Grammar and Usage
function makes no practical difference in word use. See also §1.6–20.

For example, the pronoun (or, in this case, the noun) that other people are thinking of when they say "the doctor is (in an objective role) the one who"

A common noun is being used in the sentence. Moreover, it is playing a

The sentence that follows the above sentence is a good illustration of how

Because the sentence is anything but

Another way to

There are two common

Pronouns that refer
to a specific person can have

Nouns, on the other hand, are a specific kind of

With a common noun, the sentence

Nouns

A common noun is the general name of one item in a

5.4.2 Nouns

5.4 Grammar and Usage

5.4.2

Grammar

The examples in this chapter are presented in copy hands to save space.

DEFINITIONS

Nouns

A common noun is the general name of one item in a specific class.

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Nouns

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DEFINITIONS

Nouns

A common noun is the general name of one item in a specific class.
Possessive pronouns are personal pronouns that express ownership or possession. They are used to indicate that something belongs to a particular person. Possessive pronouns negate the need for possession words like my, your, his, her, its, our, and their. In the sentence "This is my book," "my" is a possessive pronoun that shows ownership. Possessive pronouns can also be used in possessive constructions, such as in the sentence "His book is on the shelf," where "his" is the possessive pronoun indicating ownership.
Introduction

Word Usage

Word order

The new verb tense is much older

By other schools.

6.216

Grammar usage. The great mass of linguistic issues

Word order

Parting Joining Terms and Parallel Structure (Coordinating

Corrected: restoration, then under the bed.

The second solution resolves the grammatical conflict

Who/Whose: I looked for my lost keys in the sock drawer. The handy hammer and

been used once to apply to all the objects.

If the series had not included under the bed, the preposition could have

The second solution resolves the grammatical conflict.

Who/Whose: I looked for my lost keys in the sock drawer, the handy hammer, and

will another statement.

With another statement.

No other schools.

Right: The prepositional phrase modifying the application process would

Right: The prepositional phrase modifying the application process would

Wrong: The prepositional phrase modifying the application process would

Wrong: The prepositional phrase modifying the application process would modify

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access is an expression of climate and culture. The question of whether access is a guarantee of opportunity or a barrier to progress is central to our understanding of the world. The concept of access is deeply intertwined with issues of power, privilege, and vulnerability. In a world where access is limited, the ability to participate in decision-making processes, and to access information, education, and resources, is crucial for the empowerment of individuals and communities.

The concept of access is not only limited to physical access but also includes social and economic access. It is about ensuring that everyone has equal opportunities to participate in the decision-making processes of their communities and nations. Access is a fundamental human right, and it is essential for the development of societies that are just and equitable.

The importance of access is further emphasized by the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals, which prioritize access to education, healthcare, and clean energy as critical components of the development agenda. Access is not just about having the means to participate, but also about being able to do so without fear or prejudice.

In conclusion, access is a complex and multifaceted concept that requires a comprehensive approach to ensure that everyone has equal opportunities to participate in the decision-making processes of their communities and nations. The pursuit of access is not only about achieving economic and social progress but also about creating societies that are equitable, just, and inclusive.
Bliss-Free Language

Word Usage 5.2.0

5.2.0 Grammar and Usage

You are you, for you are the possessive form of your. You is the contraction for

You.

You're. No, it's not a contraction in the sense of you are. You're is a contraction for you are. It's a way of saying you are in a short form.

The possessive form of your is your. You is the contraction for you are. You're is a contraction for you are. It's a way of saying you are in a short form.
Your support of the school's programs is necessary to ensure the success of our students. It is through your contributions that we can continue to provide a quality education for all.

In the last 10 years, the school has experienced significant growth, both in enrollment and in the number of programs offered. This growth has been made possible through the generosity of our community and the support of our supporters.

The school's mission is to provide a safe and nurturing environment where all students can thrive. Your support is essential to ensure that we can continue to provide this environment for our students.

Thank you for your support of our school.
6 Punctuation

Punctuation in Relation to Surrounding Text

Overview

According to Blaikie Language Commentaries and theory, writers' conscious

Other forms of punctuation are not merely tools for

The purpose of the phrase African American

First African American woman to be elected to Congress and one of New York's

In an African American field trip office, but in African American

At the time of Congress, or that it is, in general, an African American

Punctuation in Relation to Surrounding Text

Overview

According to Blaikie Language Commentaries and theory, writers' conscious
Bryan Garner talks about *The Chicago Guide to Grammar, Usage, and Punctuation*

*Bryan A. Garner* is the author of the new book *The Chicago Guide to Grammar, Usage, and Punctuation* as well as the author of the “Grammar and Usage” chapter of *The Chicago Manual of Style*. His other best-selling books include Garner’s Modern English Usage. He is president of LawProse, Inc., and Distinguished Research Professor of Law at Southern Methodist University.

