policies on schedule changes
Composing E-Mails, Instant Messages, and Texts

815–826 Which of these, if any, are acceptable electronic communications? Note: Because some informality is accepted in electronic media, the “situation” information explains the context and medium.

815. Situation: Instant message, Jean asks her friend whether he wants to go for a walk with her.
   I. walk today
   II. walk?
   III. Want to walk

816. Situation: Text, a parent asks a teacher whether his child’s grades are good.
   I. grades good
   II. Grades?
   III. grades good?
### 817. Situation: E-mail from business to customer, announcing a sale.

| I. | From: Bonanza Hut  
Subject: Visit Our New Branch  
To: Joseph J. Jones  

Dear Customer,  
Bonanza Hut is proud to announce our newest branch at 221 Tarpon Way in Elsville. Bring this e-mail for a special discount.  
Sincerely,  
The Bonanza Hut Team |

| II. | From: Bonanza Hut  
Subject: Visit Our New Branch  
To: Joseph J. Jones  

Dear Customer,  
Bonanza Hut is proud to announce our newest branch at 221 Tarpon Way in Elsville. Bring this e-mail for a special discount.  
Sincerely,  
The Bonanza Hut Team |

| III. | From: Bonanza Hut  
Subject: Visit Our New Branch  
To: Joseph J. Jones  

Dear Customer, Bonanza Hut is proud to announce our newest branch at 221 Tarpon Way in Elsville. Bring this e-mail for a special discount. Sincerely, The Bonanza Hut Team |

### 820. Situation: Text from Bill to his grandfather.

1. G2G Gramps ttyl
2. Gotta go Gramps ttyl
3. I have to go, Gramps. I'll talk to you later.

### 821. Situation: E-mail from client to architect, giving an opinion on preliminary plans

| I. | From: Kit Carton  
Subject: I hate the kitchen layout redo it  
To: Helene Dodgson |

| II. | From: Kit Carton  
Subject: Kitchen layout  
To: Helene Dodgson  

Dear Ms. Dodgson  
I hate the kitchen layout. Please redo it. Thanks.  
KC |

| III. | From: Kit Carton  
Subject: Kitchen layout  
To: Helene Dodgson  

HELENE, I HATE THE KITCHEN LAYOUT. PLEASE REDO IT.  
BEST,  
KIT |

### 822. Situation: Excerpt from a film review on a website for general readers.

1. gr8 CGI in the crashing planet sequence
2. great CGI in the crashing planet sequence
3. great special effects in the crashing planet sequence

### 818. Situation: Excerpt from a blog post from a food writer hoping for a book contract.

1. This recipe for tomato stew needs a hint of dates.
2. This recipe 4 tomato stew needs a hint of d8s.
3. Add a hint of dates to this tomato stew and wow!

### 819. Situation: Instant message, history teacher to guidance counselor, in response to a question about the possibility that a student will plagiarize a paper.

1. no writing paper by herself
2. no, writing paper by herself
3. No. Writing paper by herself
824. Situation: Instant message from Jack to Jill, best friends and constant companions, about Henry’s claim that he’s dating a supermodel.
   I. omg i cant believe it
   II. idnbi
   III. lol your joking

825. Situation: Excerpt from a reader comment on an article in an online newspaper.
   I. Mr. Smith’s position, that the waste disposal factory should be relocated, is impractical, as no other sites have been identified.
   II. You’re an idiot, Smith! Nobody else will take that factory.
   III. Smith – I hate you and everything you say.

826. Situation: Text from boss to employee about a change in policy.
   I. FYI: Breaks can be 10 minutes tops.
   II. breaks now 10 mins long and no more
   III. 10 min breaks only
Chapter 19
Choosing Language to Suit Your Audience

When people find out that I write grammar books, some go into “gotcha” mode. They scrutinize everything I say, hoping to catch a mistake. And they do! In fact, they should. Why? Because formal, totally proper English isn’t appropriate for all situations. When you’re at a party, you probably employ what I call “conversational English” — a less formal version of the language that features shortened or dropped words, incomplete sentences, and similar elements. Conversational English makes you more approachable. One level down is even less formal, what I call “friendspeak.” On this level you make some mistakes on purpose, using slang and throwing in me instead of I or who instead of whom. Of course, in school or on the job, proper English is generally the goal. In this chapter you practice moving from level to level of correctness, depending upon the situation you’re in. These questions check your ability to adapt your oral or written expression as needed.

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on questions that test these skills:

✓ Identifying levels of formality
✓ Suiting your words to a particular situation

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

✓ If you’re speaking or writing to someone with more power than you, formal English is best. However, no one likes to hear stiff, old-fashioned, or flowery expressions. Even in formal English, strive for direct and clear expression.

✓ When communicating with peers, let the relationship and situation guide you. A friend in the office may be comfortable with conversational English while you’re gossiping at the coffee machine but not when you’re writing a business memo. On Friday night away from the office, friends may “kick off their grammar shoes” and break every rule in the book.
✓ Slang works only when everyone who’s supposed to be part of the conversation understands what you’re saying. By its nature, slang excludes some people, usually on purpose. Teenagers invent terms all the time specifically to mystify adults — and succeed beautifully!

✓ Jargon — specialized terms, abbreviations, and acronyms — is fine only if the intended audience comprehends. Acronyms are formed from the first letter of each word in a name (NATO for North Atlantic Treaty Organization, for example).

✓ Electronic communication (text or instant messages, blogs, e-mails) sometimes relax the usual grammar rules, but even there, take care if you’re writing to someone of higher status in a given situation.
Chapter 19: Choosing Language to Suit Your Audience

Identifying Levels of Formality

827–836 Place these expressions in order of formality, moving from the most formal to the least. Note: Two expressions may “tie.” For example, your answer may be 1 and 2, 3. In that answer, the first and second statements have the same level of formality, and the third statement is less formal than the first two.

827. 1. You just don’t get it.
     2. You do not comprehend the situation.
     3. You don’t understand what happened.

828. 1. I provide herein
     2. I enclose
     3. Here’s

829. 1. Don’t worry about that issue.
     2. Hey, don’t flip out!
     3. Forget it, please.

830. 1. does not exercise
     2. total couch potato
     3. never exercises

831. 1. C U L8R
     2. See you later.
     3. I will meet you later today.

832. 1. My bad.
     2. Oops! Sorry.
     3. I apologize.

833. 1. Does this interest you?
     2. r u in?
     3. Are you in?

834. 1. about your request
     2. in reference to your request
     3. pursuant to your request

835. 1. You had to ask!
     2. In response to your question
     3. To answer your question

836. 1. the child under discussion
     2. the kid we’re talking about
     3. the child we are discussing

The Right Words for the Right Time

837–851 Which of these statements, if any, are suitable in the specified situation? Note: The statement may be excerpted from a longer conversation or piece of writing.

837. Situation: Student’s e-mail to a teacher asking for a letter of recommendation.
     I. Would you please write a letter of recommendation?
     II. You get me. Wanna write for me?
     III. r u ok to write 4 me?
838. Situation: Letter of complaint from a customer to a company about a recent purchase.
   I. Your vacuum stinks. I want my money back now!
   II. The vacuum doesn’t work, so I want a refund.
   III. Vacuum = busted. Refund = mine.

839. Situation: Text message from Lily, who has known Anthony since preschool, commenting on a mutual friend’s unexpected offer to help with a school project.
   I. 2G2BT
   II. rly? r u sure?
   III. 4 real?

840. Situation: Co-worker speaking to a peer at a committee meeting chaired by their supervisor.
   I. The marketing stuff’s epic, but the neighborhood’s sketchy.
   II. Whassup with the neighborhood? The marketing’s okay.
   III. The marketing is fine, but the neighborhood is questionable.

841. Situation: Phone call from a parent to another parent about a play date for their children.
   I. Saturday okay with you? Maybe the beach? Or the playground? Could be fun.
   II. How about I take the kids to the beach or the playground on Saturday for a fun afternoon?
   III. Would it be permissible for me to take our children on an excursion this Saturday, perhaps to the beach or to the playground, so that they can amuse each other for a while?

842. Situation: Alice speaks with a traffic patrol officer who has pulled her over to the side of the road.
   I. You gotta problem?
   II. What’s the problem, Officer?
   III. Is there a problem?

843. Situation: Instant message from a boss to an assistant, requesting a file they’ve been working on.
   I. get me file asap
   II. need file now
   III. file - now

844. Situation: Comment to a citizen from a clerk in a government agency.
   I. What’s your DOB and SSN?
   II. Tell me your date of birth and social security number.
   III. When were you born, and what’s your social?

845. Situation: Text from daughter to mother about a cash-flow problem.
   I. ATM card no good. What to do?
   II. ATM no good. ??
   III. ATM?

846. Situation: Class notes for future study.
   I. war b/c border wasn’t where it s/b
   II. They went to war because the border was drawn where it should not have been.
   III. border wrong, so war
**847.** Situation: Letter to client from an insurance agent.

I. Don’t expect us to file Form 112. You didn’t supply a copy of the EOB from your PCP.

II. We will file Form 112 after you send the “Explanation of Benefits” statement you received from your Primary Care Physician (your doctor).

III. No 112 until we get the EOB from PCP.

**848.** Situation: Comment from a tourist to the tour guide, whose English is minimal and who is speaking in a low voice.

I. Speak louder, please.

II. Sound off!

III. Kick it up a notch.

**849.** Situation: Text from son to parents after he proposed to his girlfriend.

I. she said yes

II. she said yes wedding in july

III. Wedding in July

**850.** Situation: E-mail from broker to customer, who asked for information quickly.

I. Spoke with Jacobs. Deal’s OK with him.

II. I had a chance to speak with Mr. Jacobs, as you asked. I called him immediately, as you were in a rush. He indicated that the deal is fine with him.

III. Re Jacobs: deal’s okay with him.

**851.** Situation: E-mail to co-workers from their union representative about a possible job action. It’s illegal for the union members to strike.

I. Tomorrow we should all call in “sick,” if that’s how the vote turns out at the meeting tonight.

II. Important vote at tonight’s meeting. Please attend.

III. We’re getting the flu tomorrow, depending on tonight’s vote.
The road to proper English is full of potholes, including words with vastly different meanings that resemble each other in spelling or sound and words that many people use interchangeably — and incorrectly. In this chapter you perfect your ability to tell these “twins” apart and smooth the highway to better speech and writing.

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on these types of questions:

- Distinguishing between words such as **passed** and **past** that sound nearly the same
- Using almost-look-alikes such as **farther** and **further** correctly
- Selecting possessives and contractions (**their** and **they’re**, **its** and **it’s**) as needed
- Placing commonly misused words (**if** and **whether**, **like** and **as**) in their proper context

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

- **Accept** means “to agree or to take”; **except** means “other than.” Related forms are **acceptance** and **exception**.
- In common usage, **affect** is a verb meaning “to influence,” and **effect** is a noun meaning “a result.” **Effect** is sometimes used as a verb meaning “to bring about,” as in **to effect change**.
- **Farther** measures distance; **further** means “additional.”
- As a noun, **principal** is the head of a school or one of the most important people in a given situation; as an adjective it also means “most important.” A **principle** is a “rule or standard.”
- **Stationary** refers to something that’s fixed in one place; **stationery** is school or office supplies, especially paper and envelopes.
- **To compliment** is “to praise,” and **to complement** is “to complete, to bring to a better level.” Related forms are **complimentary** (which may mean either “praising” or “free”) and **complementary**.
A historic event is an important moment in history, the record or study of the past. Historical refers to anything related to the past. The noun past refers to everything up until the present moment; past as an adverb means “in front of” or “by.” Passed is a verb meaning “moved by or along” in time or space.

A capitol is a building where government meets; the capital is the city where the government is located. Capital also refers to money for investing and may, as an adjective, mean “chief, most important.”

There refers to a place, their shows possession, and they’re means “they are.”

To is a preposition, two is a number, and too means “also” or “excessive.”

Since refers to time, and because to a reason. If begins a statement about a condition or possibility, and whether presents two alternatives (whether or not).

Unique means “one of a kind” and is an absolute term. Unusual or rare are better words when something is odd, but not unique.

Disinterested means “fair and impartial,” and uninterested means “not interested.”

Like may be a verb (meaning “to appreciate or enjoy”) or a preposition. It may not introduce a subject-verb statement; to introduce subject-verb pairs, use as or as though.

Try and works only when you’re discussing two actions; otherwise, use try to.

You emigrate when you leave a country and immigrate when you enter a country. Related words are emigrant, emigration, immigrant, and immigration.

A number of means “some,” but the number usually refers to a specific quantity.

When you hint at something, you imply; when you figure out what the hint means, you infer.

Kind of or sort of means “type of.” Don’t use these expressions as substitutes for rather, somewhat, or a bit.
Distinguishing between Words Resembling Each Other

852–881 Which of the underlined words, if any, are used correctly in these expressions?

852. I. moving to a new house
   II. putting on there shoes
   III. it’s a shame

853. I. taking you’re time
   II. thinks two much
   III. accept the offer

854. I. you’re right, not wrong
   II. a dog and it’s bone
   III. everyone except Tom

855. I. too books, one on the shelf and one on the desk
   II. you’re right foot
   III. it’s raining

856. I. no one except for Henry
   II. there meeting us later
   III. too the mall

857. I. me too
   II. it’s my turn
   III. every activity accept swimming

858. I. you’re wallet
   II. bicycle losing its wheel
   III. to people who form a lovely couple

859. I. styling your hair
   II. in their neighborhood
   III. to young for that toy

860. I. sitting over their
   II. your first job
   III. whether its true or not

861. I. exception to the rule
   II. college acceptance
   III. the car over they’re

862. I. cause and affect
   II. walking passed the bank
   III. our school principal

863. I. historians studying the past
   II. principals of fair play
   III. special effects

864. I. time passed slowly
   II. illness that effected her
   III. when principles scold students

865. I. past over when promotions were announced
   II. principal reason to sign the treaty
   III. the affect of the drought on crops

866. I. the parade moved passed
   II. the effect of Barbara’s actions
   III. the dome of the capital building

867. I. heat affects the players
   II. capitol to invest
   III. principles of sportsmanship

868. I. principal talking to the first graders
   II. spending interest income, not capitol
   III. has an affect on Max’s mood
Part I: The Questions

869. I. meeting of the principle signers of the treaty
II. visiting the freshly painted and renovated capitol
III. factors that affect you

870. I. Paris, the capitol of France
II. the principles of investing
III. side effects of this medicine

871. I. principles’ educational conference
II. capital letters
III. passed tense verb

872. I. to effect change
II. upon further consideration
III. not the principle reason

873. I. ran farther than a marathoner
II. complements to the chef on a great meal
III. historic novels, including those with little readership or influence

874. I. stationary for class, including an extra package of paper
II. historical documents
III. complimentary tickets

875. I. stationary bicycle at the health club
II. no further trouble
III. all in the passed

876. I. curtains in complimentary colors
II. stationery store having a back-to-school sale
III. the principals of good writing

877. I. shoes that complement your outfit
II. historic treaty that ended the war
III. principal dancers, who enact the lead roles

878. I. buying historical textbooks for class
II. vacationing further from home
III. monogrammed stationary

879. I. shopping for wedding invitations at a stationary store
II. complementary gift when you spend more than $500 on merchandise
III. needing further study

880. I. compliments for the hero
II. further south along this road
III. historical first human step on the moon

881. I. farther reading
II. complements on her fine performance
III. what the historical records show

Words Incorrectly Seen as Synonyms

882–906 How should the underlined words be changed, if at all, to create a correct sentence?

882. Like I said, I agreed to direct this play since it’s very unique.

883. Elena wonders if George likes the subject, because he seldom mentions it.
884. Since birds can fly, they see the world from an extremely unique point of view, one that humans achieve only if they're in an airplane.

885. Since yesterday, Alex has phoned me five times, asking me if I'll sell him the unusual vase — quite rare — I found during my trip to Mexico.

886. Since the concert is sold out, Kira asked whether it would be broadcast, as she'd love to see the event.

887. Joe is like, trustworthy, so if he says he's been ill since Monday, he's telling the truth.

888. Whether you like the role or not, I expect you to do like we agreed and go on stage.

889. Zina will try to wrap a number of presents, because she's always willing to help.

890. Because the number of lions in the zoo is kind of hard to estimate, Jana will have to guess.

891. This kind of plant and the number of others need little water, since they are native to the desert.

892. Since Miranda emigrated from South Africa last year, she's been sort of busy establishing her business.

893. If he plays like I know he can, that pianist will be welcomed as an immigrant in dozens of countries.

894. Since he emigrated from France, Louis has resided in a unique house in Tunisia, one that architectural students often examine.

895. Jacqueline will try and calm down, but she's sort of upset because she has to pay overdue fees for her library books.

896. After immigrating to New York City, Ellen tried and immediately liked hot dogs, the sort of food you can eat while you walk.

897. Try and look like you were born here; don't let the tourists know you're a recent immigrant to this country.
898. Like my mom, I try and sometimes fail, but at least I make a number of attempts!

899. If Judge James Smith is disinterested, the trial will be fair and he’ll try to reach a proper verdict.

900. Robbie implied that the phone bill was too high as he remarked, “I could fly there and talk in person for less!”

901. Yawning to show that she was disinterested, Jasmine made a number of attempts to be excused from the meeting, which was sort of boring.

902. Deciding whether to immigrate from the country where he was born, Andreas considered the number of visas issued each year and calculated his chances of receiving one.

903. In this sort of mystery novel, the detective often implies the identity of the murderer after gathering the number of clues.

904. Uninterested in human activity, the bear took a number of steps toward the picnic basket to try to locate some food.

905. Mark was kind of happy when the disinterested professor left the university too weeks before Mark was scheduled to be her student, because he liked to be entertained as much as enlightened by his teachers.

906. The program will try and assist new immigrants in their adjustment to a new country.
Chapter 21

Seeing Double: Confusing Word Pairs

You can’t always trust your eyes and ears to help you select the right word or phrase. Sometimes a single space or letter changes the meaning altogether. That word, which means “completely,” proves my point because it resembles all together, which refers to a group acting “in unison.” To make your life even more difficult, some expressions that you see everywhere, such as alot and could of, don’t exist in Standard English. In this chapter you sharpen your English skills by concentrating on spacing and spelling, so that your word choices will always be correct.

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on these skills:

✓ Selecting the proper word or phrase for a particular context
✓ Eliminating words that aren’t correct in Standard English

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

✓ Altogether means “completely”; all together means “in unison” or “gathered in the same place.”

✓ Some time refers to a period of time; sometime means “at some point in the future”; sometimes means “occasionally.” Someday and anytime are adverbs referring to an unspecified time in the future. Some day is a noun (day) with a description (some). It means “an unnamed day”; any time (also a noun + a description) means “any amount of time.” Someplace is an adverb meaning “somewhere”; some place is a noun-description combo that refers to an unspecified location.

✓ Every day means “each day”; everyday means “ordinary or common.”

✓ Already means “so soon” or “by this time”; all ready means “completely prepared.”

✓ These words, though common, aren’t Standard English expressions: alright, alot, might of, could of, would of, should of, might could, eachother, hisself, theyselves, theirselves, anywhere , nowhere, and etc., had of, had ought, this here, that there.
### Selecting the Correct One- or Two-Word Expression

**907–923** Which of the underlined expressions, if any, are correct?

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>907.</strong></td>
<td>I. already finished, and it’s only 9 o’clock</td>
<td>II. thinking about you every day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>908.</strong></td>
<td>I. to meet again someday</td>
<td>II. every body in the morgue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>909.</strong></td>
<td>I. visits his uncle some times</td>
<td>II. not hungry because she’s eaten already</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>910.</strong></td>
<td>I. altogether corrupt, not a shred of honesty left</td>
<td>II. everyday dishes, not the ones for special guests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>911.</strong></td>
<td>I. some times sings professionally</td>
<td>II. to be a star some day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>912.</strong></td>
<td>I. the family, altogether on holidays and birthdays</td>
<td>II. everyday chores, but nothing extra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>913.</strong></td>
<td>I. a fitness plan for every body with a few extra pounds on it</td>
<td>II. to meet someday next week, but not Monday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>914.</strong></td>
<td>I. someplace to relax, such as a spa</td>
<td>II. a document that is altogether meaningless, as if it were written by a two-year-old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>915.</strong></td>
<td>I. all ready for the trip — bags packed and passport renewed</td>
<td>II. everyday negotiations, nothing historic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>916.</strong></td>
<td>I. lifting weights every day</td>
<td>II. hoping to run for office sometime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>917.</strong></td>
<td>I. dressed-up seniors, already for the prom</td>
<td>II. permission to log on to the computer sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>918.</strong></td>
<td>I. getting revenge someday</td>
<td>II. a plan that is all together ambitious and inspiring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>919.</strong></td>
<td>I. finding some place in the orchestra, perhaps in the string section</td>
<td>II. everyday challenges for elderly residents</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 21: Seeing Double: Confusing Word Pairs

920. I. sheltering from the storm, altogether under the awning
   II. asking for sometime off from work
   III. call anytime, day or night

921. I. my sometime friend, now my enemy
   II. Everyday of the week
   III. all together majestic and inspiring

922. I. vampires, not altogether dead
   II. film making its debut someday next month
   III. nine months old and walking already

923. I. may burst out laughing at any time
   II. has sometimes acted on Broadway
   III. danced, altogether, in the chorus line

924. Greg has alot of friends who would of taken care of him if they had of known he was ill.

925. If it’s all right with Mike, Tracy and he might could help eachother with their physics homework.

926. “I might of known!” shouted the detective, who added that she had never believed the murder weapon could be anywheres near that there crime scene.

927. This here notebook he bought himself, but Isabel purchased that one for him.

928. The rowers reassured themselves that if they had of won, they would’ve treated the losing team more politely.

929. Betsy should of watered the plants yesterday; now this here garden has a lot of dead plants.

930. Sam is nowhere to be found; he could of told me his location when we spoke with each other.

931. After falling, the skater checked himself for a minute and then said he was all right, though he could’ve been lying.

932. A lot of work went into that there art exhibit, the best examples of Picasso’s work anywheres.

933. This here janitor was assigned alot of mopping, painting, and etc.
934. The shoppers themselves packed their purchases (groceries, clothing, dishes, etc.), but the clerk should of taken care of that chore.

935. James and Matt comforted each other, reminding themselves that they would’ve won the spelling bee had it not been canceled.

936. Shelly was frantic because she couldn’t find her pet bird anywheres, but the parrot was all right, hiding in that there closet.

937. With nowheres to go, Aaron and Betsy should of stayed home, but instead they drove around nearby suburbs, including Babylon, Massapequa, Bayshore, and etc.

938. Winnie might of chosen this here blue sweater if she had known it was available.

939. The boys upset themselves when they spoke with each other about the math test, which should’ve been easier than it was, in their opinion.

940. Max and his friends, who could not of been more bored, entertained themselves by naming the Presidents — Washington, Lincoln, Kennedy, etc., etc., etc.

941. If I had of written that there anonymous letter, the grammar would of been correct!

942. They sold similar cars everywheres, but in this dealership the owner might of given you a better price.

943. Yang had ought to apply for that there scholarship, because then he can achieve admission anywheres.

944. If Mr. Mellon hadn’t of tried to satisfy his curiosity by looking everywheres for clues, his neighbors might of avoided calling the police.

945. Ms. Johnson, who ought to know where the photos could’ve been stored, asked Annie and Sascha to help each other figure out where their work was.
946. Wendy would of given Jim a ride, if she had of seen him waiting for the train all by himself.

947. Johnny had ought to be more careful with himself, because he could have pulled a muscle by exercising too much.

948. Eloise her self told me that she would of spoken more candidly if she could of.

949. Darius hadn’t ought to complain about his score on the test because he could not of done better on algebra, geometry, and etc.

950. “Alright, sit down anywhere,” declared Miss Echeva, “and help each other with your grammar homework.”

951. Finding himself in a difficult situation, the spy had ought to give up on his mission, and everything will turn out all right.
I'm the first to admit that some grammar rules make no sense. When my students ask why they have to place a comma in a certain spot or change a word, sometimes my only answer is because you do. End of story! Occasionally, though, grammar rests on a logical framework. In this chapter you tackle a few rules in that category, as well as a couple that represent nothing more than tradition.

The Questions You’ll Work On

In this chapter, you work on questions that focus on the following skills:

- Selecting expressions that are correct in Standard English
- Avoiding double negatives
- Distinguishing between the verbs rise and raise, sit and set, and lie and lay

What to Watch Out For

Keep these points in mind when you’re answering the questions in this chapter:

- Different than isn’t generally accepted in formal usage. Use different from, followed by a noun.
- The reason is because is incorrect in Standard English. Use the reason is that or simply state the reason, introduced by because.
- Irregardless and being that aren’t Standard English expressions. Try regardless, despite, or because.
- In some languages, the more negatives you include, the more emphatically you’re denying the point. In English, though, double negatives are a no-no because the two negatives equal a positive statement. Avoid can’t hardly, can’t scarcely, can’t help but, and can’t but. Go for can hardly, can scarcely, can’t help (plus the -ing form of a verb, as in can’t help snooping), and can only.
- The English language distinguishes between what you measure (sugar, for example, or loyalty) and what you count (shoes or years, perhaps). Measuring words include amount, less, little, and much. To count, select number of, fewer, few, and many. A few words (more, all, any, no, and some) work for both measuring and counting. Between and among are prepositions; use between when you have two people or things (between home and school) and among when you have more than two (among 50 musicians).
✓ *Rise* means “to get up, to lift oneself.” Use *raise* when you’re lifting something (or someone!) else. *Rise* is an irregular verb: *rise, rose, rising, risen.* *Raise* is regular: *raise, raising, raised.*

✓ *Sit* is what you do when you place yourself in a chair or another surface. *Set* means “to place,” and it refers to an action you perform on something else. *Sit* is irregular: *sit, sitting, sat.* *Set* is also irregular: *set, setting, set.*

✓ *Lie* means “to rest or recline.” *Lay* is “to place, to put down.” These verbs are devilish because the past tense of *lie* is *lay.* The past participle is *lain.* The past tense of *lay* is *laid,* which is also the past participle.
Chapter 22: Steering Clear of Incorrect Expressions

Avoiding Double Negatives and Other Errors

952–971 How should the underlined words be changed, if at all, to create a correct sentence?

952. Don’t not mix business with pleasure, being that you’re not on duty now.

953. May didn’t know nothing about spelling, and her handwriting was different from ours because she never attended no school.

954. Being that it’s summer, you can’t expect no freezing rain or different weather.

955. Greta didn’t know nothing, wouldn’t do nothing, and refused any help.

956. Mick can’t get no satisfaction when he complains to Customer Service that he hasn’t received any new guitars, although he has paid for three.

957. Zach won’t tell no lies, irregardless of who’s asking for information, so do not explain nothing to him.

958. The dog should give you no trouble, being a gentle animal, unless you do not feed him.

959. No, Ellie did not tell her aunt that Karl had completed nothing.

960. Jacques can’t help but think that, regardless of salary, his work is no different than his boss’s.

961. Irregardless of what he says, the reason I changed jobs is because I didn’t feel respected.

962. Being that Katie is dieting, she shouldn’t have no candy, never.

963. Steve claimed that he had not done nothing; irregardless, the district attorney couldn’t help but charge him with burglary.

964. Walter’s approach to the problem was different from Hannah’s, but he hadn’t expected no criticism from her.
965. Don’t you know no better, regardless of the fact that you haven’t been taught manners in a formal way?

966. The reason Nick moved is because he couldn’t hardly stand his supervisor’s denial of any guilt.

967. No engineer but Martin has ever stepped in that room, and you can hardly blame him for bragging about his courage.

968. Charlotte couldn’t help but weave a beautiful web; the reason was because she was not an ordinary spider.

969. Judy could scarcely believe her eyes; the reason is that a flying saucer hadn’t ever landed on her lawn before!

970. Do you know neither Latin nor Greek, or haven’t you never studied an ancient language?

971. King Leo hadn’t but five knights, and winning the war was something he couldn’t hardly imagine, except under different and unlikely circumstances.

972. Imelda has much shoes, far more than Jessie, but less time to shop.

973. Much time has passed since Ellery noticed that many trees had some buds on their branches.

974. Put less books on that shelf, which appears less sturdy than the one over there, which holds much thick volumes.

975. The soup needs a little pepper to spice it up; be sure to prepare less than you did last time, as we expect less guests.

976. Let’s keep the secret between the three of us, because if more people know, our error will attract many attention.

977. Considering the amount of hours I spent adding much vocabulary words to my flash cards, I should have scored much higher on the test.
978. When Jack is among friends, he is less nervous than when the conversation is among him and only one other person.

979. This dial shows the amount of electricity consumed, which is lesser than last year but much more than the goal we set.

980. Between your options are law, banking, and education. The first two guarantee many salary increases, but the last may give you more success.

981. Dr. Henry pays much attention to his students, though he gives many more homework assignments and fewer extra credit work than other teachers.

982. Charlie and Rose have many fewer money between them than they’d like, but it is as much as they need.

983. Many have complained that the rugs have less natural fibers and soil more easily than they used to.

984. The card read, “Much love to my many fans who give me so many applause.”

985. Much more quilts are much better than fewer on a cold night like this!

986. Sayed had much to be thankful for, such as much friends, few enemies, and a loving family.

**Strange Verb Pairs**

987–1,001 Which of these expressions, if any, is grammatically correct?

987. I. raise the flag  
II. lay down for a nap now  
III. setting on the chair

988. I. sit the fragile antique desk in the corner  
II. the sun, which rose at 5 a.m.  
III. has laid in bed for ten hours

989. I. the audience, raising for a standing ovation  
II. who had sat in the shade on a blanket  
III. laid railroad tracks near the station

990. I. because yesterday he sat the bird-cage near a window  
II. has lain the picnic basket on the ground  
III. raised the shelf two inches higher

991. I. setting a spell, to relax  
II. rise for the singing of the national anthem  
III. lay down for a nap about an hour ago
Part I: The Questions

992.  I. peasants rose in rebellion
     II. laid flowers in front of the shrine
     III. has set still for the photographer

993.  I. lay the suitcase on the bench and left it there
     II. raises an important point at the meeting
     III. the diamond, set in a gold ring

994.  I. lying carpet on the floor
     II. sitting in the principal’s office, waiting for an appointment
     III. Raise and shine! It’s time to get out of bed!

995.  I. robbers lying in wait for a victim
     II. has laid on the sofa, pretending to sleep
     III. sitted on the window ledge

996.  I. will sit the decorations in the carton, ready for storage
     II. was lain to rest in the town cemetery
     III. his rising hope, as he listened to those encouraging words

997.  I. set aside funds for college tuition
     II. stirring yeast into the mixture and waiting for the bread to raise
     III. laying eggs

998.  I. laying still, not moving a muscle
     II. sat on a jury
     III. rising your expectations and doing better work as a result

999.  I. raise money for the homeless
     II. had set goals for himself
     III. plants laying dormant for the winter

1,000. I. a position on the issue that laid her open to defeat in the next election
       II. raising a fuss
       III. sat down on paper a record of all that had happened

1,001. I. set the story in the Victorian era
       II. will rise the stakes
       III. yesterday lay claim to
Here you get answers and explanations for all 1,001 questions. As you read the solutions, you may realize that you need a little more instruction. Fortunately, the *For Dummies* series offers several excellent resources. I highly recommend the following titles (all published by Wiley and written by yours truly):

- *English Grammar For Dummies*
- *English Grammar Workbook For Dummies*
- *Grammar Essentials For Dummies*

Visit [www.dummies.com](http://www.dummies.com) for more information.
### Answers

1. **played**
   The only word expressing action in this sentence is *played*, which is therefore the only verb.

2. **slipped**
   The action word in this sentence is *slipped*, which is the verb.

3. **will be, receive**
   The first verb, *will be*, links a state of being — *happy* — to the *twins*. The second is an action verb, *receive*.

4. **seems**
   The verb *seems* links a state of being — *sad* — to the subject, *my dog Tweet*.

5. **searched, found**
   Two words give you the action in this sentence: *searched* and *found*.

6. **represents**
   Although *screaming* and *painting* refer to actions, *screaming* functions as a description and *painting* as an object (a thing) in this sentence. The only verb in this sentence is *represents*.

7. **has carried**
   The action in this sentence is expressed by two words, *has carried*, which together make one verb. The word *sizzling* resembles a verb but serves as a description, not the action in the sentence. Are you surprised that *always* isn’t included in the verb? It’s an adverb, telling when the action happens.

8. **were displayed**
   What happened to the puppies? They *were displayed*, the action verb in this sentence. Did *to see* trip you up? That’s an infinitive, the “head” of the verb family that never functions as the verb in a sentence.

9. **was, were scattering**
   The sentence has two parts, one about the last meeting of the council and one about the actions of the members. The verb in the first part, *was*, expresses a state of being and links a description (*bittersweet*) to the subject (*meeting*). The verb in the second part, *were scattering*, tells you about the actions of the members.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem</th>
<th>Answer</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>try, type</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Remember that infinitives, the “to + verb” form, simply name the verb family. They never function as verbs in a sentence. The action verbs here are try and type.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>wrestled, calculated</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The first word in the sentence, smiling, looks like an action verb. However, it functions as a description of Barbara. The true action verbs are wrestled and calculated.</td>
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<td>12.</td>
<td>sat</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Several words in this sentence (having run, unused, forgotten) resemble verbs, but because they function as descriptions, they aren’t actually verbs. Sat is the only action verb.</td>
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<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>copying, stuck</td>
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<td></td>
<td>The subject of this sentence, Mike, did two actions; he was copying and he stuck his finger in the tray. The first portion of the sentence begins with a conjunction (While), which should be followed by a subject-verb statement. Two words are missing, but Mike was copying is implied, so copying counts as an official verb.</td>
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<td>14.</td>
<td>has been judged, view</td>
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<td>Three words make up the first verb in this sentence, has been judged, but the second idea needs only one verb, view, to express his friends’ actions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>guided</td>
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<td></td>
<td>The first verb form is an introductory participle. In other words, sliding is a description of ski instructor. You know it doesn’t function as a verb because it doesn’t follow a conjunction such as while, after, before, or a similar word. The action verb that pairs with ski instructor is guided, the only verb in this sentence.</td>
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<td>16.</td>
<td>started (I started my blog a year ago, and I do not intend to stop now.)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>A year ago is a time clue, telling you that the blog began in the past. The sentence includes another time clue also; now refers to a specific time, the present. The beginning of the blog, therefore, was in the past, as the past-tense verb started indicates.</td>
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<td>17.</td>
<td>shop (Sheryl and her friend always shop on a Tuesday, when the store offers double discounts.)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>The first clue in this sentence is always, which tells you that the action of shopping happens repeatedly. The next clue appears in the second portion of the sentence, where you find out that the store offers special discounts on Tuesdays. Because the second portion of the sentence is in present tense, the present-tense verb shop makes a good match for the third-person, plural subject Sheryl and her friend.</td>
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<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>will compete (Next year, four boys will compete for a single spot on the wrestling team.)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Because the action takes place in the future, or, more specifically, next year, you need the future-tense verb will compete.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
19. **has snapped** (Emma has snapped a picture of her brother Eric every year on his birthday, including today.)

The first time Emma snapped a picture was in the past, and she’s still active today. The tense that connects present and past is present perfect. Because only one person is doing this action, you need the singular form, has snapped.

20. **was begging** (Last week I tossed a bit of my dinner under the table because the dog was begging for scraps while I ate.)

The verb in the first portion of the sentence, tossed, indicates an action that took place while another action occurred. The singular, past progressive tense gives a sense of an action, begging, that occurred over some time. The simple past-tense form, begged, would also work here, but the immediacy of past progressive tense is better.

21. **arrive** (Start working on your lab report as soon as you arrive home.)

The sentence discusses two actions, arriving home and starting work on the lab report. Both occur (or should occur, according to the sentence) at more or less the same time. You have a command (start), and logic tells you that you can’t give a past-tense command such as arrived. Therefore, the best tense for the second action is present, or arrive.

22. **trimmed** (Mr. Martin trimmed the tree after he had watered it.)

In this sentence the busy Mr. Martin is doing two things, trimming and watering, but these actions occur at different times. Standard English requires that the earlier action, the watering, be in past perfect tense (had watered). The action that occurs second is expressed in simple past tense, trimmed.

23. **was washing** (While Harry was washing the clothes, Oliver was brushing the dog’s matted fur.)

The second portion of the sentence indicates that the action took place in the past (was brushing). The singular, past progressive form, was washing, works nicely here, because the actions happen at the same time and only one person was involved in the washing. (The simple past tense, washed, could also work in this sentence.)

24. **learned** (Jackie learned Arabic when she lived in Tunisia.)

The two actions in the sentence, learned and lived, take place at the same time, so they should be in the same tense (past).

25. **had filled** (Carla had filled the gas tank before she realized that her credit card was not in her wallet.)

Two actions occur in this sentence. Both are in the past, but one takes place before the other. Standard English requires that the earlier action be in past perfect tense (had filled). The action that occurs second is expressed in simple past tense, realized.
26. will have gobbled (By the time George gets home, Maria will have gobbled all the cookies, and George hates all the other snacks.)

The sentence includes a deadline — the time George gets home — and something that happens before the deadline — Maria’s snack attack. The future perfect tense, will have gobbled, is made for just such a situation.

27. had baked (When I had baked the cookies, I placed them on the dining room table.)

Two actions in the past show up in this sentence, the baking of the cookies and their placement on the table. Logic tells you that the baking happened before I placed the cookies somewhere other than in the oven. To move one action further in the past than another, use the past perfect tense, had baked.

28. disobey (Although the king commands instant obedience, his followers sometimes disobey.)

This sentence expresses actions that are happening now, as you learn from the first part of the sentence, which contains the present-tense verb commands. The second part of the sentence refers to an action that takes place at the same time, so simple present tense is what you want here. Because followers is plural, you need the plural form, disobey.

29. had lectured (Marlene had lectured for two hours before she noticed that several audience members were asleep.)

Two actions occur in this sentence. Both are in the past, but one takes place before the other. Standard English requires that the earlier action be in past perfect tense (had lectured). The action that occurs second is expressed in simple past tense, noticed.

30. have lived (I have lived in this neighborhood for about a year, and despite its problems, I still love my home.)

The present and past are connected in this sentence, as the speaker (I) lived in the neighborhood for the past year and continues to live there in the present. The present perfect tense connects the past and present, so have lived works perfectly in this sentence.

31. ended (The yellow and brown leaves began to fall; the autumn soon ended.)

Simple past tense does the job here; the leaves began to fall, so you know that you’re talking about the past, and ended is a past-tense verb.

32. has worked (No one has worked harder than Ellen, who spent eight or nine hours a day on this project for the first two weeks and is now allotting ten or twelve hours a day to it!)

The project began in the past and continues in the present, so present perfect tense is good here. Ellen is singular, so has worked, the singular form, is the form you want.

33. jogs (Jared jogs four miles every day as soon as he wakes up.)

Jared’s fitness routine is an ongoing, customary action, so present tense is best. Because Jared is one person, opt for the singular form, jogs.
34. will complete (From now on, David will complete his homework on time, to avoid detention and poor grades.)

The expression from now on moves the sentence into the future, so will complete is the future-tense form you want.

35. returns (Elliot always returns his library books late, so he pays many fines.)

Your clue here is always, which indicates an ongoing action and calls for present tense. Elliot is singular, so you need the singular, present-tense form, returns.

36. was painting (While Meredith was painting the ceiling, a dog jumped on the ladder.)

Because the dog jumped, you can assume that the painting took place in the past. Also, only one person (Meredith) performs the action of painting. Therefore, the singular, past progressive form was painting works well. Did you choose the simple past-tense form, painted? That form isn’t wrong, but the immediacy of the progressive is better because the word while places you in the midst of an ongoing action.

37. will double (Place the dough in a warm spot, and in a few hours it will double in size.)

The first action in the sentence, place, is a command, so you know you are in the present. A few hours after you place the dough, you are in the future, so will double is a good fit.

38. has rained (It has rained every day for a month, including today, but tomorrow’s forecast calls for sunshine.)

The sentence connects the past (every day for a month) to the present (including today). Present perfect tense links the present and past, and the subject, it, is singular, so the singular form has rained is a good choice. The progressive form, has been raining, would also work in this sentence.

39. arrived (The soda had soaked into the carpet by the time the janitor arrived with a mop.)

The sentence mentions two actions — soaking and arriving. The earlier action is in past perfect tense (had soaked), and the more recent action is in past tense (arrived).

40. are gathering (Right now, Catherine’s friends are gathering for her surprise party.)

The clue here is right now, an expression that tells you an action is happening. The present progressive form, are gathering, is what you need.

41. had chopped (Once George had chopped down the cherry tree, the fruit was lost.)

Two events occur in this sentence: George’s unfortunate use of the ax and the loss of the fruit. Both happened in the past, so the earlier must be expressed by the past perfect tense, had chopped.

42. will receive (I paid the electric bill on the 17th, so I will receive the next bill in about a week.)

The first portion of the sentence talks about the past, but the second anticipates an action in the future. The future-tense form, will receive, fits well here.
43. **was dancing** (Although Eddie was dancing happily, Shirley turned off the music.)

The second portion of the sentence refers to an action in the past (*turned*). The first portion is also in the past. Because the action was ongoing and only one person was performing it (*Eddie*), the singular past progressive tense form, *was dancing*, works best in this sentence.

44. **brushes** (Clancy never brushes his teeth by himself, even though he is five years old now.)

The sentence refers to an ongoing action, so present tense is best here. *Clancy* is just one person, so the singular form, *brushes*, fits the sentence.

45. **are attacking** (As we speak, our enemies are attacking with great force, but we will not surrender.)

The key expression in this sentence is *as we speak*, which tells you that you are in the midst of an action. More than one person (*enemies*) performs this action, so the plural form is appropriate. Therefore, *are attacking*, the present progressive plural form, is just what you need.

46. **stapled** (The teacher stapled the drawings on the bulletin board so that the parents could admire their children’s artwork.)

The key phrase here is *could admire*, because the helping verb *could* indicates that the action in this sentence is in the past. *(Could* is the past tense of *can*.) Go for the past-tense verb *stapled*.

47. **will have exceeded** (By the time Eleanor and Henry are satisfied with the renovation, they will have exceeded their budget by a wide margin.)

The sentence includes a deadline in the future (*by the time Eleanor and Henry are satisfied*), and the action of exceeding takes place before that deadline. Future perfect tense is made for this situation: an action before a deadline. Therefore, *will have exceeded* is the verb form you need.

48. **had bloomed** (Where the tulips had bloomed, weeds eventually covered every inch of the garden.)

The tulips’ blooming is the earlier of two actions in the past, because the sentence tells you that weeds replaced them. Use past perfect tense, *had bloomed*, for the earlier of two past-tense actions.

49. **turns** (In Maya’s fantasy novel, a wizard’s curse turns a little boy into a frog.)

To write about literature, use present tense, because the action you describe begins anew every time someone reads the book.

50. **will have studied** (Amanda and her friends will have studied Chinese for four years by the time they travel to that country.)

