

Part III
Grammar and Mechanics

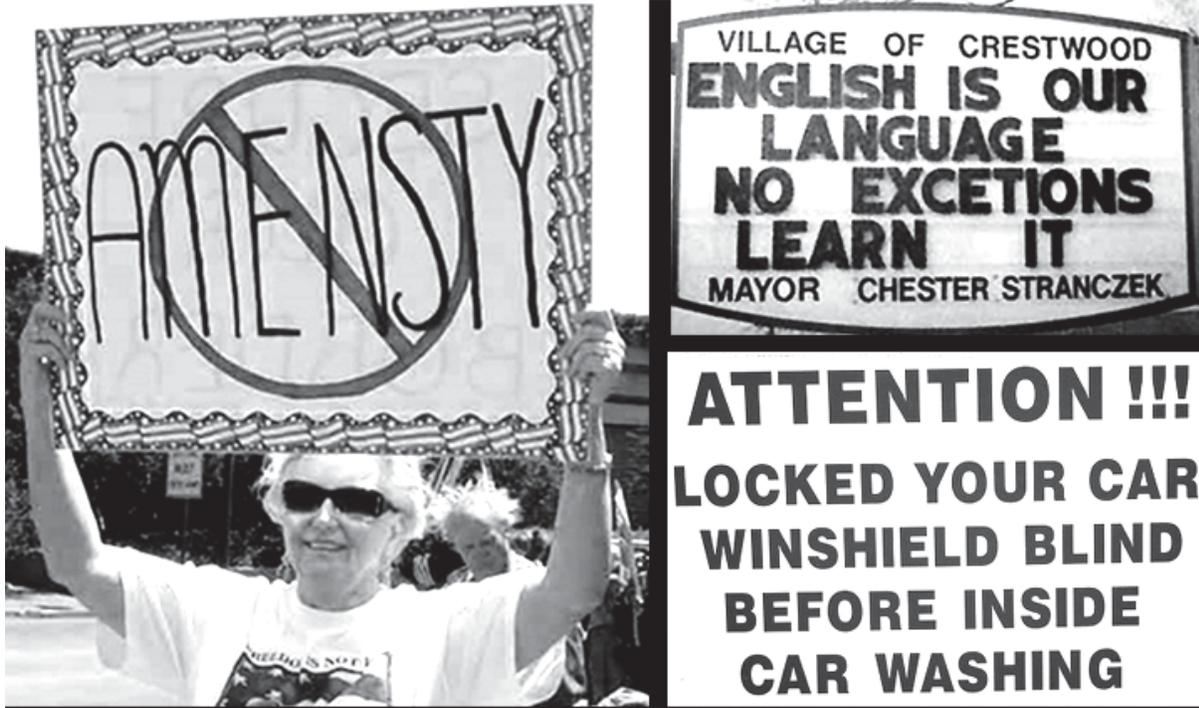


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Parts of Speech

Nouns

A noun is the part of speech that refers to persons, places, things, or ideas. Nouns appear after adjectives, after articles, as a subject of a sentence, as an object of a preposition, and as a direct or indirect object.

There are many different kinds of nouns.

- **Common nouns** are any person, place, or thing. Common nouns are not capitalized unless they start a sentence or title.
Example: city, policeman, desk.
- **Proper nouns** are the name of a specific person, place, or thing. Proper nouns are capitalized. Personal names are the best examples of proper nouns. Example: Nicolas, Idaho, Daily News.
- **Collective nouns** are used to name groups. Even when a collective noun is in the singular form, it can be used to refer to a group.
Example: team, herd, jury

Nouns are either concrete or abstract.

- **Concrete nouns** words that represent objects one can see, hear, touch, smell, or taste.
- **Abstract nouns** are anything one cannot see, hear, touch, smell, or taste.

Types of Nouns	Now, you label the nouns.
<i>Tom</i> = proper, concrete <i>table</i> = common, concrete <i>honesty</i> = abstract <i>desk</i> = common, concrete <i>gaggle</i> = collective <i>door</i> = common, concrete <i>conscience</i> = abstract	air = store = Stephen King = fleet = girl = love = floor =

Singular and Plural

In order to show whether a noun is singular or plural, change the noun's spelling. A noun will take the plural inflection "-s" for most words in English. But, there might be irregular plural nouns as well.

Some of the examples of irregular nouns are given below:

- child/children
- woman/women
- man/men
- syllabus/syllabi
- ox/oxen
- deer/deer

If you are unsure how to change a word into the plural form, check your dictionary.

Pronouns

A pronoun is a word that often replaces a noun. The word or group of words that a pronoun replaces or refers to is called the antecedent of the pronoun.

- Example: The dog is old. *It* walks slowly.
In this sentence, the word “it” replaces “the dog.” Dog is the antecedent. The pronoun should always be near the antecedent it refers to.
- Example: Wow, that boy can throw a football. *He* must have thrown it 60 yards.
In this sentence, the word “he” replaces “that boy.” Boy is the antecedent.

There are several types of pronouns: personal, possessive, intensive, reflexive, relative, interrogative, demonstrative, and indefinite.

- **Personal pronouns** are those that refer to specific people or things: *I, he, she, we, us, they*.
Example: After *they* finished shopping, *they* put the groceries in the trunk.
- **Possessive pronouns** indicate ownership: *My, mine, your, our, theirs*.
Example: *My* brother bought a red car.
- **Intensive pronouns** always include a form of self and appear next to the antecedent.
Example: The President *himself* called to congratulate me.
An intensive pronoun can be removed from a sentence without damage. Use intensive pronouns sparingly, only to emphasize.
- **Reflexive pronouns** always include a form of self and do not appear next to the antecedent.
We shopped *ourselves* to death.
- **Relative pronouns** introduce subordinate clauses and function as adjectives.
Example: The man *who* yelled at us to get off his lawn did not even own the property.
- **Interrogative pronouns** introduce questions: *who, which*.
Examples: *Who* was that? *Who* will help me? *Which* do you prefer?
- **Demonstrative pronouns** point out specific persons, places, things or ideas: *that, those, this, these*.
Example: *This* is my dog.
- **Indefinite pronouns** refer to non-specific people or things: *all, both, any, few, everyone, each, nobody, some, several, neither*.
Example: *Several* people cheered after the solo.

Identify the bold word per its pronoun type.