**CMOS:** First, congratulations on the publication of *The Chicago Guide to Grammar, Usage, and Punctuation*. Would you be able to explain where the new book stands in the corpus of your works on grammar and style and how it relates to the grammar chapter you wrote for *The Chicago Manual of Style*?

**BG:** To take your second question first, it’s a big expansion of the grammar chapter for the *Chicago Manual*. That chapter in itself was a hundred-page compendium on English grammar and usage, and so it made a nice starting point for a five-hundred-page text on English grammar. The purpose was to write a grammar that would be accessible to the interested nonspecialist, but one that takes advantage of modern research into the English language. Believe it or not, nobody has really tried this since the 1930s or so. In the field of grammar, an intellectual apartheid keeps the specialists walled off from everyone else. Modern grammarians
tend to use vocabulary that makes their subject inaccessible to most people. With *The Chicago Guide to Grammar, Usage, and Punctuation*, I wanted to remedy that.

**CMOS:** This is much needed. We constantly get queries from educated readers who can't cite a recent grammar source. They quote their high school or college grammars, which are by now many decades out of date.

Something new and fascinating in the “Word Usage” section of *The Chicago Guide* is your inclusion of sixty-seven “ngrams” from Google’s *Ngram Viewer*, which allows one to search for a given word or phrase through millions of sources printed from 1500 to 2008. In your introduction, you say that “this previously unavailable big-data tool allows us to gauge questions of English in a way never before possible.” Could you give an example?

**BG:** Yes. Take “hanged by the neck.” In the eighteenth century, prisoners subject to the death penalty were said to be *hanged* (not *hung*) by the neck. That’s been the predominant literary usage forever. But the competitive gap between the terms in this context has narrowed. In 1817, the ratio of *hanged* versus *hung* by the neck was 13:1; in the most recent statistic available (2008), it’s 3:1. In other words, many more people now use *hung* in reference to the gallows.

![Graph showing the ratio of frequency in printed books from 1817 to 2008](image)

1817 Ratio of Frequency in Printed Books: 13:1  
2008 Ratio of Frequency in Printed Books: 3:1

Although literary usage still prefers *hanged*, the competing form *hung* is now getting closer. The Google ngram shows you that it’s mostly because *hanged* has declined in use; it’s not that there’s been an upsurge of *hung*. Perhaps this is a reflection of (1) the decline of the death penalty, and (2) the replacement of hanging with other means of execution in some places where the death penalty still exists.

These ngrams contain all sorts of information that one might speculate about, some of it linguistic and some of it anthropological. The diagram shows the modern writer or editor what literary choice has been traditional, and for how long. That’s useful.

**CMOS:** So any writer or editor who’s curious about a suspicious construction can go to the Ngram Viewer online and track its progress in published books over the decades. Do you have advice for someone using it for the first time? Are there ways ngrams can be misinterpreted or misused?

**BG:** I encourage serious editors to play with them a bit. Ngrams are useful whether you’re trying to figure out which preposition goes after the noun *animadversion* or which plural to use
for *syllabus* (the answer is different for American English [*syllabi*] and for British English [*syllabuses*]). *The Chicago Guide* is the first linguistic book that reproduces ngrams, and I think they add both fascinating information and visual appeal. *Garner’s Modern English Usage* shows no ngrams but contains about 2,500 ratios calculated from ngrams. There you'll learn that in AmE *syllabi* outranks *syllabuses* by a 6:1 ratio in print sources; but in BrE, *syllabuses* is favored by a 1.4:1 ratio. That's a little surprising, since on the whole BrE is usually more tenacious than AmE in holding on to classical plurals.

**CMOS:** Another intriguing feature of your book, in the “Syntax” section, is the inclusion of sentence diagrams. Older readers will remember either loving or hating these exercises in school. Are you hoping to revive a lost art, or are you responding to a revival that’s already happening?

**TRADITIONAL SENTENCE DIAGRAM**

```
The box on a shelf in my closet contains letters to my father from his Irish cousins.
```

This sentence contains four prepositional phrases: *on a shelf* modifies the subject, *box*; *in my closet* modifies the object of that preposition, *shelf*; *to my father* modifies the direct object, *letters*, as does *from his Irish cousins*.