The deadline in the sentence, *by the time*, indicates that future perfect tense is appropriate. *Amanda and her friends* is a plural subject, but luckily, in the future perfect both the singular and plural forms are the same, *will have studied*. 
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| 51. | **has practiced** (Joe has practiced karate for many years and still takes an advanced class every Saturday.)  
The present perfect tense connects the past and the present. In this case Joe’s lessons began in the past and continue still. Joe is a singular form. Therefore, the singular, present perfect form, *has practiced*, is what you want here. |
| 52. | **trusts** (In Shakespeare’s *Othello*, the title character wrongly trusts Iago, one of the most evil villains in literature.)  
To discuss a literary work, use present tense (*trusts*, in this sentence), because the action begins anew every time the play is read or performed. |
| 53. | **markets** (LGA Manufacturing has an old-fashioned policy; the company markets its products only in a store, not on the Internet.)  
The first verb in the sentence, *has*, is in present tense, and the second portion of the sentence gives you no reason to change time periods. A company, though composed of many workers, is singular, so the singular, present-tense *markets* is best here. |
| 54. | **will have been buried** (If my dog buries a bone every three days, how many will have been buried by the end of the month?)  
The deadline in the sentence (*by the end of the month*) signals the need for future perfect tense, *will have been buried*. |
| 55. | **learns** (In Dickens’s classic novel *Great Expectations*, Pip learns the identity of his benefactor in a chilling scene.)  
In the world of literature, present tense rules, so *learns* is the form you seek. Why present? Every time a reader opens the book, the action takes place again. |
| 56. | **strolled** (In my dream, a giant dinosaur ran into my dining room, and then he strolled around the room.)  
The meaning of this sentence doesn’t call for a shift in time. Because the first verb (*ran*) is in past tense, the second (*strolled*) should also be in past tense. |
| 57. | **campaigned** (Perhaps because the president campaigned for the mayor, the mayor won by a huge margin.)  
You know the election is in the past, because the *mayor won*. Therefore, the first verb is also in the past, so *campaigned* is the form you want. |
| 58. | **enters** (Linda enters the cafeteria and sits next to the most hated teacher in the entire school!)  
The clue here is *sits*, a present-tense verb. The sentence gives you no reason to change time periods, so you know you need a present-tense verb in the blank. *Linda* is just one person; therefore, go for the singular form, *enters*. |
### 59. **insures**

(The orchestra insures the instruments every year, so no one ever worries about storm damage after the hurricane.)

The second part of the sentence contains a present-tense verb form, *worries*, indicating that the present tense, *insures*, is best for the first part also.

### 60. **will tour**

(Last year I traveled to Europe, but next year I will tour Asia.)

The sentence moves from the past (*last year*) to the future (*next year*). Therefore, the future tense is best.

### 61. **was**

(In response to the reporter’s question, the zookeeper said that the lion was very friendly.)

The sentence summarizes speech, so past tense is best. The answer is *was*.

### 62. **equals**

(Morty declared that eight added to ten equals eighteen.)

Math doesn’t change, so eight added to ten will not suddenly equal nineteen. To express a fact that is always true, use present tense.

### 63. **needed**

(Arthur told me that he needed a loan until payday and asked me to give him $10.)

When you summarize speech, use a past-tense verb, unless the speech reports a fact that can never change.

### 64. **bowed**

(Shana reported that at the end of every show, the ballet dancers bowed and ignored the boos from the audience.)

Two clues in this sentence point to the simple past tense. First, *Shana reported*, so you know that the sentence summarizes speech — a situation generally requiring past tense. Second, *bowed* matches *ignored*. Don’t shift tenses unless the meaning of the sentence requires two different time periods.

### 65. **revolves**

(The astronomer told the youngsters that the earth revolves around the sun.)

*The earth’s* movement is constant; it’s not suddenly going to revolve around Mars! To express an unchangeable truth, use present tense — in this case, *revolves*.

### 66. **caught**

(Joe caught the ball as it reached the top of the outfield fence.)

The action takes place in the past, because the ball *reached* (past tense) the fence when Joe *caught* it. The irregular past-tense form of *to catch* is *caught*.

### 67. **hit**

(The car was cruising along the highway smoothly until it hit a huge bump.)

The action is in the past, as the first verb, *was cruising*, tells you. The second verb should be in the past also, but because hitting a bump isn’t an event stretching over a time period, as *cruising* is, the simple past tense is best. *Hit* is the irregular past-tense form of *to hit*. 
68. slept (Dorothy and the baby slept for two hours when they returned from a visit to Grandma.)

You need the simple past tense for the first part of this sentence, in order to match the past-tense verb (returned) in the second part of the sentence. The irregular past-tense form of to sleep is slept.

69. rose (At the end of the trial the judge rose from her chair and left the courtroom.)

The sentence talks about the past (left), so you need a past-tense verb for the blank. The irregular past-tense form of to rise is rose.

70. beat (Last week the Yankees beat their fiercest rivals.)

The irregular past-tense form of to beat is beat. You know you need past tense because the sentence refers to last week.

71. put (From 2010 through 2011, the confused clerk put all the forms in the wrong file cabinet.)

The time range (2010 through 2011) tells you that you’re in the past. The irregular past-tense form of to put is put.

72. flew (The helicopter flew straight up into the sky and then headed south.)

The copter headed south, so you know that past tense is what you need. The irregular past-tense form of to fly is flew.

73. saw (Glenn saw the little dog and grabbed her before she could run away again.)

The sentence includes a past-tense verb, grabbed, which should be matched with the irregular past-tense form of to see, which is saw.

74. swam (I didn’t know that you swam in the deep water last summer; I thought you were less advanced in your swimming skills.)

The irregular past-tense form of to swim is swam. The words last summer indicate that you need past tense in this sentence.

75. have gotten (Nelson wouldn’t have gotten sick if he had washed his hands more frequently.)

The irregular past participle of to get is gotten, not got, in American usage. Therefore, have gotten is correct here.

76. had taught (The bully approached, but because my uncle had taught me how to handle difficult people, I wasn’t afraid.)

The sentence covers two time periods in the past — when the uncle taught and when the bully approached. The teaching takes place before the approaching, so the earlier action should be expressed in past perfect tense. The irregular past perfect form of to teach is had taught.
77. has done (The doctor has done everything in his power; now Allison must wait for the medicine to take effect.)

The doctor acted and now Allison is waiting, so past and present are connected in this sentence. The present perfect tense does the job here. The irregular present perfect form of to do is has done. The simple past tense, did, is also acceptable.

78. let (Miriam let the dog out for a few minutes, but she will call him inside soon.)

Miriam’s action occurred already, so past tense is appropriate for this sentence. The irregular past-tense form of to let is let.

79. had found (Although Adam had found a good candidate already, the boss continued to interview others for the job.)

The sentence discusses two actions, one earlier than the other. Adam’s action is earlier, so the past perfect tense (had found) works.

80. began (“Who began the fight, you or your brother?” asked Mother as she separated her battling children.)

The irregular past-tense form of to begin is began. The mother asked, so past tense makes sense. (Also, you can’t ask about the beginning of a fight until it has begun!)

81. have sent (After you have sent the letter, shred the scrap copies.)

The sentence deals with two time periods: the present (indicated by the command, shred) and the past, which is when the letter is mailed. The present and past are linked by the present perfect form, have sent.

82. froze (At first the rain was simply annoying, but when it froze, the streets became very slippery and many pedestrians fell.)

Three events take place more or less at the same time — the change from water to ice, the formation of slippery sidewalks, and the crash landing of many pedestrians. Because these events are simultaneous, the irregular past-tense form, froze, is what you want here.

83. tore (Albert tore his shirt when he crawled through the obstacle course.)

The simple past tense works fine here, because Albert tore his clothing when he crawled.

84. knew (“I knew it!” exclaimed the detective as the murderer confessed.)

The detective’s exclamation refers to one action in the past, not to a series of actions that must be put in order, a situation that requires the use of the past perfect tense. The simple past-tense form, knew, does the job here.
85. had lost (When she attempted to pay for her coffee, Lee discovered that she had lost all her coins because of a small hole in her pocket.)

The sentence mentions several events in the past. Attempting to pay for the coffee and discovering the hole happen more or less at the same time, but losing the coins occurs earlier. The earlier action is expressed with the past perfect tense, had lost. The other actions (attempted, discovered) are in simple past tense.

86. will have sung (By midnight Angie will have sung that aria enough times to set a world record.)

The sentence contains a deadline (by midnight) and an action that will take place before the deadline (the singing). The future perfect tense, will have sung, is exactly what you need for this situation.

87. hanged (In ancient times, murderers were often hanged in the public square.)

The verb to hang has two important meanings — one, as in this sentence, refers to the execution of a criminal. The other is the verb that refers to hanging an object on a wall. For this sentence, you want the first meaning. The past-tense form for that meaning is hanged.

88. hung (The picture hung on the wall for years, but no one noticed it.)

The verb to hang has two important meanings — one referring to the execution of a criminal and the other to a painting or other object hanging on a wall. For the second meaning, which is the one you want for this sentence, the irregular past-tense form is hung.

89. will have swept (The janitor will have swept the sidewalk before the students arrive, so expect a clean path.)

The sentence states a deadline — before the students arrive. Future perfect tense works well with deadlines, so will have swept is the form you want. The simple future form, will sweep, or the present tense, sweeps, also fit this sentence.

90. have laid (The riflemen have laid down their weapons but are ready to resume target practice at a moment's notice.)

Two verbs, to lie and to lay, can be confusing. The first means to lie down, what you do when you take a nap. The second means to put or to place, which you do when you place a rifle on the ground. The present perfect form of to lay is has or have laid. Here you pair it with have because the subject, riflemen, is plural. Why present perfect tense? The action in the past (have laid down their weapons) is connected to the present, when they are ready to resume their practice.

91. is (The marble statue is on the shelf right now, but earlier it was in the sculptor's studio.)

You know that the situation in the sentence takes place in the present tense because of the phrase right now. The third-person, singular form is works well because you are talking about the statue; therefore, you need a third-person form.
92. *was* (Along with Jack, I *was* bored and decided to watch a different show.)

The sentence talks about something in the past, when *I decided* to watch anything other than the yawn-producing show on the television. The first-person form (when the speaker is the subject) is what you want. Therefore, the answer is *was.*

93. *will have* (The co-presidents *will have* no trouble persuading club members to go out for pizza when they suggest the excursion at the end of the meeting, because everyone will be hungry then.)

The clues here are *when they suggest* and *everyone will be,* which indicate that you are in the future tense. Singular and plural forms are the same in the future tense. Go for *will have.*

94. *had* (Louisa rejected the sofa when it was delivered because it *had* a stain on one cushion.)

The sofa is already in the house (*it was delivered,* so you know you need past tense. The third-person form (the one used to talk about something) is what you want. The verb *had* is the answer.

95. *has been* (Max *has been* sick for the last two days, but the doctor predicts that his temperature will be normal tomorrow.)

The sentence ranges over the past (*the last two days*) and the present (*predicts*). Present perfect tense connects these two time periods. Go for the singular, third-person form, *has been,* because you’re talking about *Max.* When you talk about someone or something, you need a third-person form.

96. *are being* (The lottery winners *are being* difficult; they refuse to share their winnings.)

The second portion of the sentence talks about something happening right now, so you’re in the present tense. The action is ongoing, so the present progressive form is appropriate. Because you have *winners,* a plural, you want a plural form, *are being.*

97. *will be* (If the referee and the coach can’t agree, our efforts *will be* fruitless because we will forfeit the game.)

The sentence talks about a possible event in the future, when *we will forfeit.* The future-tense *will be* matches nicely.

98. *has had* (Shelley *has had* difficulty getting up on time ever since her alarm clock broke, but she plans to buy a new one soon.)

The first portion of the sentence talks about two time periods — when the *alarm clock broke* (past) and her present *difficulty.* Present perfect tense is, well, perfect for this sentence because it connects past and present. The present progressive form, *is having,* also works here, because Shelley’s difficulty is ongoing.

99. *was having* (While the elevators were rising, the mechanic *was having* doubts about the strange noises below.)

The first part of the sentence tells you about an ongoing action in the past, so past progressive tense makes sense for the second part of the sentence also. The *mechanic* is singular, and you’re talking about him, so opt for the third-person, singular, past progressive form, *was having.* *Note:* The simple past tense, *had,* also works here.
100. had been (We had been here, patiently waiting, for more than four hours before Justin arrived.)

Two actions occur in the past, but one, the waiting, happened first. Go for we had been, the first-person, plural form of the past perfect tense. Past perfect tense places one event in the past prior to another.

101. was (When Doreen was 13, she struggled to start her business, but one day sales began to rise.)

You’re in the past when you talk about a business owner at age 13! (Another clue is struggled, which also indicates the past.) Go for the singular, past-tense form — was.

102. will have had (By the time it opens on Broadway, the show will have had four different directors.)

See the deadline in this sentence? It’s by the time it opens. A deadline tells you that you need future perfect tense, or will have had.

103. is (Gina, who is your friend, begs you to forgive her.)

Because who stands in for Gina (in grammar terminology, Gina acts as the antecedent of who), you need a form that matches Gina. The verb is works well here, because you’re in present tense.

104. was (Doug, who was very immature in those days, used to stick gum under everyone’s desk.)

Two things were happening at the same time in this sentence: Doug’s immaturity and his pranks with gum. Because the statement about gum is in past tense, the statement about immaturity should be also. Doug is singular, so opt for was, a singular, past-tense form.

105. had had (Sam thought that his mom had had a stroke, but fortunately he was wrong; it was just a headache.)

This verb form sounds like a typo, but it’s actually the past perfect tense. Two actions took place in the past — Sam’s thinking and whatever happened to his mom. The thinking occurred after the illness started, so it’s expressed in simple past tense (thought). To place the illness earlier in the timeline, go for past perfect, had had. Another possible answer is was having, in which case the thinking and the illness are simultaneous.

106. can win (Shelly’s song can win her an award for “Best New Artist.”)

The helping verb can expresses ability in the present tense.

107. may fly (Alice may fly to Buenos Aires on business next week.)

The helping verb may introduces a possibility in the present time. Did you consider might fly or could fly? These helping verbs also serve to express a possible action, but the strictest, most formal English generally reserves might and could for past-tense situations, as in yesterday Alice could go to Buenos Aires, but next week she cannot.
should be (Your hands should be clean before you perform surgery, Doctor!)

The helping verb should introduces a sense of obligation. Another possible helping verb for this situation is must.

may choose (Because she loves that color, Helen may choose only green blocks for her playhouse.)

The helping verb may introduces a possibility in the present time. Did you consider might choose or could choose? These helping verbs also serve to express a possible action, but the strictest, most formal English generally reserves might and could for past-tense situations, as in Helen told me that she might choose only green blocks.

would attend (On Saturday mornings, the whole family would attend Wendy’s softball games and cheer her on.)

The helping verb would expresses a repeated or customary action in the past tense.

should have paved (The workers should have paved the street more smoothly, but they did a sloppy job.)

The helping verbs should and have, added to paved, create a statement about obligation in the past.

could have jumped (Margaret could have jumped over the fence easily, but instead she waited patiently for the guard to open the gate.)

The helping verb could expresses ability, and have moves the action of jumping into the past.

may be (Enter the house quietly because the baby may be asleep.)

The helping verb may expresses possibility. Other verbs that work are might and could, but the strictest, most formal English reserves those helping verbs for past-tense sentences.

must calculate (The mathematician was told that she must calculate the odds of failure before making a recommendation.)

The helping verb must expresses obligation. Another possible answer is should calculate.

should arrest (The sheriff should arrest Josephine for murder, as he has collected an overwhelming amount of evidence of her crime.)

The helping verb should expresses obligation. Another possible answer is must arrest.

can enroll (If he graduates from high school with honors, Walter can enroll in college and continue on the path to success.)

The helping verb can expresses ability in the present or future. Did you opt for could enroll? The strictest, most formal English reserves could for past tense.
117. might prepare (Seven hours ago, Otis said that he might prepare dinner, but we are still waiting, hungrier than ever.)

The helping verb might adds possibility to the verb prepare. Because you’re in the past tense, might works better in this sentence than may, another helping verb of possibility.

118. may continue (“You may continue,” remarked the teacher as the student hesitated.)

The helping verb may expresses permission in the present tense.

119. would have gone (If it had not rained, Sam would have gone for a walk.)

The helping verb would expresses a condition — the circumstances needed for Sam’s willingness to go for a walk, and have gone places the action in the past. Did you answer might have gone? That shades the meaning slightly, expressing the possibility of Sam’s walking. Because the question specifies condition, would have gone is the better choice.

120. would poke (With a sharp pencil, Eliza would poke through the flimsy paper and then ask for a new sheet to write on.)

The helping verb would expresses a repeated action in the past.

121. Does Mary own (Does Mary own a small but valuable art collection?)

The helping verb does, together with the main verb own, creates a question. The subject, Mary, should be placed between the singular helping verb (does) and the main verb (own).

122. Was Bert carrying (Was Bert carrying a large carton of crayons to the daycare center?)

The singular past progressive verb, was carrying, must be split by the singular subject, Bert, to create a question.

123. Will Jefferson attend (Will Jefferson attend the committee meeting this afternoon, despite his busy schedule?)

The future-tense verb, will attend, is interrupted by the subject, Jefferson, in a question.

124. Does Eugene have (Does Eugene have too many video games, according to his friend James?)

The statement (Eugene has too many video games, according to his friend, James) gets by with one present-tense verb, has. Another, less common possibility is Has Eugene too many video games, according to his friend James? However, the usual way to begin this question is Does Eugene have.

125. did Steven blow (After he had chewed his gum for an hour, did Steven blow an enormous bubble?)

The first part of the sentence tells you that an hour passed, so you know that you’re in the past tense here. Past-tense questions may be created with the helping verb did. The subject, Steven, belongs between the helping verb and the main verb.
126. Does the wire between the fenceposts sag (Does the wire between the fenceposts sag so low that cattle cross easily from one field to the next?)

The helping verb does pairs with the main verb sag to create a question. Wire is singular, so does is the helping verb you need, not do.

127. Is Deborah not (Is Deborah not interested in reading that poem aloud?)

No helping verbs are needed to turn this statement, which contains the verb is, into a question. In fact, if the main verb of a sentence is a form of to be, you can usually forget about helping verbs when you’re creating a question. However, you should rearrange the word order to ask a question in formal English. Another possible answer is Isn’t Deborah. Isn’t is a contraction, a shortened form that substitutes an apostrophe for the omitted letter o.

128. Will you have eaten (Will you have eaten by the time George arrives at the restaurant?)

The subject, you, slips between two helping verbs, will and have, to create this question in the future perfect tense.

129. Did Ellie go (Did Ellie go to the skating rink when it was closed?)

The past-tense form of the verb to go is went, but you can’t pair a helping verb with went to create a question — or for any other reason. Instead, you need to return to the infinitive, pull out the go, and add the past-tense helping verb, did, to ask a question in Standard English.

130. Did the winning essay compare (Did the winning essay compare face-to-face communication with social media relationships?)

The past-tense form, compared, drops out of this sentence when you change it into a question. The helping verb did (which is a past-tense form) is separated from the main verb, compare, by the subject, the winning essay.

131. flowing

Flowing is a form of the verb to flow, but in this sentence it describes stream. The main action in the sentence is found, which is what Hank did.

132. pleased

The action in the sentence — the real verb — is will celebrate. The word pleased comes from the verb to please, but in this sentence it functions as a description of Tom.

133. setting

The action in the sentence — the real verb — is walks. The word setting comes from the verb to set, but here it functions as a description of the sun.

134. confused

The main action in the sentence is expressed by the verb, is sorting. The verb form confused, a form of the verb to confuse, adds information about Eliza, but it functions as a description.
135. rising

The state of being in the sentence is expressed by the verb *are*. *Rising*, a form of the verb *to rise*, describes the subject of the sentence, *mountains*, but it doesn’t function as a verb.

136. printed, carrying

The main verb in the sentence is *will be*, which expresses a state of being. Two verb forms function as descriptions — *printed* and *carrying*. Both describe *word*.

137. tired

The sentence has two parts: one in quotation marks and one that “tags” the quotation by identifying the speaker. Inside the quotation, the verb is *have done*. No word there functions as a description. In the other part of the sentence, *screamed* is a verb that tells you what *Andrew* is doing. The word *tired* gives you more information about *Andrew*, but it doesn’t function as a verb. Did you select *nagging* also? In this sentence, *nagging* is a noun — the “thing” *Andrew* can’t stand! It’s not a description.

138. funded

The main verb in the sentence is *was done*. The verb form *funded* describes *laboratories*.

139. hired

Several words function as verbs in this sentence: *is performing, hates, does, and wishes*. Only one verb form is a description: *hired*. Did you choose *conceited*? True, that word resembles a verb because it ends in -*ed*. However, *to conceal* isn’t a verb; in fact, it isn’t even a word! *Conceited* is simply an adjective.

140. sunning

The sentence contains two verbs, *slithered* and *came*. The word *hikers* may look like the verb *to hike*, but it’s just a noun. The descriptive verb form in this sentence is *sunning*.

141. Preparing (Preparing the room for redecoration, Vincent discovered a crack that grew longer with every tug of the wallpaper he was removing.)

Your reading comprehension skills tell you that Vincent’s tug on the old paper happens at the same time as the preparation of the room for redecoration. Therefore, the present participle, *preparing*, is correct.

142. Speaking (Speaking with intense emotion, the actor recites his lines every night without a trace of boredom.)

Two clues tell you that this sentence describes an ongoing situation: the main, present-tense verb (*recites*) and *every night*. For an ongoing situation, the present participle, *speaking*, works nicely.
143. **To water** (To water the plants during vacations, Caroline installed an automatic sprinkler.)

In this sentence, the installation happened in the past *(Caroline installed)*, but the reason for the installation is ongoing. The infinitive, *to water*, states the reason.

144. **vowing to fight** (The mayor, vowing to fight crime, will increase the number of police officers.)

The main verb in the sentence, *will increase*, refers to the future. The present participle *(vowing)* is a good fit for a sentence with a future-tense verb, as is the present-tense infinitive, *to fight*, and the present perfect form, *having vowed to fight*.

145. **standing** (The cat raked sharp claws across the new desk standing in the corner of the living room.)

The present participle, *standing*, indicates that the desk is there at the same time that the cat *raked* his claws on it. Present participles express simultaneous events.

146. **exhausted** (His funds exhausted, Nelson called home and begged for a loan from his parents.)

The past participle, *exhausted*, is a good match for the simple past-tense verb forms, *called* and *begged*.

147. **to visit** (Annie walked ten miles to visit her Aunt Marie.)

The infinitive, *to visit*, gives the reason for Annie’s long walk.

148. **Having walked** (Having walked the entire shoreline this morning, Ed can assure the reporters at tonight’s news conference that all the beaches are ready to reopen.)

To crack this sentence, make a timeline. First comes the walk, then the news conference, and then the reopening of the beaches. To place the walk before the news conference, use the perfect form, *having walked*.

149. **having conferred** (Barbara and Arnie, having conferred already, will need no introduction when they attend the next meeting.)

The first encounter between Barbara and Arnie took place already. To express an action that occurs before another action in the sentence, use the perfect form, *having conferred*.

150. **to meet** (“It’s great to meet you!” exclaimed Paul as he shook hands with his new tennis partner, who had never seen Paul before in his life.)

Your reading comprehension skills tell you that Paul’s comment about meeting his partner refers to the same moment he extends his hand for a shake. The simple infinitive, *to meet*, expresses simultaneous events. You don’t need the perfect form, which places one event before another.

151. **stitches, telephones, taxes**

To form a plural of a word ending in *ch* or *x*, add *es*. That rule accounts for *stitches* and *taxes*. The word *telephone* needs only an *s* to form its plural.
152. dyes, splashes, sandals
   The words dye and sandal need only an s to form the plural. Splash, however, ends in sh, so you need to add es to form the plural.

153. tomatoes, catches, mugs
   The addition of s creates the plural of mug. The word catch, which ends with ch, needs es to form the plural. So does tomato. In general, a noun ending in o forms the plural with es if the letter preceding the o is a consonant. (A consonant is any letter except a, e, i, o or u.)

154. monkeys, turkeys, babies
   To form the plural of a word ending in y, you add s if the y is preceded by a vowel (a, e, i, o, or u). You change the y to i and add es if the y is preceded by a consonant (any letter that isn’t a vowel). Therefore, monkey and turkey need only an s, because the second-to-last letter in each word is a vowel, e. Baby, on the other hand, changes to babies, because the second-to-last letter is a consonant, b.

155. zoos, successes, edges
   To form the plural of a noun ending in o, you generally add only an s if the letter preceding the final o is a vowel (a, e, i, o, or u). Therefore, zoos is the correct plural form. Words ending in the letter s form the plural with es, so go for successes. The word edge needs an s, and nothing more, to form the plural.

156. children, women, men
   These three words are irregular. None form the plural with s or es. Instead, the whole word changes! For help with irregular plurals, check your dictionary. Near the singular form you should see the abbreviation pl., which stands for plural, followed by the plural form.

157. deer, elephants, months
   Animal plurals can be tricky, so you should check your dictionary if you aren’t sure of the proper form. The plural of deer is deer! No change at all. On the other hand, you may see one elephant or two elephants while you’re on a safari. The plural of month is months.

158. lights, batches, biographies
   A simple s is enough for the plural of light. Add es to batch, because it ends with ch. A consonant precedes the y in biography, so you change the y to i and add es. (A consonant is any letter except a, e, i, o, or u.)

159. microphones, jellies, viruses
   Add the letter s to form the plural of microphone. Because jelly ends in a y preceded by a consonant (any letter except a, e, i, o, or u), form the plural by changing the y to i and adding es. Add es to virus to form the plural, viruses, because the singular form ends in s.
160. deliveries, essays, wives

Remember the rule about words ending in y: Add s if the letter preceding the y is a vowel (a, e, i, o, or u). Change the y to i and add es if a consonant (any letter that isn’t a vowel) precedes the y. Using this rule, you get deliveries (because a consonant precedes the y in delivery) and essays (because a vowel precedes the y in essay). The word wife has an irregular plural form, wives.

161. Smiths, Joneses, O’Tooles

To form the plural of names, add es to names ending in ch, sh, x, s, and z, and a simple s to everything else. Don’t form a plural of a name with an apostrophe!

162. leaves, pitches, copies

The irregular plural of leaf is leaves. (Always check your dictionary if you’re unsure whether a plural is regular or irregular.) Pitch ends in ch, so you add es to form the plural. Copy ends with y preceded by a consonant (any letter that isn’t a, e, i, o, or u), so change the y to i and add es to form the plural.

163. sons-in-law, kangaroos, teeth

For a hyphenated word, zero in on the most important word and make that word plural — and nothing else! Therefore, the proper plural form is sons-in-law, because the family relationship (son) is highlighted. For words ending in o, you usually add an s if the letter preceding the o is a vowel (a, e, i, o, or u). Therefore, the plural of kangaroo is kangaroos. Teeth is an irregular plural. (Always check your dictionary if you’re unsure whether a plural is regular or irregular.)

164. alumni, mass media, Woodses

The irregular plural of alumnus, a word that comes down to us via Latin, is alumni (or, for a group composed solely of females, alumnae). Similarly, the plural of medium, another word of Latin origin, is media, unless you’re using the word to mean a size (three mediums sold this morning but no smalls) or a psychic (Jim consulted three mediums in order to communicate with his dead pet). To form the plural of my last name, Woods, add es because the name ends with an s.

165. species, statistics, vice presidents

Trick question here: You can have one species or two species — same spelling. Statistic takes an s to form the plural. For the compound word, vice president, add an s to the most important part, which in this case is president.

166. his (S), her (S), she (S)

His, her, and she are all singular pronouns. Each refers to one person. Did you make a mistake and choose but? But is not a pronoun; it’s a conjunction — a joining word.

167. their (P), they (P), his (S)

They and their are plural pronouns, referring to a plural noun (children). His is a singular pronoun, referring to a singular noun, Santa. Did you mistakenly choose As? As isn’t a pronoun. It’s a conjunction — a joining word.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>answer_number</th>
<th>pronoun_usage</th>
<th>explanation</th>
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<tr>
<td>168.</td>
<td>We (P), our (P), my (S)</td>
<td><em>We</em> and <em>our</em> are plural pronouns. Each refers to a group. <em>My</em> is a singular pronoun; it refers to one person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>169.</td>
<td>your (S), he (S), I (S), my (S)</td>
<td><em>Your</em>, <em>he</em>, <em>I</em>, and <em>my</em> are singular pronouns. Each refers to one person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>170.</td>
<td>Your (P), I (S), their (P)</td>
<td>The yoga class contains more than one student, so <em>your</em> is plural. So is <em>their</em>, because it refers to the group. The personal pronoun <em>I</em> is always singular. Did you opt for <em>had</em>? <em>Had</em> is a verb, not a pronoun. Don’t be fooled into thinking that all short words are pronouns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>171.</td>
<td>mine (S), them (P), they (P), themselves (P)</td>
<td>The pronoun <em>mine</em> refers to one person, so it’s singular. The pronouns <em>them</em>, <em>they</em>, and <em>themselves</em> are all plural because they refer to a group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>172.</td>
<td>his (S), I (S), them (P), myself (S)</td>
<td>Three pronouns here are singular: <em>his</em>, <em>I</em>, and <em>myself</em>. All refer to just one person. <em>Them</em> is a plural pronoun because it refers to a group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>173.</td>
<td>Everyone (S), you (S), I (S)</td>
<td>Three singular pronouns appear in this sentence: <em>everyone</em>, <em>you</em>, and <em>I</em>. Are you surprised to see that <em>everyone</em> is singular? All the pronouns that end in <em>-one</em> (including <em>someone</em>, <em>anyone</em>, and <em>no one</em>, as well as <em>one</em> all by itself) are singular.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>174.</td>
<td>Something (S), it (S)</td>
<td>All the pronouns that end with <em>-thing</em> (<em>something</em>, <em>everything</em>, <em>nothing</em>) are singular. <em>It</em> is also singular; in this sentence <em>it</em> refers to the singular noun, <em>computer</em>. Did <em>every</em> give you pause? <em>Everything</em> is a pronoun, but <em>every</em> is a description (an adjective).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>175.</td>
<td>Several (P), it (S), someone (S), everyone (S)</td>
<td>This sentence contains one plural pronoun, <em>several</em>. <em>It</em>, <em>someone</em>, and <em>everyone</em> are singular pronouns. All the pronouns that end in <em>-one</em> (including <em>someone</em>, <em>anyone</em>, and <em>no one</em>, as well as <em>one</em> all by itself) are singular.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>176.</td>
<td>One (S), those (P), we (P), them (P)</td>
<td>Any pronoun containing <em>-one</em>, including the word <em>one</em>, is singular. <em>We</em> and <em>them</em> are plural because they refer to groups. So is <em>those</em>, which refers to <em>books</em>, a plural noun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>177.</td>
<td>Both (P), us (P), no one (S), our (P)</td>
<td>The pronouns <em>both</em>, <em>us</em>, and <em>our</em> are always plural. Any pronoun containing <em>-one</em>, including the two-word pronoun <em>no one</em>, is singular.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
178. Neither (S), my (S), each (S), them (P)

Because you’re talking about uncles, you may be tempted to think that any pronoun nearby is plural. Resist that temptation! The pronoun neither is always singular, because it refers to one uncle at a time — neither this uncle nor the other uncle. The pronouns my and each are also singular. The only plural here is them, which refers to a group.

179. her (S), someone (S), it (S)

Three pronouns here are singular: her, someone, and it. Did you think someone was plural? Any pronoun containing -one, including the word someone, is singular. Also, in case you erred in choosing anyway, be aware that anyway is an adverb, not a pronoun.

180. All (P), most (S), they (P)

The pronouns all and most take their identity as singular or plural pronouns from the words they refer to. If the word referred to is singular, the pronoun is singular. If the word referred to is plural, the pronoun is plural. In this sentence, all refers to birds, a plural noun. Therefore, all is plural here. Most refers to water, a singular noun, so most is singular here.

181. Either (S), me (S), anyone (S)

All three pronouns here are singular — always! Either is always singular, because it refers to one restaurant at a time: either this restaurant or that one. All pronouns ending with -one, including anyone, are singular.

182. most (P), few (P), we (P), others (P)

All four of these pronouns are plural. Three — few, we, and others — are always plural. Most takes its identity as a singular or plural pronoun from the word it refers to. If the word referred to is singular, the pronoun is singular. If the word referred to is plural, the pronoun is plural. In this sentence, most refers to films, a plural noun, so most qualifies as a plural pronoun.

183. me (S), him (S), some (P), my (S)

The pronouns me, him, and my in this sentence are all singular. Some is plural because it refers to more than one sandwich.

184. Someone (S), no one (S), her (S)

Pronouns ending in -one, including the two-word pronoun, no one, are always singular. Her refers to one female (in this sentence, Judy), so it’s singular also.

185. Everyone (S), his (S), her (S), hers (S)

Pronouns ending with -one are always singular, as are his and her, each of which refers to one person. The pronoun hers may look plural because it ends in s, but it is singular because it refers to one female.
186. All (S), no one (S), her (S)

In this sentence all refers to orange juice, a singular noun, so all is also singular. All the pronouns ending in -one are singular, including the compound pronoun no one. Her is also a singular pronoun.

187. Each (S), both (P)

The pronoun each is always singular, and both is always plural. Did you add one to your list? True, one may be a pronoun, but not when it’s attached directly to a noun (one wheel, in this sentence). In such a situation, one is an adjective.

188. Much (S), his (S), everyone’s (S)

The pronoun much is singular, as are the possessive pronouns his and everyone’s.

189. other (S), they (P), mine (S)

The pronoun other refers to one of the two tattoos that Sharla and Alex agree on, so other is singular. They is plural because it refers to Sharla and Alex (two people). Mine is singular in this sentence because it refers to one tattoo, a blue star. If you selected one, you fell into a trap. One is an adjective, not a pronoun, when it’s attached to a noun. In this sentence, one is attached to tattoo.

190. that (P), they (P), anything (S), he (S)

The relative pronoun that takes its identity from its antecedent — the word it refers to. In this sentence, that is a stand-in for shoes, a plural, so that is plural also. They is always plural, and he is always singular. Anything is a singular pronoun also, just like the other pronouns that end with -thing: everything and something.

191. Someone (S), who (S), my (S)

All the pronouns ending in -one are singular. Because someone is singular and who refers to someone, who is singular in this sentence, as is the pronoun my.

192. that (P), I (S), them (P)

The relative pronoun that takes its identity from its antecedent — the word it refers to. In this sentence that is a stand-in for branches, a plural, so that is plural also. The pronoun I is always singular, and them is always plural.

193. she (S), who (S), her (S)

The relative pronoun who can be either singular or plural, depending upon the word or words it refers to. In this sentence, who stands in for Lulu, a singular noun, so who is singular too. She and her are also singular pronouns.
### 194. which (P), hers (S), theirs (P)

The relative pronoun *which* can be either singular or plural, depending on the word or words it refers to. In this sentence, *which* refers to two nouns, *envelope* and *writing paper*. Therefore, *which* is plural. Although the pronoun *hers* ends in *s*, it's singular because it refers to one person. *Theirs*, on the other hand, is plural because it refers to a group.

### 195. who (P), which (S), all (P), them (P)

The relative pronouns *who* and *which* can be either singular or plural, depending upon the word or words they refer to. In this sentence, *who* stands in for *patients*, a plural noun, so *who* is plural too. *Which* refers to *disease*, a singular noun, and thus is singular. The pronoun *all* can also be either singular or plural, depending upon what it refers to. In this sentence, *all* refers to *them*. *Them* is plural, so *all* is plural as well.

### 196. tip, Juan

The first verb in the sentence is *slipped*. When you ask *who slipped?* you have no answer. When you ask *what slipped?* the answer is *tip*. Next verb up is *marched*. Okay, *who marched?* The answer is *Juan*. Your subjects are *tip and Juan*. Did you select *shoelace?* That word appears in a description — the prepositional phrase of *the shoelace*. The subject is never part of a prepositional phrase.

### 197. Marina, Tom

The verb in this sentence is *are*. When you ask *who are?* the answer is *Marina and Tom are*. The word *and* is a conjunction — a word that joins. Ignore it and you see the subjects of this sentence: *Marina, Tom*.

### 198. cameras

The verb in the sentence is *swiveled*. When you ask *who swiveled?* you have no answer. What you ask *what swiveled?* the answer is *cameras swiveled*. The subject is *cameras*. (*Eight and security* are descriptions attached to *cameras*, not the subjects.)

### 199. bride, groom

The verb in the sentence is *recited*. When you ask *who recited?* the answer is *bride and groom recited*. Ignore *and*, a conjunction (joining word). The subjects are *bride, groom*.

### 200. girl

The verb in the sentence is *got*. When you ask *who got?* the answer is *girl got*. Your subject is *girl*. Did you stumble over the *crowd of 200 fans*? All those words are extra information.

### 201. Jumping

The verb in this sentence is *is*. When you ask *who is?* you have no answer. When you ask *what is?* the answer is *jumping*. Yes, the subject looks like a verb! In fact, it could be part of a verb in a different sentence. In this sentence, though, *jumping* is a noun and the subject of the sentence. If you answered *jumping on the trampoline*, don’t worry. You just added on the description attached to *jumping*. The subject is still there, so your answer is acceptable.
202. you (understood)

The verb here is stop, a command. If you ask who stop? the answer is the person you’re commanding. In other words, the subject of a command is always you, but the subject in a command is understood, not stated.

203. Henry, whoever

This sentence contains two verbs, distributed and needed. Ask the questions for each verb. Who distributed? The answer is Henry distributed, so Henry is the subject of distributed. Now ask who needed? The answer is whoever needed. Therefore, whoever is the subject of needed.

204. brand

The verb in this question is does taste. Ask the usual questions — who does taste? what does taste? The answer is new brand of peanut butter. In that expression, one word (brand) is key and the rest (new, of peanut butter) are descriptions. The subject is brand. If you answered the new brand of peanut butter, you added the descriptions to the subject, but count your answer as correct because it includes the subject.

205. statues

Follow the usual procedure to find the real subject in this sentence. Locate the verb, in this case sat, and ask who sat? and what sat? The second question tells you that four large statues of historical figures sat. Okay, time to dig the subject out of that long list of words. Ignore the descriptions (four, large, of historical figures) and you’re left with statues, the true subject. If you answered four large statues of historical figures, count your answer as correct because it includes the subject.

206. plane

The verb in the sentence is flew. Ask the questions: Who flew? You have no answer. What flew? The answer is plane, and that’s your subject. Notice that this subject is located in the middle of the sentence. Don’t choose a subject by location; use the questions, and you’ll find the correct answer.

207. bus

The verb in this sentence is circled. When you ask who circled? you may think the answer is tourists. Look more closely at the sentence. True, the tourists moved, but they moved because they were on the bus. Go back to the verb and ask what circled? Now the answer is clear: the bus circled. The subject is bus. By the way, full of delighted tourists is a prepositional phrase, which never contains the subject of a sentence.

208. Each

The pronoun each is the subject here, and of the coffee cups is a description clarifying the meaning of each. (In grammar terminology, cups is the object of a preposition and not eligible to be a subject.) The verb is has, and when you ask what has? the answer is each has. If you answered each of the coffee cups, your answer is acceptable because the real subject, each, is included with its descriptions.
209. Both

The verb in this sentence is *land*. Ask your question: *Who land?* The answer, in long form, is *both of the parakeets*. Now take away the description (*of the parakeets*, a prepositional phrase) and you’re left with the subject, the pronoun *both*. *Parakeets*, by the way, can’t be a subject because in this sentence it functions as the object of the preposition *of*. If you answered *both of the parakeets*, your answer is acceptable because the real subject, *both*, is included with its descriptions.

210. Allison, friend

The main verb in this sentence is *parted*. You may have detected two other verb forms, *snarling* and *walking*. In this sentence those verb forms function as descriptions. Okay, ask the question: *Who parted?* The answer is *Allison and her former friend Pete*. Now you have to excavate the real subjects. Cross out the descriptions (*her, former*) and the conjunction (the joining word *and*). You can also cross off *Pete* because in this sentence, *Pete* and *friend* are the same person. The first one in the sentence, *friend*, is the subject. The second, *Pete*, is an appositive — the grammar term for an equivalent. An appositive isn’t a subject.

211. Grandpa, who

This sentence makes two statements, each with its own verb and subject. The first statement is *Grandpa was the goalie on his college team*. The second statement is *who loves hockey*. Take them one at a time. The verb in the first statement is *was*. Ask the question *who was?* The answer is *Grandpa*. There’s your first subject. Now check out the second statement. The verb is *loves*. *Who loves?* The answer, oddly enough, is *who loves*. The pronoun *who* is the subject of the verb *was*. *(Who, of course, is a stand-in for Grandpa.)*

212. apartment, townhouse

The word *either* is tricky. In some situations it’s a pronoun, but when it’s paired in a sentence with *or*, both the *either* and the *or* are conjunctions (joining words). In an *either/or* sentence — and also in a *neither/nor* sentence — the subjects are linked by these conjunctions. In this sentence, the subjects are *apartment* and *townhouse*. The verb is *will please*. When you ask *who will please?* and *what will please?*, you discover the answers *apartment* and *townhouse*.

213. dog, that, I

Before you can locate the subjects, you have to untangle the statements in this sentence. You have three: (1) *The dog is over there*; (2) *that should win the contest*; (3) *I believe*. Now zero in on each statement separately. In the first, the verb is *is*. When you ask *who is?* the answer is *the dog is*. *Dog* is your first subject. Now go to the second statement. The verb is *should win*. *Who should win?* Your answer is the pronoun *that*. Did you answer *dog* again? The logic is understandable, but the grammar is clear. The pronoun *that* replaces *dog* in the second statement. The subject of *should win* is *that*. The third statement is easy. *Who believes?* *I believe*. The subject is *I*. As always, the key to untangling all the statements is to identify the verbs and ask the usual subject questions.
214. Courtney

This sentence is easier to figure out if you cross out the prepositional phrase, along with her mother. (It’s a description.) Now the verb, spoke, pops out. Who spoke? Courtney spoke. True, your reading comprehension skills may have told you that both Courtney and her mother spoke, but the word and isn’t in the sentence. Because mother is the object of the preposition along with, it can’t function as a subject.

215. truck, which

To find the subjects of this sentence more easily, untangle the two statements the sentence contains: (1) The fire truck speeds through the intersection and (2) which is heading to a blaze downtown. Now analyze each statement separately. In the first statement, the verb is speeds. What speeds? The truck. In the second statement, the noun truck has been replaced by a pronoun, which. The verb is is heading. Ask your question: What is heading? The answer is which. Did you choose truck for both verbs? That’s a common mistake, because which represents truck. However, when one subject works for two verbs, the verbs are joined by a conjunction such as and or but.

216. V: opens, allows; S: Anna. (Every morning Anna opens the gate and allows her poodle to play in the yard.)

The sentence has two action verbs (to open and to allow). You must stay in the present tense, so you have two possible answers for each verb — open or opens and allow or allows. First, ask your subject questions without worrying about which form you need. When you ask who open or opens? and who allow or allows? the answer is Anna. Now you know you have a singular subject (Anna), which matches with the singular verbs, opens and allows.

217. V: have shared; S: Clare, David. (On the way to work, Clare and David always have shared funny stories about their boss.)

The sentence contains one verb, which must be in present perfect tense. Your options are has shared and have shared. First, ask your subject questions without worrying about which form you need. When you ask who has shared or have shared? the answer is Clare and David. And is a word that adds one subject to another, creating a plural. Now you know you have a plural subject (Clare, David), which matches with the plural verb, have shared.

218. V: was; S: bottle. (The large-sized bottle of my favorite shampoo was on sale last week.)

The sentence contains one verb, which must be in past tense. Therefore your options are was and were. Ask your subject questions without worrying about which form you need. When you ask who was or were? you get no answer. Now ask what was or were? The answer is bottle. (The other words attached to bottle are all descriptions. You can ignore them. In case you’re curious about grammar terms, large-sized is an adjective and of my favorite shampoo is a prepositional phrase.) You have a singular subject (bottle), which matches with the singular verb, was. If you included the descriptions, large-sized and of my favorite shampoo, your answer is still acceptable, so long as you included bottle, the real subject.
219. V: are planning; S: Alicia, I. (Alicia and I are planning a talent show to raise money for needy children.)