1. **Many** cars were in Walmart’s parking lot on Christmas Eve. _____
2. **I** like to walk in the park. _____
3. I really want **that** last piece of pizza. _____
4. I’m hoping **my** work ethic leads to a promotion. _____
5. Brad Pitt, **himself**, walked into the cafeteria. _____
6. **Who** is Brad Pitt? _____
7. Brad Pitt is the actor **who** starred in *Interview with a Vampire*. _____
8. I’m paying back my car loan by **myself**. _____

Tips on Noun, Pronoun, and Antecedent Use

- The **pronoun** and its **antecedent** (the noun or pronoun to which the pronoun refers) should agree; they must both be singular or plural.
Examples: My *dog* finished *her* food. (Both are singular) The *dogs* fought for *their* food. (Both are plural)
- **Collective nouns** should be used as singular unless they are obviously plural.
Example: The *jury* gave *its* verdict.
- **Compound antecedents** connected by and should be used as plural.
Example: *Jack and Jill* are getting married.

- Some **antecedents** are indefinite (*anyone, each, everyone, nobody, somebody*) and although imply a singular subject, can take *they*.
Example: *Somebody* better take out the trash or *they* will be in trouble.
- The **antecedent** should be clear. The following is incorrect.
Example: When she set the *picture* on the glass *table*, *it* broke.
By using “it” after two nouns, the reference is unclear. Which item broke? The picture or the table? When reading your writing, ask yourself these types of clarifying questions. If you are unclear as to which noun is the antecedent, it will be unclear for the reader as well. In the above case, the glass table would have broken since it was the noun referred to closest to the pronoun.

A special note on deciding whether to use *we* or *us*:

- If you are unsure as to which pronoun to use, try omitting the antecedent. Or, look to see where the pronoun is being used.
Example: *We* need a more affordable textbook. (*We* belongs on the subject side.) It makes much more sense to *us*. (*Us* belongs on the predicate side.)

Verbs

A verb is the main word in the predicate of a sentence. The verb beginning the predicate will be an action, a helping, or a linking verb.

- **Action verbs** denote movement.
Example: Josh *threw* the ball. Jason *kicked* the football. Action verbs can usually be seen but not always.
Example: Paul *daydreamed* during English class.
- **Linking verbs** connect the subject to either an adjective or a noun (phrase)
Examples: Jill *was* serious. (Serious is an adjective.) Jamal *is* a student. (“A student” is a noun phrase.)
- **Linking verbs** link the relationship between the subject and the rest of the sentence. This type of verb explains the connection between the subject and its complement. The most common linking verb is “to be” and its forms: *am, is, are, were, being, might*, etc. True linking verbs are any form of “be” and act as the main verb in a sentence.
- **Helping verbs** start the predicate and assists another verb.
Example: Laktfi *is* helping Jane with her homework.
- There are only 23 **helping verbs**:

<i>am</i>	<i>been</i>	<i>does</i>	<i>may</i>
<i>is</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>did</i>	<i>might</i>
<i>are</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>shall</i>	<i>must</i>
<i>was</i>	<i>has</i>	<i>will</i>	<i>can</i>
<i>were</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>should</i>	<i>could</i>
<i>being</i>	<i>do</i>	<i>would</i>	

- Words like *was* can be either linking verbs or helping verbs depending on what follows.
Examples: Charisma *was* happy. (*Was* is a linking verb because happy is an adjective).
Charisma *was missing* her mother. (*Was* is a helping verb because it is assisting the word *missing*).

Label the underlined verb as either action, helping, or linking.

1. John is going to need help with his homework. _____
2. Susan was trying to help him. _____
3. Bill thinks he knows everything. _____
4. Richard is happy watching the classroom activities. _____
5. Rashid runs from class the minute the bell rings. _____

Tips on Verb Use

- Verbs need to agree with their subjects in number (singular or plural) and in person (first, second, or third). Find the verb and ask “who or what” is doing the action of that verb.
- Verbs need to agree with compound subjects. To make verbs agree with their compound subjects, edit as follows:
Incorrect: A pencil, a backpack, and a notebook **was** issued to each student. Corrected: A pencil, a backpack, and a notebook **were** issued to each student.
- Verbs will never agree with nouns that are in prepositional phrases. To make verbs agree with their subjects, edit as follows:
Incorrect: The direction of the three plays **are** the topic of my talk.
Corrected: The direction of the three plays **is** the topic of my talk.
The subject of my talk is “direction”, not “plays”.
- In the English language, verbs usually follow subjects. But when this order is reversed, the writer must make the verb agree with the subject, not with a noun that happens to precede it. Edit as follows:
Incorrect: Beside the house **stands** sheds filled with tools. Corrected: Beside the house **stand** sheds filled with tools.
Because the subject is “sheds”; it is plural, so the verb must be “stand.”

Verb Tenses

Tense in a verb helps to show when the action expressed by a verb takes place. The three simple tenses are the present tense, past tense, and future tense.

- **Present tense** expresses an unchanging, repeated, or reoccurring action or situation that exists only now. It can also represent a widespread truth.
Examples: The mountains *are* tall and white. (Unchanging action)
Every year, the school council *elects* new members. (Recurring action)
Pb *is* the chemical symbol for lead. (Widespread truth)
- **Past tense** expresses an action or situation that was started and finished in the past. Most past tense verbs end in -ed. The irregular verbs have special past tense forms which must be memorized.
Examples: W.W.II *ended* in 1945. (Regular -ed past tense)
Ernest Hemingway *wrote* “*The Old Man and the Sea*.” (Irregular form)
- **Future tense** expresses an action or situation that will occur in the future. This tense is formed by using *will* or *shall* with the simple form of the verb.
Example: The speaker of the House *will* finish her term in May of 2012.
- The **future tense** can also be expressed by using *am*, *is*, or *are* with *going to*.
Example: The surgeon *is going to* perform the first bypass in Minnesota.
- The **present tense** form can also be used with an adverb or adverbial phrase to show future time.
Example: The president speaks *tomorrow*. (Tomorrow is a future time adverb.)

Adjectives

Adjectives modify or limit the meaning of nouns or pronouns, usually by describing, quantifying, or identifying. An adjective answers the question *what kind, which one, how many, or how much*.

- A **describing adjective** would be “Josh threw the *yellow* ball.”
- A **quantifying adjective** would be “We caught *several* sunfish last weekend.”
- An **identifying adjective** would be “Carol tried hard to win *that* race.”

The most widely recognized adjectives are those words, such as *big, old, and tired*, that actually describe people, places, or things. These words can themselves be modified with adverbs, as in the phrase “very big.”

Besides being used to modify a meaning, adjectives can be used to compare items.

- To compare (comparative) two nouns using an adjective, add “-er” to the adjective.
Example: Michelle’s new car is *bigger* than Susan’s.
- Some adjectives, often those words of three syllables or more, do not always take the “-er” form. Instead, keep the adjective the same and add the word *more* in front of it.
Example: Michelle’s new car is more expensive than Susan’s.
- To compare (superlative) three nouns or more using an adjective, add “-est” to the adjective.
Example: Michelle’s new truck is the *biggest* in the parking lot.
- Some adjectives, often those words of three syllables or more, do not always take the “-est” form. Instead, keep the adjective the same and add the word *most* in front of it.
Example: If Michelle’s new car is the *most* expensive, she must be working hard to make the payments.