**BG:** In my weekly training of lawyers, I hear many who decry the loss of sentence diagrams. So I devoted a fifteen-page chapter showing how to diagram sentences the traditional way. But I devoted another fifteen-page chapter to the more modern transformational tree diagrams. The idea was to cover these different approaches for the benefit of any teacher or student of grammar who wants a comprehensive treatment. I also begin the book with the justification for learning the subject—a kind of gentle exhortation.

**TRANSFORMATIONAL TREE DIAGRAMS**
They are baking pots (baking is a verb; they refers to someone).

They are baking pots (baking is an adjective; they refers to the pots).

**CMOS:** Could you use the example to explain some of the advantages of using the tree diagrams of transformational grammar over traditional diagrams?

**BG:** The tree diagrams have relatively little pedagogical value. In the example you've chosen, it's easy to see the two possible readings of *baking*. In a sense, though, I suppose tree diagrams also reinforce one's knowledge of syntax and phrasing, just as traditional sentence diagrams do.

**CMOS:** A reader flipping through the book can't help but notice many little shaded boxes with quotations.

**BG:** *The Chicago Guide* was lots of fun to write, and I interspersed it with quotable observations by major linguists, grammarians, and rhetoricians over the years. And in the punctuation chapter, I illustrate every legitimate use of every punctuation mark with actual sentences from major writers such as Alain de Botton, Saul Bellow, Pauline Kael, Archibald MacLeish, Nancy Mitford, J. K. Rowling, James Thurber, E. B. White, and Virginia Woolf. There are literary nuggets in there. I hope readers will enjoy them.

ACADEMIC LANGUAGE OF RESEARCH—ACKNOWLEDGING AND RESPONDING

Recall that a research argument is not a one-sided lecture to passive listeners but a two-sided conversation in which you speak with and for your readers. You must acknowledge the questions and objections your readers might raise and then respond to them.

Use the following language and sentence stems to help you acknowledge and respond to anticipated questions or objections:

**Forms for Acknowledging**

1. You can downplay an alternative by summarizing it in a short phrase introduced with despite, regardless of, notwithstanding, although, while, or even though.
   
   Despite Congress’s claims that it wants to cut taxes, the public believes that . . . response

2. You can signal an alternative with seem or appear, or with a qualifying adverb, such as plausibly, reasonably, understandably, surprisingly, foolishly, or even certainly.
   
   In his letters, Lincoln expresses what appears to be depression. But those who observed him . . . response

3. You can acknowledge an alternative without naming its source. This gives it just a little weight. If you name the source, that gives it more weight.
   
   Some evidence might suggest that we should . . .
   
   Jones claims that we should . . .

4. You can acknowledge an alternative in your own voice or with adverbs such as admittedly, granted, to be sure, and so on. This construction admits that the alternative has some validity, but by changing the words, you can qualify how valid you think it is.
   
   We have to raise the possibility that further study might show . . .
   
   We have to consider the probability that further study will show . . .

**Forms for Responding**

1. You can state that you don’t entirely understand someone’s objection.
   
   It is not clear to me that . . .

2. Or you can state that there are unsettled issues with someone’s objection.
   
   But there are other issues . . .

3. You can respond more bluntly by claiming the acknowledged person is irrelevant or unreliable.
   
   But the evidence is unreliable . . .

Here is a quick guide to some of the verbs that introduce quotations and paraphrases.

**All-Purpose Verbs**

These are neutral: Source *says* that . . . (also: *writes, adds, notes, comments*)

These indicate **how strongly the source feels** about the information: Source *emphasizes* that . . . (also: *affirms, asserts, explains, suggests, hints*)

These indicate that the information is a **problem for the source**: Source *admits* that . . . (also: *acknowledges, grants, allows*)

**Verbs for Argued Claims**

These are neutral: Source *claims* that . . . (also: *argues, reasons, contends, maintains, holds*)

These indicate that you find the claim **convincing**: Source *proves* that . . . (also: *shows, demonstrates, determines*)

**Verbs for Opinions**

These are neutral: Source *thinks* that . . . (also: *believes, assumes, insists, declares*)

These indicate that you find the opinion **weak** or **irresponsible**: Source *wants to think* that . . . (also: *wants to believe, just assumes, merely takes for granted*)

**Verbs for Matters of Judgment**

Source *judges* that . . . (also: *concludes, infers*)

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