The verb to plan must be in present progressive tense, so your choices are is planning and are planning. Ask your subject question: Who is or are planning? The answer is Alicia and I. In English, as well as in math, one plus one equals two. So add Alicia and I and you end up with two people, a plural subject, which must match the plural verb form are planning.

220. V: were placing; S: Scouts. (The Cub Scouts were placing candy apples in small, sticky piles in preparation for the Halloween party.)

The verb to place must be in past progressive tense, so you must choose between was placing and were placing. Ask your subject question: Who was or were placing? The answer is Scouts were placing. The plural subject Scouts matches the plural verb were placing. If you chose Cub Scouts, consider your answer correct also. Cub is a descriptor, telling you what kind of Scouts you’re discussing.

221. V: Was, read; S: Hank, he. (Was Hank pleased when he read your letter?)

Divide this sentence into its two component parts and work on each one separately. The first part is Was or Were Hank pleased. Hank is singular, so you need was, a singular verb form. Now for the second part: when he read your letter. The verb is read, a handy past-tense form that is the same for both singular and plural subjects. Ask the question who read? The answer to that part of the sentence is he.

222. V: seem; S: exhibits. (The best exhibits in the museum seem more crowded lately.)

The two present-tense choices available to you are seems and seem. Ask your subject question: Who seem or seems? You get no answer, so replace who with what and ask again: What seem or seems? The answer is exhibits, a plural subject that pairs with the plural verb form seem.

223. V: were singing, broke; S: Matthew, I, voices. (Matthew and I were singing every single song until our voices broke from overuse.)

Take each part of the sentence separately. The first blank offers two options in the past progressive tense, was singing and were singing. Ask your subject question: Who was or were singing? The answer is Matthew and I, a plural subject because you have two people. Therefore, you need the plural verb, were singing. Onward to the second part of the sentence: Who broke? The answer is voices broke. There you go: You have two verbs, were singing and broke, and three subjects, Matthew, I, and voices. By the way, broke is the past-tense verb form for both singular and plural subjects. Convenient, right?

224. V: Have; S: you. (Have you any extra icing for my birthday cake?)

The verb to have has two forms in the present tense: has and have. When you ask the subject question who has or have? the answer is you have. Is you singular or plural? You have no way of knowing, and it doesn’t matter. The pronoun you may be singular or plural, depending upon context. Either way, it matches with have.
225. V: crawl; S: chipmunks. (Through the dark, damp tunnel crawl the chipmunks, eager to reach the picnic tables.)

The subject in this sentence is in an unusual spot, after the verb instead of before. No worries: Just ask the usual question: Who crawl or crawls? The answer is chipmunks, a plural, which must be matched with the plural verb form crawl.

226. V: is, is; S: ham and cheese, salad. (Ham and cheese is my favorite sandwich, but salad is a more nutritious choice.)

When foods form one dish or sandwich (peanut butter and jelly, for example, or rice and beans), the dish or sandwich is considered one, singular item. Therefore, when you ask what is or are? to find the answer for the first blank, your answer is ham and cheese, a singular subject that takes a singular verb, is. When you ask the same questions for the second blank, you get salad is — both singular forms.

227. V: is; S: problem. (“Your problem is 17 unexcused absences,” commented the teacher as she explained why the student was scheduled for detention.)

This sentence revolves around a form of the verb to be, a linking verb that acts as a sort of “equal sign” in the sentence. If you were writing this sentence as a math problem, you’d have “problem = absences.” You may notice that the first part of the “equation” is singular (problem) but the second part is plural (absences). So which one governs the verb? The first one. In this type of sentence, location is everything.

228. V: influences, vote; S: Politics, senators. (Politics influences much of the debate on that issue, but the senators from that state always vote according to their consciences.)

The word politics appears to be plural because it ends in the letter s. However, it’s singular. Therefore, you should pair it with the singular verb form influences. In the second blank, your choices are votes and vote. Ask your question: Who vote or votes? The answer is senators vote — a plural subject-verb combination.

229. V: is going; S: John. (John, not his friends, is going to attend the ceremony.)

The expression not his friends is a distraction in this sentence. Notice the commas surrounding it? Imagine that you can lift the expression out of the sentence. Now your task is easier. The choices for present progressive include is going and are going. Time for your question: Who is going? The answer: John is going. The singular subject John matches the singular verb is going.

230. V: offers, are; S: he, any. (Any of the solutions he offers to the panel are acceptable.)

This sentence has two parts, one tacked inside the other. When you untangle them, the answer is easier to determine. The tacked-in part is he (offers/offer) to the panel. The outer part is any of the solutions (is/are) acceptable. In the tacked-in part, you have he offers, a singular subject and verb that you find with the usual questions (Who offers or offer? He offers. The singular subject he matches the singular verb offers.) In the outer portion of the sentence, the pronoun any is plural because the word it refers to (solutions) is plural. (Remember that any can be either singular or plural depending upon the word that it refers to.) Once you know that any is plural in this sentence, you can choose the plural verb are right away.
231. V: Is; S: House of Representatives. (Is the House of Representatives in session now?)

The *House of Representatives* is a single body — one thing. Therefore, pair it with the singular verb form *is* and you have a correct sentence.

232. V: comes; S: Most. (Most of the salt in those diets comes from natural sources.)

The pronoun *most* can be either singular or plural depending upon the word it refers to. In this sentence, *most* refers to *salt*, a singular word. Therefore, *most* is a singular subject that pairs nicely with the singular verb *comes*. If you selected *salt* or *diets* as subjects, you forgot one important fact: The object of a preposition can’t be a subject. If you answered *most of the salt in those diets*, count your answer as correct because the true subject, *most*, is included with the descriptions.

233. V: are drooping; S: two, three. (Two or three of the plants with red leaves are drooping to the ground because of the drought.)

To crack this sentence, ignore the distractions — the prepositional phrases *of the plants* and *with red leaves*. Now ask your questions: *Who is or are drooping? What is or are drooping?* Your answer is *two or three*. The numbers *two* and *three* function as subjects here. They are plurals, so they need the plural verb *are drooping*.

234. V: seems; S: study. (The study of economics seems interesting, but I have never taken any courses about this subject.)

Cross off the prepositional phrase (*of economics*), which distracts you from the true subject-verb pair. Now focus on what’s left: *the study (seems/seem) interesting*. *Study* is singular, so you need the singular verb form *seems*.

235. V: has been, expect; S: hours, I. (Two hours of homework has been my usual amount, but I expect to spend more time on my studies next year.)

When you speak about an amount of time, the amount is singular. Therefore, even though *two hours* appears to be plural, it’s actually singular because it’s one amount. Now ask the questions: *Who has been? What have been?* The answer is *two hours or hours*, which in this sentence is a singular subject and must pair with the singular verb form *has been*. The second part of the sentence is easy: *Who expect or expects?* The answer is *I expect*.

236. V: plays; S: girl, boy. (Every girl and boy in the kindergarten plays with the plastic blocks, not the wooden ones.)

The word *every* has the power to change the meaning of the sentence. No matter what follows it — even something that appears plural such as *girl and boy* — the word *every* creates a singular expression. Why? The logic is that *every* makes you consider the members of the group one by one. *Every* is not a pronoun and can’t be a subject. Therefore, when you ask *who play or plays?* the answer is *girl and boy*, which is singular because the expression is preceded by *every*. Isn’t English a strange language?
237. V: is, makes; S: girl, who. (That little girl is the only one of the dancers who makes friends easily.)

The first part of this sentence is easy. The subject, girl, pairs with the singular form is. The second portion is tricky, as are all sentences that refer to a group and a member of the group. These sentences contain the statements the only one of the (insert group name) or one of the (insert group name), followed by who, which, or that. The key is to think about the meaning of the who/which/that statement. In this sentence, the who statement is about making friends easily. When you apply your reading comprehension skills, you see that only one person is in that category. Therefore, who represents girl, a singular noun. Because who is singular, it requires a singular verb, makes.

238. V: is, looks; S: dollars, which. (A thousand dollars is too much to pay for that broken-down car, which looks like a rusty bucket.)

Amounts of money function as singular subjects, unless you’re talking about the pieces of metal or paper that make up our currency. When you ask what is or are? for the first part of the sentence, the answer is thousand dollars, which looks plural but is actually singular. Therefore, you need the singular verb is, paired with the singular subject dollars or thousand dollars. (Either choice is fine.) Now check out the second part of the sentence. Ask the question what look or looks? The answer is the pronoun which. Because which refers to the singular noun car, it’s a singular subject and needs the singular verb looks.

239. V: have, is; S: Ginger, aunts, landlord. (Neither Ginger nor her aunts have keys to the house, but the landlord is able to supply an extra set.)

The paired conjunctions (joining words) neither/nor follow a simple rule: The subject that is closest to the verb is the one to match. In this sentence, aunts is closer to the blank than Ginger. (Why focus on Ginger and aunts? Ask the question who has or have? The answer is Ginger and aunts, which are the subjects.) Because aunts is plural, you need the plural verb form, have. Moving to the second blank, your choices are are, is, and am — all present-tense forms of to be. Ask who are? who is? what am? and the answer is landlord is.

240. V: is selling, are; S: Shelby, that. (Shelby is selling me one of the cars that are energy efficient.)

This sentence contains two separate statements: (1) Shelby is selling me one of the cars and (2) that are energy efficient. The first portion of this sentence is easy: Shelby (singular subject) pairs with is selling (singular verb). The second portion of the sentence is harder. The key is the pronoun that, which begins a statement about energy-efficient cars. Your reading comprehension skills tell you that more than one car falls into the energy-efficient category, and Shelby is selling one of them. Because more than one car is energy-efficient, that is plural and pairs with the plural verb are.

241. his/Martin, they(players)

The singular, masculine pronoun his refers to Martin, one male. The plural pronoun they (which can refer to men, women, or mixed groups) refers to the plural noun players.
Part II: The Answers

242. her/Mary, their/Mary and uncle, his/uncle
The singular, feminine pronoun her refers to Mary, one female. The plural pronoun their refers to Mary and her uncle — a group of two. The singular, masculine pronoun his refers to uncle.

243. his/Shakespeare, their/readers
The singular, masculine pronoun his refers to Shakespeare, one male. The plural pronoun their (which can refer to men, women, or mixed groups) refers to the plural noun readers.

244. My/I, his/dog, I/no antecedent, it/bone
The personal pronoun I (as well as the plural we) refer to the person or people speaking, so you won’t find an antecedent in the sentence for I (as in this sentence) or we (which doesn’t appear in this sentence). The possessive pronoun my refers to the personal pronoun I. The singular, masculine pronoun his refers to dog, and the singular, neuter pronoun it refers to bone.

245. Whoever/no antecedent, it/window
The pronoun whoever refers to an unknown person or people. (That’s a handy quality, as whoever works for both singular and plural situations!) You won’t find an antecedent for whoever in the sentence. The singular, neuter pronoun it refers to window.

246. that/motorcycle, which/race
Both that and which can be singular or plural and masculine, feminine, or neuter, depending upon the antecedent. In this sentence, that is the motorcycle (so that is singular and neuter in this sentence) and which is the race (making which singular and neuter here).

247. None/programs, someone/no antecedent
The pronoun none can be either singular or plural and of any gender, depending upon the word it refers to. In this sentence, none refers to programs. It’s plural and neuter in this context. Someone refers to an unknown person and has no antecedent.

248. who/John, his/John, mine/no antecedent
The pronoun who can be either singular or plural and either masculine or feminine, depending upon the word it refers to. In this sentence, who refers to John, as does the singular, masculine pronoun his. Mine refers to the speaker, who doesn’t appear in the sentence, so mine has no antecedent.

249. What/no antecedent, you/no antecedent, I/no antecedent, everything/no antecedent
This sentence is full of pronouns, but not antecedents. The personal pronoun I refers to the speaker, just as you refers to the person being spoken to. What is an unknown quantity here; the reader or listener has no context. Similarly, everything is general and has no antecedent in the sentence.
250. whom/dentist, her/Mary, them/teeth

Mary trusted the dentist, so dentist is the antecedent of whom. Her refers to Mary, and them refers to teeth.

251. it, her (Sara was delighted to receive the book and read it aloud to her friends.)

The pronoun in the first blank refers to book, a singular neuter noun. Therefore, the pronoun it is correct. In the second blank, the singular, feminine, possessive pronoun her replaces Sara’s.

252. his, he, them (Gregory prepared three reports for his supervisor, but when he handed them in, the supervisor was not happy.)

The masculine, singular, possessive pronoun his replaces Gregory’s, just as the masculine, singular pronoun he takes the place of Gregory. For reports—a plural, neuter noun—you need them, a plural pronoun.

253. we, they (Dora and I liked the dresses, but we decided they were too formal for the occasion.)

The plural pronoun that includes the speaker is we, a good stand-in for Dora and I. In the second blank you need a plural, neuter pronoun—they.

254. his, its (The company where his father works is expanding its business to Asia.)

The singular, masculine, possessive pronoun his replaces Arthur’s. In the second blank you need its to refer to the singular, possessive noun, company’s. Did you choose their? That’s a common error! Every company and business is singular and should match with it or its, not the plural pronoun their.

255. their, it (The audience sat in their seats, patiently waiting for the performance to begin, but it was delayed.)

This sentence is a little tricky. The audience appears to be singular, but it’s actually a collective noun because an audience is made up of many different people. The audience can, as a whole, be seated, but once you mention seats, you have to think about the individuals, the component parts of the collective noun audience. With more than one individual, you need the plural, possessive pronoun, their. The second blank is simpler: The singular, neuter pronoun it works perfectly as a replacement for performance.

256. our, they, it (Counting our votes is a simple task; they will ensure that it is done properly.)

The plural, possessive pronoun our refers to a group that includes the speaker. Because inspectors is plural, you need a plural pronoun (they). The last blank calls for a singular, neuter pronoun, it.

257. who, it (James, who loves football, plans to play it in college.)

The relative pronoun who can be either singular or plural, and masculine or feminine. Here it relates the statement about James’s love of football to the statement about James’s college plans. (Relative pronouns relate; that’s why they’re called relative.) In the second blank, the singular, neuter pronoun it replaces football.
258. his or her, I, them (Because neither of the athletes has his or her sneakers tied properly, I expect one of them to fall.)

The pronoun *neither* is singular, so you need a singular, possessive pronoun here. You don’t know whether the *athletes* are men, women, or one of each, so *his or her* works best in the first blank. The personal pronoun *I* refers to the speaker, and the plural pronoun *them* refers to *athletes*.

259. his or her, her (Everyone in the restaurant wants his or her meal right away, but Chef Helen will cook at her own pace.)

The pronoun *everyone* appears plural, but it’s a singular word that must be matched by another singular pronoun. Because you don’t know whether the diners are men, women, or a mixed group, *his or her* is best. The pronoun in the second blank refers to one woman (*Chef Helen*), so you need a singular, feminine pronoun, *her*.

260. we, him or her (When a person wins a prize, we clap for him or her.)

The plural pronoun *we* refers to a group including the speaker. In the second blank you need a singular form, but you don’t know whether a *person* is a man or a woman. *Him or her* covers both possibilities.

261. III. (The umpire found his glasses just in time for the playoffs.)

In Sentence I (*Ellen and her sister thought she got a good grade*), she could refer to Ellen or her sister. She is too vague. In Sentence II (*The pitcher and catcher worked on his throwing speed*), *his* could refer to the pitcher’s or the catcher’s throwing speed, so *his* is also vague. In the last sentence, *his* has only one possible antecedent, *the umpire*.

262. II. and III. (II. Joe and I hung our posters on the south wall. III. I hope you like the figs; I picked them myself.)

In Sentence I (*The bowl was on the table with the green tablecloth; I washed it*), it is vague. The reader doesn’t know whether *it* refers to the *bowl* or the *tablecloth*. In Sentence II, *our* clearly refers to *Joe and I*. In Sentence III, *them* clearly refers to *figs*.

263. I. (He is tall and strong; those are attractive qualities.)

In Sentence II (*Summer gives me more free time than winter, so I prefer it*), the pronoun *it* may refer to either season mentioned, so *it* is too vague. Similarly, in Sentence III (*When I slammed the vase into the wall, I broke it*), *it* may be either *the vase or the wall*. Not clear, and therefore not correct! Sentence I, however, is fine. *Those* refers to *qualities*, so the reader isn’t confused.

264. I. and II. (I. The boy Mary insulted walked away from her angrily. II. I love that horror film; there are five wonderfully scary monsters in it.)

In the first sentence, *her* can refer only to *Mary*. In the second sentence, *it* refers to *film*. No confusion in Sentences I and II! In the last sentence (*Patrick wants to study law because his father is one*), the pronoun *one* has no antecedent. Patrick’s father isn’t *law*; presumably he’s a *lawyer*, but *lawyer* isn’t in the sentence. Without much needed clarity, Sentence III is wrong.
### 265.

**III. (I read many modern novels, and I usually like them.)**

The pronoun *them* in Sentence III is clear; it refers to *novels*. Sentences I and II have problems. In the first sentence (*The tacks and nails from that store are very sharp, so I always buy them*), *them* could be *tacks* or *nails* or both. In the second sentence (*The tacks covered all the seats, which were dangerous*), *which* may be the *tacks* or the *seats*. Sentences I and II are unclear and therefore incorrect.

### 266.

**II. and III. (II. The fish that Catherine bought had red spots on its tail. III. His grandmother introduced Mark to opera, and he loved it.)**

Check out Sentence I (*The library book has a stain on the cover, but I can’t remove it*): What can’t *I* remove — the *stain* or the *book*? Because the reader doesn’t know, Sentence I is wrong. In Sentence II, *its* refers to *fish*. Sentence II is clear and correct. In Sentence III, *it* refers to opera, and *his* and *he* refer to Mark. These pronouns are clear, so Sentence III is correct.

### 267.

**I. and II. (I. The architect likes the new building, which was designed by his competitor. II. Gloria explained that she was late because her train left an hour past its scheduled time.)**

In Sentence I, the pronoun *which* clearly refers to *building*, and *his* refers to *architect*. In Sentence II, *she* and *her* refer to *Gloria*, and *its* refers to train. Everything’s fine with these two sentences. Sentence III (*Charlie watches football and baseball games all day long and wishes he could be a professional at it*) has a problem, though. What does *it* mean? Watching sports? Playing them? *It* has no antecedent, so Sentence III is wrong.

### 268.

**II. (The computer mouse I dropped broke into three pieces, but I glued them back together.)**

Sentence II has two pronouns: The *I* clearly refers to the speaker, and *them* refers to *pieces*. All correct! In Sentence I (*Georgina put one more card on top of the four she had fashioned into a little house, but it fell*), what fell? The last *card* or the *house*? Because you can’t determine the answer to that question, Sentence I is wrong. In Sentence III (*I did my homework in the middle of the night without a flashlight, which was a problem*), *which* is unclear. The problem may be lack of sleep (*in the middle of the night*) or lack of light (*without a flashlight*).

### 269.

**III. (The government hopes to avoid war because of its high cost in both money and lives.)**

In Sentence I (*In the paper it says that war may break out within the next two days*) you have a double subject — *paper it*. Why repeat? Beginning the sentence with *The paper says that* . . . is clearer. Sentence II (*In an article in the paper it says that soldiers will report for duty tomorrow*) doesn’t double up subjects as Sentence I does, though, because *article* and *paper* are objects of prepositions, not subjects. However, the second sentence has a different problem: *it* has no clear antecedent, because both *article* and *paper* are possible. (The correct version would be *An article in the paper says that soldiers will report for duty tomorrow.*) In the last sentence, *its* clearly refers to war. Only Sentence III is correct.
II. and III. (II. The shades let in some light; they were translucent. III. Allowing some sunlight reduces the need for strong electric lights, which may not be efficient in energy use.)

In Sentence I (The Yankee was a great hitter, but the other team’s star was better at it), it could refer to batting, if only batting were in the sentence. It isn’t! Therefore, Sentence I is wrong. In Sentence II, they refers to shades, so that sentence is correct. Sentence III correctly pairs lights with which.

As they built the shelter, the guides told us to watch carefully, in case we ever had to erect a hut like it.

They is a subject pronoun, acting in this sentence as the subject of the verb built. Us is an object pronoun, which in this sentence serves as the indirect object of the verb told. (In case you’re curious, the direct object is to watch carefully.) Next up is the subject pronoun we, which functions as the subject of the verb had. Finally, it is an object pronoun acting as the object of the preposition like.

Doreen and I caught five fish yesterday, but she threw them back into the water because we don’t like to eat salmon.

I is a subject pronoun — specifically, the subject of the verb caught. She is also a subject pronoun, paired with the verb threw. Next you see an object pronoun, them, which is the direct object of the verb threw. Last but not least, we is a subject pronoun, acting as the subject of do like. (What happened to the negative? The contraction don’t is actually do not, and not is an adverb, not part of the verb.)

Lola is my friend; however, you are her enemy.

This sentence has two possessive pronouns, my (attached to friend) and her (attached to enemy). The pronoun you is a subject pronoun in this sentence because it functions as the subject of the verb are.

The flight attendant told him to turn off his computer and confiscated it when he refused.

The pronoun him is an object pronoun functioning in this sentence as the indirect object of the verb told. (The direct object, if you care, is to turn off his computer.) His is a possessive pronoun attached to computer. It is an object pronoun, serving here as the object of the verb confiscated. Finally, the subject pronoun he is the subject of the verb refused.

Al has placed Kerina and you at a lively table, but if you want to change seats, the choice is yours.

The verb has placed has two direct objects in this sentence: Kerina (a noun) and the object pronoun you. Next you have a subject pronoun, you, which is the subject of the verb want. Yours is a possessive pronoun following the linking verb is.
276. S, S, S (I know it was she on the phone because I always recognize voices.)

The first verb in this sentence is know, and the subject pronoun I is its subject. Then you run into a linking verb, was. Think of a linking verb as an equal sign in a math problem. What comes before and after a linking verb should be equal. Therefore, both I and she are subject pronouns. The first one, I, is the actual subject and the second, she, is the subject complement. Now you have another verb, recognize. I is the subject pronoun acting as the subject of recognize.

277. P, S, S (Lulu’s parents hate her adding an extra course because they think she is too busy already.)

Lulu’s parents don’t hate her. They hate that their daughter might add an extra course. Therefore, the her is attached to adding and is a possessive pronoun. (In technical grammar terminology, her is a possessive attached to the gerund adding.) They is a subject pronoun, acting as the subject of the verb think. She is also a subject pronoun, acting as the subject of the verb is.

278. S, P, P (After Helen had examined the clothing thoroughly, she tried on a coat and declared, “Mine is more stylish and warmer,” as she threw his away.)

The subject pronoun she is the subject of the verb tried in this sentence. Both mine and his are possessive pronouns here; mine refers to Helen’s coat, and his to an unknown male. By the way, the possessive pronoun mine is the subject of the verb is, but it’s possessive because it expresses ownership.

279. P, O, P (My jumbo slice of cake didn’t tempt him, perhaps because yours was dry and tasteless.)

The sentence begins with a possessive pronoun, my, which is attached to jumbo slice of cake. The object pronoun him is the direct object of the verb did tempt. (The contraction didn’t is short for did not, but not is an adverb, not part of the verb itself.) The possessive pronoun yours acts as the subject of the verb was, but it’s possessive because it expresses ownership.

280. P, P, O, S (The director loved your jumping in front of the runaway horse in the final scene, but your mom told herself not to look at the screen while you were in danger.)

The director doesn’t love you; the director loves the jumping. The possessive pronoun your is attached to jumping. The next your is also possessive, attached to mom. Next up is the indirect object herself, an object pronoun. Finally, you have the subject pronoun you working as the subject of the verb were. (Are you wondering what the direct object of told is? The direct object of told is to look, an infinitive.)

281. P, S, P, P (Their pitcher has a better record than I, but my team wins more games than his.)

The possessive pronoun their is attached to the noun pitcher. To figure out the next pronoun, you need to add an implied word: do. Tuck that word into the sentence and you have than I do. Now you see that the subject pronoun I is the subject of the verb do. You come across another possessive pronoun, my, which is attached to the noun team. Lastly, you have to add in some implied words again. Think of the sentence as ending with than his team does. His is a possessive pronoun attached to the noun team.
### 282. P, S, P (Give your food to whoever is hungry, even though our supply is low.)

The possessive pronoun *your* is attached to the noun *food*, just as the possessive pronoun *our* is attached to the noun *supply*. In between these two pronouns is *whoever*, a subject pronoun that serves as the subject of the verb *is* in this sentence.

### 283. O, S (Melissa, whom the proctor scolded for lateness, says she actually arrived earlier than I.)

The object pronoun *whom* is the direct object of the verb *scolded*. *She* is a subject pronoun, acting as the subject of the verb *arrived*. *I* is also a subject, though its verb, *did*, is implied; *earlier than I did* is the complete expression.

### 284. P, P, P (When our computer crashed, James shook its screen and yelled, “Whose program was running recently?”)

This sentence has three possessive pronouns: *our* is attached to the noun *computer*, *its* is attached to the noun *screen*, and *whose* is attached to the noun *program*.

### 285. S, P, S (I won’t go to the pool with his family because that cousin splashes whoever is nearby.)

The subject pronoun *I* is the subject of the verb *will go*. (Are you wondering where *will go* is in this sentence? The answer is inside the contraction *won’t go*, which is short for *will not go*. Take away *not*, which is an adverb, and you have *will go*. ) The possessive pronoun *his* is attached to the noun *family*. Finally you have the subject pronoun *whoever*, which is the subject of the verb *is*.

### 286. his, their, they (Scott and his fellow racewalkers swing their arms as they hurry to the finish line.)

The possessive pronoun *his* is equivalent to *Scott’s*, a possessive noun. The plural possessive form *their* takes the place of the plural possessive nouns, *Scott’s and the racewalkers’*. *They*, a subject pronoun, acts as the subject of the verb *hurry*.

### 287. she, her, she (Keith and she gave her nephew five crayons, because Pam always prefers to select the colors she likes.)

In the first blank you need a subject pronoun, *she*, which is the subject of the verb *gave*. The possessive pronoun *her* replaces the possessive noun *Pam’s*. The subject pronoun *she* works nicely as the subject of the verb *likes*.

### 288. him, they, me (Woody saluted him before they bowed to the audience and thanked me for directing the play.)

You need an object pronoun for the first blank, and *him* functions properly there as the object of the verb *saluted*. Two people may be replaced by one plural pronoun, *they*, which functions as the subject of the verb *bowed*. In the last blank you need an object pronoun, *me*, which is the direct object of the verb *thanked*. 
289. **He, I, they (He and I will order food for 100 people, in case they all come.)**

The subject noun *David* may be replaced by the subject pronoun *he*. You also need a subject pronoun to refer to the speaker, and *I* fits perfectly. (Did you choose *myself*? If so, you made a common mistake. The *-self* pronouns work only for emphasis, as in *I myself will do it*, or to express action that doubles back, as in *I asked myself why I was in such trouble.*) In the last blank the subject pronoun *they* replaces the subject noun *guests*.

290. **me, you, its (Everyone but me plays the guitar, but you understand the instrument and its construction too.)**

The word *but* is usually a conjunction — a joining word — but the first time you see it in this sentence, it’s a preposition. Prepositions need objects, and *me* is an object pronoun. (If you selected *myself*, you made a common mistake. The *-self* pronouns work only for emphasis, as in *I myself will do it*, or to express action that doubles back, as in *I asked myself why I was in such trouble.*) You is the subject pronoun acting as the subject of the verb *understand*. In the third blank, go for the possessive *its*. The contraction *it’s*, by the way, means *it is* and isn’t a possessive pronoun.

291. **She, her, she, him (She and her favorite singer, Bob Cassino, have never met, but she thinks of him as a friend anyway.)**

You need a subject pronoun, *she*, to act as the subject of the verb *have met* and, in the third blank, as the subject of the verb *thinks*. In the second blank a possessive pronoun, *her*, is attached to *favorite singer*. In the last blank, the object pronoun *him* functions as the object of the preposition *of*.

292. **her, I, them (Amy Tan’s novels provide Ira and her with many hours of pleasant reading, but I prefer the films and watch them often.)**

The first blank in this sentence calls for an object pronoun to act as part of the direct object, *Ira and her*. In the second blank you need a subject pronoun, *I*, to act as the subject of the verb *prefer*. Next up is another object pronoun, *them*, which is the direct object of the verb *watch*.

293. **she, they, me (Daniel and she weeded the garden together, but they hired me to mow the lawn.)**

In the first blank you need a subject pronoun (*she*) to act as the subject of the verb *weeded*. You also need a subject pronoun — this time, the plural *they* — to replace *Daniel and Pamela* as the subjects of the verb *hired*. Finally, the object pronoun *me* functions as the direct object of *hired*.

294. **We, they, our (We and the managers explain the insurance policy to clients whenever they request our help.)**

A group including the speaker may be represented by *we, us, or our*. In the first blank you need the subject pronoun, *we*, to act as the subject of the verb *explain*. In the second blank, the subject pronoun *they* acts as the subject of the verb *request*. Finally, the possessive pronoun *our* represents the speakers in the last blank.
295. he, it, them (Did he hit it and run around them?)

Questions are easy to figure out if you rearrange the words into statement format: ___ did hit ___ and run around ____. Now you can see that you need a subject for the verb did hit, so select the subject pronoun he for the first blank. The ball is a thing, so the pronoun it, which works as either a subject or an object, replaces the ball. Last, you need the object pronoun them to replace the bases and serve as the object of the preposition around.

296. him, their, it (Seeing Laura and him pulling their wagon up the hill was impressive, because it was very steep.)

The subject of the sentence (seeing) is a verb form used as a noun — a gerund. A gerund may have an object, and this one has two — Laura and James. The object pronoun him replaces James as the object of the gerund, seeing. For the second blank you need a possessive that refers to two people, and their is perfect. Next, you have the subject pronoun it, referring to the hill and acting as the subject of the verb was.

297. him, I, ourselves (To satisfy him, Mr. Palgrove, Beth and I handed in an excellent paper that we wrote by ourselves, without extra help.)

The blank after the infinitive to satisfy calls for an object, so select the object pronoun him to represent the teacher, Mr. Palgrove. In the second blank, place the subject pronoun I to represent the speaker and to act as the subject of the verb handed. Last, the pronoun ourselves substitutes for Beth and the speaker and acts as the object of the preposition by. Did you choose us for the last blank? If so, you fell into a trap. Us is an object pronoun, and you need an object of the preposition. However, because the pronoun refers back to the subject, the pronoun ourselves is more appropriate.

298. they, who, him (Do they know the boy who designed the winning sailboat for him?)

Questions are easy to figure out if you rearrange the words into statement format: _____ do know the boy _____ designed the sailboat for ___. As you see, you need a subject for the verb do know, so select the subject pronoun they for the first blank. Now you need a subject pronoun to act as the subject of the verb designed. One possibility is he, but then you end up with a run-on sentence, because two complete thoughts are stuck together: Do they know the boy? and He designed the winning sailboat for Henry. The solution is the pronoun who, which relates the statement about design to the question about knowing the boy. Who is a subject pronoun, perfect for the role of subject of the verb designed. Finally, insert an object pronoun, him, into the last blank to act as the object of the preposition for.

Did you choose himself for the second blank because you assumed that a word, that, was implied? Count yourself right, because this sentence makes sense: Do they know [that] the boy himself designed the winning sailboat for Henry?

299. us, that, us (All of us students worried about the test that was scheduled for us.)

In the first and third blanks you need an object pronoun (us) to act as the object of the prepositions of and for. The second blank is tricky. You could plug in it to represent the test, but then you’d have a run-on sentence, because two complete thoughts would be present: All of us students worried about the test and the test was scheduled for us. The pronoun that solves the problem, because it relates the statement about the students’ worries to the statement about the scheduled test.
300. who, them, me (Everyone who borrowed bowling shoes must return them to me by 5 o’clock.)

The pronoun who relates the statement about borrowing shoes to the pronoun everyone. Because you need a subject for borrowed, opt for who, a subject pronoun. The second blank calls for an object pronoun, them, which is the direct object of the verb must return. Finally, you need an object pronoun, me, as the object of the preposition to.

301. she, I, we, her (It was she at the front desk; Peter and I are sure we recognized her.)

The linking verb was should always be followed by a subject pronoun — in this case, she. Next up is a compound subject, Peter and I. If you chose myself, you fell into a trap. The -self pronouns work only when the action expressed by the verb doubles back, as in she told herself not to panic. For the third blank, you need another subject pronoun for the verb recognized. We covers both Peter and the speaker. Finally, the object pronoun her functions as the direct object of the verb recognized.

302. its, it (When a stuffed toy loses its nose, it looks even more adorable.)

The possessive pronoun its, like all possessive pronouns, has no apostrophe. With an apostrophe, it's is a contraction of it is — not the meaning you want here. For the subject of the verb looks, opt for it, a handy singular pronoun that may be either a subject or an object. Why it and not they? The pronoun replaces a singular noun, toy, so a plural doesn’t work here.

303. whose, he, it (Ken doesn’t know whose chewing gum is stuck to the table, but he wants it removed.)

In the first blank you need a possessive form, and whose fills that need. If you chose who's, you confused the contraction (who is = who’s) with the possessive (whose). In the second blank you need a subject pronoun to replace Ken, so he is perfect. Lastly, you need the singular pronoun it to replace gum. It, fortunately, works as either a subject or an object. No worries there!

304. who, him, his (Deborah, who is sitting in the second row, will watch him with great attention in case Bill forgets his lines.)

In the first blank you need a subject pronoun, who, to act as the subject of is sitting. In the second blank, go for the object pronoun him to act as the direct object of the verb will watch. Last, you need a possessive pronoun (his) to replace the possessive noun Bill’s.

305. her, me, we (Please don’t tell her and me any jokes while we are trying to concentrate.)

The first two blanks call for object pronouns, so her and me work well here as the direct objects of the verb do tell. (Why not don’t tell? The contraction don’t is actually do not, and not is an adverb, not a verb.) In the last blank you need a subject pronoun, we, to replace Allison and I. (The speaker is always I.) We acts as the subject of the verb are trying.
306. its, my, I, your (The bus with its 20 passengers flew by my stop, so I was late for your barbecue.)

The bus is a singular thing, so the possessive pronoun its does the job in the first blank. You also need possessive pronouns for the second and last blanks. My always refers to the speaker, and your always refers to the person spoken to. The third blank calls for a subject pronoun, and I fits perfectly. (Did you pick it’s or you’re for the first and last blanks? Those words are contractions of it is and you are, not possessive pronouns.)

307. its, its (Watson and Sons pays its employees too little compared to its competitors.)

A company is a singular thing, even when — as in the case of Watson and Sons — the name may appear plural. Therefore, you should select the singular possessive pronoun its for both blanks. (Did you pick it’s or they’re? Those words are short for it is and they are, not possessive pronouns.)

308. he, she (Are Jason and he the funniest comedians in the show, or is she?)

Change this question to a statement and your choice is clearer: Jason and ____ are the funniest comedians in the show, or ____ is. The secret here is the linking verb are. Both sides of the linking verb require subject pronouns. Therefore, Frank becomes he and Valerie becomes she.

309. himself, he, it (Jeff told himself that he would understand the question and write it quickly.)

When the action doubles back on the subject, a -self pronoun is justified. Such is the situation here: Jeff told himself, not someone else. Next up is a subject pronoun, he, that functions as the subject of the verbs would understand and write. Lastly, the neuter pronoun it represents the noun essay.

310. her, he, me, he, me (Mack told the secret to Al and her before he told me, but he gave me more details.)

In the first blank you need the object pronoun her to act as the object of the preposition to. In the second blank, the subject pronoun he is the subject of the verb told. Now you need an object pronoun (me) to act as the object of the verb told, a subject pronoun (he) as the subject of the verb gave, and finally an object pronoun (me) for the verb gave.

311. she, they, her (Jeremy is as nervous as she when they visit her parents.)

The secret to this sentence is that some of the words are understood, not stated. Add in the implied words, and your choice of pronouns is easier: Jeremy is as nervous as Gloria is. Gloria is the subject of the implied verb is, so you need a subject pronoun (she) to replace Gloria. Next you need a plural subject pronoun (they) to represent Jeremy and Gloria. For the last blank, the feminine, singular, possessive pronoun her replaces Gloria’s.
312.  my, her, me (Elizabeth hates my calling her “Liz” and has forbidden me to do so.)

This sentence contains what English teachers call a gerund — a verb form ending in -ing that is used as a noun. Before a gerund, you need a possessive form. You can forget about English-teacher terminology and solve this sentence with logic: Elizabeth doesn’t hate me; she hates being called “Liz.” The possessive pronoun my tilts your attention to calling her “Liz,” where it should be. Next you need an object pronoun, her, to act as the object of the gerund. (Gerunds, though they function as nouns, keep some of the properties of verbs, including the ability to have an object.) In the last blank, the object pronoun me is the object of the verb has forbidden.

313.  who, its (Fran, who Charlie thinks should take a course in public speaking, is not open to its subject matter.)

This sentence contains several different ideas. Untangle them and the pronoun choices become easier. Start by pairing each verb with its subject. In this list, I’ve underlined the verbs in each idea: (1) Fran is not open to the course’s subject matter (2) _____ should take a course in public speaking (3) Charlie thinks. Can you see that you need a subject for should take? Bingo: The subject pronoun who does the job. The second blank is simple; opt for the possessive pronoun its to replace the singular possessive noun, course’s.

314.  me, your, I (Between you and me, no one is happier about your getting a new puppy than I.)

The preposition between calls for an object pronoun, so me is the one you want. (Between you and I is a common expression, but it’s also wrong.) For the second blank you need a possessive pronoun because the happiness is caused by getting a new puppy, not by a person. The possessive pronoun your shifts the attention of the reader or listener to the action. This construction is, in English-teacher terms, “possessive attached to a gerund.” Now for the last blank. A word (am) is implied, but not stated in the sentence. The sentence, with that word added, explains that no one is happier . . . than I am. The subject pronoun I is the subject of the implied verb am.

315.  you, whoever, he (Don’t you think whoever wants to succeed should study harder than he?)

The person or people being spoken to are always referred to as you, which is conveniently correct for both singular and plural situations. When you refer to anyone in a group, you’re in whoever/whomever territory. Here you need a subject for wants, so go for the subject pronoun whoever. To solve the third blank, add the implied verb does to the end of the sentence, which then reads harder than _____ does. Clearly you need a subject pronoun for the verb does, and he fills the gap.

316.  I, whoever, my (Alex and I plan to read the article and respond to whoever has complaints about my work.)

The verb plan has a compound subject, Alex and I. (I is a subject pronoun and always refers to the speaker.) The next verb in the sentence is has, so you need a subject pronoun, whoever, to act as the subject of has. Did you choose whomever because you saw the preposition to? If so, you fell into a trap. True, to needs an object, but in this sentence its object is whoever has complaints about my work. The last blank is easy. The possessive pronoun my is attached to work.
317. he, its (The top students, Nick and he, will receive awards from the school, which always honors its scholars at the end of the year.)

The first blank is easy if you clear away some of the camouflage. Who will receive awards? Nick and James will receive awards, or, with the pronoun inserted, Nick and he will receive awards. The second blank refers to a singular, neuter, possessive noun (school’s), which you can replace with its.

318. whoever, I, it (The letter tucked into the bottle began, “To whoever finds this bottle”; I read it eagerly.)

Your choices for the first blank are whoever and whomever. Because the sentence begins with the preposition to, you may be tempted to select the object pronoun whomever. Nope! The verb finds needs a subject, whoever. In case you’re wondering about the object of the preposition: It’s the entire clause, whoever finds this bottle. On to the second blank: Here you need the subject pronoun I to act as the subject of the verb read. The object pronoun it finishes the sentence, functioning as the object of the verb read.

319. I, she, who (The dancer and I believe that it is she who stole the salt shaker.)

In the first blank, the subject pronoun I acts as the subject of the verb believe. In the second blank, you need a subject pronoun (she) to act as a subject complement, because you have a linking verb (is). Finally, you need who to substitute for Frances in the last blank. Who is a subject pronoun, acting as the subject of the verb stole.

320. whomever, him, them (When Jason told you to ask whomever you like to work on the project with him, did you choose them?)

Break this question into parts to make your life easier. The first part is fine as it is, so direct your attention to the second part. The verb there is like, and the subject of like is you. You don’t need a subject or a subject complement, so the answer can’t be whoever. In fact, you need an object — whomever. The preposition with requires an object pronoun, so the singular, masculine, object pronoun him fits well here. Now look at the last part. Change it into a statement: you did choose _____ . The verb is did choose, the subject is you, and the blank should be filled with an object pronoun, them.

321. III. (Have you eaten?)

The first question (Have eaten?) lacks a subject, and the second question (Have you eaten) has no endmark (a question mark). The third puts everything together correctly: a subject-verb pair (you is the subject and have eaten is the verb), a complete thought, and an endmark (a question mark).

322. None of the sentences

Each statement begins with a subject, Boris, but no verb pairs with Boris, so no statement is a complete sentence.
323. I. (At the army museum, many exhibits caught our attention.)

Sentence I is complete because it has a subject-verb pair (exhibits is the subject and caught is the verb). It also has an endmark (a period). Sentence II (At the army museum, many exhibits caught our attention) lacks an endmark, and Sentence III (At the army museum, many exhibits catching our attention) has a subject (exhibits) but no matching verb. The -ing form of a verb never functions as a verb unless a form of the verb to be is attached. Therefore, many exhibits are catching our attention would work, but not catching alone.

324. II. (Balloons of all colors of the rainbow floated above us in the sky!)

Sentence I (Balloons of all colors of the rainbow above us in the sky!) lacks a verb to pair with the subject, balloons. Sentence III (Balloons of all colors of the rainbow floated above us in the sky) has no endmark. Only Sentence II has an endmark and a subject-verb pair (balloons is the subject and floated is the verb).

325. All of the sentences

Although the subject-verb pair (burglar came) moves around in these three statements, it’s present in every one. All three also end with periods and express a complete thought. Therefore, all are complete sentences.

326. All of the sentences

These three short sentences are all complete. You don’t get many details, but you do get a complete statement, a true subject-verb pair (I dance), and an endmark.

327. I. (Standing in the aisle, Charlotte scanned the audience, searching for an empty seat.)

The first sentence has it all: a subject-verb pair (Charlotte scanned), a complete thought, and an endmark (a period). Sentence II (Standing in the aisle, Charlotte scanned the audience and searched for an empty seat) lacks an endmark. The third sentence (Standing in the aisle, Charlotte, scanning the audience, searching for an empty seat) has no true subject-verb pair. True, several verb forms are present in Sentence III, but all act as descriptions of Charlotte. None function as verbs.

328. II. (The little dog chewed his food quickly and then ran off to play.)

The first sentence (The little dog, chewing his food quickly and then running off to play) is a fragment, with no true subject-verb pair. Chewing his food quickly and then running off to play is a description, not a verb to match dog, the subject. The second sentence is perfect: It has a subject-verb pair (dog chewed and ran), a complete thought, and an endmark (a period). The third choice (The little dog chewed his food quickly and then ran off to play) lacks an endmark. Therefore, only Sentence II is complete.

329. II. (Who is solving the puzzle?)

The words are the same in each sentence, but only the second one expresses a complete thought because it makes sense as a question. As a statement (Sentence I: Who is solving the puzzle.) or an exclamation (Sentence III: Who is solving the puzzle!), the words leave you hanging. Only Sentence II is complete.
330. I. and III. (I. Alan, having changed his clothes, was ready for the dance. III. Having changed his clothes, Alan was ready for the dance.)

Sentences I and III have a true subject-verb pair (Alan was), an endmark (a period), and a complete thought. Therefore, Sentences I and III are complete. Sentence II (Having changed his clothes, Alan, ready for the dance) has a subject (Alan) but no verb. By the way, Having changed is not a verb. That expression looks like a verb, but it doesn’t pair with Alan. Instead, it describes Alan.