Adjectives are most often used before a noun.

- **Articles:** *a, an, the*.
- **Demonstratives:** *this, that, these, those*.
- **Possessive pronouns:** *my, our, your, her, his, its, their, whose*.
- **Possessive nouns:** *John’s, the teacher’s*.
- **Quantifiers:** *all, few, many, several, some, every, each, any, etc.*
- **Cardinal Numbers:** *one, two, fifty, etc.*
- **Ordinal Numbers:** *first, second, last, next, etc.*
- Example: A dog, *this* dog, *my* dog, *John’s* dog, *all* dogs, *one* dog, *the first* dog...

Underline the eight adjectives in the following sentence. Then, answer the questions.

Basia wanted a newer purse than she already had to show off at the birthday party tonight, so she bought the biggest one she could find at the dollar store.

1. Write the comparative adjective _____.
2. Write the superlative adjective _____.
3. Write the four articles (you will use the same word more than once) _____, _____, _____, _____.

Adverbs

Adverbs are modifiers or descriptive words, phrases, or clauses that bring detail to your sentences. An adverb answers the question *where, when, how or to what extent*. They modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. Many adverbs end in “-ly” except for *always, never, very, and well*. The most commonly used adverb is *not*.

Difference between Adverbs and Adjectives

Adjectives and adverbs answer different questions.

An **adjective** modifies a noun or pronoun and answers these questions:

- Which: The *latest* magazine arrived.
- What kind: A *huge* difference remained.
- How many: The *three* books were different.

An **adverb** modifies a verb and answers these questions:

- When: *Tomorrow*, the storm will quit.
- How often: Students change majors *frequently*.
- Where: The class is held *here* today.

When choosing between an adjective and adverb, determine the word being modified and then figure out its part of speech.

Forming Adverbs

Often adverbs are formed from adjectives, but some are not derived from other words such as *again*, *almost*, *always*, *never*, *here*, *there*, *now*, *often*, *seldom*, *well*. The adverbs that are derived from adjectives can be formed by adding the suffix “-ly” to the ending.

- *beautifully*
- *strangely*
- *cleverly*
- *respectfully*

Remember that an “-ly” does not make the word an adverb. Some adjectives also end in “-ly” such as *friendly* and *lovely*.

Placement

The location of the adverb in a sentence can change the rhythm and emphasis dramatically.

- *Originally*, the Star Wars movie series had just three installments.
- The Star Wars movie series *originally* had just three installments.

Conjunctions

Conjunctions join words, phrases, or clauses within a sentence.

- The **coordinating conjunctions** *for*, *and*, *nor*, *but*, *or*, *yet*, and *so* are easily remembered by the acronym FANBOYS. When these seven short words link two independent clauses together within one sentence, each coordinating conjunction signals a specific relationship between the independent clauses it joins.
 - **For** signals that the second thought is a statement of causation relative to the first thought or that the second thought should be considered as significantly informing the first thought. Example: Each workplace conflict is unique, *for* each context is unique.
 - **And** signals addition and extension. Used with a comma between two independent clauses, it tells the reader that the thoughts expressed in those clauses should be considered together and with equal weight. Example: Each workplace conflict is unique, *and* each requires its own assessment.
 - **Nor** links two complete thoughts expressed as negatives, indicating that neither is an option. Example: Serious conflicts cannot be solved by ignoring them, *nor* can they be solved by attempting to legislate past them.
 - **But** expresses contrast. It tells readers that the thought expressed in the second independent clause is in opposition to, or otherwise different from, the thought expressed in the first independent clause.

Example: Each workplace conflict is unique, *but* several general principles apply to finding solutions.

- **Or** conveys option/choice or consequence (as in the sense of “or else”) between the two thoughts.

Example: Conflicts may be resolved with one mediated discussion, *or* extended negotiation may be required to bring about consensus.

- **Yet** tells the reader that the thought expressed in the second independent clause is in opposition or contrast to the first. It also can indicate simultaneity, in effect saying to the reader, “At the same time, after you’ve read the first thought, you should also consider this thought.”

Example: Workplace conflicts can ultimately be opportunities for growth, *yet* most managers approach them with dread and apprehension.

- **So** signals that the second thought is a statement of effect or consequence relative to the first thought.

Example: Workplace conflicts can ultimately be opportunities for growth, *so* managers should approach them confidently.

Further distinctions in coordinating conjunction usage are as follows:

- I like apples *and* oranges. (joining words)
- Under the table *and* by the chair is the apple I dropped. (joining phrases)
- I like apples, *but* I prefer oranges. (joining clauses)

- **Correlative Conjunctions** come in pairs such as *either...or*, *neither...nor*, *not only...but also*. These conjunctions also connect two equal grammatical elements. Example: I will have *either* pasta *or* pizza for dinner.

- **Subordinating Conjunctions** *After*, *although*, *as if*, *because*, *even though*, *once*, *in order that*, and *rather than* are some common subordinating conjunctions. These are conjunctions that introduce a subordinate clause and illustrate a relationship with the rest of the sentence. Example: *Although* I would rather party tonight, I will go to the library instead.

Note the comma after the subordinate clause.

Example: I will go to the library tonight *although* I would rather party.

Note how the subordinate conjunction, when not used to introduce, does not get a comma.

- **Conjunctive Adverbs** are used to show a relationship between two independent clauses (complete sentences). Some examples are *accordingly*, *furthermore*, *therefore*, *however*. Example: I always brush my teeth; *therefore*, I have no cavities.

Punctuate the following sentences and underline the subordinating and/or coordinating conjunctions. (Some are correct)

1. Lars and Helga wanted to throw a pool party on Saturday night.
2. They invited many of their friends although it felt very last minute.
3. Because they had little money they decided to ask their friends to bring food and drinks.
4. They wound up with too much food and they decided to have a pool party on Sunday, too.
5. Everyone chipping in was a great idea therefore they will follow the same plan next time.
6. Neither Lars nor Helga expected such a good turnout.

Prepositions

Prepositions are words that come before a noun or pronoun that form a phrase often indicating a position or place. Here is a list of some common prepositions:

<i>about</i>	<i>behind</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>over</i>
<i>above</i>	<i>below</i>	<i>in</i>	<i>past</i>
<i>after</i>	<i>beside</i>	<i>into</i>	<i>regarding</i>
<i>along</i>	<i>between</i>	<i>like</i>	<i>since</i>
<i>among</i>	<i>by</i>	<i>of</i>	<i>with</i>
<i>as</i>	<i>despite</i>	<i>onto</i>	
<i>before</i>	<i>during</i>	<i>opposite</i>	

Example: He brought his furniture *into the apartment*. (The prepositional phrase will end with either a noun or pronoun called the object of the preposition).

Here is a list of some common **compound prepositions**:

<i>according to</i>	<i>as well as</i>	<i>because of</i>
<i>except for</i>	<i>instead of</i>	<i>with regard to</i>
<i>in front of</i>	<i>due to</i>	
<i>next to</i>	<i>in spite of</i>	

Cross out the prepositional phrases.

1. The thoughts of the wife were that the furniture belonged somewhere else.
2. By the time she spoke up, it was too late.
3. Most of the furniture will go in the bedroom.

Interjections

The word “interjection” literally means “thrown in between.” Interjections express emotion and are capable of standing alone. Common interjections are *Ugh!* or *Wow! Oh! Hey! Ow!*

Interjections are often followed by an exclamation mark (!). Or, they can be followed by a comma (,). It depends on the importance of the emotion.

Examples:

Hey! That barn is on fire.

Hey, I broke a nail.

Even when interjections are a part of a sentence, they don’t directly relate to the grammar of that sentence.

Usage and Mechanics

Voice

Languages have different levels of formality that vary with the purpose, the audience, and the situation.

Informal voice or first person, is much more relaxed. In informal voice, slang is often used. In many instances, the writer’s opinion is evident. “Voice” can be defined as “how the writer’s personality and attitude toward the topic are revealed to the audience.” Voice, in this definition, is what makes one writer sound different from another.

Formal voice or third person, is professional. Think *Newsweek* rather than *People* magazine. This “voice” is more formal than spoken English and the writer usually only uses first person in quotes. Often, outside sources are used to prove points.

Active and Passive Voice

In the **active voice**, the subject performs the action. A clause with an active, transitive verb will be in the form of subject-verb-object.

Example: The student *finished* the exercise.

In the **passive voice**, the subject receives the action. For a passive verb, the tense and subject-verb agreement are always shown through the auxiliary verb “to be.”

Example: The exercise *was finished* by the student.

Active Voice	Passive Voice
The teacher <i>referred to</i> “voice” as a grammatical term.	“Voice” <i>was referred to</i> as a grammatical term by the teacher.
The man <i>yelled at</i> the waiter.	The waiter <i>was yelled at</i> by the man.
Millions of people <i>lived in</i> the houses.	The houses <i>were lived in</i> by millions of people.

Uses of “That”

That in the English language serves four different syntactic functions.

1. Demonstrative determiner
Example: *That* house is for sale.
2. Demonstrative pronoun
Example: *That* is my car.
3. Demonstrative pronoun functioning as a noun
Example: *That* works for me.
4. Relative pronoun
Example: The book *that* I read was interesting.

Using “A” and “An”

Determining which word to use, either *a* or *an*, is based on the first sound of the word that follows it. When a word starts with a **consonant sound**, use *a* before it. When the word begins with a **vowel sound**, use *an* before it. Be careful; sometimes the first letter of the word is not the first sound of the word (see *hour* and *unicorn* below).

Examples:

- *a* show
 - *an* amazing show
- *an* octopus
 - *a* huge octopus
- *an* hour (*the h is silent*)
 - *a* house
- *an* apple
 - *a* red apple
- *a* unicorn (*unicorn begins with a ‘y’ sound*)
 - *an* angry unicorn

Commas

Commas *join, emphasize, contain, and separate.*

- They work with a coordinating conjunction to **join two independent clauses** within a sentence.
Example: Latoya threw the basketball, and it sailed through the net.
- They **emphasize introductory elements** at the beginning of a sentence or clause.
Example: Humiliated, she fled the diner.
- They **set off cumulative elements** at the end of a sentence or clause.
Example: Nine senators changed their vote, passing the bill.
- They work in pairs to **contain restrictive modifiers** within a sentence.
Example: The committee, heading by Dr. Suarez, met weekly to develop a budget.
- They work in pairs to **contain parenthetical expressions** within a sentence.
Example: The candidate, much to the committee’s surprise, voluntarily revealed her position on several key controversies.
- They **separate a dependent clause at the beginning of a sentence** from the independent clause following it.
Example: When it started to rain, Sue wished she had her umbrella.
- They **separate two or more adjectives** that independently describe the same noun.
Example: An open, exploratory, and inclusive spirit marked the meeting.
If you can put the word “and” and it makes sense, the comma usage is correct.
- They **separate quotations** from their attributions.
Examples:
“Politics is the art of looking for trouble, finding it everywhere, diagnosing it incorrectly, and applying the wrong remedies,” said Groucho Marx.
“In a time of universal deceit,” writes George Orwell, “telling the truth becomes a revolutionary act.”
- They **separate items in a list**.
Example: The position requires expertise in building consensus, formulating policy, and developing long-term goals.

The final comma, the one before “and” or “or,” is known as the Oxford comma, Harvard comma, or serial comma. The Oxford comma should always be used where it is needed to avoid confusion (for example where one or more items in the list already include the word “and”). Otherwise it is optional.

Commas also separate elements in dates, numbers, personal titles, and addresses.

Use commas to separate the day of the week from the month and to set off a year from the rest of the sentence.

- On Friday, February 13, 2015, we will be having our annual Valentine’s Day dance.
- On December 12, 1890, orders for the arrest of Sitting Bull were sent.
- Graduation is set for May 20, 2016.
You do not need to use a comma when giving only the month and the year:
- The next presidential election will take place in November 2016.

Use commas to separate numbers into groups of three when they are more than four digits long. The comma is optional when the number is four digits long:

- 2,400 (or 2400)
- 50,000
- 340,000

Do not use a comma in street numbers or page numbers.

- The table appears on page 1397.
- The fire occurred at 5509 Avenida Valencia.
When following a name with a title, use a comma (if the title is at the end of the sentence) or two (if the title is in the middle of the sentence) to separate the title from the rest of the sentence.
- Earnings far exceeded projections last quarter according to Hitomi Masamura, vice president.
- Paul Hjort, D.C., practices chiropractic medicine in Flagstaff.

Separate each element of an address with commas. However, do not use a comma before a ZIP or other postal code.

- Lady Gaga performed in Phoenix, Arizona.
- Write to the program advisor at 18401 N. 32nd Street, Phoenix, Arizona 85032.

While there are many different ways to use commas in writing, most comma usages fall into three situations. If you know the basic rule for these three cases, you should be set for comma usage.