331. III. (It was nice to meet you.)

Sentences I (Nice to meet you) and II (Nice meeting you!) are common expressions, but only Sentence III has a true subject-verb pair (It was). Therefore, only Sentence III is complete.

332. I. and III. (I. The table fell over, but it didn’t break. III. The table fell over but didn’t break.)

The first sentence employs a conjunction (but) to join two complete thoughts: the table fell over and it didn’t break. The second sentence (The table fell over, it didn’t break) tries to link these ideas with a comma. Nope! A comma isn’t strong enough to join two complete thoughts. The last sentence uses a conjunction (but) to join two verbs (fell, did break) to one subject (table). No problems there! Sentences I and III are correct.

333. II. and III. (II. Miami has a warm climate, and Greenland is much colder. III. Miami has a warm climate, but Greenland is much colder.)

Sentence I (Miami has a warm climate, Greenland is much colder) links two complete thoughts with just a comma, but a comma can’t perform that function. Sentence II adds a conjunction (and), so it’s grammatically legal. Similarly, Sentence III adds the conjunction but, so it’s also correct.

334. I. and II. (I. Although she had reviewed the material thoroughly, Lisa was still nervous before her test. II. Lisa was still nervous before her test, although she had reviewed the material thoroughly.)

In the first two sentences, you have a complete thought (Lisa was still nervous before her test) and an incomplete thought (although she had reviewed the material thoroughly). Both are correct, regardless of the location of the incomplete thought. The third sentence (She had reviewed the material thoroughly, Lisa was still nervous before her test) has two complete thoughts: Lisa was still nervous before her test and she had reviewed the material thoroughly. No conjunction joins them, so the sentence is incorrect.

335. I. and II. (I. Tomorrow Laura will hike two miles, or she will work out for an hour at the gym. II. Tomorrow Laura will hike two miles, and she will work out for an hour at the gym.)

Sentence I links two complete ideas (Tomorrow Laura will hike two miles and she will work out for an hour at the gym) with a conjunction (or). Sentence II links the same ideas with a different conjunction (and). Both are correct. Sentence III (Tomorrow Laura will hike two miles, she will work out for an hour at the gym) relies on a comma to link the two ideas. Incorrect! A comma is not strong enough to join clauses (statements with subject-verb pairs).
II. and III. (II. The baby cried for hours, and no one could quiet her. III. The baby cried for hours, because no one could quiet her.)

In Sentence I (The baby cried for hours, no one could quiet her), two statements (the baby cried for hours and no one could quiet her) are joined only by a comma — not a proper way to connect these ideas. The second and third sentences use conjunctions (and in Sentence II and because in Sentence III) to link these statements. Both are correct. Remember: A comma can’t join clauses — a statement containing a subject-verb pair — but a semicolon or conjunction can.

All of the sentences

In Sentences I (Before she met the ambassadors, the President examined their credentials carefully) and II (The President examined their credentials carefully before she met the ambassadors), the conjunction before links these two ideas: she met the ambassadors and the President examined their credentials. Both Sentence I and Sentence II are correct. Sentence III (The President first examined their credentials carefully, and then she met the ambassadors) uses the conjunction and to accomplish the same goal — also correct.

I. (The can is full, so please empty it.)

The conjunction so joins two ideas in Sentence I: the can is full and please empty it. Both Sentence II (The can is full, you should empty it) and Sentence III (The can is full, please empty it) try to connect these ideas with commas — an illegal joining.

All of the sentences

In Sentences I (Although they had arrived late, the manager refused to shorten the team practice) and II (The manager refused to shorten the team practice, although they had arrived late), the conjunction although links two ideas (they had arrived late and the manager refused to shorten the team practice). In Sentence III (They had arrived late, but the manager refused to shorten the team practice), the conjunction but does the same job. All are correct.

I. (Even though George has never studied French, he understands a few simple words.)

In Sentence I, the conjunction even though makes a logical and grammatically correct connection between these two ideas: George has never studied French and he understands a few simple words. Sentence II (George has never studied French, however, he understands a few simple words) relies on an adverb, however, to link these ideas, but however may not perform that function without a semicolon between French and however. Sentence III (George has never studied French, he understands a few simple words anyway) uses a comma to join these ideas — another improper joining. Only Sentence I is correct.

II. (Stamp collecting is a fascinating hobby, although it can be expensive.)

Sentence I (Stamp collecting is a fascinating hobby, it can be expensive) attempts to link two complete sentences (Stamp collecting is a fascinating hobby and it can be expensive) with a comma — not proper English grammar. Sentence III (Stamp collecting is a fascinating hobby, additionally it can be expensive) tries to link these ideas with additionally, an adverb that may not join complete sentences. Only Sentence II employs a conjunction, although, to do the job, so Sentence II is the only correct choice.
342. II. and III. (II. Jim dropped the fragile vase; consequently, it shattered into a thousand pieces. III. Jim dropped the fragile vase, and consequently it shattered into a thousand pieces.)

The adverb *consequently* is long and appears important, but it’s just an adverb and can’t legally join two complete thoughts on its own. Therefore, Sentence I (*Jim dropped the fragile vase, consequently, it shattered into a thousand pieces*) is a run-on. Sentence II adds a semicolon, and III inserts a true conjunction (*and*), so both II and III are correct.

343. I. and III. (I. Penny turned off her phone, for she didn’t want to be interrupted. III. Penny turned off her phone because she didn’t want to be interrupted.)

In Sentence I, the conjunction *for* links two complete sentences (*Penny turned off her phone and she didn’t want to be interrupted*). In Sentence III, the conjunction *because* performs the same function. Both of these are correct. Sentence II (*Penny turned off her phone, she didn’t want to be interrupted*) attempts to link ideas with a comma, but a comma may not join complete sentences.

344. I. (I went to Vermont, where I met many skiers.)

In Sentence I, *where* relates the last word of the first idea (*I went to Vermont*) to the second idea (*I met many skiers*). This joining is legal. Sentence II (*I went to Vermont, there I met many skiers*) tries to link the ideas with *there*, and Sentence III (*I went to Vermont, I met many skiers there*) sends in a comma to do the job. Neither *there* nor a comma may properly combine these ideas.

345. III. (Jack’s suit is old; he still looks good in it though.)

*Nevertheless* (as in Sentence I: *Jack’s suit is old, nevertheless, he still looks good in it*) and *however* (as in Sentence II: *Jack’s suit is old, however, he still looks good in it*) seem to be important, strong words — and they are! Unfortunately, neither is a conjunction and therefore neither may join two complete thoughts. Only Sentence III is grammatically legal, because the semicolon is powerful enough to link two complete thoughts.

346. All of the sentences

In Sentence I (*The mechanic checked the steering wheel, which was fine, but he said that the brakes were defective*), the conjunction *but* links two complete thoughts (*the mechanic checked the steering wheel, which was fine and he said that the brakes were defective*). Tucked inside each of those statements is still another statement (*which was fine* in the first half of the sentence and *that the brakes were defective* in the second half of the sentence). Those tucked-in statements are linked to the main idea by relative pronouns, *which* and *that*. Relative pronouns relate one idea to another, so everything is fine in Sentence I. Sentence II (*The mechanic checked the steering wheel, which was fine, and then he said that the brakes were defective*) relies on the conjunction *and* to join ideas, and Sentence III (*The mechanic checked the steering wheel, which was fine, although he said that the brakes were defective*) gives the joining job to *although*, another conjunction. Because the ideas in these sentences are joined by conjunctions, they are all correct.
347. held the tray (Teresa held the tray as I placed the glasses on it.)

The original statement is a fragment because there’s no true subject-verb pair. Insert held the tray and you have Teresa held, a fine subject-verb match. Did you opt for was holding? That answer is also fine. If you selected holds, you’re wrong, because the verb in the second portion of the sentence (placed) is in past tense, so a present-tense verb (holds) is inappropriate for the first part of the sentence.

348. box. Their contributions fund (Generous donors drop coins in the box. Their contributions fund scholarships.)

The original statement is a run-on — two complete ideas jammed together without a proper conjunction or a semicolon. You can make two sentences, placing a period after box and capitalizing their to correct the error. You can also insert a semicolon between box and their or insert a conjunction, such as and.

349. Who likes ice cream?

The original lacks an endmark, and only a question mark makes sense. With a period or an exclamation mark, you have an incomplete idea.

350. No change

The original is a command directed to Margaret. No change is needed because the sentence has a subject-verb pair, you (understood but not stated) and place. All complete and correct! Direct address words, by the way, can roam around. Margaret may appear at the beginning, middle, or end of the sentence without creating any problems.

351. The dictionary rested (The dictionary rested on a shelf in the corner.)

The original statement lacks a subject-verb pair. Change resting to rested and you’re all set, because the subject dictionary pairs well with the verb rested. You can also pair dictionary with was resting, rests, will rest, and has rested.

352. relaxing, but my aunt prefers (I find knitting relaxing, but my aunt prefers embroidery.)

The two complete thoughts in the original (I find knitting relaxing and my aunt prefers embroidery) can’t be connected with a simple comma. A semicolon or a conjunction such as but properly links these ideas. You can also correct the original by making two sentences, placing a period after relaxing and capitalizing my. Another possible correction is to use the conjunction although or even though before my aunt.

353. were covered (Those mountain peaks were covered with snow even in the summer.)

The original appears to have a matching subject-verb pair, but mountain peaks aren’t performing the action (covered), so covered is a description, not a verb. Insert were to create a passive-voice verb, and the subject-verb pair works: mountain peaks (subject) were covered (verb). The passive verb allows the subject to receive the action. If you chose are covered, you’re also correct.
354. **No change**

The subject-verb pair here is *Mattie went*. The underlined portion is just part of a description — what English teachers call a participle, to be exact — that supplies more information about *Mattie*. No change is needed.

355. **lot; be sure (Park the truck in the lot; be sure to lock it.)**

The original improperly joins two complete ideas (both commands with the same implied subject, *you*) with a comma. Nope! Change the comma to a semicolon and you’re fine. You can also place a period after *lot* and begin a new sentence by capitalizing *be*. Another possibility is to insert a conjunction (*and*, for example) before *be*.

356. **There were a pen and pencil on the desk in the corner of the living room.**

The original has no verb. An easy correction is to add *there were*. Now the subject of the sentence is *pen and pencil* and the verb is *were*. (Surprised? *There* is an adverb, not a subject noun.) You can correct this sentence in other ways, too. For example, you might insert *lay or were* before *on the desk*. The present-tense verb *are* works also.

357. **performs better in the annual talent show? (Which performs better in the annual talent show?)**

The original sentence lacks an endmark, and only a question mark creates a complete thought.

358. **Accepting an internship, Bert always plans (Accepting an internship, Bert always plans his next career move, which will lead him to success.)**

The original begins with a descriptive verb form (a participle), which gives you more information about *Bert*. The problem is that the original lacks a verb to pair with *Bert*, not just to describe him. Change *planning to plans* and you’re fine. You could also change *always planning to always planned or was always planning or is always planning*. 

359. **No change**

The original sentence has everything it needs — a subject-verb pair (*hose sprays*), a complete thought, and an endmark.

360. **side, which highlights (Picasso’s statue has a gently curved side, which highlights the grain of the marble.)**

The beginning of the original sentence is fine, but the underlined portion lacks a matching subject-verb pair. The pronoun *which* is the subject, but *highlighting* is a description. Go for *highlights*. Other possible corrections are *side, which is highlighting* and *side, which highlighted.*
361. No change

The underlined portion of the sentence appears to be incomplete because no subject appears and you have only a partial verb. However, the rules of grammar allow you to imply a subject in one portion of the sentence, so long as the subject that appears in the other portion of the sentence is the same as the implied subject. You’re also allowed to imply part of the verb. Here, the implied words between while and swimming are Harriet was. The subjects match, so this one is fine as it is. You could also choose Harriet swam and end up with a correct sentence.

362. ADJ, ADV, ADJ (The green scarf slipped off her bare head.)

What kind of scarf? A green scarf. Green is an adjective describing the noun scarf. Where did the scarf slip? It slipped off. Off is an adverb describing the verb slipped. What kind of head? A bare head. Bare is an adjective describing head.

363. ADJ, ADV, ADV (Put these shiny cups below because I may use them later.)

What kind of cups? Shiny cups. Shiny is an adjective describing the noun cups. Put where? Put below. Below is an adverb describing the verb put. May use when? May use later. Later is an adverb describing the verb may use.

364. ADJ, ADV, ADJ, ADJ (Good journalists still cover important stories, not sensational gossip.)

What kind of journalists? Good journalists. Good is an adjective describing journalists. Cover when? Cover still. Still is an adverb describing the verb cover. What kind of stories? Important stories. Important is an adjective describing the noun stories. What kind of gossip? Sensational gossip. Sensational is an adjective describing the noun gossip.

365. ADJ, ADV, N (Five tiny mice curled up and squeaked softly when they sensed danger.)

How many mice? Five mice. What kind of mice? Tiny mice. Five and tiny are adjectives describing the noun mice. Squeaked how? Squeaked softly. Softly is an adverb describing the verb squeaked. Danger is neither an adjective nor an adverb. It’s a noun, not a description.

366. ADJ, ADJ, ADV (The escaped prisoners, tired and hungry, eventually surrendered.)

What kind of prisoners? Escaped prisoners. Escaped is an adjective describing the noun prisoners. Tired and hungry also describe prisoners, even though these words appear after that noun, not before (the usual spot for adjectives). Surrendered when? Surrendered eventually. Eventually is an adverb describing the verb surrendered.

367. ADJ, ADV, ADJ, ADJ (Your school shoes are too tight, so we must buy a larger size.)

What kind of shoes? School shoes. School is an adjective describing the noun shoes. Ask the same question, and you also get the answer tight. Tight is an adjective describing the noun shoes. Tight is located after the linking verb are because it completes the meaning of the subject-linking verb pair: shoes are tight. Now ask another question: How tight? Too tight. Too is an adverb describing the adjective tight. Next up: What kind of size? Larger size. Larger is an adjective describing the noun size.
368. **ADJ, ADJ, ADJ, N** (When Luke sounded hoarse, his trusted voice coach gave him honey and lemon.)

_Sounded_ is a linking verb, and every statement with a linking verb needs something to complete the meaning. In this sentence, ask _Luke sounded_ what? _Hoarse_. _Hoarse_ is an adjective describing _Luke_. Now ask: What kind of coach? You get two answers — _trusted coach_ and _voice coach_. _Trusted_ and _voice_ are both adjectives describing the noun _coach_. The last underlined word, _him_, is a pronoun functioning as an indirect object. It’s neither an adjective nor an adverb.

369. **ADJ, N, ADJ, ADV** (Identical twins are playing one role in that Broadway play.)

What kind of _twins_? _Identical twins_. _Identical_ is an adjective describing the noun _twins_. _Playing_ is neither an adjective nor an adverb. In this sentence, _playing_ functions as part of the present progressive verb, _are playing_. How many _roles_? _One role_. _One_ is an adjective describing the noun _role_. What kind of _play_? _Broadway play_. _Broadway_ is an adjective describing the noun _play_.

370. **ADJ, ADJ, ADV, ADV** (A vacant building, unguarded, may attract squatters who live there illegally.)

What kind of _building_? _Vacant building_. _Vacant_ is an adjective describing the noun _building_. The _building_ is also _unguarded_, so _unguarded_ is another adjective describing _building_, placed after the word it describes instead of in front — the usual location for an adjective. _Live_ where? _Live there_. _There_ is an adverb describing the verb _live_. _Live_ how or under what conditions? _Live illegally_. _Illegally_ is an adverb describing the verb _live_.

371. **ADJ, ADV, ADV, ADJ** (Be smart. Drive defensively, and you’ll arrive safely and enjoy a lovely vacation.)

This sentence begins with a command based on a linking verb, _be_. After a linking verb, you need a word to complete the idea. Ask the usual question, _be_ what? _Be smart_. _Smart_ is an adjective describing the understood subject of _be, you_. (The command is actually _You be smart_, but the _you_ is implied.) Next up is another command, _drive_. Ask, _drive_ how? _Drive defensively and safely_. _Defensively_ and _safely_ are adverbs describing the verb _drive_. Now examine _lovely_. It looks like an adverb because it ends in _-ly_, as many adverbs do. However, _lovely_ isn’t attached to _enjoy_. _Lovely_ doesn’t tell you how, when, where, or why you’ll _enjoy a vacation_. Instead, _lovely_ expresses what kind of _vacation_ you’ll have if you _arrive safely_. Therefore, _lovely_ is an adjective describing the noun _vacation_.

372. **ADJ, ADJ, N, ADV** (The production crew is responsible for setting the props on stage before the curtain first rises.)

What kind of _crew_? _Production crew_. _Production_ is an adjective describing the noun _crew_. After the linking verb _is, responsible_ gives you more information about the _crew_. Therefore, _responsible_ is also an adjective describing the noun _crew_. _Before_ sounds like an adverb because it refers to time, and adverbs may express when an action or state of being occurred. However, in this sentence _before_ links two ideas (clauses, in grammatical terms) — _the production crew is responsible for setting the props on stage and the curtain first rises_. _Before_ functions as a conjunction in this sentence, not as an adverb. Turn your attention to the last underlined word. _Rises_ when? _Rises first, or, first rises_. _First_ is an adverb describing the verb _rises_.

373. ADV, ADJ, ADV, ADJ, ADJ, ADJ (Chef John is justly famous for his use of extremely fresh ingredients and fast preparation of complicated dishes.)

The linking verb is alerts you to the fact that you need a completion for the statement that the verb is appears in: Chef John is what? Famous. Famous is an adjective describing Chef John. How famous? Justly famous. Justly is an adverb describing the adjective famous. What kind of ingredients? Fresh ingredients. Fresh is an adjective describing the noun ingredients. How fresh? Extremely fresh. Extremely is an adverb describing the adjective fresh. What kind of preparation? Fast preparation. Fast is an adjective in this context because it describes the noun preparation. (In another context, ran fast, for example, the word fast may be an adverb, describing a verb — in this example, ran.) Last one: What kind of dishes? Complicated dishes. Complicated is an adjective describing dishes.

374. pleased, local, national (The reporter was pleased to see his local story attract national attention.)

The adjective pleased completes the meaning of the subject-linking verb pair, reporter was. Local is an adjective describing the noun story, and national is an adjective describing the noun attention.

375. common, bad, social (Are common electronic devices bad for social connections?)

The adjective common describes the noun devices, just as the adjective social describes the noun connections. To fill the middle blank, take a look at the linking verb, are. You need something to complete the subject-linking verb pair, which in this sentence is devices are. The devices are bad. Bad is an adjective describing devices.

376. deep, cool, immediately (Wading into deep waters, Ron felt cool immediately.)

The adjective deep describes the noun waters. Cool, another adjective, describes Ron. It follows and completes the subject-linking verb statement, Ron felt. The adverb immediately explains when Ron felt cool.

377. new, energetically, well (Ben strummed his new guitar energetically but not well.)

Two adverbs tell you how Ben strummed — energetically and well. (Yes, the sentence states that Ben strummed not well, but you should ignore not because you weren’t asked about that word.) An adjective, new, describes the noun guitar.

378. large, smoothly, good (The large delivery van runs smoothly, so its contents remain in good condition.)

The adjective large describes the noun van (or delivery van, if you prefer). How does the van run? Smoothly, an adverb that describes the verb runs. Good is an adjective describing the noun condition.

379. loyal, loudly, seriously (Our show’s loyal audience protests loudly whenever the network seriously threatens to cancel it.)

The adjective loyal describes the noun audience. The adverb loudly describes the verb protests. (Protests how? Protests loudly.) Seriously, another adverb, describes the verb threatens.
380. extremely, generous, minimal (Jackson’s gift was extremely generous, even though he considered the donation minimal.)

This sentence is easy if you begin with the middle blank. The adjective generous follows the linking verb was and completes the meaning of the subject-linking verb statement — gift was generous. Okay, how generous? Extremely generous. Extremely is an adverb describing the adjective generous. Lastly, the adjective minimal describes the noun donation.

381. happy, surely, controversial (Dave feels happy because the voters surely agree with his position on the controversial issue.)

The linking verb feels in this sentence is followed by the adjective happy, which describes Dave (the subject). In the second blank, the adverb surely describes the verb agree. In the last blank, the adjective controversial describes the noun issue.

382. nicely, overly, rough (“Play nicely,” exclaimed the overly strict babysitter, but the children continued their rough games.)

The adverb nicely describes the verb play, and the adverb overly describes the adjective strict. (How strict? Overly strict.) In the last blank, the adjective rough describes the noun games.

383. really, unusual, rare (It’s really unusual for an amateur to discover such a rare fossil.)

The contraction it’s expands to the subject-linking verb pair, it is. Any statement with a linking verb needs a completion, and in this case you have an adjective, unusual. Now ask, “How unusual?” The answer is really unusual. The adverb really describes the adjective unusual. Last, you have an adjective, rare, describing the noun fossil.

384. hard, low, sadly (Mina worked hard, but the low grade she sadly read on her paper did not reflect her efforts.)

The word hard may be either an adjective or an adverb. (Hardly, on the other hand, is an adverb meaning scarcely or barely.) In this sentence hard is an adverb describing how Mina worked. Low is an adjective describing her grade, and sadly is an adverb telling you how she read. By the way, lowly is also an adjective, even though it ends with the usual adverb letters, -ly. However, the adjective lowly means “humble” or “low status.”

385. badly, promptly, gentle (Children who behave badly should be scolded promptly and then given a chance to improve with the gentle guidance of their caretakers.)

The adverb badly describes the verb behave, and the adverb promptly describes the verb scolded. The adjective gentle describes the noun guidance.

386. Ripe, sweet, bitter (Ripe plums taste sweet, but fruit picked too soon may be bitter.)

The adjective ripe describes the noun plums. Next up is the linking verb, taste, which must be followed by an adjective to complete the meaning of the subject-linking-verb expression, plums taste. The adjective sweet works well here, describing plums. The last portion of the sentence has another linking verb, may be, paired with the subject, fruit. Thus you need another adjective, bitter, to describe fruit.
387. rapidly, sharply, first (Walk rapidly down the hall and turn sharply when you reach the first door on the left.)

The adverb rapidly describes the verb walk, just as the adverb sharply describes the verb turn. First, an adjective, describes the noun door.

388. bad, insultingly, important (I feel bad that I spoke insultingly to my most important client.)

The verb feel is a linking verb, so the subject-verb statement needs something to complete the meaning. In this sentence you need the adjective bad, because that word describes the person speaking, I (the subject). (To feel badly refers to your ability to feel — how sensitive your fingers are, for example.) In the second blank, the adverb insultingly explains how I spoke. Because you’re describing a verb, you need the adverb. In the final blank, the adjective important describes the noun client.

389. merry, sad, nervous (Eileen appeared merry at the party, but afterwards she sounded sad and nervous.)

The linking verbs appeared and sounded are both completed by adjectives: merry, sad, and nervous. The first (merry) describes the subject of appeared (Eileen), and the second pair (sad, nervous) describes the subject of the verb sounded (she).

390. wicked, uncomfortable, short (Anything wicked makes us feel uncomfortable, at least for a short time.)

The adjective wicked describes the pronoun anything. (Yes, adjectives may follow the words they describe, though the usual position is in front.) The linking verb feel should be followed by an adjective, because uncomfortable describes the pronoun us, not the manner in which someone feels. Finally, the adjective short describes the noun time.

391. certainly, patiently, fun (It’s certainly true that young children often wait less patiently for their turns to play fun games.)

In this sentence, the adverb certainly describes the adjective true. (How true? Certainly true.) You also need an adverb to describe how children wait — less patiently. Finally, the adjective fun describes the noun games.

392. widely, surely, dismal (The widely seen broadcast was surely helpful to the show’s dismal ratings.)

The adverb widely describes the adjective seen, in the same way that the adverb surely describes the adjective helpful. The adjective dismal describes the noun ratings.

393. suddenly, firmly, politically (The senator suddenly interrupted to declare firmly that she was politically neutral.)

The adverb suddenly describes the verb interrupted, just as the adverb firmly describes the verb declare. For the last blank, opt for politically, an adverb that describes the adjective neutral.
394. an, an, a (an apple, an orange, a banana)

The article an precedes apple and orange because those words begin with vowel sounds. A precedes banana, because banana begins with a consonant.

395. a, a, an (a card, a printer, an outdoor trip)

The article a precedes card and printer because those words begin with consonant sounds. An precedes outdoor trip because outdoor begins with a vowel sound.

396. a, an, a (a bicycle, an old-fashioned girl, a modern woman)

The article a precedes bicycle and modern woman because those words begin with consonants. An precedes old-fashioned, which begins with a vowel sound.

397. an, a, a (an everyday dish, a light, a history)

The word everyday begins with a vowel, so it is preceded by an. Both light and history begin with consonants, so they are preceded by a.

398. an, an, an (an amusing story, an unusual incident, an original song)

The first word in each of these expressions (amusing, unusual, original) begins with a vowel sound, so the article an precedes each one.

399. an, a, an (an initial impression, a very happy child, an additional payment)

The words initial and additional begin with vowel sounds, so the article an should precede those words. A precedes very happy child because very begins with a consonant.

400. a, an, a (a historic occasion, an important dictionary, a telephone)

The word historic begins with a consonant, so it should be preceded by a. Surprised? A very long time ago, historic was pronounced differently, as if it began with a vowel. Therefore, you may hear people say an historic occasion, but the more modern expression is a historic occasion. The article an should precede important dictionary, because important begins with a vowel sound. A precedes telephone, which begins with a consonant.

401. an, a, a (an herb garden, a fir tree, a balcony)

The word herb, in American usage, has a silent h, so in America it’s preceded by an. (In Britain, the h is pronounced, so a is correct.) Both fir tree and balcony begin with consonants, so they’re preceded by a.

402. an, an, an (an orphan, an adventure, an e-mail message)

All three of these expressions (orphan, adventure, e-mail message) begin with a vowel sound, so all three should be preceded by an.
403. I. and II. (I. self-cleaning oven; II. best-dressed list)

The words preceding *oven* and *list* each form a single description, so I and II are correct. *Blue pens* (in Phrase III: *package of blue-pens*) should not be hyphenated, because *blue* describes *pens*.

404. I. and II. (I. recently passed law; II. brown-eyed boy)

*Recently* describes *passed*, so no hyphen is needed there. Phrase I is correct. *Brown-eyed* forms one description of *boy*, so the hyphen should be present. Phrase II is correct. Because *poorly* describes *expressed*, no hyphen is needed. Phrase III (*poorly-expressed idea*) is incorrect.

405. III. (sixth-grade math)

Is Phrase I (*third base coach*) referring to the third coach the manager sent to stand near a base, or is it the coach at third base? Without the hyphen, the meaning is unclear, and I is wrong. (Two meanings are possible: The *third-base coach* stands near third base; the *third base-coach* is the manager’s choice after his first two selections have left the game.) The adverb *very* never appears in a hyphenated expression, so Phrase II (*very-shallow water*) is wrong. Only with Phrase III do you have a winner. *Math* is described by one phrase, *sixth-grade*.

406. I. (nine-year-old kid)

Three words (*nine, year, old*) form one description of *kid*, so *nine-year-old* is correct. In Phrases II (*constantly-changing world*) and III (*nearly-enough candy*), the first word is an adverb describing an adjective — a situation that doesn’t call for a hyphen. Therefore, II and III are incorrect.

407. All of the phrases

In the first phrase (*tension-relieving exercise*), two words, *tension* and *relieving*, form one description of *exercise*. In the second phrase (*a job well done*), the description follows the noun (*job*) it’s describing, so *well done* isn’t hyphenated. In Phrase III (*newly formed committee*), the adverb *newly* describes *formed*, so it’s not hyphenated either. Every phrase is correct.

408. None of the phrases

In the first expression (*three-blind mice*), each description of *mice* (*three* and *blind*) is separate, so no hyphen is needed. In the second and third expressions (*very-happy puppy* and *less-valid argument*), *very* and *less* describe the adjectives that follow them (*happy* and *valid*). Therefore, they shouldn’t be hyphenated. All the phrases are wrong.

409. All of the phrases

Ordinary expressions such as *elementary school, Yankees baseball*, and *book review* aren’t hyphenated, even when they precede the word described. All the phrases are correct.
410.  I. and III. (I. more interesting story; III. extremely difficult problem)

The words more and extremely are both adverbs describing the adjectives they pre-cede (interesting, difficult). No hyphen is needed for either of these phrases. You do, however, need a hyphen for red-haired in Phrase II (red haired ape), because those words create a single description for ape.

411.  II. (language-proficiency test)

Phrase I (annual-dental exam) doesn’t need a hyphen because each word (annual, dental) describes exam separately. Language and proficiency, on the other hand, form one description of test, so you need a hyphen there. Mostly describes boring, so no hyphen is called for in the third phrase (mostly-boring material). Only Phrase II is correct.

412.  zookeeper

The prepositional phrase with a long broom describes zookeeper. The phrase answers an adjective question: Which one? (In other words, Which zookeeper? A zookeeper with a long broom.)

413.  sneezed

One of the adverb questions is “where?” So, where did Clara sneeze? Into her handkerchief. That prepositional phrase describes the verb sneezed.

414.  soared

The prepositional phrase above the clouds tells you where the kite soared. Therefore, it describes the verb soared.

415.  author

Which author? The author of the mystery series. The prepositional phrase of the mystery series describes the noun author.

416.  lay

Lay where? Lay over the scratched floor. Over the scratched floor is a prepositional phrase describing the verb lay.

417.  Monica

The verbal (sliding her finger around the bowl) gives you more information about Monica. Although the phrase resembles a verb, it doesn’t function as a verb in this sentence. The real verb is did realize.

418.  puppets

The clause which belonged to my grandmother gives you information about puppets, answering this question: Which puppets?
419. researched

The clause Before Dennis applied for a scholarship indicates when he researched the topic. Therefore, the description applies to the verb, researched.

420. Sheltering

The prepositional phrase, beneath their mother’s arms, tells you where the twins sheltered. Therefore, it describes the verbal sheltering.

421. one

How many photos did Shirley take of the famous monument? Only one. One is an adjective, telling you how many. Only emphasizes that number, only one, so only describes one.

422. boy

Which boy? The boy who cried wolf. Who cried wolf is a description of the noun boy.

423. were

The description although sometimes she seemed to benefit from too many coincidental clues explains under what conditions the stories were fun to read about. “Under what conditions?” is a question you ask to find any sort of adverb description, and adverbs describe verbs. The verb were is described by the underlined adverb clause.

424. water

Which water? Water flowing through the cracks in the foundation. The underlined verbal describes water.

425. discussed

Where did the manager discuss the price of the new uniforms? At his meeting. Did you stumble over last night? Those words explain when the manager discussed the price, just like at his meeting. At his meeting doesn’t describe last night. It’s attached to the verb, discussed.

426. an hour

Nearly is an adverb, describing (and limiting) the amount of time Tom was stirring the sauce. Not an hour, but nearly an hour. If you answered hour, your answer is also correct, as you zeroed in on the important word, hour.

427. dropped

The underlined expression is missing a couple of words — an implied subject (lumberjack) and verb (was). Add those into the sentence, and you see that an expression containing the subject, lumberjack, doesn’t describe the subject that does appear in the sentence (also lumberjack). Instead, the underlined expression tells you when the lumberjack dropped a few logs. While carrying wood describes the verb, dropped.
428. **everything**

What do you mean by *everything*? *Everything* the supervisors do? Think? Feel? No, just *everything their supervisors say*. The underlined expression, which is a clause, describes (and clarifies the meaning of) the pronoun *everything*.

429. **David, puppy**

What were *David and his puppy* doing? The verb in the sentence tells you that they knocked over a lamp and two tables. But *knocked* is the verb in the sentence, not a description. What else were *David and his puppy* doing? They were rolling together in a mock fight. This extra information is a description and doesn't form a matching subject-verb pair. Because it's extra information about *David and his puppy*, the underlined verbal describes *David* and *puppy*.

430. **traveled**

Why did *I* travel? *To see my family*. To see my family is a verbal (specifically, an infinitive) describing the verb *traveled*.

431. **Receiving**

This one is tricky. An introductory verb form, by the rules of proper English, must describe the subject of the sentence, which in this case is *principal*. However, the underlined words aren't an introductory verbal. They're part of a verbal phrase. In fact, they tell you why the action of *receiving* took place. Therefore, the underlined words describe *receiving*.

432. **II. (The ruby earrings that I wore to the dance rested on the nightstand next to my bed.)**

The key description here is *that I wore to the dance*. You have to place that description near the word it describes. Logic tells you that the description applies to *earrings*. In Sentence II, the description follows *earrings*. In Sentences I (The ruby earrings rested on the nightstand next to my bed that I wore to the dance) and III (The ruby earrings rested on the nightstand that I wore to the dance next to my bed), it appears elsewhere. Only Sentence II is correct.

433. **I. and II. (I. The crosstown bus filled with holiday shoppers inched slowly through heavy traffic. II. Filled with holiday shoppers, the crosstown bus inched slowly through heavy traffic.)**

Keep your eyes on the description *filled with holiday shoppers*. Logically, it applies to *bus*. Sentences I and II place it just after and just before *bus*, so both are correct. Sentence III (The crosstown bus inched slowly through heavy traffic filled with holiday shoppers) moves it to the end of the sentence — where it improperly describes *traffic*. The *traffic* may be the result of holiday shopping, but it isn’t *filled with holiday shoppers*. *The crosstown bus* is.
II. (Elena has only three children, though she had hoped for a larger family.)

The key word here is *only*, which describes the word it precedes. The intended meaning of the sentence is *only three*, not more. Sentence II expresses that idea. In Sentence I (*Elena only has three children, though she had hoped for a larger family*), *only* applies to *has* — not a logical expression. Similarly, in Sentence III (*Elena has three children, though she had only hoped for a larger family*) only describes *hoped*. Elena presumably has done more in her life than have children (Sentence I) and hope (Sentence III). She has probably done many things! Only Sentence II is correct.

II. and III. (II. George’s unnecessary scowling alarmed people. III. George’s scowling alarmed people unnecessarily.)

What’s unnecessary in this statement? The *scowling* or the fact that people were *alarmed*? In Sentence I (*George’s scowling unnecessarily alarmed people*), you can’t tell which meaning the writer wants to express. Sentences II and III are clear, though different. In II, the *scowling* is *unnecessary*. In III, he alarmed *unnecessarily*. Both II and III are correct.

I. (Tracy and the cat licking fur curled up on the couch.)

Who’s *licking*? Not Tracy. *The cat!* The description, therefore, must be close to *cat*. Because the description follows *cat* only in Sentence I, only Sentence I is correct. The placement of the description in Sentence II (*Tracy and the cat curled up on the couch licking fur*) means that the *couch* is grooming. Sentence III (*Licking fur, Tracy and the cat curled up on the couch*) is even more disturbing, because in that sentence, Tracy is *licking fur*.

II. (The letter in Alice’s mailbox said that she had won the lottery.)

The description *in Alice’s mailbox* applies to *letter*, not to where Alice . . . won the lottery (as in Sentence I: *The letter said that she had won the lottery in Alice’s mailbox* and Sentence III: *The letter said that in Alice’s mailbox she had won the lottery*). Only Sentence II places the description near *letter*, so only Sentence II is correct.

III. (He drove the car that he bought last year down the highway.)

The description *that he bought last year* describes *car* and must be next to that word. Only Sentence III places the description in that spot, so only III is correct. Sentences I (*He drove the car down the highway that he bought last year*) and II (*That he bought last year, he drove the car down the highway*) miss the mark.

II. and III. (II. Although the lobby renovation is taking longer than expected, we are sure that when it reopens in September, everyone will like the new floor tiles from Greece. III. Although the lobby renovation is taking longer than expected, when it reopens in September we are sure that everyone will like the new floor tiles from Greece.)

In Sentence I (*Although the lobby renovation is taking longer than expected, we are sure that everyone will like the new floor tiles from Greece when it reopens in September*), *Greece* is reopening in September. Because you can’t close a country, Sentence I is wrong. In Sentences II and III, the description *when it reopens in September* applies to *the lobby*. Those sentences are logical and correct.
440. **II. (II. My hands were slippery, and the dishes fell, breaking into a thousand pieces.)**

What broke into a thousand pieces? Not my hands, but the dishes. Only Sentence II places the description near dishes, where it belongs. In the other two choices, my hands are broken. That situation may be possible, but not a thousand pieces! Logic tells you to rule out Sentences I (My hands, breaking into a thousand pieces, were slippery, and the dishes fell) and III (Breaking into a thousand pieces, my hands were slippery, and the dishes fell).

441. **II. and III. (II. She won with almost 500 votes; the loser received 410. III. With almost 500 votes, she won; the loser received 410.)**

Almost limits the number of votes (500) that the victor received. Because almost applies to 500, it must precede that amount, as it does in Sentences II and III. Almost is misplaced in Sentence I (She almost won with 500 votes; the loser received 410).

442. **I. and II. (I. The highway boundary, painted white, was visible even at night. II. Painted white, the highway boundary was visible even at night.)**

The boundary is painted white, as Sentences I and II say. Sentence III (The highway boundary was visible even at night, painted white) has the night painted white — illogical and wrong.

443. **III. (Because Harry is on a diet that emphasizes fruit and vegetables, he bought ice cream just once a month.)**

Just applies to the frequency of Harry’s indulgence in ice cream, which is once a month. Therefore, just must precede once a month, as it does in Sentence III. Just is placed incorrectly in Sentences I (Because Harry is on a diet that emphasizes fruits and vegetables, he just bought ice cream once a month) and II (Because Harry is on a diet that emphasizes fruit and vegetables, he bought just ice cream once a month).

444. **II. and III. (II. Running into the woods, Jack avoided the mugger who was standing still and pointing a gun. III. Jack, running into the woods, avoided the mugger who was standing still and pointing a gun.)**

Logic tells you that if the mugger is standing still and pointing a gun, the mugger can’t also be running into the woods. Sentence I (Jack avoided the mugger who was standing still and pointing a gun, running into the woods) expresses that meaning, so it’s wrong. Sentences II and III give the run to Jack, so they are correct.

445. **II. and III. (II. During the class, Eleanor told me the teacher was boring. III. Eleanor told me the teacher was boring during the class.)**

In Sentence I (Eleanor told me during the class the teacher was boring) the description during the class may apply to either told or was. Because it’s unclear, Sentence I is incorrect. Sentence II clearly expresses the idea that Eleanor told me something during the class. Sentence III goes in the other direction, explaining that the teacher was boring during the class. Because they are clear, Sentences II and III are correct.
II. and III. (II. When you’re dealing with unreasonable people, making decisions causes arguments quickly. III. When you’re dealing with unreasonable people, making quick decisions causes arguments.)

In Sentence I (When you’re dealing with unreasonable people, making decisions quickly causes arguments), quickly is between making and causes. The description may refer to either action, so the sentence is unclear — and wrong. Sentences II and III express clear meanings. In II, the arguments pop up fast. In III, the warning is about quick decisions. Sentences II and III are correct.

III. (The nanny checked on the child lying asleep in her crib.)

Who’s lying asleep? The child. But in Sentences I (Lying asleep in her crib, the nanny checked on the child) and II (The nanny, lying asleep in her crib, checked on the child), the nanny is asleep because the description is in the wrong place. Only Sentence III places the description after child, where it belongs.

I. and II. (I. The house Agnes once visited sold for a million dollars. II. The house Agnes visited sold for a million dollars once.)

In Sentence III (The house Agnes visited once sold for a million dollars), once is between visited and sold. You can’t tell which meaning the writer intends. Sentence I clearly states that Agnes once visited. Sentence II gives the price the house sold for once. Sentences I and II are clear and correct.

III. (Testifying for the defense, Mr. Jones gave a compelling account of what he had witnessed.)

When a sentence begins with a verb form acting as a description, the subject must be the person performing that action. Only in Sentence III is Mr. Jones testifying, so only Sentence III is correct. Sentences I (Testifying for the defense, the eyewitness account from Mr. Jones was compelling) and II (Testifying for the defense, Mr. Jones’s eyewitness account was compelling) have the account doing the testifying.

II. and III. (II. The commissioner explained with a slide presentation the environmental impact of mining. III. With a slide presentation, the commissioner explained the environmental impact of mining.)

Slide presentations are powerful, but you can’t mine with them as Sentence I (The commissioner explained the environmental impact of mining with a slide presentation) implies. Instead, you explain with them. Sentences II and III express the idea that the commissioner used a slide presentation as he explained the environmental impact of mining. That’s the meaning you want, and that’s your answer.

I. (The tattoo artist injected ink into the client’s upper arm, which was thickly muscled and hard to draw on.)

What’s thickly muscled and hard to draw on? Not the tattoo artist, as Sentence II says (Thickly muscled and hard to draw on, the tattoo artist injected ink into the client’s upper arm), or the ink, as Sentence III states (The tattoo artist injected ink, thickly muscled and hard to draw on, into the client’s upper arm). The arm! Because Sentence I places the description near arm, it’s correct.
neater, less neat, neatest, least neat

More neater is wrong because you never combine more and -er. The others are correct. The one-syllable word neat adds -er and -est to create the comparative and superlative forms. All regular negative comparisons use less and least.

closer, less close, closest

The word close may be either an adjective (close call) or an adverb (come close). It forms comparisons with -er or -est. All regular negative comparisons use less and least.

more beautiful, most beautiful, less beautiful

Three-syllable words such as beautiful generally use more, most, less, and least to form comparisons, not -er or -est.

scarier, scariest, least scary

Two-syllable words such as scary often add -er or -est to form comparisons. When the base word ends with a consonant-y combination (in this case, -ry), you generally change the y to i before adding -er or -est. Never double up, adding these syllables as well as more or most. All regular negative comparisons use less and least.

less competent, least competent

All regular negative comparisons use less and least. Never double up, adding -er and -est along with less or least.

prettier, prettiest, less pretty

When a short word ends in a consonant-y combination, you generally change the y to i before adding -er or -est. Such is the case with pretty. All regular negative comparisons use less and least.

more softly, most softly, less softly

Many adverbs, such as softly, use more, most, less, and least to form comparisons.

faster, fastest, less fast, least fast

Fast may be either an adjective (fast car), or an adverb (drive fast). Like many single-syllable words, the comparative and superlative forms rely on -er and -est. All regular negative comparisons use less and least.

tall, taller, less tall

The single-syllable adjective tall forms comparisons with -er and -est. All regular negative comparisons use less and least.

more rapidly, most rapidly, less rapidly, least rapidly

Like many adverbs, rapidly forms comparisons with more, most, less, and least.
462. more concerned, less concerned, most concerned, least concerned

The two-syllable word concerned relies on more, most, less, and least to form comparisons.

463. more nimbly

Most adverbs ending in -ly form comparisons with more, most, less, and least. Never double up, adding both -er and -est to a form already containing more, most, less, or least.

464. merrier

The adjective merry forms comparisons with -er and -est. Because it ends in a consonant-y combination (in this case, -ry), you change the y to i before adding -er or -est. Never double up, adding both -er and -est to a form containing more, most, less, or least.

465. more loudly, most loudly

The adverb loudly forms comparisons with more and most.

466. less curved, least curved, most curved

The adjective curved forms comparisons with more, most, less, and least.

467. friendlier, friendliest

Friendy is an adjective, even though it ends with the usual adverb syllable, -ly. To form the comparative and superlative forms, change the y to i and add -er and -est. Never double up, adding both -er and -est to a form containing more, most, less, or least.

468. more artificially, most artificially, less artificially, least artificially

The four-syllable adverb artificially forms comparisons with more, most, less, and least.

469. None of the choices

Surprised? Despite all those vampire films and novels, dead is an absolute state. You either are or you aren’t dead. No comparisons allowed!

470. better, best

Comparisons with the adjective good or the adverb well are irregular. The comparative form is better, and the superlative is best. To make a negative comparison, use worse or worst.

471. more, most

Much forms comparisons irregularly. More and most are the comparative and superlative forms. The negative comparisons are less and least.
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472. worse, worst

Bad is an irregular adjective when it comes to comparisons. Use worse or worst.

473. None of the choices

A trick question! Unique is an absolute that can never be compared. The word means “one of a kind.” The fact that many people say more unique doesn’t make that expression correct. Something is either unique or not. No degrees of uniqueness exist.

474. better, best

The adverb well forms comparisons irregularly. The comparative and superlative forms of well are better and best.

475. more nearly perfect

Yes, it’s true that the Founding Fathers of the United States talked about “a more perfect union,” but if grammar experts had been involved, they would have said “a more nearly perfect union” instead. Why? Perfect is an absolute. You can approach that state, but once you’re there, you can’t be compared.

476. worse

The adverb badly forms comparisons irregularly, never employing more or most. You go from badly to worse and then to worst as you intensify the degree of badness. To move in the opposite direction, subtracting intensity, steer clear of less badly or least badly; opt for better or best instead.

477. happier than her sister (Alice is happier than her sister.)

The original comparison is incomplete. Hearing only the underlined words, you have no way to figure out whether Alice is happier than a clam or Alice is happier now that she’s no longer in jail or whatever.

478. No change needed

Although the comparison isn’t spelled out in the original sentence, the meaning is implied. Peter lost his salary when he quit. Because the meaning is clear, the original needs no change. Did you opt for poorer than he had been? Those words also create a good comparison, but their addition isn’t necessary.

479. more famous than any other (George Washington may be more famous than any other President of the United States.)

George Washington, for those of you who slept through history class, was a President of the United States. The original compares him to the group as if he were not a member of that group. Insert other and you place George in the group of presidents, where he belongs.
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<td>480.</td>
<td>as (This allergy season is as bad as last year’s season.)</td>
<td>The expression <em>equally as</em> isn’t proper English. Drop <em>equally</em> and you’re fine. If you truly want to include <em>equally</em>, you can say, <em>equally bad compared to</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>481.</td>
<td>more freckles (Compared to his brother, Levi has more freckles.)</td>
<td>When you compare two elements (in this case, <em>Levi and his brother</em>), go for the comparative form, which you usually create with -er or more.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>482.</td>
<td>No change needed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>483.</td>
<td>less (Dmitri Smith and his wife Alicia Alvarez are both dentists, but Alicia earns less.)</td>
<td>Only two people are being compared here, so the comparative form, <em>less</em>, is what you need.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>484.</td>
<td>the curviest tail of all birds (My parakeet Robbie has the curviest tail of all birds.)</td>
<td>The original sentence is incomplete. You know that Robbie’s tail is curved, but you have no basis for comparison until you add <em>of all birds</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>485.</td>
<td>less than her friend Bob does or less than she likes Bob (Veronica likes Archie less than her friend Bob does or Veronica likes Archie less than she likes Bob.)</td>
<td>The original sentence is vague. Does Veronica like Archie less than she likes her friend Bob? Or does Veronica like Archie less than her friend Bob likes Archie? Either is possible. The original sentence needs clarification.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>486.</td>
<td>more important than any other (The invention of the touch screen was more important than any other technological innovation of that year.)</td>
<td>The <em>touch screen</em> is a <em>technological innovation</em>, but the original sentence removes it from that group. Insert <em>other</em> and you solve the problem by placing the <em>touch screen</em> in the group of <em>technological innovations</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>487.</td>
<td>than most modern novelists’ books (Ending on page 1,000, that Victorian novel is longer than most modern novelists’ books.)</td>
<td>A thousand pages is a lot, but people old enough to write novels are longer than, say, the 6-inch thickness of a 1,000-page book. In other words, the original compares a book to people, but you really want to compare a book to other books.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>488.</td>
<td>No change needed</td>
<td>The comparison, at first glance, appears incomplete, but it’s actually implied. Fred looks <em>dumber</em> than he would if he were not so <em>nervous and self-conscious</em> and had he tried to avoid looking <em>dumb</em>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Part II: The Answers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>489.</strong></td>
<td>incomparable (After examining 50 antique statues, the curator said that the one from Mesopotamia was incomparable.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>490.</strong></td>
<td>No change needed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>491.</strong></td>
<td>than any other fruit (“Oranges are juicier than any other fruit,” exclaimed Ann as she bit into a freshly picked piece.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>492.</strong></td>
<td>less comprehensible than Alicia’s (Julia’s accent is less comprehensible than Alicia’s.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>493.</strong></td>
<td>round, as is (A circle that is 2 inches in diameter is round, as is one with a 4-inch diameter.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>494.</strong></td>
<td>the messiest in the neighborhood (Marcy loaned money to her friend, whose house is the messiest in the neighborhood.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>495.</strong></td>
<td>less efficient than (Henry’s strategy for achieving a perfect score on the SAT was less efficient than mine.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>496.</strong></td>
<td>the worst one (Of all the minutes in a day, the baby had to pick the worst one to fall asleep!)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**489.**
The word *incomparable* means “cannot be compared” or “unique.” Therefore, you can’t use *incomparable* in a comparison.

**490.**
Two states of being are compared in this sentence: how Elizabeth Bennet is and how she thinks she is. Because you’re comparing two things, the comparative form, *less self-aware*, is correct.

**491.**
The original sentence compares *oranges* to *any fruit*. However, *oranges* are *fruit*. Insert *other* to place *oranges* inside the group.

**492.**
The original sentence compares *accent* to a person (*Alicia*). You should compare one *accent* to another. By changing *Alicia* to *Alicia’s*, *accent* is implied (*less comprehensible than Alicia’s accent*).

**493.**
*Round* is an absolute. Either something is *round* or it isn’t. No comparisons allowed!

**494.**
A neighborhood contains more than two houses, so the superlative form, *messiest*, is called for here.

**495.**
Two things are being compared in this sentence: *Henry’s strategy* and *mine*. The comparative form, *less efficient than*, is appropriate for this sentence.

**496.**
Picture this scenario: Your kid is in the aisle seat of a plane, and after screaming for the first two hours of the flight, he falls asleep. At that exact moment the guy in the window seat needs the restroom. In terms of grammar, you’re comparing one minute to the other 1,439 in the day, so the superlative form, *worst*, is proper here.
497. as heavy as, perhaps even heavier than (My suitcase is as heavy as, perhaps even heavier than, yours.)

The rule on double comparisons is simple: Each comparison must be complete. In the original sentence, *as heavy* is part of a comparison. Add *as* after *heavy* and the comparison is complete: *as heavy as*. The second comparison, *heavier than*, is already complete.

498. No change needed

Three people appear in this sentence: *George, Mac, and Nelson*. Nevertheless, the comparative form (*better*) is appropriate here because of the words *either/or*. With *either/or*, you’re comparing *George* to *Mac* first and then *George* to *Nelson*. In other words, you’re making two separate, two-person comparisons. No change is needed.

499. curlier than Anthony’s (Sidney’s hair, before his recent trip to the salon, was curlier than Anthony’s.)

In the original sentence you’re comparing *Sidney’s hair* to *Anthony* — a person! Unless Anthony curls up like a pretzel, the comparison is illogical. Change *Anthony* to *Anthony’s* or to *Anthony’s hair* and the sentence makes sense.

500. No change needed

Here you compare two people — *the two union representatives*. To compare two elements, the comparative form (*more effective*) is correct.

501. as bright as, if not brighter than (This lamp is as bright as, if not brighter than, all the others in my house.)

The rule on double comparisons is simple. Each must be complete. In the original sentence, *as bright* is part of a comparison. Add *as* after *bright* and the comparison is complete: *as bright as*. The second comparison, *brighter than*, is already complete.

502. I, Thanksgiving, Mary’s (I celebrate Thanksgiving with my family at Mary’s house.)

The personal pronoun *I* is always capitalized, as are the names of holidays (*Thanksgiving*) and people (*Mary*).

503. The, President, Fowler (The ambassador told President Fowler that war was avoidable if both countries signed the treaty.)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized. A title preceding and attached to a name is capitalized; all proper names are capitalized. Titles without names (*ambassador*, in this sentence) generally aren’t.

504. Yesterday, Peter, God (Yesterday Peter expressed his belief that God is present at all times.)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized, as are proper names (*Peter*, in this sentence). Traditionally, references to a deity are capitalized.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>505.</th>
<th>Recently, Professor, Smith (Recently Professor Smith, dean of faculty, revised the requirements for promotion to department head.)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The first word of a sentence is always capitalized, as are proper names (Smith, in this sentence). A title preceding and attached to a name (Professor) is capitalized; titles following names (dean of faculty, in this sentence) or not attached to names (department head) generally aren’t capitalized.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>506.</th>
<th>The, African, American (The display of African-American art at the museum drew huge crowds; more than 50 artists were represented.)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The first word of a sentence is always capitalized. Ethnic backgrounds that refer to countries are capitalized.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>507.</th>
<th>Did, Aunt, Elizabeth, Grandma, Grandpa (Did you know that Aunt Elizabeth always invites Grandma and Grandpa to her son’s birthday party?)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The first word of a sentence is always capitalized, as are proper names (Elizabeth) and the titles that precede them (Aunt) or that function as names (Grandma, Grandpa). When a relationship word doesn’t function as a name (her son, in this sentence), the relationship word (son) isn’t capitalized.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>508.</th>
<th>Louise, Smith, Medico, Incorporated, Vice, President, Ellis (Louise Smith, chief of operations at Medico Incorporated, introduced Vice President Ellis to the staff.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The first word of a sentence is always capitalized, as are proper names (Louise, Smith, Ellis). Company names (Medico Incorporated) are also capitalized. Titles preceding and attached to a name (Vice President) are capitalized. Titles following a name (chief of operations) are generally written in lowercase.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>509.</th>
<th>Conchetta, President, United, States (Conchetta, a distant cousin, recently met the President of the United States.)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Proper names (Conchetta) are always capitalized. Titles appearing without names (President of the United States) are capitalized only when the office referred to is of the highest national or international importance. Unimportant words in a title (of, the) are in lowercase. Family relationships (cousin) are in lowercase unless the relationship substitutes for a name.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>510.</th>
<th>A, Ballocco’s, Italian, Specialties (A famous grocery, Ballocco’s Italian Specialties, has both a website and a physical store.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The first word of a sentence is always capitalized. The name of a business (Ballocco’s Italian Specialties) is capitalized. Were you confused about the official name of the business? The commas are a clue, as they set off the name from the rest of the sentence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<tr>
<th>511.</th>
<th>The, Lord (The preacher explained in detail how to worship the Lord.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The first word of a sentence is always capitalized. References to a deity traditionally are capitalized. A title without a name (preacher) should be in lowercase.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
512. The, General, Rodriguez (The district attorney gave me five pages of testimony from the principal prosecution witness, General Rodriguez.)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized, as are proper names (Rodriguez). Titles preceding and attached to a name (General) are capitalized. Titles without a name attached (district attorney, witness) are generally written in lowercase.

513. His, Polish, Aunt, May (His Polish girlfriend taught Aunt May and me how to dance the polka, playing many songs suitable for that type of dance.)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized. References to ethnicity (Polish) are generally capitalized, as are proper names (May) and titles preceding and attached to them (Aunt). In this sentence, polka is clearly identified as a type of dance, not the name of a specific song or choreographed routine, so polka should be written in lowercase.

514. One, Secretary-General, United, Nations, Dag, Hammarskjold, Nobel, Peace, Prize (One famous Secretary-General of the United Nations, Dag Hammarskjold, received the Nobel Peace Prize in 1961.)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized. Titles of the highest national or international importance (Secretary-General) are capitalized even when they don’t precede a name. Proper names (Dag Hammarskjold) are capitalized, as is the name of a specific organization (United Nations) or award (Nobel Peace Prize).

515. Janice, Jones, God, His (Janice Jones, treasurer of our religious study group, asked for a moment of silence to praise God and His works.)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized. Proper names (Janice Jones) are capitalized. Traditionally, all references to God, including pronouns (His), are capitalized. Titles following a name (treasurer of our religious study group) are generally written in lowercase.

516. The, Greek, American, Archbishop, Kerakalos, Greek, Historical, Society (The annual Greek-American parade takes place tomorrow, according to Archbishop Kerakalos, the head of the Greek Historical Society.)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized. References to ethnicity (Greek-American) are generally capitalized, as are proper names (Kerkalos) and titles preceding and attached to them (Archbishop). The specific name of an organization (Greek Historical Society) is also capitalized.

517. How, European, International, League, Ice, Hockey (How many non-European hockey players participate in the International League of Ice Hockey, the organization that oversees the schedule and salaries?)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized. Ethnicities (European) are generally capitalized, but the prefix non- is not. The name of an organization (International League of Ice Hockey) is capitalized, except for unimportant words such as of.
518. My, Jeffrey, O., Phelps, Oscar, Best, Supporting, Actor (My favorite film star, Jeffrey O. Phelps, won the Oscar for Best Supporting Actor.)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized. Proper names, including middle initials, are capitalized. Because Oscar is the name of a famous award, it is also capitalized, as is the category, Best Supporting Actor.

519. The, Daniel, Ellis, Department, Parks, Hurricane, Sandy (The mayor fired Daniel Ellis, a supervisor with the Department of Parks, after Hurricane Sandy.)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized, as are proper names (Daniel, Ellis). The important words in a name of a department or organization (Department, Parks) are capitalized. The name of an important event (Hurricane Sandy) is capitalized.

520. Her, Consolidated, Edison (Her brother worked for Consolidated Edison, which supplies electricity to the city, until 2012, when he retired with the rank of vice president.)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized. The name of a company (Consolidated Edison) is capitalized. Titles not attached to a name (vice president) are not capitalized, unless the position is of the highest national or international importance.

521. Does, Mother, Uncle, Bill, Alabama (Does Mother know that Uncle Bill just left for Alabama, where he will run for senator?)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized, as are proper names (Bill, Alabama) and the titles attached to them (Uncle) and titles used as names (Mother). Titles not attached to names (senator) are generally not capitalized.

522. My, French, Tunisia, Africa (My French teacher is from Tunisia, a country in Africa where that language is widely spoken.)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized. References to countries and the names of continents (French, Tunisia, Africa) are also capitalized.

523. When, Alan, Monday, December (When Alan was a sophomore, he spent every Monday in December working on a mural for the school cafeteria.)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized, as are proper names (Alan). Capitalize the days of the week (Monday) and the months of the year (December). Don’t capitalize years in school (sophomore).

524. Last, Marian, Every (Last winter Marian said, “Every snowy day is a treasure.”)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized, as are proper names (Marian). Every rates a capital because the first word in a quotation with a speaker tag (in this sentence, Marian said) is capitalized. Seasons of the year (winter) are written in lowercase.

525. Lucy (Lucy loves her history class, but she excels in science and math.)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized, and this one is also a proper name — another reason for a capital letter. School subjects, unless they are also the names of countries or languages, aren’t capitalized.
In, Introduction, Biology, Nuclear, Physics (In the spring you should take Introduction to Biology instead of Nuclear Physics.)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized. Capitalize the important words in the names of courses (Introduction, Biology, Nuclear, Physics). Don’t capitalize seasons (spring).

Lou (Lou thinks that sandals are “light and airy.”)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized, and this one is also a proper name — another reason for a capital letter. Don’t capitalize the first word of a quotation that is tucked into the sentence without a speaker tag, such as Lou said.

To, Rocky, Mountains, I (To reach the Rocky Mountains, I drove west for three days last summer.)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized. You should also capitalize the names of specific geographical places (Rocky Mountains). The is not part of the name of most places, by the way. The personal pronoun I is always capitalized. Don’t capitalize directions (west) or seasons (summer).

Ruining, April (Ruining the entire month, April 15th is the deadline for filing tax returns for each year.)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized. Capitalize the name of a month, but not the generic terms month and year.

I, Jean, I (“I invest in fine art,” remarked Jean, “because I like to support local artists.”)

The personal pronoun I is always capitalized, as are proper names (Jean). The second half of an interrupted quotation isn’t capitalized, so because should be in lowercase.

Joe, Tribeca, Manhattan, Midwest (Joe lives in Tribeca, a neighborhood in Manhattan, but he’s originally from the Midwest.)

Proper names of people (Joe) or places, including neighborhoods (Tribeca) and areas (Manhattan, Midwest), are capitalized. The generic word neighborhood should be written in lowercase.

Having, Johnny (Having gobbled up my french fries, Johnny then wiped his greasy fingers on my best egyptian cotton towels.)

The first word of a sentence is always capitalized, as are proper names (Johnny). In this sentence, don’t capitalize french or egyptian. When those words refer to the country or language, they are capitalized. As part of common phrases (french fries, egyptian cotton), they should be in lowercase.

The, Love, Song, Benny, Jenny (The Love Song of Benny and Jenny)

The first word of every title and subtitle should be capitalized. Here you have no subtitle. You should also capitalize the important nouns (Love, Song, Benny, Jenny) and verbs, as well as pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs (though none are present here). Don’t capitalize unimportant words (of, and) unless they begin the title or subtitle.
### 534. Penicillin, An (Penicillin: An examination of the safety and effectiveness of a common antibiotic)

In sentence style, popular for scientific papers, only the first word of the title and subtitle and any proper names are capitalized.

### 535. Superbug, Snakefeet, Fish, Teeth, A, History, Three, Rock, Bands (Superbug, Snakefeet, and Fish Teeth: A History of Three Rock Bands)

The first word of every title (*Superbug*) and subtitle (*A*) should be capitalized. You should also capitalize the important nouns (*Snakefeet, Fish, Teeth, History, Bands*) and verbs, as well as pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs (*Three, Rock*). Don’t capitalize unimportant words (*and* and *of*, in this title) unless they begin the title or subtitle.

### 536. Serafina, My, Love, How, Two, Star-Crossed, Lovers, Met, Their, Fate (Serafina My Love: How Two Star-Crossed Lovers Met Their Fate)

All the words in this title are important, so all are capitalized. Did you notice that both words of a hyphenated form are capitalized? It’s *Star-Crossed*, not *Star-crossed*.


In sentence style, used for scientific papers, only the first word of the title and subtitle and any proper names are capitalized.

### 538. Hospital, A (Hospital sanitary practices: A guide for administrators)

In sentence style, used for scientific papers, only the first word of the title and subtitle and any proper names are capitalized.


The first word of the title is always capitalized, as are all nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, and verbs (*You, Get, More, You, Pay, Bargaining*). Unimportant words — conjunctions such as *than* and prepositions such as *for* and *by* — should be in lowercase.

### 540. Basil, An (Basil: An invasive crop or helpful newcomer?)

In sentence style, used for scientific papers, only the first word of the title and subtitle and any proper names are capitalized.

### 541. Are, You, Listening, A, Musician’s, Memoir, Auditory, Education (Are You Listening? A Musician’s Memoir of an Auditory Education)

The first word of the title and subtitle are always capitalized (*Are, A*) as are the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, and verbs (*You, Listening, Musician’s, Memoir, Auditory, Education*). Unimportant words (prepositions and articles such as *of* and *and*) aren’t capitalized unless they lead off the title or subtitle.

### 542. ham, eggs, bacon, cereal, milk, and toast

Every item in the list except for the last one (*toast*) is followed by a comma. **Note:** The comma before *and* is optional.
543. **drizzle, hurricane, hail, sleet, and rain**

Every item in the list except for the last one (rain) is followed by a comma. **Note:** The comma before and is optional.

544. **No commas needed**

Two items joined by and should not be separated by commas.

545. **No commas needed**

Surprised? When conjunctions (and, in this list) separate every descriptive word (vanilla, chocolate, strawberry), no commas are needed. Ice cream is one food, which is described by vanilla and chocolate and strawberry, so a comma should not be placed between ice and cream.

546. **slid, teetered, and fell flat**

The three verbs (slid, teetered, fell) form a list. A comma is required between slid and teetered. The comma preceding and is optional. The last word, flat, describes fell and is not part of the list. Therefore, it’s not separated by a comma from the word it describes.

547. **the dirty, ripped, faded shoes**

When a list of descriptions precedes the word they describe, the descriptive words are separated by commas. No comma separates an article (the) from the first description (dirty) or the last word on the list (faded) from the word it describes (shoes).

548. **three blind, noisy mice**

Numbers and articles, such as three in this list, are generally not separated from the list by a comma. No comma separates the last word on the list (noisy) from the word it describes (mice).

549. **a constantly changing, mysterious personality**

Articles, such as a in this list, are generally not separated from the list by a comma. No comma separates the last word on the list (mysterious) from the word it describes (personality). Constantly describes changing, so it forms one description. No comma should be inserted between two words that form one description.

550. **my oldest, kindest friend and her extremely strict parents**

This short list has two basic elements, friend and parents. No comma should be placed before and in a two-item list. Friend is described by the list my oldest kindest. No comma ever separates a possessive pronoun (such as my or her) from the list it appears in. Oldest and kindest, on the other hand, should be separated by a comma. No comma may appear after kindest and strict because you can’t separate a preceding description from the word it describes (friend and parents). Finally, no comma belongs between extremely and strict, because extremely describes strict.
551. became angry, went to the boss, and vented his passionately held beliefs

On a basic level, this is a three-item list (became, went, vented). Each item is separated by commas, with an optional comma preceding and. The possessive pronoun his should never be set off by commas. Passionately describes held, so those words shouldn’t be separated by a comma either.

552. algebra, which I hated; geometry, which I loved; and calculus, which I enjoyed

The three items in this list, at their most basic, are algebra, geometry, and calculus. Each of these items carries a description. The descriptions (which I hated, which I loved, which I enjoyed) are properly divided from the word they describe by commas. Therefore, semicolons are needed to separate the three items on the basic list. Semicolons emphasize the separation between items on the list when commas are present within the items.

553. your penetrating, unusually creative mind

Possessive pronouns, such as your in this list, aren’t separated from the list by a comma. Don’t place a comma after unusually because unusually describes another item on the list (creative), not mind. In a sense, unusually creative is one element of the list. The final word of the description, creative, should not be separated from the word it describes.

554. Peter Walsh, her former sweetheart; Richard Dalloway, her husband; Hugh Whitbread, an old friend

Semicolons help to separate items in a list when the items contain commas, clarifying where one item begins and another ends. Without semicolons, the reader can’t tell how many items you’re discussing — whether, for example, Peter Walsh and her former sweetheart are the same person or two people, one named and one not. The three people in this list are, therefore, separated by semicolons. The description of each person is separated from the name by a comma.

555. No commas needed

This list of verbs has only two elements: sealed and mailed. Don’t separate two elements on a list with a comma. Did you stumble over crucially important? In that expression, crucially describes important. Don’t separate the word described from its description.

556. five sides, equal in length, width, and height

Sides has two descriptions — one before (five) and one after (equal). The preceding description (five) should not be cut off from the word it describes by a comma. The description that follows sides, however, is set off by a comma. Now examine the words that come after equal. They form one description. In length, width, and height is a prepositional phrase describing equal. The elements of the list (length, width, height) are separated by commas. Note: The comma before and is optional.
**557.** No commas needed

Which plant are you talking about? You don’t know until the identifying information (that has drooping leaves) is supplied. Because the information is essential, no commas surround it.

**558.** No commas needed

The sentence clearly states that not all football players favor different equipment. (The quarterback disagrees.) Only those players who are injured want a change. The information supplied by who are injured is essential identification and should not be set off by commas.

**559.** Street, place (The corner of Second Avenue and Fifth Street, where the accident took place, now has a stoplight.)

By the time you get to the description (where the accident took place), you already know which corner you’re discussing — Second Avenue and Fifth Street. Therefore, the description is nonessential and should be set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.

**560.** No commas needed

The statement about five siblings tells you that Alice has more than one cousin. Therefore, which one are you talking about? Alice’s cousin is too general, so the name (Charles) is essential and should not be set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.

**561.** ceiling, cracks (My bedroom ceiling, which has three long cracks, will be repaired next week.)

You start off knowing that the sentence is talking about my bedroom ceiling. Therefore, the information following ceiling (which has three long cracks) is extra information and should be set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.

**562.** No commas needed

The house is a general statement. You can’t tell which house until the identifier, I grew up in, shows up. Because the information is essential, no commas should surround it.

**563.** Johnny, cars (Johnny, playing with his toy cars, was not old enough to drive a real vehicle.)

You know the name of the person discussed in the sentence (Johnny), so the fact that he’s playing with his toy cars is extra information, not essential. Extra information should be set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.

**564.** chloride, salt (Sodium chloride, better known as salt, is a flavorful addition to most meals.)

The chemical name identifies the ingredient; the phrase better known as salt is helpful — but nonessential — information and should be surrounded by commas.
565. **No commas needed**

Which *toddler* didn’t want to leave? In real life, all of them. In grammar, though, you can’t tell until the toddler is identified as *playing in the sandbox*. Because the information is essential, no commas are needed.

566. **board, Smith** *(The chairman of the board, Mr. Smith, resigned yesterday.)*

The title *chairman of the board* identifies the person you’re discussing, so the name *(Mr. Smith)* is extra information and is set off by commas.

567. **No commas needed**

Which law? You don’t know until you learn more from the phrase *enacted at midnight*. As essential identification, the phrase isn’t set off by commas.

568. **blue, color** *(The office decorated in blue, our state color, displays paintings with patriotic themes.)*

Which office? Who knows? You don’t, until you read the identifier *(decorated in blue)*. The identifier adds essential information, so you don’t want to separate it from *office*. The description, *our state color*, is not essential because you already know that you’re talking about the color *blue*. Therefore, *our state color* should be set off by commas from the rest of the sentence.

569. **o’clock, rings** *(Six o’clock, when my alarm rings, is the time I jump onto my exercise bike and pedal for an hour.)*

The time is identified *(six o’clock)*, so *when my alarm rings* is extra information that should be set off by commas.

570. **No commas needed**

Which *cheerleader*? You don’t know until you read the identifying information *(who doesn’t concentrate)*. Identifying information isn’t set off by commas.

571. **No commas needed**

To understand this sentence, you have to think of the first part with and without a comma. With a comma, the statement *I didn’t join the club* is absolute. The speaker, *I*, is not in the club, and the information *because we’re friends* is a reason. (Maybe the speaker is afraid to compete with the friend.) Without a comma, the speaker did join the club, but not *because we’re friends* but rather because the speaker is *interested in its activities*. The second version makes more sense, so no comma sets off *because we’re friends*.

572. **salads, dill** *(The herb Debby sprinkles on most of her salads, dill, is easy to grow.)*

This sentence presents two problems. Take them one by one. First, which *herb* are you discussing? You can’t tell until you learn that it’s what * Debby sprinkles on her salads*. Because that information is essential, no commas surround it. Second, the herb is identified as *dill*. You’ve already supplied one identifier *( Debby sprinkles on her salads)*, so this one is extra and should be set off by commas.
573. No commas needed

When did Catherine get the giggles? You don’t know until you reach the clause (as she told the story). The information is essential and isn’t set off by commas.

574. you (Sarah won’t slap you, because she avoids violence at all costs.)

With a comma after you, the next bit of information is extra — just a reason why Sarah won’t slap you. You may want to know the reason, but even if you don’t, you don’t have to brace for a slap. The fact that she avoids violence at all costs means that the first statement is absolute — no exceptions.

575. made, Caddyshack (I have seen the funniest film ever made, Caddyshack, about 30 times.)

The funniest film ever made is a personal statement. You may select something else. Within this sentence, however, the funniest film ever made is enough to identify what the speaker is discussing — his or her opinion. Therefore, the name of the film is extra and should be surrounded by commas.

576. play (Nearly every student of English literature loves Shakespeare’s best play, Hamlet.)

Shakespeare’s best play is considered adequate identification in this sentence, so the name of the play is extra information, set off by a comma from the rest of the sentence. Yes, you can argue that a reader may choose King Lear or Romeo and Juliet or another work as Shakespeare’s best play. In the context of the sentence, though, the name isn’t essential.

577. Yes (Yes, I hate geraniums and roses.)

Yes serves as an introduction to this sentence and should be set off by a comma.

578. Max, however (Max, however, would like to pilot a jet.)

The interrupter however should be set off by commas in this sentence. Place one comma after Max and another after however.

579. Oscar (Oscar, I think you could become a superstar.)

In this sentence Oscar is being addressed. A direct-address word is always set off by commas from the rest of the sentence.

580. door (Eloise closed the door, and then she locked it.)

When you have two complete sentences joined by a conjunction (and), insert a comma before the conjunction.

581. No commas needed

In this sentence you have one subject (clerk) matched by two verbs (slapped, placed). No comma precedes the conjunction (and) in a subject-verb-verb sentence.
582. room, Henry (Go to your room, Henry, before I lose my temper!)

In this sentence the speaker is talking to Henry. The word Henry is a direct-address expression and should be set off by commas — both before and after.

583. Oh (Oh, no one remembered to bring the ketchup or mustard!)

The introductory word oh should be separated from the rest of the sentence with a comma. No comma should divide the two items that no one remembered — ketchup or mustard.

584. Really, kitchen (Really, she’s so elegant that I can’t imagine her in a kitchen, laundry, or basement.)

The first word, Really, introduces the sentence but isn’t attached to it grammatically. Separate it from the sentence with a comma. In the list of places the speaker imagines that she won’t go, place a comma after kitchen. (The comma after laundry is optional.)

585. park (He walked two miles through the park, but he took a bus home.)

Two complete sentences are joined by a conjunction (but). A comma should precede the conjunction.

586. spout (The itsy-bitsy spider went up the water spout, you know.)

Place a comma after spout to separate you know, which is a comment on the statement about the spider. Without the commas, you know appears to identify which spout the speaker is discussing — the spout [that] you know.

587. Nevertheless (Nevertheless, you must complete all your chores before you watch the playoffs.)

The introductory word nevertheless should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

588. broken, answer, therefore (Your calculator is broken, and your answer, therefore, is incorrect.)

First, you have two complete sentences joined by a conjunction (and). You must place a comma before the conjunction. Next, you have to surround the interrupter, therefore, with commas.

589. way, Gloria, open (By the way, Gloria, your zipper is open, and so is your mouth.)

In this sentence you’re dealing with three different situations. First, use a comma to separate the introductory phrase, by the way, from the rest of the sentence. Next, surround the direct-address name, Gloria, with commas. Finally, place a comma before the conjunction (and) that joins two complete sentences.

590. plane (Logging more than a thousand hours flying that plane, Albert is an expert pilot.)

An introductory verb form (Logging more than a thousand hours flying that plane) should be set off by a comma from the rest of the sentence.
591. beginners (Although it’s too difficult for beginners, the course is great for advanced students.)

When an adverb clause (a subject-verb statement explaining how, when, where, why, or under what condition) begins a sentence, it is always set off from the rest of the sentence by a comma. In this sentence, although it’s too difficult for beginners is an adverb clause.

592. Dora’s, stars’, girl’s

Dora is a singular noun. Form the possessive by adding ’s. Stars is a regular, plural noun. Form the possessive by adding an apostrophe after the s. Girl is a singular noun. Form the possessive by adding ’s.

593. lamps’, Robin’s, pencils’

Lamps is a regular, plural noun. Form the possessive by adding an apostrophe after the s. Robin is a singular noun. Form the possessive by adding ’s. Pencils is a regular, plural noun. Form the possessive by adding an apostrophe after the s.

594. lawyer’s, peanuts’, parakeet’s

Lawyer is a singular noun. Form the possessive by adding ’s. Peanuts is a regular, plural noun. Form the possessive by adding an apostrophe after the s. Parakeet is a singular noun. Form the possessive by adding ’s.

595. child’s, children’s, boys’

Child is a singular noun. Form the possessive by adding ’s. Children is an irregular, plural noun. Form the possessive by adding ’s. Boys is a regular, plural noun. Form the possessive by adding an apostrophe after the s.

596. men’s, rugs’, dinosaur’s

Men is an irregular, plural noun. Form the possessive by adding ’s. Rugs is a regular, plural noun. Form the possessive by adding an apostrophe after the s. Dinosaur is a singular noun. Form the possessive by adding ’s.

597. workbook’s, french fries’, women’s

Workbook is a singular noun. Form the possessive by adding ’s. French fries is a regular plural noun, even though it contains two words. Concentrate on the second word, fries, and follow the usual rule for regular, plural possesses, adding an apostrophe after the s. Women is an irregular plural, so add ’s to form the possessive.

598. son-in-law’s, deer’s, Martin’s

To form the possessive of a singular or plural hyphenated noun (son-in-law), add ’s after the last word. Deer is a strange word because it serves as both the singular and plural. No worries: Just add ’s as you do with any irregular plural to create a possessive form. Martin is a singular noun. Form the possessive by adding ’s.
<p>| | |</p>
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| 599. | **buildings’, brothers-in-law’s, whose**  

*Buildings* is a regular, plural noun. To form the possessive, add an apostrophe after the *s*. To form the possessive of a singular or plural hyphenated noun (*brothers-in-law*) add ’s after the last word. Did you stumble over *whose*? *Who* is a pronoun and forms its possessive (whose) without an apostrophe.

| 600. | **fish’s, oranges’, Ms. Jones’s**  

*Fish* may be either singular or plural, but either way you form the possessive by adding ’s. *Oranges* is a regular, plural noun. Form the possessive by adding an apostrophe after the *s*. Strictly speaking, to form the possessive of a singular noun (*Ms. Jones*) ending in *s*, you should add ’s. However, everyone except the most traditional grammarians accepts a simple apostrophe after the final *s* as a way to form the possessive. Therefore, *Ms. Jones’* is also a correct answer.

| 601. | **don’t, I’ll, isn’t**  

The apostrophe replaces the letter *o* in the word *not* in *do not* and *is not*. In each expression, the remaining letters form one word (*don’t, isn’t*). The apostrophe replaces *wi* in *I will*. The other letters form the contraction *I’ll*.

| 602. | **it’s, they’re, you’ve**  

The apostrophe replaces the second letter *i* in *it is* and the letter *a* in *they are*. The remaining letters in each expression combine to form *it’s* and *they’re*. (Don’t confuse these contractions with the possessive pronouns *its* and *their.*) Two letters drop out of *you have* — *h* and *a* — to form the contraction *you’ve*.

| 603. | **he’s, she was, we’re**  

The apostrophe replaces the letter *i* in *he is* and the letter *a* in *we are*. The remaining letters in each expression combine to form *he’s* and *we’re*. No contraction exists for *she was*. (*She’s* is a contraction of *she is*, or, informally, *she has*.)

| 604. | **won’t, shouldn’t, I’d**  

The contraction of *will not* is irregular; instead of replacing letters and squeezing the remainders together, *will not* contracts to *won’t*. *Shouldn’t* is easier; just drop the *o* from *not* and make the remaining letters one word. Similarly — but with lots of dropped letters! — delete *woul* from *would* and you come up with *I’d* as a contraction of *I would*.

| 605. | **hasn’t, mustn’t, why’s**  

Drop the *o* from *not* and compress the remaining letters to form the contractions *hasn’t* and *mustn’t*. Drop the *i* from *is* to create the contraction *why’s*, as in this question: *Why’s that grammar rule so hard?*
606. **can't, would've, she'd**

The negative expression *cannot* (which, by the way, is one word, not two) contracts to *can't*. To create the contraction of *would have*, drop the *ha* and make the remaining letters into one word (*would've*). Drop *ha* and compress the remainder to create the contraction *she'd*, short for *she had* or *she would*.

607. **might've, 'twas, doesn't**

To create the contraction *might've*, delete the letters *ha* and insert an apostrophe. The contraction *'twas*, which you hear mostly in poetry or old-fashioned writing, is short for *it was*. Drop the *o* from *not*, compress the remaining letters, and insert an apostrophe to create the contraction *doesn't*, short for *does not*.

608. **who'd, could've, how's**

Delete *woul* and insert an apostrophe to create the contraction *who'd*, which is short for *who would*. Drop *ha* from *have* and compress the remaining letters to form the contraction *could've* out of the expression *could have*. Delete the *i* from *is* and combine what’s left with *how* to form *how’s*, the contraction of *how is*.

609. **what's, let's, should've**

Delete *i* from *is* to form the contraction of *what is* (*what's*) and *u* from *us* to form the contraction of *let us* (*let's*). Drop the *ha* from *should have*, insert an apostrophe, and you have *should've*, the contraction of *should have*.

610. **'55, its, months (The class of '55 will celebrate its reunion in two months.)**

The number *19* is missing from 1955, so you need an apostrophe to replace it. The possessive pronoun *its* doesn’t have an apostrophe. (*It's means it is.*) Don’t create a plural with an apostrophe; change *month's* to *months*.

611. **cameras, isn't (Jane bought two new cameras but isn’t pleased with her purchase.)**

Don’t create a plural with an apostrophe; change *camera’s* to *cameras*. You need an apostrophe to form the plural of *is not* (*isn't*). Possessive pronouns, such as *her* in this sentence, don’t have apostrophes.

612. **Don't, '12, dollars (Don’t wait until 2018 to start saving; six years earlier, in '12, start to pile up dollars.)**

The contraction of *do not* (*don’t*) needs an apostrophe. The apostrophe takes the place of 20 in the contraction *'12*. Don’t create a plural with an apostrophe; change *dollar's* to *dollars*.

613. **should've, exams (They should’ve given us more time to take those exams.)**

The contraction *should’ve* is short for *should have*. Don’t create a plural with an apostrophe; change *exam’s* to *exams*. 
<table>
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<tr>
<td><strong>614.</strong> Bagels, 1909 (Bagels were very popular breakfast foods in 1909.)</td>
<td>You don’t need an apostrophe to create the plural noun, <em>bagels</em>. Because <em>1909</em> is complete, no apostrophe is needed there either.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>615.</strong> I’m, hours’, Mary’s (I’m tired of doing two hours’ homework every night; Mary’s assignments are easier.)</td>
<td>The apostrophe takes the place of <em>a</em> in the contraction <em>I’m</em> (short for <em>I am</em>). Why <em>hours’?</em> Because the meaning of the phrase is <em>two hours of homework</em>. The apostrophe replaces <em>of</em>. Add ’s to <em>Mary</em> to create the possessive form.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>616.</strong> Who’d, day’s (Who’d work two weeks for only a day’s pay?)</td>
<td>The apostrophe signals the contraction <em>who’d</em>, which is short for <em>who would</em>. You need an apostrophe in <em>day’s</em> because the apostrophe replaces *of * (a day of).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>617.</strong> No quotation marks needed</td>
<td>The sentence doesn’t quote Jane’s exact words, so no quotation marks are necessary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>618.</strong> “I stayed home to do the most boring math homework in the universe.”</td>
<td><em>Jeff explained</em> is a speaker tag — a short phrase that identifies whose words are quoted in the sentence. The exact words from the script (<em>I stayed home to do the most boring math homework in the universe</em>) should be surrounded by quotation marks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>619.</strong> “I’m glad I did,”</td>
<td>The exact words that Jane spoke (<em>I’m glad I did</em>) must be surrounded by quotation marks. The comma precedes the closing quotation mark.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>620.</strong> “stupendous.”</td>
<td>The only word from Jane quoted in this sentence is <em>stupendous</em>, which should be surrounded by quotation marks. The period precedes the closing quotation mark.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>621.</strong> No quotation marks needed</td>
<td>Jeff’s words are paraphrased but not directly quoted, so no quotation marks are necessary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>622.</strong> No quotation marks needed</td>
<td>True, a couple of Jeff’s words (<em>grade, the homework</em>) appear in the sentence. However, they aren’t arranged the way they are in the script. Because they’re paraphrased but not directly quoted, no quotation marks are necessary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>623.</strong> “Were you there?”</td>
<td>The quoted words (*Were you there?) should be surrounded by quotation marks. Because the quotation is a question, the question mark must be attached to the quotation. Therefore, it precedes the closing quotation mark.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
624. “the most boring math homework in the universe.”

The only words in the sentence that come directly from the script are *the most boring math homework in the universe*, so only those words must be surrounded by quotation marks.

625. “The heat wave will end on Saturday,” the forecaster promised.

The directly quoted words appear inside quotation marks. In Standard American English usage, the comma precedes the closing quotation mark.

626. Mark screamed, “Let her go!”

The first word of a quotation with a speaker tag (in this sentence, *Let*) should be capitalized, and the speaker tag (*Mark screamed*) should be followed by a comma. Because the quoted words are an exclamation, the exclamation point is attached to the quotation and should appear inside the quotation marks.

627. Wilbur asked, “Did Christine take a taxi to the theater?”

In Standard American English usage, the speaker tag (*Wilbur asked*) should be followed by a comma when it appears before the quotation. The quotation begins with a capital letter and is surrounded by quotation marks. Because the quoted words are a question, the question mark is attached to the quotation and should appear inside the quotation marks.

628. Pilar was born in Ecuador, where, she says, “The weather is often hot and humid.”

The first word of a quotation in a sentence with a speaker tag should be capitalized. In this sentence, the speaker tag is *she says*. It is not part of the quotation and should not be preceded by a quotation mark. The only words inside the quotation marks are those that *Pilar says: the weather is hot and humid*. In Standard American English usage, the period precedes the closing quotation mark.

629. Xavier eventually declared that his unusual name was “awesome.”

Only one word is quoted, and you have no speaker tag. (You may have thought that *declared* qualified as a speaker tag, but because it’s followed by *that*, it’s not a speaker tag.) No speaker tag means no capital letters for the quoted word (unless, of course, the quoted word is a proper name or the pronoun *I*). In Standard American English usage, the period precedes the closing quotation mark. **Note:** If you’re quoting only one or two words, decide whether the words are distinctive, revealing character or mood. If so, place the word(s) in quotation marks. If the words are common and you have no special context, you can skip the quotation marks. Here, *awesome* tells you something about Xavier’s personality, so quotation marks are appropriate.

630. “I wonder where the birthday candles are,” Grandma whispered, “and if we have enough.”

In this sentence the speaker tag (*Grandma whispered*) appears in the middle of the sentence. The second half of the quotation doesn’t begin with a capital letter (unless, of course, it happens to be a proper name or the pronoun *I*) because it’s a continuation of the first half of the quotation, not a new sentence. Commas set off the speaker tag. The first comma belongs, according to Standard American English usage, inside the closing quotation mark. The second follows the speaker tag. The period at the end of the sentence, also according to Standard American English usage, precedes the closing quotation mark.
631. No change

The only word underlined is shopping, so you know that the seller used that word in some context. However, the sentence has no speaker tag and shopping doesn’t reveal anything special about character or mood, so no quotation marks are necessary.

632. Marisa explained that she was “completely exhausted”; she and Lola went home immediately.

The quoted words are tucked into the sentence and not introduced by a speaker tag. Therefore, you don’t need a comma or a capital letter to set them off from the rest of the sentence. Semicolons appear after the closing quotation mark.

633. No change

The underlined words (knife, pony) came out of Henry’s mouth (or pen or computer), but here they appear without a speaker tag or context. Also, they do not reveal anything about Henry’s character or mood, so no quotation marks are necessary.

634. “When he learned to read, Daryl was five,” declared Jordan, “not ten years old.”

The speaker tag (declared Jordan) is in the middle of this quotation. It should be set off by commas. The first word of the second portion of the quotation should not be capitalized, unless it’s a proper noun or the pronoun I. According to Standard American English usage, the first comma setting off the speaker tag belongs inside the closing quotation mark, as does the period at the end of the sentence.

635. Robbie explained, “The teacher thinks I am ‘supersmart.’”

A quotation inside another quotation is surrounded by single quotation marks, in Standard American English usage. Because supersmart isn’t preceded by a speaker tag, it isn’t capitalized. The larger quotation (the teacher thinks I am supersmart) begins with a capital letter. The speaker tag (Robbie explained) is followed by a comma. The period at the end of the sentence appears before the closing quotation marks, as Standard American English usage requires.