- Put a comma before a coordinating conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so) that separates two independent clauses.
Example: I wanted to drive to the mall, but my car wouldn't start.
- Put a comma after introductory words, phrases, or clauses in a sentence.
Example: Although it was a good offer, I felt that I needed to explore other options.
- Use commas to set off elements that interrupt or add information in a sentence. Example: Tommy, my older brother, loved to punch me for telling his secrets.

Semicolons

A semicolon can be used in three different types of sentence structures.

- To **join** two independent clauses.
Example: Several environmental organizations recognized the treaty; few endorsed it.
- To **join** two independent clauses when a conjunctive adverb is used.
Example: Several environmental organizations recognized the treaty; however, few endorsed it.
- To **separate** items in a list if the items in the list already necessitate a comma.
Example: She has a son, Mike Nach, of Arizona; a daughter, Emily Rosa, of Colorado; and a sister, Sara Evans, of Minnesota.

Colons

Colons are used to draw attention to certain words. They are used after an independent clause to direct attention to a list, appositive, or quotation. They are used between independent clauses when the second clause summarizes or emphasizes the first clause or after the greeting in a formal letter.

Case	Example	Note
List	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I have three sisters: Catherine, Sarah, and Mary. • The sandwich requires several ingredients: bread, butter, cheese, ham, and tomatoes. 	
Appositive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • My mom just won an award: Mom of the Year. 	
Answers the question	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There was only one possible explanation: The train had never arrived. 	

Quotation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Homer Simpson is famous for his grunted expression: “Doh!” 	
Between independent clauses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> “Life is like a box of chocolates: you never know what you're going to get.” 	
Introduction of a definition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hypernym of a word: a word having a wider meaning than the given one. 	Is a special case of appositive.
After business salutation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dear Sir or Madam: 	
In a dialogue	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Patient: Doctor, I feel like a pair of curtains. Doctor: Pull yourself together! 	
Separation of title from subtitle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Star Wars Episode IV: A New Hope 	
Separation of the chapter and the verse numbers of religious scriptures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> John 3:14–16 (or John III:14–16) The Qur'an, Sura 5:18 	
Separation within time of the day	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The concert finished at 23:45. This file was last modified today at 11:15a.m. 	standard time vs military time

Apostrophes

The primary functions for apostrophes are to form possessives and to stand in for missing letters in a contraction. Apostrophes are only *very* rarely used to form plurals.

- Use **possessive forms** when you want to indicate ownership, or “belonging to.” Possessives are almost always formed by adding an apostrophe and an “s” to the end of a noun (a person, place, or thing).
Examples:
 - Mike’s* bike is in the yard.
 - Phoenix’s* temperatures bring lots of visitors in winter.
 - The *table’s* legs were broken.
- Remember, add an “s” when the noun does not end in an “s” (driver’s) or when the noun is singular and ends in an “s” (Lois’s).
- If the noun is plural but not possessive and ends in “s,” you don’t need to add an apostrophe (diplomas instead of diploma’s).
- Nouns also change to express possession (ownership) by using an apostrophe followed by the letter “s” (’s). This can denote singular or plural possessive.

Following are examples of possessive apostrophe use:

- The *student’s* attempts to solve the problem were rewarded.
The above sentence means one student made an attempt.
- The *students’* attempts to solve the problem were rewarded.
The above sentence means more than one student made an attempt.

If you are making an irregular plural noun possessive, the apostrophe comes before the “s” because the word is already plural.

- children/*children’s* (plural)

If a singular common noun ends in “s,” add “’s.”

- The *boss’s* temper was legendary among his employees.
- The *witness’s* version of the story has several inconsistencies.

Proper nouns ending in “s” differ depending on whether you refer to the *Chicago Manual of Style* or, say, the *Associated Press Stylebook*.

- *Chris’s* book was lost. (*Chicago Manual of Style*)
- *Chris’* book was lost. (*Associated Press Stylebook*)

Apostrophes with Compound Nouns

If a compound noun uses dashes, place the apostrophe after the last noun.

- My *brother-in-law’s* house backs up to Tonto National Forest.

Joint Possession

If there is a compound noun, add the possessive apostrophe to the last noun.

- I went to see *Anthony and George’s* new apartment.
The apartment belongs to both Anthony and George.

If the compound noun indicates individual possession, add the apostrophe to both nouns. For example, if you have a compound subject, like Jose and Anna, and they own something together, it would look like this:

- *Jose and Anna’s* home is on Third Street.
However, if Jose and Anna have different homes, it would look like this:
- *Jose’s* and *Anna’s* homes are on Third Street.

Here are a few more possessive examples:

- The *amendment’s* language clarifies the terms left undefined in the original law.
In this case, “language” corresponds to “amendment”; “terms” is plural.
- A review of the *month’s* headlines reveals nine front-page pieces about the local school board election.
Here, “headlines” correspond to “month”; “headlines” and “pieces” are plural.
- Sara *Jones’s* study of language use and class is considered a classic in the field.
- “Study” corresponds to “Jones”; the apostrophe ’s must be added to a proper noun that ends in “s”

A Word About Confusion with Plurals and Possessives

Plural words that end in “s” are not necessarily possessive so do not take apostrophes.

- Three key *ideas* emerged in the introduction.
- The organization was restructured after *decades* of poor performance.
- All *animals* have an innate evolutionary drive to pass along genes to offspring.

But plurals that are also possessive do use apostrophes. Notice how the position of the apostrophe moves depending on whether the plural ends with “s” or not.

- The book traces the *Kennedys’* influence on national politics.
- The library science degree offers a special emphasis in *children’s* literature.
- The board changes the policy after the *stakeholders’* objections.

Apostrophes and Missing Letters

Apostrophes are also used to stand in for missing letters in a contraction:

- The conclusion *doesn't* [does not] follow from the evidence.
 - Remove the test tubes from the sterilizer when the *cycle's* [cycle is] finished.
 - This committee will file a final report when *we're* [we are] done with the applications.
- In addition, apostrophes are used to stand for missing letters in “shortened” or slang words:
- *'Tis* [it is] the season to be jolly.

Common Mistakes

Do not use an apostrophe to form the plurals of numbers or acronyms.

- 1980s
- eights
- three CEOs
- these JPEGs

Distinguish between plural and possessive dates.

- The 1970s' music was the best.
The 1970s own that music.
- The 1970s are but a memory to many of us.
The 1970s is plural but does not own a memory.

Add apostrophes (or not) to the following sentences.
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Johns book is on the floor. 2. The childrens playground is a next to the grocery store. 3. The 1990s was a time of turmoil. 4. The Smiths dog broke free from his leash.

Quotation Marks

Quotation marks are used to mark direct quotations. This is to give the original writer or speaker credit for their work. If you are paraphrasing, you do not need quotation marks. (See Chapter 8: MLA for additional explanation and examples.)