636. “It is going to rain,” Harry predicted. “The picnic will be postponed.”

Did you have trouble with this one? The fact that words are quoted doesn’t give you license to create a run-on sentence. End the sentence after predicted, which is part of the speaker tag, Harry predicted. Begin the second sentence with a capital letter. As Standard American English usage requires, place the commas at the end of the first quotation and the period at the end of the second sentence before the closing quotation marks.

637. Will said that the cheese smelled “funky”: It had been in the refrigerator for more than a year.

The quoted word, funky, is unusual and tells you something about the speaker who chose it as a description. Therefore, funky should be surrounded by quotation marks. The colon follows the closing quotation mark. Because the sentence has no speaker tag and the quotation is in a clause beginning with that, no capital letters are needed. By the way, when you link two complete sentences with a colon, the second half of the statement begins with a capital letter.
<table>
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<tr>
<td><strong>638.</strong></td>
<td>According to the authorities, police officers were called “brave” and “heroic” by all who witnessed the daring rescue. The two quoted words are tucked into the sentence, not labeled with a speaker tag. Therefore, the quoted words are surrounded by quotation marks but not capitalized.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>639.</strong></td>
<td>In his first paper, “A History of the Stuart Family,” Professor Milling explores the relationship between the Stuarts and their business partners. According to Standard American English usage, the comma at the end of the title precedes the closing quotation mark.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>640.</strong></td>
<td>Jacobs argues that the colonies “were motivated by a desire for freedom,” not additional markets for their goods. No capital letters are needed for the first word of a quotation not identified with a speaker tag (such as <em>he said</em>, <em>Adams declared</em>, and so forth). Nor does a comma introduce a quotation without a speaker tag. According to Standard American English usage, the comma at the end of the quotation precedes the closing quotation mark.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>641.</strong></td>
<td>Rich’s poem, “Diving into the Wreck,” explores gender and other themes. The title of a poem is set off by quotation marks. According to Standard American English usage, the comma at the end of the title precedes the closing quotation mark.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>642.</strong></td>
<td>“Going to Savannah,” a poem by Agnes Little, is on the reading list. The title of the poem is set off with quotation marks. According to Standard American English usage, the comma after the title precedes the closing quotation mark.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>643.</strong></td>
<td>The chorus’s version of “You Are My Sunshine” relies on three-part harmony. The title of this song is set off by quotation marks. No other punctuation is needed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>644.</strong></td>
<td>In homage to Shakespeare, the main character considers whether “to be truthful or not to be truthful” (line 23). The citation in parentheses is part of the sentence but not part of the quotation, so it follows the closing quotation mark but precedes the period at the end of the sentence. Because the quotation is tucked into the sentence without a speaker tag (<em>Arthur said</em>, <em>Marlene claimed</em>, and so forth), no capital letters or commas are needed to introduce the quotation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>645.</strong></td>
<td>When she wrote “Killer Whales and Their Prey,” Maxine Davis asserted that these animals are endangered (44). The title of the paper should be enclosed in quotation marks. According to Standard American English usage, the comma precedes the closing quotation mark. The citation refers to a page number where Davis claimed that killer whales are endangered. It is part of the sentence, so it precedes the period.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
646. No change

Because nothing is quoted and no title appears, no quotation marks are needed. The citation, in the style of the Modern Language Association, needs no punctuation.

647. I. and II. (I. skiing, skating, complaining; II. to plant, to sow, to reap)

In Line I, all the words are gerunds — verb forms that function as nouns. In Line II, all are infinitives (to + verb). In Line III (going to sleep, waking up, ready for work), you have two gerunds and then a description, ready for work. You don’t need to know the grammar terms. Just listen to each list. You can hear that I and II match, but III doesn’t. Therefore, I and II are parallel.

648. II. and III. (II. keeps score, notifies the umpire, encourages the team; III. over the mountain, through the woods, to Grandmother’s house)

In Line I (smart, creative, has immense energy), you have two descriptions (smart, creative) and one verb-statement (has immense energy). No match there! In Line II, you have three verb-statements. Match! In Line III, you see three prepositional phrases. Another match. Only II and III are parallel.

649. I. (Jane calculates, Artie summarizes, Peter plans)

Line I has three subject-verb pairs, so it’s parallel. Line II (riding a bike, walking in the garden, to relax) begins with two gerunds (verb forms that act as nouns) and ends with an infinitive (to + verb). Line II isn’t parallel. Line III (around the corner, sneaky as a fox, behind the fence) has two prepositional phrases (around the corner, behind the fence) and one description (sneaky as a fox). Line III isn’t parallel.

650. I. and II. (I. came, saw, conquered; II. coming, seeing, conquering)

The first line has three past-tense verbs, so it’s parallel. Line II consists of three gerunds (verb forms used as nouns), so it’s also parallel. Line III veers away from present tense (come, see) into past (conquered), so it isn’t parallel.

651. II. (jump, twirl, fall)

Line I isn’t parallel because it begins with two nouns (silk, thread) and follows with a description (carefully sewn). Line II has three verbs, so it’s parallel. Line III has two past-tense verbs (bought, sold) and one -ing form (ignoring), so it isn’t parallel.

652. III. (Ringo plays the drums, Paul strums the guitar, I sing along)

Line I (sung by the Beatles, recording a hit song, performed by the school chorus) has two past participles (sung, performed) and descriptions attached to them. It also has a present-tense -ing form (recording). Because the present and past are mixed together in this list, it isn’t parallel. Line II (heard everywhere, is popular, has many fans) also mixes present (is, has) and past (heard), so it’s not parallel either. Only Line III matches, with three present-tense, subject-verb pairs, so only III is parallel.
653. I. (who needs a computer, that costs a fortune, which the store displays in the window)

Line I has three dependent clauses (subject-verb statements that must attach to an independent clause in order to make sense), so Line I is parallel. Line II has two prepositional phrases (in the basement, in need of cleaning) and one noun with a description attached (energy-efficient furnace). Line II isn’t parallel. Line III includes one prepositional phrase (with remote control), a past participle (flanked by speakers), and a noun with descriptions attached (sharp picture quality). Line III isn’t parallel. Even without knowing the grammar terms, you can probably hear the mismatches.

654. III. (because I said so, when the blizzard rages, after the game ends)

Line I (early opening, excellent service, committed to quality) has two nouns with attached descriptions (early opening, excellent service) and a description — specifically, a past participle (committed). Line I isn’t parallel. Line II (Lisa’s spying on her neighbors, the detective tapping her phone, the judge hearing the case), at first glance, looks good because three people are paired with activities. However, examine the first of the three pairs. Instead of a noun, Lisa, you have a possessive, Lisa’s. That little difference is important, because the verb form spying then functions as a noun because it’s described by Lisa’s. The other two elements are nouns (detective, judge) described by verb forms (tapping, hearing). Line II isn’t parallel. Line III includes three clauses, all dependent. (In other words, they can’t stand by themselves as complete sentences.) Line III is parallel.

655. I. and II. (a bulldozer piled up sand, the dump truck carted it away, the jackhammer broke the pavement; gliding, smoothing the ice, stopping by the fence)

In Line I, all the statements are complete sentences. Line I is parallel. Line II is also parallel because three gerunds (gliding, smoothing, stopping) match. True, two of the three gerunds have descriptions attached. However, the descriptions don’t matter. The important word, the gerund, does matter when you decide whether a list is parallel. Line III isn’t parallel because it contains two nouns with attached descriptions (soil rich in nutrients, endangered species of plants), and a simple prepositional phrase (in the botanical garden).

656. II. (buying a cottage, replacing the roof that was damaged in the storm, redecorating)

Line I (screamed, threw food, epic tantrum) isn’t parallel because two verbs (screamed, threw) don’t match a noun (tantrum). Notice that the descriptions here aren’t an issue; only the core of each item (verbs and a noun) matters. Line II is parallel precisely because the important elements do match; buying, replacing, and redecorating are all gerunds. Ignore the attached descriptions and objects. Line III (hid under a chair, away from other players, whispered) includes two verbs (hid, whispered) but one prepositional phrase (away from other players), so it’s not parallel.

657. II. and III. (why the card is wet, while it is raining lightly, before the monsoon ends; he had been told, he had been warned, he had been suspended)

Line I (as time goes by, if I applied to that college, before midnight at the latest) isn’t parallel because it begins with two clauses — statements containing subject-verb pairs — and ends with prepositional phrases (before midnight at the latest). Line II consists of three dependent clauses (subject-verb statements that must attach to a complete thought in order to create a sentence). Line II is parallel. So is Line III, which contains three independent clauses (subject-verb statements that make sense by themselves).
II. (the editor liked it, he praised the writing, reviewers went wild)

Line I (Mary wrote the chapter, she proofread it, the chapter was revised by her) isn’t parallel because the first two items are in active voice, in which the subject does the action (Mary wrote, she proofread) but the last is passive, in which the subject receives the action (the chapter was revised). Line II (a writer’s fantasy!) includes three independent clauses — subject-verb statements that make sense by themselves — all in active voice. Line II is parallel. Line III (a writer’s nightmare!) includes two prepositional phrases (on the remainder table, off the bestseller list) and one clause (the book tanked). Line III isn’t parallel.

I. and II. (I. the apple he picked, the grapes he harvested, the grass he mowed; II. stop, look, listen)

Line I is parallel because every item contains a noun described by a clause (a subject-verb statement). Line II consists of three commands; it’s parallel. Line III isn’t parallel because two dependent clauses (subject-verb statements that don’t make sense by themselves) — while you cook, although the wedding is tomorrow — are listed with an independent clause (a subject-verb statement that can stand alone) — Henry irons the scarf.

II. (whoever is hungry, whatever you need, whomever I ask)

Line I (the puppy to watch, to take to the park, the kitten to cuddle) isn’t parallel because the first and third items have a noun (puppy, kitten) described by infinitives (to watch, to cuddle). The middle item has no noun anchoring the descriptions, just an infinitive (to take to the park). True, park is a noun. In this item, though, it’s not being described. Instead, it’s part of a description. Line II is parallel because it contains three dependent clauses (subject-verb statements that don’t make sense by themselves). Line III isn’t parallel because the first item (when winter comes) is a dependent clause, but the second and third items (the snow piles up, the plow scours the streets) are independent clauses, capable of standing alone.

III. (tomorrow, yesterday, soon)

Line I (twist and shout, dance the night away, went to the movies) isn’t parallel because the first two items are commands, with you as an understood subject. The last is just a past-tense verb, went, with no subject. Line II (the parrot with yellow feathers, the dog running away, a zoo is out of control) has one independent clause (a zoo is out of control), a subject-verb statement that makes sense by itself. Line II also has two nouns (parrot, dog) with attached descriptions, but no verbs. Therefore, Line II isn’t parallel. Line III contains three adverbs and is parallel.

go home (I would rather work in the library than go home.)

The paired conjunction rather than may appear with both words together or with words in between. When the words are separated, check what follows rather and compare that to whatever follows than. The elements should match grammatically. Here, work precedes the conjunction, so go should follow. Because both are verbs, they create a parallel sentence.
663. on looks (Style depends not only on looks but also on attitude.)

After the second half of this conjunction (but also) you have a prepositional phrase, on attitude. To make the sentence parallel, you need a prepositional phrase after the first half of the conjunction, not only. On looks fits perfectly.

664. too long (Oliver’s supposed masterpiece was both tuneless and too long.)

After the first half of the conjunction pair (both) you have a simple description — tuneless. So you need a simple description after the second half of the conjunction pair (and). Too long is a simple description — that is, not a phrase or a clause — and makes the sentence parallel. If the first element has no verb form (being or was, for example), the second element shouldn’t have one either.

665. you will be either accepted (When you apply for a selective school, you will be either accepted or rejected; you won’t know unless you try.)

After the second half of the conjunction pair, or, you have a description, rejected. That’s what you need after the first half of the conjunction pair, either. Rearrange the words so that either precedes accepted to make your sentence parallel.

666. vegetables (Recipes in that cookbook contain meat rather than vegetables.)

The paired conjunction in this sentence is rather than (which may appear together or with words in between). When rather than shows up together, compare what precedes it to what follows it. Here, meat precedes the paired conjunction, so vegetables should follow. Both are nouns and balance nicely.

667. the general agreed (Both the soldiers and the general agreed, so the proposed change to the battle plan was accepted.)

When you see the paired conjunction both/and, check what follows each half. After both you have a noun, soldiers. Therefore, you need a noun after and: the general. The verb agreed works with two subjects, the soldiers and the general.

668. No change

After the first half of the conjunction pair, both, you have a noun and some descriptions attached to the noun (the patient’s blood pressure). After the second half of the conjunction pair, you have the same grammatical element: slower heart rate. Perfectly parallel!

669. careful (Mary was not only fair but careful to explain her decision to the contestants.)

The paired conjunction not only/but also sometimes — but not always — drops the also. After the first half of the conjunction pair (not only), a simple description (fair) appears. Place another simple description (careful) after the second half of the conjunction (but) to create a parallel sentence. You could also use the simple description, also careful, to complete the sentence.
<table>
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<td>670.</td>
<td>her co-workers’ coffee break (Neither Jean’s absence nor her co-workers’ coffee break mattered, as no customers called.)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>After <em>neither</em> you have a simple noun and a possessive form (<em>Jean’s absence</em>). You need the same grammatical element after <em>nor</em>; <em>her co-workers’ coffee break</em> fits perfectly and makes the sentence parallel.</td>
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<td>671.</td>
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<td>After the first half of the paired conjunction, <em>neither</em>, you have a verb (<em>explained</em>). After the second half of the conjunction, <em>nor</em>, you need another verb (<em>cared</em>).</td>
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<td>672.</td>
<td>design (The film director will not only emphasize special effects but also design them herself.)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>After the first half of the paired conjunction, <em>not only</em>, you have a verb (<em>emphasize</em>). After the second half of the paired conjunction, <em>but also</em>, you need a verb too: <em>design</em>. With that change, the sentence is parallel.</td>
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<td>673.</td>
<td>plan (Participants in the study either have worked in a laboratory or plan to do so within five years.)</td>
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<td>After the first half of the paired conjunction, <em>either</em>, you have a verb (<em>have worked</em>). After the second half of the conjunction, <em>or</em>, you need another verb (<em>plan</em>). Don’t worry about the change in tense; it’s justified by the meaning of the sentence. Did you opt for <em>are planning</em>? That’s correct also.</td>
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<td>674.</td>
<td>Playing baseball (Playing baseball is as appealing to Suri as baking cookies.)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>The comparison in this sentence is created by <em>as . . . as</em>. The sentence compares <em>to play baseball</em> (an infinitive) with <em>baking cookies</em> (a gerund). Not parallel! Change the infinitive to <em>playing baseball</em> and both halves of the comparison match.</td>
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<td>675.</td>
<td>walk (I would rather go to the movies than walk around the mall.)</td>
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<td>The comparison in this sentence comes from <em>rather . . . than</em>. After <em>rather</em> you have a simple verb, <em>go</em>. <em>Walking doesn’t match</em>. Pair <em>go</em> with the simple verb <em>walk</em> and your comparison is parallel.</td>
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<td>676.</td>
<td>No change</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Here <em>equal</em> creates a comparison. The terms <em>in height</em> and <em>in weight</em> match, so the comparison is parallel.</td>
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<tr>
<td>677.</td>
<td>because of his tracking mud (George’s mother was upset with him more because of his lateness than because of his tracking mud on the kitchen floor.)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>The words <em>more . . . than</em> create the comparison. After <em>more</em> you have a prepositional phrase, <em>because of his lateness</em>. Therefore, you need another prepositional phrase after <em>than</em>. Did you opt for <em>to track mud</em>? That’s not a prepositional phrase; it’s an infinitive phrase, because <em>track</em> is a verb, not a noun acting as the object of a preposition. <em>Because of his mud tracks</em> or a similar phrase would also be correct.</td>
</tr>
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678. passive (That small dinosaur was probably more aggressive than passive.)

The comparison is created by more . . . than. After more you see a simple description, aggressive. To balance the sentence and make it parallel, place a simple description, passive, after than.

679. your scores (Are your scores on the real SAT as high as your scores on the practice test?)

Two conjunctions, as and as, create the comparison between scores on two tests. The original sentence tries to balance scores on the real SAT (a noun with descriptions attached) with what you got on the practice test, a clause (a subject-verb statement). Nope! Not parallel. Change the second half of the comparison to your scores, and the sentence becomes parallel. The pronoun those, meaning your scores, would also work here.

680. No change

The sentence compares two ways to fill your stomach (and empty your wallet) — eating at the diner and dining in a fine restaurant. Two gerunds = one match. The sentence is parallel.

681. for John (Spelling is easier for me than for John.)

The sentence revolves around the word than. Just before than you have a prepositional phrase, for me. To make the sentence parallel, a prepositional phrase, for John, should follow than also.

682. to prepare as much today as tomorrow (We have to prepare as much today as tomorrow.)

What’s being compared in this sentence is what we have to do on two different days. You can balance the comparison in a couple of different ways, but the shortest version moves the beginning of the comparison (much) to the spot preceding what’s being compared (today). The second as then precedes the other element you’re comparing (tomorrow).

683. he locked (Pursued by a bear, Nicholas ran as fast as possible to the car, and then he locked the door.)

The beginning of the sentence is in past tense. For no good reason, the original sentence changes from past tense (ran) to present (locks). Once you swap he locked for he locks, everything is in past tense and the sentence is parallel.

684. you should turn off the valve (Before you disconnect the water pipe, you should turn off the valve.)

The first part of the sentence is in active voice: The subject (you) does the action (disconnect). The second part of the sentence, in the original version, is passive. The subject (valve) receives the action (should be turned off). Change passive to active (you should turn off the valve) and the sentence is parallel. You can also say turn off the valve to make a parallel sentence.
| 685. | **Traveling** (Traveling in Sweden was relaxing; coming home was not.)

The subject of the second half of the sentence is a gerund (the -ing form of a verb that functions as a noun). To match the second half, change the infinitive to travel to a gerund, traveling.
|
| 686. | **he later examined her** (Dr. Weber admitted the patient, Ms. Smith, to the hospital, and he later examined her.)

The first half of the sentence is in active voice; the subject (Dr. Weber) performs the action (admitted). In the original sentence, the second half shifts into passive voice, in which the subject (the patient) receives the action (was examined). Reword the second half to make the verb active, and you’re correct.
|
| 687. | **actors must speak forcefully** (They should capture the audience’s attention right away, so actors must speak forcefully when the curtain rises.)

The sentence begins with the plural pronoun they. Why shift to the singular term, an actor? If you begin with a plural, stay with a plural (actors) unless the meaning requires a change.
|
| 688. | **rugs** (The stage set has colorful lighting, costumes, curtains, and rugs.)

Lots of things are colorful in this sentence, including rugs. You have no reason to break the pattern established by colorful, which is positioned to describe lighting, costumes, curtains, and rugs.
|
| 689. | **cooled by a pond** (Shirley smiled when she saw the backyard, which was bordered by daisies, shaded by oak trees, and cooled by a pond.)

This backyard sounds nice! Every description on the list, except the underlined portion, is passive. In passive voice, the subject receives the action. So the yard was bordered, was shaded, and was cooled. Conveniently, the first was works for the whole list, so you don’t need to repeat that word. (If you do, you have to use it for all three verbs, not just the first and third.)
|
| 690. | **to learn new languages, and to visit foreign countries** (To study other cultures, to learn new languages, and to visit foreign countries are worthwhile pursuits.)

In a list of three infinitives (to + verb), you have two choices. You can let the first to work for all three (to learn, study, and visit), or you can repeat to in front of each item (to study, to learn, and to visit). What you can’t do is place to in front of two terms and not the third — not if you want a parallel sentence.
|
| 691. | **is convenient** (Bicycle riding helps people become physically fit and is convenient too.)

The original sentence consists of two complete thoughts linked by and. The first half is in third person, talking about bicycle riding and people. The second half shifts to second person, talking to you. The original isn’t parallel because of the shift in person (from third to second). The easiest fix is to let bicycle riding be the subject of two verbs, helps and is. Now everything is in third person.
692. include neither (Many dictionaries include neither slang words nor common texting abbreviations.)

The original sentence pairs *not* with *nor*. All by itself, this pairing isn’t a problem. However, after *not* you have a verb (*include*). After *nor* you have a noun and attached descriptions (*common texting abbreviations*). Now you’re violating parallelism. Change the original to *include neither slang words nor common texting abbreviations*. Another possible correction is *include no slang words or common texting abbreviations*.

693. An apple, a pear, and a banana (An apple, a pear, and a banana are in the fruit bowl.)

*A* and *an* are articles. The first precedes words beginning with consonants, and the second precedes words beginning with vowel sounds. In the original sentence, *an* is the only article in front of three nouns (*apple, pear, banana*). Two of those nouns begin with consonants, so *an* is out of place. Add the missing articles, and your sentence is parallel.

694. they use social media too (Successful politicians greet each supporter in person, and they use social media too.)

The first half of the sentence is in active voice (the subject does the action). The second half of the sentence is in passive voice (the subject receives the action). Change the passive voice to active, and the sentence becomes parallel.

695. and prevention of (As a short-term solution for hurricane victims and prevention of future storm damage, this plan is excellent.)

The first part of the sentence focuses on a noun (*solution*), but then the sentence shifts to a prepositional phrase (*in prevention of*). Stay with two nouns (*solution . . . and prevention*) and you’re fine. Another correct sentence employs two phrases (*With a short-term solution for hurricane victims and in prevention of future storm damage*).

696. the student can submit (A current teacher must recommend a student applying for an honors course, or the student can submit an essay explaining why the workload will not be too challenging.)

The first part of the sentence talks about a *student* — a singular term. Then the sentence shifts, with no good reason, to plural (*they*). Both halves can be plural or both can be singular, but switching makes the sentence not parallel.

697. streets, roads; each, every

*A street* is a *road*, so these two words are repetitive. So are *each* and *every*, which both make the point that Mike never skips a day of jogging. You should cut one term from each pair (either *streets* or *roads*, for example).

698. four-sided, square, shape

*A square*, by definition, is *four-sided*. It’s also a *shape*. To make the point, all you need is *square*. 
699. long, in length

Long and in length make the same point, so choose one or the other.

700. Totally, completely; circular, ring

Totally and completely are synonyms, so you don’t need both. The common definition of ring is circular in shape, so unless you add some strange variation (say, a double ring or a boxing ring, which is square), stick with ring alone.

701. easiest, most carefree, with no effort

Easiest, most carefree, and with no effort all express the same idea. One is enough! Did you trip over ovens and other kitchen equipment? Ovens are kitchen equipment, so that phrase without the word other would be repetitious. Including other, however, brings in the rest of the machinery in your kitchen — blenders, dishwashers, and so forth. Because other adds information, the phrase is not repetitious.

702. In my opinion, I think; experienced emotionally, felt in my heart

Each of these pairs expresses the same idea. Your opinion is what you think. What you experience emotionally is what you feel in your heart. Opt for one half of each pair to avoid repetition.

703. No repetition

Surprised? Untreatable is not a synonym for fatal. Some illnesses don’t go away but don’t kill you either, and the sentence clearly states that whatever Georgina has is fatal in most cases, but not all. Nor are dismayed and frightened synonyms. The first term refers to sadness and the second to fear. Finally, retreated is a movement, and stayed is lack of movement — not repetitive!

704. No repetition

Did you puzzle over thorough and checking original papers as well as secondary sources? True, someone who is thorough does perform those tasks. However, the phrase checking original papers as well as secondary sources gives details about the biographer’s methods, explaining how he is thorough. Because the second phrase adds information, it’s not repetitive.

705. Attempting, tried; wire, wire walker; cross, other shore

Attempting and tried are synonyms. If you’re on a wire, you’re a wire walker. (Either that or you’re insane, but if 300 million people are watching, you’re probably a professional!) If you’re crossing Niagara Falls, you’re clearly aiming for the other shore.

706. popular, hit; small, that has 500 inhabitants

When something is popular, it’s a hit. The next pair is trickier. Small is a relative term. In Manhattan, a small building may have ten floors when it’s compared to a skyscraper. In another context, a ten-floor structure may be the largest building in the area. In this sentence, though, cross out small and let the more specific term (that has 500 inhabitants) remain. The reader gets the information and can decide whether such a town is small.
IV. (The ambition of the title character of *Macbeth* leads him to crime.)

The original sentence (*The title character in Macbeth is ambitious, and it is this ambition that leads him to crime*) repeats *ambitious* and *ambition*. Revision IV includes all the information of the original, which has 17 words, in 12 words. You may notice that Revisions I, II, and III are shorter than IV. However, something is lacking in each. In Revision I (*The title character, Macbeth, has ambition and leads him to crime*), the subject of *leads* is *title character* — not the meaning you want. Revision II (*Leading to crime, the title character in Macbeth is ambitious*) has the same meaning because the introductory verb form, *leading*, describes the subject of the sentence (*title character*). Revision III (*Ambition leads to crime in Shakespeare’s Macbeth*) drops an important reference to the title character. Only IV does the job.

I. (Fair and reasonable, Jill saw the advantages and disadvantages of both sides in every argument.)

Revision I cuts four words from the original (*Jill was always fair and reasonable, and she saw the advantages and disadvantages of both sides in every argument*) without sacrificing meaning. If it’s *every argument*, *always* is implied. By turning *was always fair and reasonable* into an introductory description, you also save words. Revision II (*Jill was always fair and reasonable, and she saw each side’s advantages and disadvantages*) is longer than Revision I and omits the idea of *argument*. Without that word, the sentence may discuss political or social advantages of siding with one or another group. Revision III (*Jill seeing the advantages and disadvantages of both sides in every argument fairly*) is a fragment, not a complete sentence. Revision IV (*Jill’s fairness and reasonableness led her to see both sides*) may refer to a visit with two sides, not an evaluation of each argument.

II. (Abraham Lincoln, one of the greatest presidents of the United States, was born in Illinois.)

Eight words shorter than the original (*It was this place, Illinois, that saw the birth of Abraham Lincoln, one of the greatest presidents who ever headed the United States*), Revision II has all the information you need. The construction *it was this . . . that* is almost always unnecessary. Avoid it in your writing!

I. (Fifi loves going to the park, where she plays with other dogs.)

Revision I of the original sentence (*Fifi, who is a dog, loves going to the park; the park is where she plays with other dogs*) is short and complete. Once you see *other dogs*, you don’t have to label *Fifi* as a *dog*. Her identity is clear. Nor should you repeat *the park*. Revision II (*Fifi, who is a dog, loves going to the park and plays with other dogs*) isn’t parallel because going and *plays* don’t match. Revision III (*Fifi, who is a dog, loves going to the park with other dogs*) changes the meaning slightly, implying that Fifi travels to the park with other dogs. Maybe Fifi does, but the original sentence simply states that she *plays with other dogs* there. Revision IV (*Fifi, a dog who loves going to the park, plays with other dogs there*) drops the repetitive reference to *park* but unnecessarily labels *Fifi* as a *dog*. 
711. No change

The original sentence (When I asked Dr. Spencer about his training, he told me that he had studied at Oxford University in Britain) doesn’t need any revision. Revision IV (Dr. Spencer trained at Oxford) is tempting, isn’t it? Only five words! The problem with IV, and with the other revisions (I: Dr. Spencer told me that he had studied at Oxford University in Britain; II: Dr. Spencer studied at Oxford University in Britain; and III: Dr. Spencer told me that his studies took place at Oxford University in Britain), is that some information is missing, and all of it may be relevant. For example, imagine that you visit Dr. Spencer and he blurts out, unasked, that he studied at Oxford. Is he defensive about his preparation for the job? Does he like to brag? Either situation is possible. If you ask, however, then his answer is simple courtesy. Similarly, you can’t cut the identification of Oxford unless you’re certain that the reader knows what you mean. Other institutions have the same name.

712. IV. (Handcuffed, the burglars then demanded phone calls, lawyers, and immediate release.)

If you’re handcuffed, your wrists are restrained. You don’t need to say this twice, as the original sentence does (Handcuffed with their wrists restrained, the burglars then proceeded to demand phone calls, lawyers, and immediate release). Then proceeded is also repetitious. All you need to write is the burglars then demanded. Revision IV is shorter, simpler, and better.

713. III. (After 12 years in marketing, Edward was interested in a different career.)

Revision III is half as long as the original (After 12 years of experience at his previous jobs, all positions in marketing, Edward was interested in pursuing a different career path that wasn’t marketing), but it gets the job done. Revision I (After 12 years of experience at his previous jobs, in marketing, Edward was interested in pursuing a different career path, not marketing) states different and not marketing — both giving the same information. Revision II (After 12 years of experience in marketing, Edward’s previous job was due for a change) has a misplaced description, with Edward’s job having 12 years of experience. Revision IV (After 12 years of experience at his previous jobs, Edward was interested in a different career path outside of marketing) states both different and outside of — repetitive phrases.

714. II. (Smith Publishing employs many experts to eliminate errors in its science and math publications.)

Once you read Smith Publishing in the original sentence (Smith Publishing, which publishes some books that deal with science and math, employs many experts in science and math to check its publications and eliminate any errors), you know that the company publishes. If experts eliminate errors in its science and math publications, that they are experts in science and math and that they check are implied. Revision II supplies all the information in half the space. All the other revisions (I: Smith Publishing, which publishes some books about science and math, employs many experts in science and math to check its publications and eliminate any errors; III: Smith Publishing, publishing some books about science and math, employs many experts in science and math to check its publications; and IV: Smith Publishing, which publishes some books about science and math, employs many experts to check its publications and eliminate any errors) contain unnecessary words.
715. I. (We were already seated when the conductor raised his baton and the orchestra began to play.)

The original sentence reads: We were already sitting in seats when the orchestra, all musicians, began to play at the direction of the conductor, who raised his baton to start the performance. Sitting in seats? Seriously, where else can you sit? Okay, you can sit on the grass or on an exercise ball, but those are the exceptions. Don’t bother placing the common meaning, in seats, in the sentence. Also, the orchestra is made up of all musicians — another common fact you don’t have to mention. Finally, began to play and start the performance provide the same information.

716. II. (Oliver Twist, which some consider Charles Dickens’s finest novel, focuses on a young boy forced to steal.)

Revisions I (Oliver Twist, considered Charles Dickens’s finest novel, focuses on a boy who is not too old who is forced to steal) and IV (Oliver Twist, Dickens’s finest novel, focuses on a boy who is forced to steal) change the meaning of the original sentence (Oliver Twist, which some consider Charles Dickens’s finest novel, focuses on a young boy, not very old, who is forced to steal) a little too much, because not everyone favors this novel as Dickens’s finest. Revision III (Oliver Twist, which some consider Charles Dickens’s finest novel, focuses on a boy who is forced to steal) cuts out the age factor, which also alters the meaning of the sentence. Revision II has everything, stated more concisely.

717. III. (The researchers hoped the new medication would make a difference during cell division.)

The original sentence (It was then, at the moment when the cell divided, that the researchers hoped that the new medication would make a difference) repeats then and at the moment and when the cell divided — three comments about time. Opt for the most specific (when the cell divided), shorten it to cell division, and the whole sentence contracts.

718. No change

This one is tricky. In the original sentence (For four hours, quasars — high energy objects — were observed in that galaxy), the material between the dashes is a definition of quasars. If your readers definitely know what quasars are, you don’t need the definition. However, inserting a definition when you’re explaining something is perfectly legitimate. The original sentence is fine.

719. II. (Unanimous votes rarely occur in that committee, because committee members hold strong but opposing views.)

In Revision II, when the original sentence (Unanimous votes do not (or when they do, only rarely) occur in that committee, the reason for this fact being that committee members hold strong but opposing views) goes on a diet, it loses 13 words. Revision II is also better because it takes a stand. It doesn’t start out in one direction (do not occur) and then waffle (or when they do, only rarely). No doubt about it, Revision II is best.
III. (Colles’ fractures occur when the arm bone breaks near the wrist.)

The original sentence reads: As I said before, Colles’ fractures are fractures of the arm bone near the wrist. As I said before is a sure sign that you’re repeating yourself. Unless you’re in conversation and you think the listener hasn’t gotten the message, make your point once and move on. Another problem with the original is the repetition of fracture. Revision III takes care of both issues.

IV. (This novel presents important ideas that the reader should ponder.)

Consider the original sentence: In this novel, the author discusses various themes and ideas, all very important concepts that the reader should ponder. When you read a novel and discover ideas to ponder, you know that the author placed them there. (They didn’t show up by accident! Themes aren’t exactly the same thing as ideas, but the two concepts are close, so select only one. (The simpler expression is ideas, but themes would be fine also.) Furthermore, once you have a plural (themes or ideas), various is implied. Very is sometimes a good word to intensify the meaning of the word it describes, but here important, all by itself, gets the point across. Cut out all those extras and you end up with Revision IV, half as long and twice as powerful as the original.

I. and III. (I. The brightly shining lamp is on the table next to the sofa. III. On the table next to the sofa is the lamp, which shines brightly.)

In Sentences I and III, the lamp, the table, and the sofa are in the correct positions — lamp on table, table next to the sofa. Sentence II (Next to the sofa, the lamp is shining brightly on the table) places next to the sofa far from table; in general, descriptions should be close to whatever they describe. Also, Sentence II implies that the lamp shines on the table. Probably the lamp does light up the table, but it most likely illuminates the room as well. Sentences I and III work, but II doesn’t.

I. (The bus, which has 50 seats, is stuck in traffic.)

Sentence I properly inserts extra information into the sentence with a clause, which has 50 seats. Sentence II (The bus of 50 seats is stuck in traffic) misuses a preposition, of. The correct preposition for this situation is with. Sentence III (The bus, it has 50 seats and is stuck in traffic) incorrectly presents the subject, bus, along with a pronoun, it.

II. (The children’s book contains many pictures of forests and mountains.)

Sentence I (The book contains many pictures, and it shows forests and mountains, and it is for children) is grammatically correct but very choppy. It sounds like a child’s sentence; all its ideas are strung together with and. Sentence II consolidates three ideas with a possessive noun (children’s) and a prepositional phrase (of forests and mountains). Sentence II is a winner! Sentence III (The book of many pictures shows forests and mountains, intended for children) misplaces a description. As written, the forests and mountains are intended for children — clearly not the intended meaning.
725. III. (This container is for food scraps, which form compost to fertilize the garden.)

Sentence I (Food scraps form compost in this container fertilizing the garden) says that this container fertilizes the garden, but the compost fertilizes, not this container. Sentence II (In this container there are food scraps, and they form compost, and they fertilize the garden) is more accurate but very wordy. Sentence III is more concise and conveys the correct information.

726. I. and II. (I. The suitcase is heavy, but fortunately, it has wheels and I don’t have to carry it. II. I’m glad I don’t have to carry the heavy suitcase, which has wheels.)

Sentence I includes all the ideas and expresses them nicely, because fortunately is a comment people make when they’re glad. Sentence II is even more concise, though Sentence I is also okay. Sentence III (The heavy suitcase has wheels, and I don’t have to carry it, and I am glad about not carrying it) strings together too many ideas with and.

727. II. (When the sun came out, the temperature rose and the ice melted.)

Sentence I (The sun coming out, the temperature rising and ice melting) isn’t really a sentence at all; it’s a fragment. Sentence II uses an adverb clause (When the sun came out) and two independent clauses (the temperature rose, the ice melted) to express these ideas fluidly. It’s a winner! Sentence III (The sun came out, so the temperature rose, so the ice melted) repeats so and sounds immature.

728. I. and III. (I. The suspenseful play made me gasp at times. III. The play was so suspenseful that I gasped at times.)

Sentences I and III get the point across concisely. Perhaps you noticed that these two sentences don’t bother stating I saw the play. Well, how can someone gasp at times without seeing the play? Don’t state the obvious, unless you’re sure the reader will misunderstand. Sentence II (Seeing the play, which was suspenseful, was something that made me gasp at times) is wordy and not a good choice.

729. I. and II. (I. Because the air is dry, the plant needs water more often. II. In dry air, the plant needs water more often.)

In Sentences I and II, statements about the air (Because the air is dry and in dry air) introduce the main idea (the plant needs water more often). Sentences I and II convey meaning efficiently and correctly. Sentence III (Needing water more often, the air is dry for the plant) mangles the meaning, because an introductory verb form (Needing water more often, in this sentence) attaches to the subject (air, in this sentence). Sentence III doesn’t work.

730. I. (Jonathan has many clients who trust him to handle their taxes.)

Sentence I tucks a descriptive clause (who trust him) and an infinitive (to handle their taxes) into the sentence, making it concise and complete. Sentences II (Jonathan, with many clients, is trusted by them to handle the taxes they have) and III (Handling their taxes, Jonathan has many clients, and they trust him) are wordy.
731. II. and III. (II. My boss likes to work on Saturdays because the office is empty and free of interruptions. III. My boss likes working on Saturdays in an empty office without interruptions.)

Sentence I (My boss, working on Saturdays, likes that the office is empty and that no one interrupts him on Saturdays) is wordy, with two unnecessarily long clauses beginning with that and repetition of the phrase on Saturdays. Sentence II condenses the long clauses of Sentence I into simpler descriptions — empty and free of interruptions. Sentence III is even shorter, but the prepositional phrases (in an empty office without interruptions) get the job done.

732. I. (At harvest time, some growers add artificial color to fruit and vegetables to satisfy consumer demand for such produce.)

Sentence I uses the general term produce to replace fruit and vegetables. That’s a great idea, because repeating the same phrase is boring and inefficient. Sentence II (Because of consumer demand for brightly colored fruit and vegetables, some growers artificially add bright color to the fruits and vegetables when the fruits and vegetables are harvested) uses the phrase fruit and vegetables three times! Sentence III (Demanding bright colors for fruit and vegetables for consumers, some growers add the color artificially) mistakenly says that the growers are demanding, not the consumers. Remember that an introductory verb form (such as demanding) must apply to the subject of the sentence, which is growers in Sentence III.

733. III. (Smartphone applications, or “apps,” are more advanced now than they used to be.)

Sentence I (The applications, also known as “apps,” for smartphones are more advanced now than the apps were some years ago, being less advanced then) ends with a completely unnecessary phrase, being less advanced then. It dangles at the end of the sentence, attached to nothing. Sentence II (Being more advanced now; smartphones running better apps) looks good at first glance, because it’s concise, but the sentence isn’t really a sentence at all; it’s a fragment. Sentence III expresses all the ideas smoothly and correctly.

734. I. and II. (I. A train running at high speed cannot stop suddenly. II. Running at high speed, a train cannot stop suddenly.)

Sentences I and II neatly express all the ideas. Sentence I uses a description (running at high speed) after the word described (train). Sentence II places the description before the word described. Sentence III (Sudden stops, they cannot happen for high-speed trains) doubles up the subject (stops, they), so it doesn’t work.

735. II. and III. (II. Energy-efficient fluorescent bulbs decrease customers’ electric bills. III. Fluorescent bulbs, being energy efficient, decrease customers’ electric bills.)

Sentence I (Fluorescent bulbs are energy efficient, so they use less energy, and customers’ electric bills are lower) strings together three statements with so and and. Sentence I isn’t terrible, but it’s a little awkward. Sentences II and III, on the other hand, tuck in the idea of using less energy with an adjective (energy-efficient) in Sentence II and a verbal (being energy efficient) in Sentence III. Both II and III flow nicely and communicate all the information.
736. I. (Studying anatomy may help artists draw human figures.)

So many words express the ideas in this question! Yet all those ideas boil down to something simple, Studying anatomy may help artists draw human figures. In other words, Sentence I. Sentence II (To study anatomy, which some artists do, is that which helps artists when they draw human figures) adds unnecessary words, as does Sentence III (Studying anatomy, some artists when they are drawing human figures work better).

737. All of the sentences

Four short sentences in this question express the ideas, but Sentences I, II, and III do so more efficiently and smoothly. Sentence I (Because mosquitoes don't fly well, especially into the wind, a fan can repel mosquitoes) starts with an adverb clause and Sentence II (A fan can repel mosquitoes because they fly poorly into the wind) ends with one (because . . . into the wind). Sentence III (Generating wind, a fan may repel mosquitoes, which don't fly well) begins with the fan’s role (Generating wind) and adds a descriptive clause at the end of the sentence (which don't fly well) to clarify how the fan affects the bugs. These three sentences are all different, but all are good.

738. I. (Programmed properly, computers can mimic musical instruments.)

Sentence I is short, but it gets the job done. The introductory verbal (programmed properly), and the subject it’s attached to (computers) cover the first two ideas, and the rest is a simple statement (computers can mimic musical instruments). Sentence II (Programming different sounds on a computer results in musical instrument sounds) contains repetition, and Sentence III (To create sounds resembling musical instruments, computer programmers can do that) has a vague pronoun (that) and an awkward structure.

739. I. and III. (I. Before the mirror cracked, it was Emily’s favorite possession. III. Until it cracked, Emily’s favorite possession was the mirror.)

Both Sentence I and Sentence III start off with adverb clauses and move fluidly to Emily’s preference for the mirror. Sentence II (A favorite possession, Emily’s mirror was cracking and then wasn’t favored) begins well but then awkwardly shifts from was cracking (an active-voice verb) to wasn’t favored (a passive-voice verb). Shifting from active to passive isn’t a good idea, unless you have no alternative — and you do!

740. I. (That Henry cheats is a disgrace.)

Sentence I begins with an unusual subject, the clause That Henry cheats. This noun clause works perfectly with the rest of the sentence, which tells you that Henry’s cheating is a disgrace. Sentence II (Henry, cheating, is a disgrace) expresses a different meaning, making Henry the disgrace, rather than the fact that he cheats. Sentence III (To cheat is a disgrace for Henry) is more accurate, but it’s awkwardly worded.
### 741. I. (After mishearing and misunderstanding a word, people eventually accept the “wrong” meaning as right.)

Sentence I has it all, conveying the ideas with an introductory phrase (After mishearing and misunderstanding a word) and a concise statement about the evolution of language (people eventually accept the “wrong” meaning as right). The quotation marks around wrong, by the way, signal that the wrong meaning isn’t really wrong. The quotation marks are the equivalent of the expression so-called, as in my so-called friend who stabbed me in the back. Sentence II (To mishear and to misunderstand a word, the meaning is accepted as right, even though it used to be wrong) has a dangling description. No one is present in the sentence to mishear and to misunderstand. (When a sentence begins with an introductory verb form, the subject must be the person performing the action.) Sentence III (Because people mishear and misunderstand a word, they accept mistakes and go from wrong to right) is too vague.

### 742. III. (Letter carriers, who want higher salaries, are on strike.)

Letter carriers are people, so the pronoun who is better than that when you refer to them. Only Sentence III employs the proper pronoun.

### 743. I. (Jim washed his shirt, but the stains made with permanent ink remained.)

The description made with permanent ink is essential to the reader’s understanding of the sentence. Therefore, it shouldn’t be set off from the rest of the sentence by commas. Sentence I gets this point right, but Sentence II (Jim couldn’t remove the stains, made with permanent ink, from his shirt) doesn’t. Sentence III (Made with permanent ink, Jim couldn’t remove the stains from his shirt) begins with a verb form, which, by grammar law, attaches to the subject (Jim). Jim isn’t made with permanent ink, so Sentence III is wrong.

### 744. I. and II. (I. To see her grandmother, Charlotte visited Indianapolis. II. Charlotte visited Indianapolis to see her grandmother.)

Sentences I and II use infinitive phrases (to see her grandmother) to explain why Charlotte visited Indianapolis. Infinitive phrases express Charlotte’s reason in an efficient and interesting manner. Sentence III (For seeing her grandmother, Charlotte visited Indianapolis) starts off with an odd prepositional phrase (For seeing her grandmother) and isn’t as fluid as Sentences I and II.

### 745. I. and III. (I. Hurtling through the air, the football cleared the goalposts. III. Clearing the goalposts, the football hurtled through the air.)

In Sentences I and III, introductory verb forms convey information. Both tell the reader that the football was in the air and went through the goalposts. Sentence II (To hurtle through the air, the football cleared the goalposts) implies a cause-and-effect relationship that isn’t accurate; the football didn’t clear the goalposts in order to hurtle through the air. In fact, the reverse is true.
746. III. (A polished piece of writing, that essay will win a prize.)
Sentence I (The essay that is a polished piece of writing and that will win a prize) isn’t a sentence at all; it’s a fragment. Sentence II (Polished, the essay is a piece and writing and it will win a prize) begins well, with the description polished. Then it strings ideas together in a childish way, using and twice. Sentence III starts off with an appositive (an equivalent) — a polished piece of writing. The rest of the sentence states simply and clearly that the essay will win a prize. Sentence III works well.

747. III. (Having stayed up all night, Ben fought to keep his eyes open at work the next day.)
A descriptive verb form usually expresses action that happens at the same time as the action expressed by the main verb in the sentence. However, once you add having, you place the action from the descriptive form before the main action. Ben’s all-nighter took place first, so having stayed up all night is the form you want. Only Sentence III has that form, so only Sentence III is correct.

748. I. (Wearing masks and odd clothes, no one at the costume party recognized anyone else.)
The descriptive verb form in Sentence I, the present participle wearing, expresses action that happens at the same time as the action expressed by the main verb in the sentence. In this situation, the guests are wearing masks and costumes and they don’t recognize anyone else. Everything happens at the same time. Sentence I is correct. Having worn and had worn don’t work in this situation.

749. I. and III. (I. To see Mount Everest, her goal, wasn’t easy. III. Her goal, to see Mount Everest, wasn’t easy.)
In Sentences I and III, you have an appositive — an equivalent. The order is reversed, but both sentences equate to see Mount Everest and goal. Both I and III are excellent combinations of ideas. Sentence II (Being her goal, seeing Mount Everest not being easy), on the other hand, isn’t really a sentence. It’s a collection of participles with no complete thought.

750. II. (I want the book that has an index.)
The descriptive clause that has an index identifies which book I want. Because it’s essential, it shouldn’t be set off by commas. Sentence I (I want the book, that has an index) is wrong, therefore, and Sentence II is right. Sentence III (Having an index, I want that book) has an introductory verb form, which, by the rules of grammar, must describe the subject. The speaker, I, doesn’t have an index. The book does! Sentence III is wrong.

751. II. (Having done the laundry yesterday, I think you should do it today.)
Sentence I (Doing the laundry yesterday, you should do it today) has an introductory verb form, which, in proper grammar, describes the subject. However, you didn’t do the laundry yesterday; the speaker (I) did. Sentence I is wrong. Sentence II works well because the helping verb having places the first statement about laundry (that the speaker did it yesterday) earlier than the second (I think you should do it today). Sentence III (The laundry done yesterday, you should do it today) omits the speaker, so it doesn’t make sense.
II. and III. (II. On the bus, was he? III. Was he on the bus?)

Sentence III is the common pattern for a question in English. Sentence II is a fine variation, but Sentence I (On the bus, did he?) isn’t. The verb did makes no sense unless you add another verb, such as travel.

All of the sentences

Every sentence here expresses the same idea in proper English. Isn’t it nice to see some interesting variations?

I. and II. (I. Around the corner, just in time, came a police officer. II. Just in time, around the corner came a police officer.)

The basic subject-verb pair (police officer came) is inverted in Sentences I and II and placed at the end of the sentence instead of in its usual spot, the beginning. No worries: Both sentences are correct. Sentence III (Coming around the corner, just in time, a police officer) lacks the subject-verb pair, so it’s a fragment, not a real sentence.

III. (Chinese food he loved, but Japanese food he avoided.)

Sentence I (Loving Chinese food, avoiding Japanese food) lacks a subject-verb pair, and Sentence II (Loved Chinese food, he avoided Japanese food) incorrectly drops a verb form (loved Chinese food) at the beginning of the sentence. Sentence III changes the usual pattern (subject-verb-complement) by placing the complements first (Chinese food, Japanese food). Sentence III is correct.

I. and III. (I. Finished everything, have they? III. Have they finished everything?)

Sentences I and III are acceptable ways of asking whether they have finished everything. Sentence II (Everything finished, have they?) doesn’t work because the reader instinctively adds is, as in everything is finished. That expression doesn’t match they have.

II. (Creating perfect ice for hockey, Freon flowed through the pipes under the surface.)

The key to this question is figuring out where everything is and then ensuring that the descriptions put everything in the proper place. You have a surface that’s perfect for hockey and pipes under the surface. Freon flows through the pipes. Okay, now that you know what’s where, check out Sentence I (Creating perfect ice for hockey, through the pipes flowed Freon under the surface). The prepositional phrase under the surface is in the wrong spot; it should follow pipes, because the pipes are under the surface. In Sentence III (Through the pipes Freon under the surface flowed, creating perfect ice for hockey), Freon again separates pipes and under the surface. Penalty box! Only in Sentence II is everything where it should be.

III. (No goal was more important to him than winning a gold medal.)

Sentence I (His winning a gold medal, no goal more important to him) has no true subject-verb pair, so it’s a fragment. Sentence II (Winning a gold medal, his goal, was more important to him) has an appositive, his goal, which is the equivalent of winning a gold medal. However, the comparison is incomplete — more important than what? You can’t tell, so Sentence II is incorrect. Sentence III equates goal and winning a gold medal with the linking verb was. This sentence is correct.
759. All of the sentences

The noun clause that Jane’s motives were pure moves around in these three sentences, but in each it’s correctly used. In Sentences I (That Jane’s motives were pure was all that mattered to Joe) and II (To Joe, that Jane’s motives were pure was all that mattered), the clause is a subject. In Sentence III (All that mattered to Joe was that Jane’s motives were pure), it’s a complement.

760. I. (No matter what Agatha says, don’t listen.)

In Sentence I, the basic subject-verb pair is present (you [understood] = the subject; listen = the verb). The expression no matter what Agatha says explains the condition for listening (or not listening), so it’s an adverb, in a fine spot. Sentence II (Whatever Agatha says, it does not matter, don’t listen) is a run-on, with two complete thoughts improperly placed together (it does not matter, don’t listen). Sentence III (Not mattering what Agatha says, don’t listen) begins with a verbal that doesn’t make sense.

761. I. (What he does, you don’t have to do too.)

The word too floats around in two of these sentences. It makes sense where it is in Sentence I, because it applies to you. In Sentence II (Whatever he does, too, you don’t have to), though, the too could apply to the first or the second statement. Because it’s vague, Sentence II doesn’t work. Sentence III (You not having to do what he does) is a fragment.

762. I. (Breaking through the cloudy skies was a rainbow.)

Sentence I inverts the usual subject-verb order, but everything is present. Sentence II (A rainbow, breaking through the cloudy skies was) improperly separates the subject (rainbow) from the verb (was) with a comma. Sentence III (Was a rainbow breaking through the cloudy skies) would be fine if it were a question, but as a statement, it’s incomplete — and therefore incorrect.

763. I. and II. (I. Whatever attracts attention, such as a feather-and-glue dress, she wants. II. Whatever attracts attention — a feather-and-glue dress, perhaps — she wants.)

The core of Sentences I and II is the subject-verb pair, she wants. The direct object is the noun clause, whatever attracts attention. The feather-and-glue dress is extra information, giving you more information about whatever attracts attention. Because feather-and-glue dress is not essential, it’s properly set off by commas (Sentence I) and dashes (Sentence II). Sentence III (Wanting a feather-and-glue dress, attracting attention) is a fragment, lacking a subject-verb pair.

764. I. and III. (I. Moving to Lithuania, he experienced his ancestors’ culture. III. He, moving to Lithuania, experienced his ancestors’ culture.)

Sentences I and III place the descriptive verb form, moving to Lithuania, where it belongs — attached to he. Sentence II (His ancestors’ culture moving to Lithuania he experienced) attaches that description to culture, not the intended meaning.
765. I. (On the track, speeding along, the blue racing car stood out.)

Only Sentence I has a true subject-verb pair, *car stood*. The other two sentences (*Standing out, on the track the blue racing car, speeding along and Standing out and speeding along, the blue racing car on the track*) are fragments.

766. I. and II. (I. Of love he knew nothing. II. Nothing he knew of love.)

Sentences I and II have a basic subject-verb pair (*he knew*). The complement (*nothing*) and prepositional phrase (*of love*) move around, but they make sense. Sentence III (*Knowing nothing, he of love*), on the other hand, doesn’t make sense, so it’s incorrect.

767. were uncovered (PV) (The ruins were uncovered early in 1912.)

The subject of the sentence, *ruins*, receives the action here, so *were uncovered* is a passive verb form.

768. were connected (PV), was constructed (PV) (France and England were first connected by high-speed trains when the Chunnel, a tunnel under the English Channel, was constructed.)

The subject of the first part of this sentence, *France and England*, receives the action, so *were connected* is passive. In the second half of the sentence, the subject (*tunnel*) receives the action, making *was constructed* a passive verb. Did you select *first*? That’s an adverb, telling when the action happened.

769. blanketed (AV), found (AV) (Fog blanketed the area, but somehow Raymond found the path home.)

The subject, *fog*, performs the action in the first portion of this sentence, so *blanketed* is an active verb. In the second portion of the sentence, the subject (*Raymond*) performs the action. Thus *found* is also an active verb.

770. is working (AV), writes (AV), are (AV) (Carlos’s poetry class is working hard; the poems he writes are imaginative.)

This is a short sentence packed with verbs. First you have *is working* — which explains what the subject, *class*, is doing. Because the subject performs the action, *is working* is an active verb form. Next up is *he writes*. The subject, *he*, does the action (*writes*), so *writes* is an active verb. The last subject-verb pair is *poems are*. The verb here is also active, because the subject (*poems*) is in the state of being expressed by the verb. Did you struggle with *imaginative*? It’s an adjective, not a verb.

771. rejected (AV), representing (AV), says (AV), was trained (PV) (William rejected 30 applicants representing 16 schools because, he says, not one was properly trained.)

The first subject-verb pair is *William rejected*. *William* performs the action, so *rejected* is an active verb. The next verb form, *representing*, is a descriptive verb form (a participle). Although it doesn’t function as a verb, it’s active because what it describes (*applicants*) performs the action. Next up is *says*, an active verb because the subject, *he*, performs the action. The last verb is *was trained*. It’s passive because its subject, *one*, receives the action (*was trained*).
772. **Played (PV), stunned (AV), pleased (AV)** *(Played at maximum volume, Doug’s music stunned and pleased the crowd.)*

The descriptive verb form *played* is passive because it describes *music*, which receives the action. Both *stunned* and *pleased* are active, because their subject, *music*, performs those actions.

773. **Having been summoned (PV), was (AV)** *(Having been summoned to jury duty, Richard was absent from work last week.)*

The introductory verb form, *having been summoned*, describes *Richard*. Richard receives the action, so the verb form is passive. The second verb, *was*, is active, because the subject (*Richard*) exists in the state of being the verb expresses.

774. **terrified (AV), afflicted (AV), has been eradicated (PV)** *(Smallpox, which terrified and afflicted so many, has been eradicated.)*

The pronoun *which* stands in for *smallpox*. *Terrified* and *afflicted* are two active verbs because their subject, *which*, performs those actions. The next verb is *has been eradicated*. Its subject, *smallpox*, receives that action, so the verb is passive.

775. **The clerk stamped the letter after Louella had paid the postage.**

The passive verb *was stamped* changes to the active *stamped* once you make *clerk* the subject of the first part of the sentence. The second subject-verb pair (*Louella had paid*) is already active, as the subject performs the action.

776. **The smiling toddler blew out two candles.**

The passive verb *were blown* changes to *blew* when you make the subject *toddler*.

777. **No change**

The sentence has two subject-verb pairs, *umbrella did hit* and *wind whisked*. In both pairs, the subject performs the action, so both verbs are active.

778. **Isaac hopes that Governor Mary Smith will lower taxes when she takes over.**

The original sentence has one passive verb, *will be lowered*. Change that to *Governor Mary Smith will lower*, and the verb is active. Did you select a descriptive verb form, *taking office*, to change the sentence? That verb form would work only if the subject were *Governor Mary Smith*, not *Isaac* or *taxes*.

779. **Riders should wear helmets at all times during bicycle rides.**

The original sentence has a passive verb, *should be worn*, but you can’t change the verb to active unless you supply someone to wear the helmets. The logical choice is *riders*, though *cyclists* or another noun could also work. If you tried to fix the sentence with a descriptive, introductory verb form (*riding*, for example), you need a subject who’s doing the *riding* (*bicycle riders*, perhaps). Remember, a descriptive, introductory verb form describes the subject, and *helmets* can’t ride! The problem with adding *bicycle riders* or *riders* is that you end up with an awkward, repetitive sentence, such as this one: *Riding a bicycle, riders should wear helmets at all times*. Your best choice is to avoid the descriptive verb form.
| 780. | Passengers must check large suitcases before boarding, but some take them into the cabin anyway.  

*Must be checked* is passive, so you have to reword the sentence so that *passengers* are checking their bags. |
| 781. | No change  
This sentence has three subject-verb pairs, all active: *minutes had passed, we realized, she was*. No change is needed here. |
| 782. | No change  
The sentence expresses a real possibility, so a subjunctive verb isn’t necessary. |
| 783. | *If I were a lottery winner (If I were a lottery winner, I would circle the globe on a first-class ticket. Unfortunately, I didn’t win.)*  
The second sentence hammers home the point: The speaker (*I*) didn’t win the lottery. Therefore, the *if* statement isn’t true and requires the subjunctive verb, *were*. |
| 784. | *If Marty had been promoted (If Marty had been promoted, he would have taken us to a fancy restaurant to celebrate. Instead, we treated him to a hot dog from the corner stand.)*  
Hot dog? Clearly, Marty did not receive a promotion. The *if* statement isn’t true and requires the subjunctive verb, *had been promoted*. |
| 785. | *is suspended (If Alex is suspended, he will miss at least 50 games; the commissioner will announce his decision tomorrow, and Alex will know his fate.)*  
This sentence expresses a real possibility, so no subjunctive verb is necessary. The second half of the sentence is in future tense, so present tense is best for the *if* statement. |
| 786. | No change  
The *if* statement is at the end of the sentence here, but the same rules apply: Anna did *not* know how hungry her guests were, so the *if* statement has a subjunctive verb (*had known*). The other statement requires the helping verbs *would* and *have* to place the action in the past, matching *had known* and *were*, verbs that also refer to the past. |
| 787. | *Were Dmitri an accomplished magician (Were Dmitri an accomplished magician, he would pull a rabbit out of a hat. Because he’s still learning, he can retrieve only a scarf from a baseball cap.)*  
Dmitri isn’t an accomplished magician, so that part of the sentence needs a subjunctive verb, *were. If Dmitri were an accomplished* is another possible correction. |
| 788. | No change  
This sentence begins with an implied *if* statement that isn’t true. Sparky didn’t get lost, so you need the subjunctive verb, *had gotten*. |
789. was (On the way to the used car lot, Lola made up her mind: If the convertible was in good shape, she would buy it.)

You don’t need subjunctive because the sentence presents a real possibility — a car that may be in good shape or not. The whole sentence is set in the past (made is a past-tense verb), so a simple past-tense verb, was, works here.

790. Had the chef added seasoning (Had the chef added seasoning to that food, it would have tasted better and more diners would have eaten it.)

The sentence clearly says that the chef didn’t add seasoning, so you need subjunctive.

Had the chef added seasoning contains the subjunctive verb had added. The if is implied, but stating if also works (If the chef had added seasoning).

791. If Maddy answers (If Maddy answers the phone, hang up!)

The sentence presents possibilities: Maddy or no one or someone else may answer. When a situation is possible, don’t use a subjunctive verb. The second portion of the sentence is a command (hang up), and commands are always in the present. Opt for the simple present-tense verb, answers.

792. No change

This sentence has an if statement, but it doesn’t present an if/then idea. Instead, it simply explains the clerk’s question, which deals with a condition and consequently uses a conditional helping verb, would. The original sentence is fine as written.

793. would’ve hit (If the pitcher had thrown a fast ball, the batter would’ve hit a home run.)

The sentence presents a classic subjunctive situation. The if statement tells what didn’t happen, and the other part of the sentence employs the helping verb would. The problem with the original is of. The contraction would have shortens to would’ve, which sounds like would of. The expressions would of, should of, and could of are never correct. Go for would’ve or would have.

794. as if Jordan were (The mathematician spoke as if Jordan were his equal, but Jordan has trouble adding two and two.)

Jordan isn’t the equal of the mathematician, so the subjunctive verb were is necessary here. You may wonder about as if. That expression may introduce a subjunctive situation, just as if alone does. In this sentence as if fits the meaning of the sentence, so don’t change it. The word like, by the way, never begins a subject-verb statement.

795. No change

The first part of this sentence expresses something that isn’t true: Cary isn’t 60. He’s 30. As though can introduce a subjunctive statement (just as the more common word, if, does). One more grammar point: The word like never begins a subject-verb statement.
<p>| 796. | he had bought (Dialing the repair shop, Johnny wishes he had bought the computer at a store, not at a flea market.) |
|      | This sentence is another variation on the sort of untrue statement that calls for subjunctive. Johnny didn’t buy the computer at a store, so the untrue statement needs the subjunctive formed with had: he had bought. |
| 797. | <strong>Capitalize American, no change, capitalize First</strong> |
|      | <em>American</em> is part of the title, so it should be capitalized. (It also comes from the name of a country — another reason for a capital letter.) <em>Inventors</em> is fine as written, but <em>First</em> should be capitalized. In a bulleted list not composed of complete sentences, you may choose to capitalize or lowercase the first word of every item, but you must be consistent. (Of course, if a bullet begins with a proper name, you should capitalize the name even if other bullets begin with lowercase letters.) In this slide, the first two bullets are capitalized, so the third one must be also. |
| 798. | <strong>No change, delete period after expense, change to better attendance</strong> |
|      | The introduction to this list is a complete sentence, so a colon (:) is perfect after <em>following</em>. Drop the period after <em>expense</em> because items in a list generally don’t end with periods unless the items are complete sentences. <em>More employees can attend</em> must change because the other items in the list aren’t complete sentences, so this one doesn’t match. A good choice is <em>better attendance</em>, but any noun and attached description (<em>increased attendance</em>), for example, would work. |
| 799. | <strong>Delete served as, capitalize Vice President, no change</strong> |
|      | Two of the three items in the list are nouns, but the first item adds a verb (<em>served</em>). Because all the items should match, delete <em>served as</em>. The position titles (<em>Governor, Vice President, President</em>) are all important, and all should be capitalized, including both halves of the title <em>Vice President</em>. |
| 800. | <strong>Capitalize What, change the period to a colon after dance, lowercase music</strong> |
|      | The first word of an introductory phrase (in this slide, <em>What</em>) should be capitalized. As an introduction to the list, <em>What we need for the annual dance</em> should be followed by a colon, not a period, because the bullet points don’t complete the sentence started by the introduction. The items in the list aren’t complete sentences, and the first two items in the list are in lowercase, so <em>music</em> shouldn’t be capitalized. |
| 801. | <strong>No change, no change, change to fake engagement announcement for Pam and Steve (2010)</strong> |
|      | When an introductory line ends with a linking verb (a form of the verb <em>to be</em>), don’t place any punctuation after the verb. Items in a bulleted list, unless they are complete sentences, generally aren’t capitalized, so <em>glue</em> is fine. The second bullet point is a complete sentence, but the first and third points aren’t. All bullet points should match, so change the complete sentence to a noun and its attached descriptions — <em>fake engagement announcement for Pam and Steve (2010)</em>. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>802.</strong></th>
<th>Delete quotation marks, change to Thiamin, riboflavin, and other compounds are B vitamins, no change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Don’t place a centered title in quotation marks. The first item in this list, unlike the second and third items, begins with a verb but has no subject. Any change that includes a subject-verb combination (so long as it expresses the same meaning) is fine; one possible choice is Thiamin, riboflavin, and other compounds are B vitamins. The third bullet point is correct.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>803.</strong></th>
<th>No change, change the comma after following to a colon, change to to hire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The first word of an introduction should be capitalized, so Goals is correct. Delete the comma after following and replace it with a colon. The first two bullet points are infinitives (to + the verb), so the third bullet point should be an infinitive (to hire) also.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>804.</strong></th>
<th>Enclose Diving into the Wreck in quotation marks, no change, no change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The title of a slide generally contains no quotation marks, unless something in the title needs quotation marks for another reason. In this slide, the poem title requires quotation marks. The bullet points are all nouns with attached descriptions, and none are capitalized. All are fine as written.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>805.</strong></th>
<th>Change to Stradivarius violins are expensive because of, no change, no change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In this slide you don’t have a title; you have an introductory statement. Only the first word (and proper names) are capitalized in this sort of situation. No punctuation follows because of, given that the sentence isn’t complete. The bullet points complete the sentence, so they must begin with lowercase letters. Each point must make sense when it is inserted into the introductory statement. All the bullet points meet this standard. Here’s one example: Stradivarius violins are expensive because of their limited numbers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>806.</strong></th>
<th>No change, lowercase research, lowercase check</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You don’t have a title for this slide, only an introductory statement. No punctuation follows must, because you haven’t finished the sentence. The bullet points complete the sentence, so they must begin with lowercase letters (research, check). Each point must make sense when it is inserted into the introductory statement. Note: Super-strict grammarians punctuate bullet points that complete the introductory statement with semicolons after every item except the last one, which ends with a period. Many modern style manuals ignore this practice and omit the semicolons and period.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>807.</strong></th>
<th>Add these features and a colon after features, no change, change to More than 90% of users approve of the app.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The introductory statement isn’t a complete sentence, but two of the bullet points are. Mismatch! Change the introductory statement to a complete sentence, and you’re fine. You may choose to add these features, but any similar expression would do. Because you have a complete introductory sentence, you need a colon before the list. The third item changes, because in the original slide, it’s incomplete. This answer is just one way to create a complete sentence. If you were thinking of a different sentence expressing the same idea, no problem!</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
No changes to underlined material

808.

Shocked? This is a correct slide, just to keep you on your toes. The introductory statement isn’t a complete sentence, so you need no punctuation after for. The bullet points are all nouns and attached descriptions, and all begin with lowercase letters. Yup, everything here is correct.

809.

Change to Useful Arts and Crafts Materials, change to Glue sticks (any brand), change to Felt and fabric scraps

The centered title should be in “headline style,” with all the important words capitalized. You don’t have to capitalize items in a bulleted list, but if you capitalize some, you have to capitalize all. Therefore, Glue and Felt are fine. These bullet points aren’t titles, though, so the words inside each item should be lowercase, except, of course, for proper nouns.

810.

Delete colon after are, no change, no change

The introductory statement isn’t a complete sentence, and it ends with a linking verb. Don’t use any punctuation after a linking verb — ever! The other bullet points are fine, because each completes the thought the introductory statement begins. Note: Super-strict grammarians punctuate bullet points that complete the introductory statement with semicolons after every item except the last one, which ends with a period. Many modern style manuals ignore this practice and omit the semicolons and period.

811.

Delete colon after Measures, no change, change to Use only disposable equipment.

Punctuation follows a centered title only in rare instances, such as when the title is a question and you need a question mark. The first two items in the bulleted list are commands (Wash, Use), so the third item should be a command also (Use).

812.

Insert a colon after following, place the parentheses after Mystic Pizza, delete the last bullet point

The introductory statement is a complete sentence, so you need a colon after following. The second, third, and fourth bullet points are film titles; don’t break the pattern with the first bullet point. If you move the parenthetical information after the title, the list is more uniform. (You can also delete it entirely.) The last bullet point is unnecessary, because the introductory statement says include and doesn’t pretend to offer a complete list.

813.

No changes to underlined material

The phrase “the famous writer” is surrounded by commas because it adds information about Sam Smith. When the bullet points are quotations, the speaker tag (said) in the introductory statement is followed by a comma. All the bullet points are properly capitalized and punctuated.
814. **Capitalize Sources, no change, delete the last bullet point**

The two little words here don’t make sense as an introductory statement, but they work as a title. Capitalize both words (Revenue Sources). The first three bullet points match; they’re all nouns with attached descriptions. The fourth bullet point is a sentence and therefore a mismatch. (In grammar terms, it’s not parallel.) If you delete the last bullet point, all the remaining bullet points are nouns. What about the 20% increase? If you truly needed that information in the slide, you could place it in parentheses after the noun, making the last bullet point more specific by specifying the revenue source (alumni gifts, for example) and adding 20% increase in parentheses after the source of additional funds.

815. **II.**

The key rule of writing — in any medium — is clarity. Only Option II (walk?) is clearly a request. Options I (walk today) and III (Want to walk) may be read as commands or statements about the message writer — not the intended meaning. Did the lowercase w and the absence of a subject bother you? Because this is a message between friends, the rules of capitalization and complete sentences can be ignored.

816. **III.**

Okay, most teachers would prefer a text saying Please let me know how Susie’s grades turned out this semester. Most teachers would also like to win the lottery. Because texts are hard on your thumbs and everyone is busy, broken grammar rules are fine as long as the person receiving the text understands what the sender is saying. Option I (grades good) may be a statement of the parent’s opinion. Option II (Grades?) may be an inquiry about a missing report card. Only Option III (grades good?) lets the teacher know what the parent wants — the teacher’s opinion on the child’s performance.

817. **II.**

In Option I, the subject line is blank. The subject line of an e-mail should communicate the topic of the message; otherwise, the person who receives the message will probably delete it unread. Option III has no spacing between Dear Customer and the message or between Sincerely and the message. Nor is there a space between Sincerely and the sender’s identification. Option II properly spaces the parts of the message and includes a subject line.

818. **I. and III.**

If you want a book contract, you have to show that you can write. Option I (This recipe for tomato stew needs a hint of dates) is formal and correct. Option III (Add a hint of dates to this tomato stew and wow!) is informal but also acceptable. Option II (This recipe 4 tomato stew needs a hint of d8s) substitutes numbers for sounds (4 instead of for, d8s instead of dates). Nope. In a blog, let real words rule.
Option I (no writing paper by herself) is unclear. The history teacher may be saying that he’s seen no writing by herself (by the student in question) or answering no, (she’s) writing the paper by herself. The extra space between no and the rest of the message isn’t enough to clarify the meaning. Option II (no, writing paper by herself) includes a comma, and Option III (No. Writing paper by herself) a period. These punctuation marks separate the no and clarify the important point — that the student is doing her own work. True, Options II and III don’t follow all the grammar rules, but the teacher and counselor are equals. Bending the rules a bit when you’re writing to someone of the same rank is acceptable in instant messages, as long as the meaning is clear.

You can argue on this one, because out there somewhere is a grandfather who understands texting abbreviations such as (G2G – got to go and ttyl – talk to you later). However, those grandfathers are pretty rare. When you text to someone who outranks you in age or status (and a grandfather fits both categories), use Standard English, as Option III (I have to go, Gramps. I’ll talk to you later) does.

Option I assumes that the person who receives the message will realize that the subject line is the entire message. Option III is annoying. Capital letters are useful, but an entire message in capital letters comes across as a shout — a bad-mannered, hard-to-read shout. Stick with Option II, which could perhaps be more diplomatic but is fundamentally correct.

If you want readers to take you seriously, you have to take yourself seriously — and follow at least some of the rules for Standard English. In Standard English, gr8 isn’t a proper substitute for great, so Option I (gr8 CGI in the crashing planet sequence) is out. Option II (great CGI in the crashing planet sequence) is better, but because the website is for general readers, not film buffs, the abbreviation for computer generated imagery (CGI) may be confusing. Option III (great special effects in the crashing planet sequence) substitutes special effects — much more comprehensible and therefore the best choice.

Option I has an informative subject line, a respectful message, and an appropriate closing (Sincerely). It’s a winner! Option II sounds as if it comes from the 19th century. It’s too long and flowery for a busy employer. Option III almost, but not quite, makes the grade. The subject line is far too vague. Is it a job the company is doing for Maria Anderson, or one of perhaps several job openings at the firm? Don’t gamble that the recipient will understand what your message is about!
824. I. and III.
Yes, you can — with your bff (best friend forever) — use shorthand when you text or send an instant message. You can also break the rules of capitalization, spelling (your instead of you’re), and punctuation. As always, the only nonnegotiable quality is clarity. Option I (omg I can’t believe it) employs a common abbreviation (omg = oh my God or oh my goodness). Lol, from Option III (lol your joking), is also a commonly accepted way to say laughing out loud. You may have been tricked by Option II (idnbi), which uses a made-up abbreviation (idnbi means I do not believe it).

825. I.
Presumably Mr. Smith worked hard on his article, so he deserves a courteous reply. Only Option I falls into that category. Besides, other readers disregard rants and look for comments with an actual point.

826. All of the options
If you’re the boss, you have the freedom to be informal. Option I (FYI: Breaks can be 10 minutes tops) uses a commonly accepted abbreviation, FYI (For Your Information). Options II (breaks now 10 mins long and no more) and III (10 min breaks only) break the rules of Standard English, but they’re clear and therefore okay — for the boss! If your writing will travel up the power ladder, be more cautious.

827. 2, 3, 1 (2. You do not comprehend the situation. 3. You don’t understand what happened. 1. You just don’t get it.)
Expression 2 is the most formal, with no contractions (such as don’t, which you see in Expression 3) and the somewhat sophisticated word comprehend. Expression 3 is correct but a little more relaxed, with the contraction don’t and what happened instead of the situation. Expression 1 includes slang: to get it means to understand. Slang is always very informal.

828. 1, 2, 3 (1. I provide herein; 2. I enclose; 3. Here’s)
Expression 1 uses an old-fashioned, totally formal word, herein. Expression 2 is more modern and less formal. Expression 3 is a contraction (here’s is short for here is). The contraction makes this expression the least formal of the three.

829. 1, 3, 2 (1. Don’t worry about that issue. 3. Forget it, please. 2. Hey, don’t flip out!) All three of these statements attempt to reassure the listener or reader. Expression 1 is the most formal, with a complete sentence including a dignified phrase, that issue. Expression 2 employs slang (flip out = get upset), as well as the informal greeting, hey. Somewhere in the middle is Expression 3, which attaches please to a complete sentence.

830. 1 and 3, 2 (1. does not exercise; 3. never exercises; 2. total couch potato)
Expressions 1 and 3 are Standard English, on the same level of formality. Expression 2 is slang. (A total couch potato is someone who never gets off the couch.) Expression 2 is the least formal.
831. 3, 2, 1 (3. I will meet you later today. 2. See you later. 1. C U L8R)

Expression 1 uses texting abbreviations (C = see, U = you, L8R = later) and is the least formal writing possible. Expression 2 is closer to proper English, but the subject and part of the verb (I will) are implied rather than stated. Expression 3 is correct and complete — the most formal of the three.

832. 3, 1 and 2 (3. I apologize. 1. My bad. 2. Oops! Sorry.)

I apologize is grammatically correct and proper for all occasions. Expressions 1 and 2 are less formal because they include slang (my bad = my mistake, understood as an apology, and oops, an expression admitting an accident or error).

833. 1, 3, 2 (1. Does this interest you? 3. Are you in? 2. r u in?)

Expression 1 has no contractions or slang, so it’s formal. Expression 3, on the other hand, uses a shortened form of the expression — close to slang. Are you in? means Are you interested? and is conversational. The least formal is Expression 2, which uses texting abbreviations, r (are) and u (you).

834. 3, 2, 1 (3. pursuant to your request; 2. in reference to your request; 1. about your request)

Pursuant to your request begins with an unusual word. (Pursuant comes from the same root as pursue, which means follow.) Because Expression 3 is probably familiar only to the read-the-dictionary-for-fun types, it’s the most formal. Expression 2 takes it down a notch, because in reference to is more common (though still correct). Expression 1 is the least formal.

835. 2 and 3, 1 (2. In response to your question; 3. To answer your question; 1. You had to ask!)

Expression 1 is obviously the least formal, with a slightly joking tone. Expressions 2 and 3 are formal without being stuffy.

836. 1 and 3, 2 (1. the child under discussion; 3. the child we are discussing; 2. the kid we’re talking about)

Expressions 1 and 3 are grammatically correct and have no contractions or slang. They’re on the same level of formality. Expression 2 includes kid, a slang term for child, as well as the contraction we’re. It’s the least formal of the three.

837. I. (Would you please write a letter of recommendation?)

A teacher has more power than a student, and so does anyone who’s doing you a favor. Statement II (You get me. Wanna write for me? — which a student actually sent!) is too informal. Statement III (r u ok to write 4 me?) is never acceptable in an e-mail, text, or instant message to anyone other than a close friend.
838.  I. and II. (I. Your vacuum stinks. I want my money back now! II. The vacuum doesn’t work, so I want a refund.)

Statement I is rude, but it does get the point across. (Courtesy, of course, is always best, but grammatically this one works.) Statement II conveys the message more politely. It too is fine. Statement III (Vacuum = busted. Refund = mine) probably won’t be taken seriously by a manufacturer. (Would you send money to someone who uses this sort of language?)

839.  All of the statements

Because Lily and Anthony are close friends, they probably text each other often and understand these abbreviations. Grammarians usually hate such shortcuts, but realists know abbreviations and shortened words convey meaning — and they aren’t going away anytime soon. For those who don’t text, 2G2BT means too good to be true, rly means really, r u sure means are you sure, and 4 real means for real.

840.  III. (The marketing is fine, but the neighborhood is questionable.)

Because the supervisor is present, the speaker should steer clear of slang such as epic (impressive, great), sketchy (borderline, not quite safe or correct) and whassup (a short form of What’s up? or What’s going on?). The third statement is fine.

841.  I. and II. (I. Saturday okay with you? Maybe the beach? Or the playground? Could be fun. II. How about I take the kids to the beach or the playground on Saturday for a fun afternoon?)

Parents are peers, so conversational English, which you see in Statements I and II, is fine. Statement III (Would it be permissible for me to take our children on an excursion this Saturday, perhaps to the beach or to the playground, so that they can amuse each other for a while?) is far too formal and stiff. A parent on the receiving end of Statement III would dress the kid in a tuxedo and send him out in a limo — if the parent let him go at all! Inappropriately formal language sometimes masks intention or meaning and may raise suspicions, even though none are warranted.

842.  II. and III. (II. What’s the problem, Officer? III. Is there a problem?)

When a cop is ordering you around, he or she has more power. Statement I (You gotta problem?) is for peers, not the traffic patrol. Statements II and III are sufficiently formal for the situation.

843.  I. and II. (I. get me file asap; II. need file now)

When a boss speaks to an assistant, the boss has more power and can break the rules of conventional grammar, as long as the intended meaning is clear. The first and second statements are okay, assuming the assistant knows which file the boss wants. (ASAP is a common acronym meaning as soon as possible. It’s safe to assume that most people understand it.) Statement III (file – now) doesn’t have enough information. Does the boss want the assistant to file something away for the boss, work on the file, or bring it to the boss? More than one meaning is possible, so Statement III isn’t acceptable.
844. II. (Tell me your date of birth and social security number.)

The acronyms DOB and SSN aren’t universally understood. Similarly, your social may be mystifying. Only Statement II is completely clear.

845. I. (ATM card no good. What to do?)

Daughters and mothers are in the same family, so informality is fine, as long as the mother understands the daughter’s message. ATM – short for Automated Teller Machine — is a commonly used acronym and more likely to be comprehensible than the long version. Statement I works, as it explains the situation. Statement II (ATM no good. ??), however, is vague. Is one particular machine broken, or is the card faulty? Two different possibilities exist, with two different remedies — go to a different ATM or call the bank and find out what’s wrong with the card. Statement III (ATM?) is even foggier. The question may be Can I go to an ATM? Where is an ATM? How do I use an ATM? or something else.

846. I. and III. (I. war b/c border wasn’t where it s/b; III. border wrong, so war)

Class notes are personal. The person who takes the notes has to understand what they mean. Class notes are also fast, because you’re trying to capture speech, and speech is always faster than writing or typing. If you don’t develop a system of abbreviations (b/c for because and s/b for should be are useful ones), you’ll miss the teacher’s next point while you’re recording the previous statement. That’s why Statement II (They went to war because the border was drawn where it should not have been) is wrong; it’s just too wordy and inefficient.

847. II. (We will file Form 112 after you send the “Explanation of Benefits” statement you received from your Primary Care Physician (your doctor).)

Many fields create specialized terms, particularly the military and the insurance industry. That’s fine if you’re an insider, but if you’re not, good luck understanding what they’re trying to tell you. Statement I (Don’t expect us to file Form 112. You didn’t supply a copy of the EOB from your PCP) begins clearly, but then it lapses into acronyms (EOB and PCP). It also sounds harsh — not the tone a business should use with a client. Statement II spells out EOB (Explanation of Benefits) and PCP (Primary Care Physician), throwing in your doctor for those who are still confused. Statement II is excellent — clear and matter-of-fact. Statement III (No 112 until we get the EOB from PCP) assumes way too much knowledge of insurance jargon and lacks even a shred of courtesy.

848. I. (Speak louder, please.)

When you’re dealing with people whose English is minimal, stay away from expressions that use language creatively, not literally. Statements II and III don’t work in this situation because sound off and kick it up a notch (which both request an increase in volume) fall into the “creative” or “figurative” category. (Can you imagine a guide wondering where to kick?) Also, the speaker doesn’t know the tour guide, presumably, and Statements II and III may be interpreted as rude; neither includes please. Statement I is clear and polite, a good combination for any tourist and, in fact, for any person.
II. (she said yes wedding in july)

Parents usually know their children well, and the vast majority don’t care about format or grammar when they’re receiving important news. However, unless they’re mind readers or have advance knowledge of the proposed proposal, Statements I (she said yes) and III (Wedding in July) are too vague. She said yes to what? Dinner? A visit with the parents? Wedding in July is better, but even this one could be clearer. Statement II gets the job done nicely.

I. and III. (I. Spoke with Jacobs. Deal’s OK with him. III. Re Jacobs: deal’s okay with him.)

A customer usually merits your most formal writing, but if the customer wants something fast (and this one does), a condensed message is actually better than a drawn-out statement. Statements I and III give the facts — and the impression that the broker rushed the message to the customer as rapidly as possible. Both are better than Statement II (I had a chance to speak with Mr. Jacobs, as you asked. I called him immediately, as you were in a rush. He indicated that the deal is fine with him), which meanders toward meaning.

II. (Important vote at tonight’s meeting. Please attend.)

E-mail should never be used for communications you would like to keep private. In Statements I (Tomorrow we should all call in “sick,” if that’s how the vote turns out at the meeting tonight) and III (We’re getting the flu tomorrow, depending on tonight’s vote), the union representative hints at a planned strike. Those e-mails could lead to a court case. Statement II is more neutral and less likely to appear as evidence.

I. and III. (I. moving to a new house; III. it’s a shame)

The preposition to in Expression I correctly tells you where the moving is headed (to a new house). There indicates place, not ownership, so Expression II (putting on there shoes) should say their shoes, not there. The contraction it’s means it is, so Expression III is correct.

III. (accept the offer)

Expression I (taking you’re time) is incorrect because you’re means “you are.” Here you need the possessive, your. Expression II (thinks two much) should be too much, to show excessive thinking. (Two is a number.) Only Expression III is correct, because accept means “agree.”

I. and III. (I. you’re right, not wrong; III. everyone except Tom)

You’re means “you are,” which fits nicely into Expression I. The contraction it’s means “it is,” but you want the possessive its in Expression II (a dog and it’s bone). Expression III excludes Tom, a proper meaning of the preposition except.

III. (it’s raining)

Expression I (too books, one on the shelf and one on the desk) is wrong because you need the number, two. Expression II (you’re right foot) is also incorrect; you’re means “you are,” but here you need the possessive your. Expression III is right because it’s is short for “it is.”
856. I. (no one except for Henry)

Expression I properly uses except to remove Henry from the group defined as no one. Expression II (there meeting us later) requires they’re, short for “they are,” not there (“a place”). Also incorrect is Expression III (too the mall), which should read to the mall, indicating direction.

857. I. and II. (I. me too; II. it’s my turn)

Expression I correctly includes too, which in this case means “also.” Expression II is right as well, because it’s is short for “it is.” Expression III (every activity accept swimming) doesn’t work because the appropriate word is except, which separates swimming from a group of other activities.

858. II. (bicycle losing its wheel)

Expression I (you’re wallet) requires a possessive, your, not a contraction (you’re, short for “you are”). Expression II also requires a possessive, but this time you have one: its. Expression III (to people who form a lovely couple) refers to a number, so the word you want is two.

859. I. and II. (I. styling your hair; II. in their neighborhood)

Expressions I and II appropriately use the possessive forms your and their. Expression III (to young for that toy) mistakenly substitutes a preposition, to, for too, which means “overly.”

860. II. (your first job)

Expression I (sitting over their) should include there, a place, instead of their, a possessive. Expression II properly employs the possessive your. Expression III (whether its true or not) needs the contraction it’s (it is), not the possessive its.

861. I. and II. (I. exception to the rule; II. college acceptance)

An exception to the rule, Expression I, refers to a time when the rule is not enforced. This one’s right. Expression II is also correct, because the college agrees to take the applicant and sends an acceptance letter. The only wrong one here is Expression III (the car over they’re), which needs there, a place, not the contraction they’re (“they are”).

862. III. (our school principal)

For Expression I (cause and affect) you want cause and effect, because effect means “result.” Expression II (walking passed the bank) is also wrong; passed is a verb, but here you need past. Expression III is right; the principal is the head of the school. Tip: Remember that the principal is your pal.

863. I. and III. (I. historians studying the past; III. special effects)

The past (“events prior to the present time”) is what historians study, so Expression I is correct. Expression II (principals of fair play) isn’t correct because here you need principles, or “rules.” (Tip: Notice that both principle and rule end in le.) Expression III is fine, as it refers to exploding buildings, ghosts, aliens, and whatever else Hollywood experts create under the title of special effects.
**864.** I. (time passed slowly)

Time moves along, so the verb passed is appropriate for Expression I. Expression II (illness that effected her) needs affected (“influenced”), so it’s incorrect. So is Expression III (when principles scold students), where principals (“school officials”) scold, not principles (“rules or standards”).

**865.** II. (principal reason to sign the treaty)

Expression I (past over when promotions were announced) should say passed, as a verb of movement fits the meaning here. (The boss looked at everyone and passed over an employee.) Expression II is correct, because here you need an adjective (a description). As an adjective, principal means “most important.” Expression III (the affect of the drought on crops) is wrong; the correct version is effect (“result”) of the drought.

**866.** II. (the effect of Barbara’s actions)

Expression I (the parade moved passed) already has a verb (moved), so moved passed (passed is also a verb) doesn’t make sense. The word you want is past (“in front of, by”). Expression I is wrong. Expression II is correct, as effect (“result”) works nicely here. Expression III (the dome of the capital building) improperly substitutes the city (capital) for the building (capitol).

**867.** I. and III. (I. heat affects the players; III. principles of sportsmanship)

The heat “influences” (affects) the players, so Expression I is right. Expression II (capital to invest) should be capital, because you’re talking about money. Expression III refers to “rules or standards,” so principles is correct.

**868.** I. (principal talking to the first graders)

Expression I is correct because the school head, principal, is referred to here. Expression II (spending interest income, not capitol), though, should say capital (“money”), not capitol (“government building”). Expression III (has an affect on Max’s mood) is also wrong because you want the noun effect (“result”), not the verb affect (“to influence”).

**869.** II. and III. (II. visiting the freshly painted and renovated capitol; III. factors that affect you)

Expression I (meeting the principle signers of the treaty) is wrong because the meeting is of the principal (“most important”) signers, not the “rules” (principles). Expression II works because a capitol is a building where government meets. (No one’s painting and renovating a city!) Expression III is also right; the phrase refers to factors that affect (“influence”) you.