- If you are using a long quotation (long is constituted by four or more typed lines), instead of quotation marks, you should indent the quotation ten spaces (making it a block quote) and introduce with a colon.
- If your quote has a quote within it, the inner quote needs one quotation mark and the outer quote needs two quotation marks.
- Use quotation marks around the titles of short works such as newspapers and magazine articles, poems, short stories, songs and chapters.
- Periods and commas should be placed inside the quotation marks. Question marks and exclamation points should be placed inside the quotation marks, unless the punctuation applies to the whole sentence (not just the quote). Colons and semicolons should be placed outside the quotation marks.
- You can place emphasis on a word by using quotation marks instead of italicizing or underlining them.

Using Quoted Material within your Own Writing

- If a quotation is introduced formally, use a colon.
- If a quotation is being used with “he said” or “she said,” use a comma.
- If a quotation is blended into the writer’s sentence, you can use a comma, although no punctuation may be more appropriate.
- If a quotation is used at the beginning of a sentence, use a comma after the quote unless the quote ends in a question mark or exclamation point.
- If you choose to break up the quotation with your own words, use commas to offset the quotation from your explanation.

Hyphens and Dashes

Dashes (“—,”) are used to mark an interruption within a sentence, while **hyphens** (“-“) are used to join two parts of a compound word, or to indicate that a word has been split at the end of a line. A dash is approximately as long as two hyphens.

Dashes are used to mark an interruption within a sentence. They are used in much the same way as parentheses.

Example: Three unlikely companions—a canary, an eagle, and a parrot—flew by my window in an odd flock.

A **hyphen** joins two parts of a compound word.

Example: governor-elect, twenty-five, half-baked.

Hyphens can also be used to make compound words more understandable. Consider these words:

- Man-eating dog
- Man eating dog

The first example describes a particular type of dog (man-eating). The second example, alas, suggests that a man is eating a dog.

Or consider the case of the flaming-red pickup truck, as opposed to its more alarming cousin, the flaming red pickup truck.

In general, if the first of two adjectives is describing the second, and not the noun following, you should use a hyphen: deep-blue water, good-tasting hamburger, happy-faced child.

Parentheses

Parentheses can be used to enclose an interjected, explanatory, or qualifying remark, mathematical quantities, etc. The words placed inside the brackets are not necessary for the interrupted sentence to be complete but instead set off incidental/accompanying information.

- Be sure to call me (extension 2104) when you get this message.
- Copyright affects how much regulation is enforced (Lessig 2004).
- Be sure to (1) brush your teeth, (2) floss, and (3) gargle with mouthwash.

Capitalization

Basic principles of capitalization dictate that common nouns are not capitalized; proper nouns are capitalized.

- **Proper nouns:** Capitalize nouns that are the unique identification for a particular person, place, or thing: Michael, Minnesota, North America.

- **Proper names:** Capitalize common nouns like “party” only when they are part of the full name for the person, place or thing. Consider the following examples:
 - I am a member of the Democratic Party.
 - The Democratic and Republican parties are the two major parties in the United States. *The word parties would be lowercased when being used in a plural setting.*However,
 - Are you going to the party?
- **Sentences:** Capitalize the first word of every sentence including quoted statements and direct questions.
- **Composition:** Capitalize the first, last and most important words in the names of books, movies, plays, poems, operas, songs, radio and television programs, and the like: Family Guy, Game of Thrones, Phantom of the Opera.
- **Titles:** Capitalize formal titles only when used in front of a name, not when used after the name: Associate Professor John Doe / John Doe, associate professor.
- **Academic titles:** Capitalize and spell out formal titles only when they precede a name: Chancellor David Nachriener.

Homonyms

Homonyms are words that sound alike but that two words that don’t always have the same meaning. The most often commonly confused words are provided here with examples. If you are ever in doubt which one to use, check your dictionary.

Affect, Effect

Affect is most commonly a verb, usually meaning “influence.” (An easy way to remember this is that *affect* starts with an “a,” as does *action*.) As a noun, it is a psychological term for emotion.

Effect is most common as a noun meaning “result.” *Effect* used as a verb means to “bring about” some kind of change.

Example: The game *affected* the standings. Its *effect* was overwhelming. It *effected* a change in the *affect* of the winning team’s captain.

Afterward, Afterwards, Afterword

Afterward and **afterwards** are synonymous adverbs meaning that an event occurs later than another. An **afterword** is an epilogue.

Aid, Aide

Aid is a noun meaning “assistance” or a verb meaning “assist.” An **aide** is a person who serves or offers assistance.

Example: The *aide* will *aid* the victim.

It’s, Its

It’s is a contraction, short for either “it is” or “it has.”

Its is the possessive form of “it.” This usually means that the following noun phrase belongs to “it.” It is important to recognize that “its” in the possessive form does not have an apostrophe; it is in the same category as “his.”

Examples: *It’s* [It is] my dog.

What is *its* [possessive pronoun] name?

The computer crashed a few minutes ago, and *it’s* [it has] done it again.

Lay, Lie

Lay is the action word.

Lie is the state of being or a telling someone something untruthful on purpose.

Examples: I will *lay* the book on the desk.

I plan to *lie* in bed most of Saturday.

Jim will probably *lie* to get out of being punished for breaking the window.

To, Too, Two

To is generally used to describe a relationship between things. It is also used as an infinitive verb, as in “I love **to** eat.”

Example: Matt is going *to* the doctor.

Too is usually used when you are describing an excess or is used when noting something is *in addition*.

Examples: I usually eat *too* much on Thanksgiving.

Joe cleaned the house, washed the car, and mowed the lawn, *too*.

Two is the word you use for the number **2**.

Example: You have *two* minutes left before class starts.

Then, Than

Then indicates time.

Example: First we went to dinner, and *then* we went to the show.

Than is comparative.

Example: I would rather see the comedy *than* see the horror movie.

Versus, Verses

Versus indicates opposition.

Verses is the plural of verse, as related to poetry.

Subject and Verb

Subject agreement is that the agreement of subjects and verbs.

- **Singular:** The *whale*, which doesn't mature sexually until six or seven years old and which has only one calf per year, *is* at risk for extinction because *it reproduces* so slowly.
- **Plural:** *During election season*, several civic *groups* sponsor public *debates* in which *candidates* present their *views* and audience *members* ask *questions*.
- **Singular:** *Digging* a few inches into the dunes, even at 750 feet above the valley floor, *reveals* wet sand.
- **Plural:** The *dunes* *comprise* small *rocks* and dry, sandy *soil* that constantly *form* strange designs under the ever-present wind.

What Is Subject-Verb Agreement?

Subject-verb requires that the main verb - the verb starting the predicate - complements the “root” noun regardless of what other information is in the way (i.e. prepositional phrases, especially ones that begin with “of”).

Examples:

- *Characteristics* of the middle child often *include* an equitable temperament and high feelings of security and self-esteem.
- The opportunity *cost* of loaning out the funds *is* usually reflected in the interest rate.

- A certain *percentage* of the cars produced by major manufacturers *meets* stricter emission standards in order for the company to sell their products in regulated regions.

Other guidelines for making subjects and verbs agree include:

- Non-count nouns — those that don't have a singular or plural form, such as *furniture*, *baggage*, *poetry*, *melancholy* — take a singular verb.
- Two or more singular nouns joined by an “and” take a plural verb: A timely, relevant *topic* and an *environment* of trust *produce* a good class discussion.
- When two nouns differing in number are joined by “or,” the verb should take the form of the noun closest to it: Most viewers of the painting assume that either the monkey's *antics* or the handler's *chagrin* causes the young men's laughter.

Rules

Pronouns (words such as *it*, *her*, *them*, *this*, *someone*, *who*, *him*, *they*, *themselves*, *herself*, etc.) replace specific nouns (persons, places, or things). Like subjects and verbs, pronouns and nouns need to agree in **number**: in whether they are singular or plural. They also need to agree in **gender**: masculine, feminine, or inclusive (both).

Three specific instances, though, can cause problems:

1. The nouns “each” and “one” are singular and take singular pronouns; “either” or “neither” is singular unless it specifically refers to plural alternatives.
2. When using singular nouns that refer to both sexes or for which the gender is not known, use both masculine and feminine pronouns together (*him or her*, *he or she*, *himself or herself*, *his or her*) or rewrite the sentence to make the noun and the pronoun both plural. (If all of the members of a group are of one gender, it is acceptable to use the male or female pronoun, as in “*Each* member of the football team will take *his* gear onto the bus.”)
3. Some nouns can be either singular or plural: *audience*, *group*, *team*, *unit*, *class*, and others. Use a singular pronoun if the group is acting as a unit, as in “The *audience* expressed *its* appreciation with loud applause.” Use a plural pronoun if the group is acting as individual members, as in “The *team* went *their* separate ways, some showering, some leaving the stadium, some drinking champagne, and some going home to sleep.” [In the second example, it's a good idea to write “team members” to be clear.]

The words “they” and “their” are third-person plural personal pronouns in Modern English. The singular “they” and “their” is used as a gender-neutral singular rather than as a plural pronoun, but the correctness of this usage is disputed.

Examples:

- Every one of the studies indicated ~~their~~ **its** methodology.
- Neither Jackson nor Juarez believed ~~they~~ **he** had been represented unfairly.
- Each researcher included a control group with ~~their~~ **his** **his** or **her** test group.
- By 1999, the lacrosse team had outgrown ~~their~~ **its** space.
- Neither a crocodile nor a lion ~~are~~ **is** a suitable pet.
- Either Ed or Bill ~~are~~ **is** a plumber.

When the individual nouns are plural, standard noun/verb agreement applies:

- Neither crocodiles nor lions ~~is~~ **are** suitable pets.
- Either Ed and Bill or Ted and Jeff ~~is~~ **are** plumbers.

Unnecessary Tense Shift

Verbs are action words. “Tense” refers to the time when an action takes place: past, present, or future. Necessary tense shifts simply make it clear to your reader when actions have taken, are taking, or will take place. When you “shift tense unnecessarily,” however, it means you change the times when actions are taking place within a section of text in a way that doesn’t seem to make sense. Notice how the tense changes cause confusion in the following examples:

- In February 2003, the Sefton City Council *passed* an ordinance that *limited* the number of dogs city residents *could keep* on their property to three. Several residents *objected* and formally *petitioned* the council to repeal the ordinance, but the council *upheld* it. Their reasoning *is* that having more than three dogs *creates* potentially dangerous situations. In November 2004, however, changes in the Council’s membership *resulted* in the ordinance being repealed.
- While St. Cloud *struggles* with keeping rental housing from dominating the housing market, other communities in central Minnesota *undertook* several initiatives to build more apartments and condominiums.

The best way to find unnecessary tense shifts is to read a piece of writing through one time just looking for tense and asking yourself whether each verb tense accurately reflects the time period it took place, takes place, or will take place in. Start by using a highlighter to mark each verb, and then ask yourself if the “time” is correct for each one.

The correction:

- In February 2003, the Sefton City Council *passed* an ordinance that *limited* the number of dogs city residents *could keep* on their property to three. Several residents *objected* and formally *petitioned* the council to repeal the ordinance, but the council *upheld* it. Their reasoning *was* that having more than three dogs *creates* potentially dangerous situations. In November 2004, however, changes in the Council’s membership *resulted* in the ordinance being repealed.

(No reason exists to believe that those who then thought that three or more dogs in a household created a dangerous situation have changed their minds or that dogs’ behavior in a group of three or more has changed. The composition of the council had changed, and the composition of the city council having changed, so the city council voted differently).

The following example shows that the action took place in the past:

- While St. Cloud *struggled* with keeping rental housing from dominating the housing market, other communities in central Minnesota *undertook* several initiatives to build more apartments and condominiums.

This following example shows the action is taking place in the present or is referring to a current situation:

- While St. Cloud *struggles* with keeping rental housing from dominating the housing market, other communities in central Minnesota *are undertaking* several initiatives to build more apartments and condominiums.

Sentences

Types of Sentences

A sentence is a complete thought (also called an independent clause) containing a subject and a predicate. There are four sentence types: simple, compound, complex, and compound complex.

Varying sentence structure within a piece of writing helps keep the reader engaged. Too many sentences written in the same manner can cause the reader to start skimming.

- **Simple Sentences** are independent clauses utilizing only one subject/predicate structure.
 - Josef loves pizza.
 - Josef loves pizza for breakfast. (A prepositional phrase may be added.)
 - Josef and Yolanda love pizza. (A compound subject is acceptable.)
 - Josef loves pizza and eats it for breakfast. (A compound predicate is acceptable.)
 - Josef and Yolanda love pizza and eat it for breakfast. (Both a compound subject and predicate is acceptable.)
- **Compound Sentences** combine two sentences into one.
 - Josef loves pizza, **but** Yolanda prefers spaghetti. (Use of a coordinating conjunction FANBOYS.)
 - Josef loves pizza; Yolanda prefers spaghetti. (Use of a semi-colon. This structure should only be used if the sentences are short and highly related.)
 - Rosa is willing to pay for the pizza; **nevertheless**, Rafael will warm up last night's spaghetti. (Conjunctive adverb. Use a semi-colon in front and a comma after.)
- **Complex Sentences** use both a dependent clause and an independent clause.
 - *Although* Rosa is willing to pay for the pizza, Rafael will warm up last night's spaghetti.
 - Rafael chooses to warm up last night's spaghetti *because* he does not like pizza.
- **Compound/Complex Sentences** have two or more independent clauses and one dependent clause.
 - *Because* Rosa is willing to pay for the pizza, Rafael decided not to warm up the spaghetti, **and** he will eat with her tonight.