**870.** II. and III. (II. the principles of investing; III. side effects of this medicine)

Paris is a city, so Expression I (Paris, the capitol of France) should say capital (“the seat of government”), not capitol, which is a building. In Expression II principles properly refers to “rules or standards.” The unintended “results” (effects) mentioned in Expression III are also right.
871. II. (capital letters)

Who has an educational conference? Principals (“school officials”) do. Expression I (principles’ educational conference) incorrectly substitutes principles (“rules”). Important letters are capital letters, so Expression II is fine. Expression III (past tense verb) should be past tense verb — a verb that refers to events before the present moment.

872. I. and II. (I. to effect change; II. upon further consideration)

Surprised? Effect is usually a noun meaning “result,” but it can, on rare occasions, be a verb meaning “to bring about.” Expression I is correct. So is Expression II, because you want a word meaning “additional,” and further is perfect. Expression III (not the principal reason) is wrong, though; you need principal (“most important”) here. Principle is a noun meaning “rule or standard.”

873. I. (ran farther than a marathoner)

Farther is the word you want for distance, so Expression I is right. Expression II (complements to the chef on a great meal) should be compliments (“praise”), not complements (“what completes or makes better”). Expression III (historic novels, including those with little readership or influence) improperly substitutes historic (“of major importance”) for historical ("referring to history").

874. II. and III. (II. historical documents; III. complimentary tickets)

You buy stationery (“office supplies”), not stationary (“fixed, unmoving”), so Expression I (stationary for class, including an extra package of paper) is wrong. Expression II works because documents created in the past are historical — “a record of history.” Expression III is a winner because the tickets are “free,” or complimentary.

875. I. and II. (I. stationary bicycle at the health club; II. no further trouble)

Expression I is right; a stationary bicycle doesn’t move. Expression II is also a winner because further means “additional.” However, Expression III (all in the passed) fails; passed is a verb meaning “gone by.” The word you want here is past.

876. II. (stationery store having a back-to-school sale)

Expression I (curtains in complimentary colors) is wrong; it should say complementary colors — colors that go well with other items in the room and improve the overall look. Expression II is perfect, because a stationery store sells school and office supplies. Expression III (the principals of good writing) fails because principals are school officials or important participants in a situation. Principles (“rules”) is what you want here. Expression III is incorrect.

877. All of the expressions

The shoes blend perfectly with whatever you’re wearing; that is, they complement your outfit. A treaty is important, especially when it ends a war, so historic is also properly placed. Principal is correct, too, as the dancers are important, those who take the lead roles.
878. None of the expressions

You’re buying *history textbooks*, not books that are remnants of the past. You travel *farther* in distance, and the paper you write on is *stationery*. All these expressions are wrong.

879. III. (needing further study)

Paper goods, including wedding invitations, are sold in *stationery* stores, so Expression I (*shopping for wedding invitations at a *stationary* store*) is faulty. Expression II (*complementary gift when you spend more than $500 on merchandise*) also fails because *complimentary* (“free”) is the word you want here. Only Expression III makes the grade, because *further* means “additional.”

880. I. (compliments for the hero)

Expression I is correct; a *compliment* is a bit of praise, something a hero should receive. Expression II (*further south along this road*) isn’t, because *farther* is the word you want for distance. Expression III (*historical first human step on the moon*) is also problematic, because the first human step on the moon was extremely important in history — in other words, *historic*.

881. III. (what the historical records show)

Expression I (*farther reading*) should be *further* (“additional”) *reading*. Expression II (*complements on her fine performance*) requires a word meaning “praise,” such as *compliments*. Both I and II are wrong. Expression III is fine because *historical* refers to anything that comes from the past, such as *records*.

882. As, because, unusual (As I said, I agreed to direct this play because it’s very unusual.)

The word *as* introduces subject-verb statements such as *I said*. *Since* is a time word, not a synonym for *because*. *Unique* means “one of a kind,” an absolute concept. Therefore, the play can be *very unusual* but not *very unique*.

883. whether, no change, no change (Elena wonders whether George likes the subject, because he seldom mentions it.)

When *or not* is implied, the word you need is *whether*, not *if*. Here *Elena wonders whether or not George likes the subject*. The verb *likes* is proper, as is *because*.

884. Because, unusual, no change (Because birds can fly, they see the world from an unusual point of view, one that humans achieve only if they’re in an airplane.)

*Since* is a time word, but the meaning you want here is *because*. *Unique* is an absolute — a one-of-a-kind. The sentence mentions that humans can attain a bird’s point of view from airplane windows, so *unusual* (or *rare* or a similar word) is appropriate, not *unique*. *If* is fine in this sentence because it introduces a condition.
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<tr>
<td><strong>No change, whether, no change</strong> (Since yesterday, Alex has phoned me five times, asking me whether I’ll sell him the unusual vase — quite rare — I found during my trip to Mexico.)</td>
<td>You need a time word in this sentence, and since fits nicely. Because the sentence presents two alternatives (selling or not), whether works better than if. Quite rare tells you that the vase is unusual, but not unique (the only one of its kind).</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Because, no change, no change</strong> (Because the concert is sold out, Kira asked whether it would be broadcast, as she’d love to see the event.)</td>
<td>The sentence needs because to introduce a reason, not the time word since. Whether or not it would be broadcast is the implied meaning. As properly introduces a subject-verb statement (she’d love).</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Delete like and the comma after like, no change, no change</strong> (Joe is trustworthy, so if he says he’s been ill since Monday, he’s telling the truth.)</td>
<td>Most grammarians dislike this use of like — even in speech. If introduces a condition in this sentence, a perfect job for that word. Since is a time word, also perfect for expressing the time period since Monday.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>No change, no change, as</strong> (Whether you like the role or not, I expect you to do as we agreed and go on stage.)</td>
<td>When you see or not, you know that whether is a good choice. The verb like fits well in this sentence, but the second like doesn’t. Because you’re introducing a subject-verb statement (we agreed), use as, not like.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>No changes</strong></td>
<td>Everything works in this sentence: try to means “attempt to,” a number of means “some,” and because introduces a reason.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>No change, no change, rather</strong> (Because the number of lions in the zoo is rather hard to estimate, Jana will have to guess.)</td>
<td>Because introduces a reason, so it’s proper in this sentence. The number of refers to a specific number (even when you don’t know how many!), so that expression works also. Kind of means “type of.” Substitute rather (or somewhat or a similar phrase).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>No change, a number of, because</strong> (This kind of plant and a number of others need little water, because they are native to the desert.)</td>
<td>Kind of means “type of,” so the first underlined expression is correct. A number of means “some,” the intended meaning of the second underlined expression, so you have to make a change there. Since is a time word; use because to introduce a reason.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>No change, no change, rather</strong> (Since Miranda emigrated from South Africa last year, she’s been rather busy establishing her business.)</td>
<td>The time word since makes sense in the context of this sentence, as does the verb emigrated, because Miranda left South Africa. Sort of is not a substitute for rather — a better choice. (You may think of other correct alternatives, such as somewhat, a bit, or a similar phrase.)</td>
</tr>
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893. No change, as, no change (If he plays as I know he can, that pianist will be welcomed as an immigrant in dozens of countries.)

If is correct because it introduces a condition. Change like to as because you have a subject-verb statement (I know) following. Immigrant is correct because the countries will welcome the pianist into their societies.

894. No changes

Since is a time word, totally justified by the context of this sentence. Louis left France, so emigrated is also correct. If architectural students are checking out your house, chances are you’re in a unique (one-of-a-kind) structure. Everything in the original sentence is correct.

895. try to, rather, no change (Jacqueline will try to calm down, but she’s rather upset because she has to pay overdue fees for her library books.)

Jacqueline won’t do two things (try and calm down); she’ll try to calm down. Sort of, which means “type of,” isn’t appropriate here; substitute rather (or somewhat or a similar expression). Because introduces a reason, so it’s correct.

896. No changes

Because she was going into the city, immigrating is correct. Ellen is the subject of two verbs, each of which expresses a different action (tried, as in tasted, and liked). Tried and is therefore a good fit for this sentence. Finally, sort of in this sentence means “type of” — also a good use of language. Everything is correct!

897. Try to, as if, no change (Try to look as if you were born here; don’t let the tourists know you’re a recent immigrant to this country.)

One action is the point here, so the proper expression is try to. Like shouldn’t introduce a subject-verb expression (you were born), so as if is better. Immigrant works because the person being ordered around in this sentence came to this country.

898. No changes

Like is proper here because it doesn’t introduce a subject-verb expression. Try and is also okay, as you’re talking about two actions (trying and failing). A number of means “some,” a meaning that fits the context here. All okay in this sentence!

899. No changes

You should begin this sentence with if, not whether, because you’re talking about a possibility. Disinterested means “fair” — the meaning you want here. Try to means “attempt to” — also a suitable expression for this sentence.

900. No change, too, no change (Robbie implied that the phone bill was too high as he remarked, “I could fly there and talk in person for less!”)

To imply is “to hint,” as Robbie’s remark does. Two is a number, and the sentence calls for too, which means “overly.” As properly introduces the subject-verb statement (he remarked).
uninterested, no change, rather (Yawning to show that she was uninterested, Jasmine made a number of attempts to be excused from the meeting, which was rather boring.)

*Disinterested* means “fair,” and in this sentence you need *uninterested*. A *number of* means “some,” a good fit here. *Sort of*, which means “type of,” isn’t properly placed here; substitute *rather* (or *somewhat* or a similar expression).

No change, emigrate, no change (Deciding whether to emigrate from the country where he was born, Andreas considered the number of visas issued each year and calculated his chances of receiving one.)

Two alternatives (to leave or not to leave) appear here, so *whether* works well in this sentence. *Emigrate* is “to leave one’s country,” so *immigrate* is misused in this sentence. *The number of* refers to a specific (though unspecified) number of visas, so that expression is correct in this context.

No change, infers, a number of (In this sort of mystery novel, the detective often infers the identity of the murderer after gathering a number of clues.)

*Sort of* is appropriate in this sentence because the intended meaning is “type of.” The detective, however, *infers the identity of the murderer.* To *imply* is “to hint.” To *infer* is “to deduce,” what you do when you figure out a mystery. *A number of* means “some” — the meaning you want in this sentence.

No changes

*Uninterested* means “not interested,” the meaning this sentence requires. A *number of* is a substitute for “some,” which makes sense in this context. Finally, *try to* is just what you want in the last portion of the sentence, because only one action (an attempt to secure dinner) is expressed. All’s well in this sentence.

rather, uninteresting, two (Mark was rather happy when the uninteresting professor left the university two weeks before Mark was scheduled to be her student, because he liked to be entertained as much as enlightened by his teachers.)

*Kind of* means “type of,” not the meaning you want here. Substitute *rather*, an expression that limits Mark’s happiness. (You can also choose *somewhat*.) *Disinterested* is “fair,” but the sentence calls for *uninteresting*. (You can also substitute any synonym for *boring*.) Finally, you need a number (*two*), not *too*, which means “overly.”

try to, no change, no change (The program will try to assist new immigrants in their adjustment to a new country.)

Only one action (assist) is in this sentence, so *try to* is the expression you want. *Immigrants* are people who have come into the country, so it’s the correct term in the context of this sentence. The possessive *their* is also correct.

I. and II. (I. already finished, and it’s only 9 o’clock; II. thinking about you every day)

*Already* means “so soon” or “by this time.” It’s used correctly in Expression I. Expression II is right, too, as *every day* refers to today, tomorrow, the day after that — in other words, every single day. *Altogether* as one word means “completely,” so it’s
misused in Expression III (the choir, altogether in the rehearsal hall, waiting to perform). There you need all together, that is, the entire group in one spot.

908. I. and II. (I. to meet again someday; II. everybody in the morgue)

An adverb referring to an unspecified time, someday, fits nicely in Expression I. Every day is the right term for Expression II, because you’re talking about bodies. (If you want to write about an entire group of people, use the single word, everybody.) Expression III (seven snacks, already for the children’s lunchboxes) is wrong; it works better with all ready — the entire group of snacks prepared, no further work required.

909. II. (not hungry because she’s eaten already)

Expression I (visits his uncle some times) is faulty because the intended meaning is “occasionally,” so sometimes is the proper word. Expression II correctly explains that she’s eaten before this time, a definition of already. Expression III (the entire jury, altogether in the courtroom) is wrong; when a group is assembled in one spot, they’re all together. The single word, altogether, means “completely” — not the meaning you need for this statement.

910. I. and II. (I. altogether corrupt, not a shred of honesty left; II. everyday dishes, not the ones for special guests)

Expression I works well with altogether, which means “completely.” Expression II is another winner, as everyday means “ordinary.” Expression III (spending sometime on exam prep) falls short because sometime as one word means “at an unspecified time.” Here you want some time, a period of time — say, an hour — for exam prep.

911. III. (everybody on the staff, with no exceptions)

The intended meaning of Expression I (some times sings professionally) is “occasionally,” so the adverb needed here is sometimes. Expression II (to be a star some day) is incorrect, too, because some day as two words refers to a particular day (Tuesday, for example) that isn’t named. As a single word, someday means “at an unspecified time.” Expression III is fine, as everybody refers to the whole group.

912. II. and III. (II. everyday chores, but nothing extra; III. buying some place on 16th Street)

Expression I (the family, altogether) refers to the family gathered as a group, so all together is appropriate, not the single word altogether, which means “completely.” Expression II properly uses everyday to mean “common or ordinary.” Expression III is correct as well, as some place means “a place.”

913. I. (a fitness plan for everybody with a few extra pounds on it)

In the context of Expression I, everybody makes sense, because you’re talking about physical bodies. Expression II (to meet someday next week, but not Monday) is wrong because the context (but not Monday) emphasizes a day. Therefore, some day is a better choice. Expression III (books Maxine read all ready but would like to read again) needs already, because the context requires “by this time” or “before this point in time.”
914. I. and II. (I. someplace to relax, such as a spa; II. a document that is altogether meaningless, as if it were written by a two-year-old)

Expression I is fine, because the sentence requires an adverb (someplace) to describe relax. Expression II properly inserts altogether (“completely”) to explain exactly how meaningless the document is. Expression III (calling any time) mistakenly uses a noun (time) and a description (any) where you need an adverb, anytime.

915. I. (all ready for the trip — bags packed and passport renewed)

Expression I is a winner because all ready means “completely prepared,” which describes the situation here. Expression II (every day negotiations, nothing historic) fails because you’re not talking about a day; instead you need a word meaning “ordinary,” and everyday fits perfectly. Expression III (if the boss has anytime this week) wrongly places the adverb anytime where you need a noun (time) and a description (any). The intended meaning is “a period of time.”

916. All of the expressions

The fitness fanatic in Expression I (lifting weights every day) doesn’t take a break from lifting weights day after day. Therefore, every day works here. Expressions II and III (hoping to run for office sometime and planning to meet Helen someday) correctly rely on the adverbs sometime and someday to refer to an unspecified time in the future.

917. II. (permission to log on to the computer sometimes)

Expression I (dressed-up seniors, already for the prom) fails because the seniors are prepared, or all ready, for their big celebration. Expression II works, because sometimes means “occasionally.” Expression III (going home in one car, altogether) errs by substituting altogether (“completely”) for all together (“gathered in the same place”).

918. I. (getting revenge someday)

Expression I correctly points to an unspecified time in the future with the adverb someday. Altogether (“completely”) makes more sense in Expression II (a plan that is all together ambitious and inspiring) than all together, which means “in unison.” Expression III (devoting anytime to volunteer work) is also wrong, as it requires any time to refer to a period of time.

919. I. and II. (I. finding some place in the orchestra, perhaps in the string section; II. everyday challenges for elderly residents)

The noun-description combo, some place, is perfect here, because you’re talking about a spot in the orchestra. Therefore, Expression I is correct. Expression II also works, because everyday means “ordinary,” the sort of challenges any elderly person might encounter. Expression III (going out because I all ready did my homework) is wrong, as already (“by this time”) is the word you want.
920. III. (call anytime, day or night)

The group huddled under the awning is all together, or “gathered,” so Expression I (sheltering from the storm, altogether under the awning) is wrong. (Altogether means “completely.”) Expression II (asking for sometime off from work) wrongly puts an adverb, sometime, where you need a noun and a description (some time). Anytime, in Expression III, is a winner; in this context the adverb means “at all times.”

921. I. (my sometime friend, now my enemy)

Expression I relies on a rare, older meaning of sometime, “once.” This expression talks about someone who was once a friend but now isn’t. Expression II (Everyday of the week) is wrong because you’re talking about days, which is a noun. Therefore you need a noun-description combo, every day. Expression III (all together majestic and inspiring) is wrong because the context requires a word meaning “completely” (altogether).

922. I. and III. (I. vampires, not altogether dead; III. nine months old and walking already)

Vampires in films and novels aren’t completely, or altogether, dead. Therefore, Expression I is correct. Expression II (film making its debut someday next month) is wrong because it requires a noun and a description (some day), not the adverb, someday. The debut will be on a particular day. Expression III is a winner, because already may mean “so soon.”

923. I. and II. (I. may burst out laughing at any time; II. has sometimes acted on Broadway)

Expression I is right because you need a noun (time) to act as the object of the preposition at. Expression II is also fine because sometimes means “occasionally.” Expression III (danced, altogether, in the chorus line) is wrong; altogether means “completely,” but here you need all together (“in unison”).

924. a lot, would’ve, had (Greg has a lot of friends who would’ve taken care of him if they had known he was ill.)

Written as two words, the expression a lot is acceptable in informal writing. (If you’re aiming for the most formal level of expression, use many.) Would of is never acceptable. Substitute the contraction would’ve. The long form, would have, is also correct. Had of isn’t Standard English. Go for had all by itself.

925. No change, could, each other (If it’s all right with Mike, Tracy and he could help each other with their physics homework.)

All right is always two words in Standard English. Might could isn’t correct; use one or the other, but not both together. Each other should never be written as one word.

926. might’ve, anywhere, that (“I might’ve known!” shouted the detective, who added that she had never believed the murder weapon could be anywhere near that crime scene.)

Might’ve is the contraction of might have; either one can replace might of, which is never correct. Anywheres and that there aren’t Standard English expressions. Use anywhere and that.
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<tr>
<td>927. This, himself, no change (This notebook he bought himself, but Isabel purchased that one for him.)</td>
<td>This here and hisself aren’t Standard English; use this and himself. That, as used in this sentence, is correct.</td>
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<tr>
<td>928. themselves, had, no change (The rowers reassured themselves that if they had won, they would’ve treated the losing team more politely.)</td>
<td>Theyselfes and had of aren’t correct in Standard English; use themselves and had. Would’ve is a contraction of would have. Both are proper English expressions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>929. should’ve, this, no change (Betsy should’ve watered the plants yesterday; now this garden has a lot of dead plants.)</td>
<td>Should of and this here aren’t Standard English expressions. Substitute the contraction should’ve (or the long form, should have) and this. A lot is correct in informal writing, as long as you write it as two words. As a single word it’s always incorrect. (If you’re aiming for the most formal level of expression, use many in this sentence instead of a lot of.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>930. nowhere, could’ve, no change (Sam is nowhere to be found; he could’ve told me his location when we spoke with each other.)</td>
<td>Nowheres isn’t Standard English; substitute nowhere. Could’ve is a contraction of could have. Both expressions are correct, but could of is never acceptable in proper English. Each other should always be written as two words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>931. himself, no change, no change (After falling, the skater checked himself for a minute and then said he was all right, though he could’ve been lying.)</td>
<td>Hisself is not correct in Standard English. Substitute himself. All right is proper English; the single word, alright, isn’t. Could’ve is a contraction of could have. Both expressions are fine, but could of isn’t Standard English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>932. No change, that, anywhere (A lot of work went into that art exhibit, the best examples of Picasso’s work anywhere.)</td>
<td>The two-word expression, a lot, is acceptable in informal English. (The most formal level of expression would require much instead of a lot of.) That there and anywheres aren’t proper. Substitute that and anywhere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>933. This, a lot, etc. (This janitor was assigned a lot of mopping, painting, etc.)</td>
<td>This here and and etc. aren’t correct in Standard English. The proper expressions are this and etc. alone. A lot is informal but acceptable, as long as it’s written as two words. (If you’re aiming for the most formal level of expression, use much in this sentence and substitute and so forth or a similar phrase for the abbreviation etc.)</td>
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934. themselves, no change, should’ve (The shoppers themselves packed their purchases (groceries, clothing, dishes, etc.), but the clerk should’ve taken care of that chore.)

*Theirselfes* isn’t correct in Standard English. The right word is *themselves*. *Etc.* is fine in informal writing. (If you’re aiming for the most formal level of expression, use *and so forth or and other items.*) *Should of* is never correct. What you want is *should’ve*, a contraction of *should have*. Both expressions are right for this sentence.

935. each other, themselves, no change (James and Matt comforted each other, reminding themselves that they would’ve won the spelling bee had it not been canceled.)

*Each other* is never correct as one word. *Theirselfes* isn’t Standard English; substitute *themselves*. The contraction *would’ve* (short for *would have*) is correct. Never write *would of*, an incorrect expression.

936. anywhere, no change, that (Shelly was frantic because she couldn’t find her pet bird anywhere, but the parrot was all right, hiding in that closet.)

*Anywheres* isn’t Standard English; drop the letter *s*, and you’re fine. *All right* is appropriately written as two words. *That there* is nonstandard; use *that* by itself.

937. nowhere, should’ve, etc. (With nowhere to go, Aaron and Betsy should’ve stayed home, but instead they drove around nearby suburbs, including Babylon, Massapequa, Bayshore, etc.)

*Nowheres* is never correct. The proper word is *nowhere*. *Should of* doesn’t exist in Standard English either. You want the contraction *should’ve* or the long form *should have*. *And etc.* is overkill; end with the abbreviation *etc.* or, more formally, with *and so forth or and other towns.*

938. might’ve, this, no change (Winnie might’ve chosen this blue sweater if she had known it was available.)

*Might of* isn’t Standard English. Go for the contraction *might’ve* or the long form, *might have*. *This here* is also nonstandard. Drop the *here* and you’re fine. The last underlined word, *had*, is just what you need here.

939. No changes (The boys upset themselves when they spoke with each other about the math test, which should’ve been easier than it was, in their opinion.)

*Themselves, each other, and should’ve* are all correct in Standard English.

940. could not have been, themselves, etc. (Max and his friends, who could not have been more bored, entertained themselves by naming the Presidents — Washington, Lincoln, Kennedy, etc.)

*Could of* isn’t Standard English. You can’t make a contraction out of a negative, so substitute *could not have been*. *Theirselfes* is also nonstandard; try *themselves*. One *etc.* is enough! Or, if you’re being strictly formal, drop the abbreviation altogether and plug in *and others* or a similar expression.
941. had, that, would’ve (If I had written that anonymous letter, the grammar would’ve been correct!)

Had of and that there both contain extra words. Drop of and there and you’re fine. Would of isn’t Standard English. Go for the contraction, would’ve, or the long form, would have.

942. everywhere, no change, might’ve (They sold similar cars everywhere, but in this dealership the owner might’ve given you a better price.)

Everywhere never includes the letter s. This is correctly placed in this sentence. Might of is nonstandard. Try the contraction might’ve or the long form, might have.

943. ought, that, anywhere (Yang ought to apply for that scholarship, because then he can achieve admission anywhere.)

Everything underlined in this question has something extra — and wrong. Had ought should be ought, that there should be that, and anywhere (without the letter s) is Standard English.

944. hadn’t, everywhere, might’ve (If Mr. Mellon hadn’t tried to satisfy his curiosity by looking everywhere for clues, his neighbors might’ve avoided calling the police.)

Hadn’t of is never correct. Drop the of and you’re fine. Everywheres is also nonstandard. Delete the letter s for the correct version, everywhere. Might of is wrong. Try the contraction might’ve or its long form, might have.

945. No changes (Ms. Johnson, who ought to know where the photos could’ve been stored, asked Annie and Sascha to help each other figure out where their work was.)

Ought properly stands alone; it should never be paired with had. Could’ve is the correct contraction of could have. Each other should always be written as two words.

946. would’ve, had, no change (Wendy would’ve given Jim a ride, if she had seen him waiting for the train all by himself.)

The contraction of would have is would’ve. Either expression is correct, but would of is nonstandard. So is had of; drop of and you’re fine. Himself is correct in Standard English.

947. ought, himself, no change (Johnny ought to be more careful with himself, because he could have pulled a muscle by exercising too much.)

Never use had with ought. Hisself is nonstandard; the correct word is himself. Could have (or its contraction, could’ve) is correct.

948. herself, would’ve, could’ve (Eloise herself told me that she would’ve spoken more candidly if she could’ve.)

Herself is always written as one word. The contractions would’ve and could’ve are proper English, as are their long forms, would have and could have.
949. **ought not, could not have, etc.** (Darius ought not to complain about his score on the test because he could not have done better on algebra, geometry, etc.)

*Had* never accompanies *ought* or *ought not* in Standard English. *Could not of* is never correct. The proper expression is *could not have* or the contraction *couldn’t have*. And *etc.* doubles up where a simple *etc.* is what you need. (To be more formal, substitute *and so forth* or a similar expression.)

950. **All right, no change, each other** (“All right, sit down anywhere,” declared Miss Echeva, “and help each other with your grammar homework.”)

*Alright* is nonstandard; the correct spelling is *all right* (two words). *Anywhere* is Standard English for “any place” and is correct here. *Each other* should always be written as two words.

951. **No change, ought, no change** (Finding himself in a difficult situation, the spy ought to give up on his mission, and everything will turn out all right.)

*Himself* is the proper pronoun for this situation. *Had* should never be paired with *ought*. *All right* should always be written as two words, not as *alright*.

952. **Do, because, no change** (Do not mix business with pleasure, because you’re not on duty now.)

*Don’t* (short for *do not*) is negative and shouldn’t precede *not*. Otherwise your sentence says, “Do not not . . . .” *Being that* is not Standard English. Change it to *because*, *as*, or a similar word. (Don’t substitute *since*. Although many people equate *since* and *because*, *since* is actually a time word.) *You’re* is positive, so *you’re not* presents no problems.

953. **anything, no change, school** (May didn’t know anything about spelling, and her handwriting was different from ours because she never attended school.)

The contraction *didn’t* (short for *did not*) is already negative, so *nothing* creates a double negative. Change it to *anything*. *Different from* is correct. *Never* is negative, so *no school* also creates a double negative. Drop *no* and the problem is solved.

954. **Because, can, no change** (Because it’s summer, you can expect no freezing rain or different weather.)

*Being that* isn’t Standard English; you can substitute *because* or *as* or *considering that*. (Don’t use *since*, which is a time word.) *Can’t* is negative, but the sentence already mentions *no freezing*, so change *can’t* to *can*. *Different, in this sentence, is fine all by itself.*

955. **knew, anything, no change** (Greta knew nothing, wouldn’t do anything, and refused any help.)

*Didn’t* is negative, and so is *nothing*. To eliminate the double negative, change *didn’t know to knew*. The next verb, *wouldn’t do*, is also negative and shouldn’t pair with the negative word *nothing*. Change *nothing* to *anything*, and you’re fine. *Refused* means “said no to,” but *any* isn’t negative, so no double negative pops up here.
956. can get, no change, no change (Mick can get no satisfaction when he complains to Customer Service that he hasn’t received any new guitars, although he has paid for three.)

Can’t is a negative (short for cannot), so no creates a double negative. Insert can get in place of can’t get and the double negative disappears. Hasn’t (short for has not) is negative, but here it’s properly followed by any. No change is needed. Nor do you have to change has paid, which is simply a positive statement.

957. any lies, regardless, anything (Zach won’t tell any lies, regardless of who’s asking for information, so do not explain anything to him.)

Won’t (short for will not) is negative, but so is no. Change no lies to lies to eliminate the double negative. Irregardless isn’t correct in Standard English; substitute regardless. Do not is negative, and nothing creates a double negative. Change nothing to anything to correct the sentence.

958. No changes (The dog should give you no trouble, being a gentle animal, unless you do not feed him.)

Should give is positive, so it doesn’t conflict with no trouble. Being is a fine word when it doesn’t pair up with that to form being that, a nonstandard expression. The next verb is negative, but it’s not a double. All is correct in this sentence.

959. No changes (No, Ellie did not tell her aunt that Karl had completed nothing.)

The first no is separated from the sentence by a comma, so it functions as an introduction to the sentence and doesn’t create a double negative. The other two verbs are correct.

960. can’t help thinking, no change, different from (Jacques can’t help thinking that, regardless of salary, his work is no different from his boss’s.)

Can’t help but think is a double negative; change it to can’t help thinking. Regardless is correct, but different than is nonstandard. Substitute different from.

961. Regardless, that, no change (Regardless of what he says, the reason I changed jobs is that I didn’t feel respected.)

Irregardless isn’t Standard English; substitute regardless. The reason is . . . because is also nonstandard. Go for the reason is . . . that. Didn’t is negative, but it’s not a double negative — no problems there!

962. Because, should have, ever (Because Katie is dieting, she should have no candy, ever.)

Being that isn’t correct in Standard English. Substitute because or as or a similar word. (Don’t use since, which is a time word.) Shouldn’t is negative, so it can’t pair with no candy. Change it to should have. Never also creates a double negative (actually, the original is a triple negative!). Substituting ever solves the problem.
963. anything, regardless, couldn’t help charging (Steve claimed that he had not done anything; regardless, the district attorney couldn’t help charging him with burglary.)

The expression had not done is negative, so nothing creates a double negative. Change nothing to anything and the problem is solved. Irregardless is nonstandard; substitute regardless. Couldn’t is a negative word, and so is but. Together they make another double negative. Use couldn’t help charging instead.

964. No change, no change, had (Walter’s approach to the problem was different from Hannah’s, but he had expected no criticism from her.)

Different from is Standard English, as is the use of but as a conjunction. No changes for these two! However, hadn’t (short for had not) is negative, and so is no criticism. To eliminate the double negative, use had instead of hadn’t.

965. any, no change, no change (Don’t you know any better, regardless of the fact that you haven’t been taught manners in a formal way?)

Don’t (short for do not) is negative, so it makes a poor pair with no better. Substitute any better for no better and the sentence is, well, better! Regardless and haven’t are correct here.

966. that, could, no change (The reason Nick moved is that he could hardly stand his supervisor’s denial of any guilt.)

The reason is . . . that is correct, not the reason is . . . because. Couldn’t hardly is a double negative, which you correct by changing couldn’t to could. Any is fine in the context of this sentence.

967. No changes (No engineer but Martin has ever stepped in that room, and you can hardly blame him for bragging about his courage.)

Everything works in this sentence. The first no establishes a group, and the preposition but properly removes Martin from that group. The adverb ever, which means “at any time,” properly describes the verb has stepped. Can hardly is a proper English expression.

968. couldn’t help weaving, that, no change (Charlotte couldn’t help weaving a beautiful web; the reason was that she was not an ordinary spider.)

Couldn’t help but weave is a double negative; change it to couldn’t help weaving. The reason is . . . that is correct, not the reason is . . . because. The single not in the last portion of the sentence is fine.

969. No changes (Judy could scarcely believe her eyes; the reason is that a flying saucer hadn’t ever landed on her lawn before!)

Everything is fine in this sentence. Could scarcely and hadn’t ever aren’t double negatives, and the reason is that is the correct expression.
### 970.
No change, no change, ever (Do you know neither Latin nor Greek, or haven’t you ever studied an ancient language?)

Neither/nor is a paired conjunction, so these words don’t count as a double negative. Haven’t (a contraction of have not) is negative, so never creates a double negative. Substitute ever and the error vanishes.

### 971.
had only, could hardly, no change (King Leo had only five knights, and winning the war was something he could hardly imagine, except under different and unlikely circumstances.)

Hadn’t but is a double negative; go for had only or had but instead. Couldn’t hardly is also a double negative that should be changed to could hardly. (Another way to correct this expression is to delete hardly.) In the context of this sentence, different is fine as written.

### 972.
many, no change, no change (Imelda has many shoes, far more than Jessie, but less time to shop.)

You can count shoes, so many is the word you want here. (Much is for things you measure, such as much salt.) More both counts and measures; in this sentence, it’s a counting word. Less is a measuring word, so less time makes sense.

### 973.
No changes (Much time has passed since Ellery noticed that many trees had some buds on their branches.)

You measure time, so much is correct here. Trees are counted, so many is the proper word. Some works for both counting and measuring. Everything’s right in this sentence.

### 974.
fewer, no change, many (Put fewer books on that shelf, which appears less sturdy than the one over there, which holds many thick volumes.)

You count books, so fewer is better than less, which is a measuring word. Less pairs nicely with sturdy, a quality you measure. Many, a counting word, should attach to volumes, which may be counted.

### 975.
No change, no change, fewer (The soup needs a little pepper to spice it up; be sure to prepare less than you did last time, as we expect fewer guests.)

A little and less are measuring words, so they’re properly applied to pepper and soup in this sentence. For guests, which you can count, you need fewer.

### 976.
among, no change, much (Let’s keep the secret among the three of us, because if more people know, our error will attract much attention.)

Between is appropriate when you have two elements, but here you have the three of us, so among is the correct preposition. More is a great, all-purpose word, proper for both counting (the situation here) and measuring. Because you measure, not count, attention, you need much, not many.
977. number, more, no change (Considering the number of hours I spent adding more vocabulary words to my flash cards, I should have scored much higher on the test.)

Generally you measure time, but here time is broken into hours, which you count. Therefore, number is better than amount. Much doesn’t work with vocabulary words, because you count them. More or many is a better choice. Did you stumble over the last underlined word? True, you count points to figure out a score, but here you’re dealing with the abstract concept higher, so much is better. Tip: Never attach more to a comparative term such as higher.

978. No change, no change, between (When Jack is among friends, he is less nervous than when the conversation is between him and only one other person.)

Among is the preposition for groups of three or more; between is the preposition for a pair. In this sentence, the first underlined word applies to friends, and the third applies to him and only one other person. Therefore, you want among friends and between him and only one other person. The middle part of this question correctly attaches less to nervous. Less and least create negative comparisons — less for a comparison between two elements and least for three or more.

979. No change, less, no change (This dial shows the amount of electricity consumed, which is less than last year but much more than the goal we set.)

Electricity is measured, so amount is properly placed here. Less, an adjective, is correctly used after the linking verb is. Lesser is a noun, as in the lesser of two evils, and doesn’t fit this context. The third underlined expression is tricky. More adapts to both measured and counted elements, so more electricity (the implied meaning) is correct. Much is an adverb, intensifying the abstract quality more. It, too, is correct in this sentence.

980. Among, no change, no change (Among your options are law, banking, and education. The first two guarantee many salary increases, but the last may give you more success.)

Three options appear, so among, a preposition for a group of three or more, is proper. Many is correct because it applies to increases, not to salary. More is one of those wonderful words that work for both counting and measuring.

981. No change, no change, less (Dr. Henry pays much attention to his students, though he gives many more homework assignments and less extra credit work than other teachers.)

You can’t count attention, so much (a measuring word) is fine here. You can count assignments, so many more works well. Fewer is incorrect, though, because work isn’t something you count. Less is the word that should attach to extra credit work.

982. much less, no change, no change (Charlie and Rose have much less money between them than they’d like, but it is as much as they need.)

In theory you count money, so many fewer seems correct. However, the singular word money is more abstract than, say, dollars, so it merits the measuring words much less. Between is correct because you’re talking about two people. Much is a pronoun here, referring to the money.
983. No change, fewer, no change (Many have complained that the rugs have fewer natural fibers and soil more easily than they used to.)

The pronoun many represents people, so this counting word is correct. You can count fibers, so fewer is proper and less isn’t. More creates a comparison with the word it’s attached to (easily) and is also correct. The two-word comparative forms of adjectives and adverbs always rely on more and less.

984. No change, no change, much (The card read, “Much love to my many fans who give me so much applause.”)

Love can’t be counted, so much is the proper word. You can count fans, so many also works. Applause, on the other hand, is something you measure, so much is the word you need.

985. Many more, no change, no change (Many more quilts are much better than fewer on a cold night like this!)

The counting words many more and fewer should attach to quilts, which can be counted. Better is an abstract quality — nothing you can count! — so much works well with it.

986. No change, many, no change (Sayed had much to be thankful for, such as many friends, few enemies, and a loving family.)

Much is generally a measuring word, but friends, enemies, and family appear to be things you count. However, much in this sentence applies to the idea of thankfulness, even though that word doesn’t appear in the sentence. The second underlined word should be many, as it’s attached to friends — definitely something you count. You can also count enemies, so few works fine with that noun.

987. I. (raise the flag)

To raise is “to lift,” and when you raise the flag, you lift it on the flagpole. Expression I is correct. Expression II (lay down for a nap now) is wrong because to lay is “to place, to put down.” Here you want lie, which means “to rest or recline.” Expression III (setting on the chair) fails because sitting is what you’re doing when you’re plopped on a chair. To set is “to place.”

988. II. (the sun, which rose at 5 a.m.)

To set is “to place,” the meaning you need in Expression I (sit the fragile antique desk in the corner). Sit, in this context, is wrong. Expression II is correct because the sun rose (“lifted itself”). Expression III (has laid in bed for ten hours) should be has lain, because that’s the present perfect form of the verb to lie, which means “to rest or recline.”

989. II. and III. (II. who had sat in the shade on a blanket; III. laid railroad tracks near the station)

The audience members lift themselves to a standing position, so rising (“lifting oneself”) is the proper verb for Expression I (the audience, raising for a standing ovation), not raising. Had sat, in Expression II, is correct. The past perfect form of to sit is had sat. Expression III is fine as well, because someone placed railroad tracks, and laid is the past-tense form of to lay.
III. (raised the shelf two inches higher)

To set is “to place,” so in Expression I (because yesterday he sat the birdcage near a window) you need that verb, not to sit. The proper form here is he set the birdcage. Has lain, in Expression II (has lain the picnic basket on the ground), is also wrong, because you need the present perfect form of to lay (“to place”), which is has laid. Expression III is a winner: to raise is “to lift,” and here someone raised (“lifted”) the shelf.

II. and III. (II. rise for the singing of the national anthem; III. lay down for a nap about an hour ago)

An informal expression often used in the South, to set a spell isn’t correct in formal English. Use it in conversation if you want, but in formal writing, you need sitting for a while or a similar phrase. Therefore, Expression I (setting a spell, to relax) is wrong. Rise is correct in Expression II, because people lift themselves to their feet for the anthem, and to rise is “to lift oneself.” Expression III employs lay, the past-tense form of to lie (“to rest or recline”).

I. and II. (I. peasants rose in rebellion; II. laid flowers in front of the shrine)

The peasants “lifted themselves up” to oppose the rulers, so rose, the past tense of to rise, is correct in Expression I. Expression II is right because laid is the past tense of to lay, which means “to place.” Expression III (has set still for the photographer) is wrong; has sat is the present perfect form of to sit, and you sit still when your picture is being taken.

II. and III. (II. raises an important point at the meeting; III. the diamond, set in a gold ring)

You know you need past tense in Expression I (lay the suitcase on the bench and left it there) because one of the verbs, left, is in that tense. The past tense of to lay (“to put or place”) is laid, not lay, which is the past tense of to lie (“to rest or recline”). Therefore, Expression I is incorrect. Expression II properly includes the verb raises, because when you raise a point, you bring it up. (Of course, in this context the movement isn’t physical.) Expression III is right because the diamond was placed, or set, in a gold ring.

II. (sitting in the principal’s office, waiting for an appointment)

You place carpet on a floor, so the verb form you need in Expression I (lying carpet on the floor) is laying (“putting or placing”), not lying. Expression II is fine; you’re in a chair, waiting, so you’re sitting. Expression III (Raise and shine! It’s time to get out of bed!) refers to getting up in the morning, so you want rise, not raise.

I. (robbers lying in wait for a victim)

The robbers are resting, as they wait for a victim. They are, as Expression I says, lying. Expression II (has laid on the sofa, pretending to sleep) should read has lain, as that’s the present perfect form of to lie (“to rest or recline”). Expression III (sitted on the window ledge) has the right verb (to sit) but the wrong form. The past tense of to sit is sat.
996. III. (his rising hope, as he listened to those encouraging words)

You place, or set decorations in the carton, so Expression I (will sit the decorations in the carton, ready for storage) doesn’t work. Was lain in Expression II (was lain to rest in the town cemetery) is incorrect. After death, the body is laid to rest, or “placed” in the cemetery. Expression III properly uses rising, as hope increases, or lifts, by itself, even if encouraging words are a motivating factor.

997. I. and III. (I. set aside funds for college tuition; III. laying eggs)

Expression I refers to placing money in a special account in order to pay for college tuition. Therefore, set, or “place,” is correct. Expression II (stirring yeast into the mixture and waiting for the bread to raise) is wrong because the bread rises, or “lifts,” by itself, once the yeast is present. Expression III is correct. The hen doesn’t appear in this phrase, but she’s “placing” her eggs in the nest, or laying them.

998. II. (sat on a jury)

If you’re not moving a muscle, as Expression I (laying still, not moving a muscle) says, you’re lying (“resting”), not laying (“placing”). Expression II is a little strange, but it’s correct. You must sit down in the jury box during a trial, so sat (the past tense of to sit), is the right verb. You lift your own expectations to a higher level, according to Expression III (rising your expectations and doing better work as a result), so raising is proper here.

999. I. and II. (I. raise money for the homeless; II. had set goals for himself)

When a charity asks for money, it’s trying to raise, or “lift” the amount available. Expression I is correct. So is Expression II, which talks about a man who had set, or “had put in place,” goals for himself. Expression III (plants laying dormant for the winter) is wrong; it should read lying dormant, as the plants are “resting” for the winter.

1,000. I. and II. (I. a position on the issue that laid her open to defeat in the next election; II. raising a fuss)

Expression I refers to a politician who placed herself in danger of losing an election. Because “place” is the meaning here, laid, the past tense form of to lay, is correct. Expression II is right also, as raising a fuss is the same as “lifting” the level of controversy or disagreement. Expression III (sat down on paper a record of all that had happened) fails because you “place,” or set down, words on a page.

1,001. I. (set the story in the Victorian era)

Expression I works nicely because the author “places” the story in a particular time and location, in this case, Victorian England. Therefore, set is the verb you want. Expression II (will rise the stakes) doesn’t work because the stakes must be “lifted,” or raised, by someone; they don’t lift themselves. Expression III (yesterday lay claim to) refers to the past (yesterday), so you need the past tense of to lay, which is laid. Why to lay? Because you placed a claim on something — land, championships, whatever.
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About the Author

Geraldine Woods credits her four-decade career as an English teacher and grammarian to ultra-strict nuns armed with sentence diagrams and 5-inch-thick English texts who terrorized her in elementary school, which, when she attended, was called grammar school. She is the author of nearly 50 books, including *English Grammar For Dummies, English Grammar Workbook For Dummies, Grammar Essentials For Dummies, Wiley AP English Language and Composition, Wiley AP English Literature and Composition, Research Papers For Dummies, and College Admission Essays For Dummies*, all published by Wiley. She is also the author of *Punctuation, Simplified and Applied*, published by Webster's New World. With Peter Bonfanti and Kristin Josephson, she wrote *SAT For Dummies and PSAT/NMSQT For Dummies* (Wiley). She loves her family, New York City, Jane Austen, and the Yankees.

Dedication

This book is dedicated to my colleagues — the administrative professionals who answer more than 1,001 questions every day with courtesy and competence: Mary Boyle, Delores Busby, Laura Cassino, Barbara Connolly, Diana Gonzalez, Sherri Jefferson, Olive Keegan, Mindy Lisman, Doreen McDonald, Lorna Mercaldi, Noreen Murphy, and Frances Raffa.

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