Identify the sentences per their type.

1. If Doug wants a new car, he'll have to get a second job. _____
2. Doug's new car cost a lot of money. _____
3. Doug loves his new car, but his mom thinks he paid too much. _____
4. He borrowed money from her. _____
5. Since he started working the second job, he's had less time to party, and he misses being with his friends. _____

Sentence Mood

The **indicative** mood expresses an assertion, denial, or question.

Example: He is not vacationing in Spain.

The **imperative** mood expresses command, prohibition, entreaty, or advice.

Example: Go visit him.

The **subjunctive** mood expresses doubt or something contrary to fact.

Example: If I were working in Spain, I'd appreciate visits from family members.

Sentence Purpose

A **declarative sentence** is used to make a statement.

Example: I like your shoes.

An **imperative sentence** is used to make a request or demand

Example: Give me your shoes.

An **interrogative sentence** is used to ask a question.

Example: Where did you get your shoes?

An **exclamatory sentence** - used to make an exclamation:

Example: It is past time to throw away those smelly socks!

Clauses

There are two kinds of clauses.

The **independent clause** is a simple sentence containing a subject and a predicate.

Example: Anya thinks she has too much homework.

The **dependent clause** is information added to the sentence by either a subordinate conjunction or a relative pronoun. Relative pronouns include *who*, *which*, *that* or *whose*.

Examples: Anya, *who* thinks she has too much homework, is struggling to get it all done.

Because Anya has too much homework, she struggles to get it all done.

Fragments

A **fragment** is a grouping of words that do not form a complete thought. While fragments sometimes work in first person narrations, they do not belong in college or professional writing except in quotes. Often, in dialogue, this is appropriate.

Example: His mother scolded him when he finally got home. “About time!”

There is no subject or verb in the mother’s declaration. The subject “It” and the verb “is” is inferred.

There are five sentence beginnings that often create a fragment:

- To and a verb—To get to the nearest exit.
- Dependent words—Because I was late.
- “Ing” phrases—Hanging by a thread.
- Prepositions—Under the car seat.
- Examples and explanations—For example, ketchup and mustard.

Multiple ways exist to fix fragments:

- hooking the fragment to the sentence before or after it (whichever one it seems to relate to), often using a comma, colon, or dash;
- adding the missing actor (noun) or action (verb); or
- fleshing out the thought to express what was previously not “spelled out.”

As an editing strategy, sometimes writers can spot fragments if they read the paper aloud from the last sentence back to the first.

The Run-On Sentence

There are two types of run-on sentences: a **fused sentence** and a **comma splice**.

The **fused sentence** has two complete thoughts next to each other without punctuation. The technical grammatical definition of a run-on sentence is one that fuses, or “runs together,” two or more independent clauses.

Incorrect: He ordered pizza for everyone he did not have the money to pay for it all.

The **comma splice** run on sentence has a comma separating the two complete thoughts.

Incorrect: He ordered pizza for everyone, he did not have the money to pay for it all.

Fixing run-on sentences

Once you find a run-on sentence and notice where the two independent clauses “collide,” you can then decide on how best to separate the clauses:

- You can make two complete sentences by inserting a period; this is the strongest level of separation.
- You can use a semicolon between the two clauses if they are of equal importance, and you want your reader to consider the points together. (See previous bullet point)
- You can use a semicolon with a transition word to indicate a specific relation between the two clauses.
- You can use a coordinating conjunction and a comma, also to indicate a relationship.
- Or, you can add a word to one clause to make it dependent.

Here are a variety of examples in correct sentence form:

- He ordered pizza for everyone. **He** did not have the money to pay for it all.
- He ordered pizza for everyone, **but** he did not have the money to pay for it all.
- He ordered pizza for everyone; he did not have the money to pay for it all.
- He ordered pizza for everyone; **however**, he did not have the money to pay for it all.
- He ordered pizza for everyone, **although** he did not have the money to pay for it all.

Modifiers

Dangling modifiers

A common way to save words and combine ideas is by starting a sentence with a phrase, a **modifier**, that provides additional information about an element in the sentence without having to make a whole separate sentence to state it. The rule for using modifiers at the beginning of a sentence is that **the thing being modified must immediately follow the modifier**. Sometimes this requires you to rearrange the sentence; other times you have to “spell out” what is being modified if you didn’t include it. Three examples help illustrate:

- **Dangling modifier:** Covering most of Minnesota, the illustration showed the glacier that left the state with its thousands of lakes.
In this sentence, the meaning seems to imply that the illustration rather than the glacier covered most of Minnesota.
- **Corrected:** Covering most of Minnesota, the glacier left the state with its thousands of lakes, as depicted on the illustration.
- **Dangling modifier:** Trekking across the desert, fierce winds swirled around the riders.
In this sentence, the meaning implies that the fierce winds were trekking across the desert)
- **Corrected:** Trekking across the desert, the riders were assaulted by fierce winds. **OR** As the riders trekked across the desert, fierce winds swirled around them.
- **Dangling modifier:** First coined in 1980, historian Linda Kerber used the term “republican motherhood” to describe a phenomenon occurring after the Revolutionary War in which women were encouraged to promote the ideals of liberty and democracy to their children.
- **Corrected:** First coined in 1980, the term “republican motherhood” was used by historian Linda Kerber to describe a phenomenon occurring after the Revolutionary War in which women were encouraged to promote the ideals of liberty and democracy to their children.

Misplaced Modifiers

A **misplaced modifier**'s referent is present and accounted for, but as its name implies, the modifier itself is out of place within the sentence, such that it seems to modify another referent in the sentence, resulting in ambiguity or confusion. The following examples illustrate the point:

- **Misplaced:** Erik couldn't ride his bicycle *with a broken leg*.
- **Correct:** *With his broken leg*, Erik couldn't ride his bicycle
The incorrect version seems to indicate that the bicycle had a broken leg.
- **Misplaced:** The little girl walked the dog *wearing a tutu*.
- **Correct:** *Still wearing a tutu*, the little girl walked the dog.
The incorrect version seems to imply that the dog could be wearing the tutu.
- **Misplaced:** *Just* don't stand there.
- **Correct:** Don't *just* stand there.
The incorrect version places the modifier "just" after the understood "you" rather than next to the verb it actually modifies.