

The GSP Exam

The Grammar, Spelling, and Punctuation (GSP) exam is a basic English skills test used to screen students for journalism and other news-oriented classes. Rather than testing the aspects of journalism style taught in News Reporting and Writing, the test focuses on basic grammar, such as improper subject-verb agreement and dangling modifiers, as well as incorrect use of punctuation and commonly misspelled words.

The GSP has 20 randomly generated, multiple-choice items for each of the three basic parts of English: grammar, spelling, and punctuation. The test is self-paced and generally takes about an hour for the 60 questions; however, you must complete it within two hours.

Registering for the GSP

Please follow the steps below:

Before the Test

- Complete this GSP review packet.
- Attend at least one mandatory GSP workshop or individual tutoring session (all are free).
- Sign up for the exam—same-day testing is not allowed. Registration sheets will only be available for the current week and the following week.
- When the Administrative Assistant registers you for the exam, submit the following:
 - A photo ID to record the correct spelling of your name.
 - A phone number where you can be reached.
 - A fee of \$35 in exact cash or check made out to UNT.

Note: Students may not take more than one exam in the same day. Those on their second or third attempts must register at least one day in advance for another time.

On the Day of the Test

- Show a **photo ID** to the proctor, fill in all the blanks on the exam, and complete and sign the agreement attached to the first page of the exam before you begin.
- Do not take your exam from the room. The Writing Lab tutor proctoring the exam will distribute and collect all GSPs at the testing site.
- If you must use the restroom, leave your exam and all mobile devices with the proctor.

Exam Fee

Students pay \$35 in exact cash or check made out to UNT, which covers all three attempts, and they must pay when they sign up for a test time or **no later than 1 day before their test time**. Payments must be received by 5pm Monday through Thursday and by 4pm on Friday (for Monday testing).

All fees are non-refundable.

Cancellations

- If you cannot take the test at your scheduled time, call (940) 565-2563 or come into the Writing Lab. You must cancel **by 12pm the day before the exam is being given**. Monday test cancellations must be made by 12pm on the Friday before.
- Any student who does not cancel by 12pm on the previous day or does not show up at his or her designated test time will be charged a **\$10 no-show fee**. He or she will be unable to sign up for another time until the fee is paid.

General Policies

- Contact the UNT Writing Lab at (940) 565-2563 for test times and scheduling of appointments. The Lab is open during finals week, but it is closed during the first full week of classes, all UNT holidays, any time classes are not in session, and occasionally for special class workshops. **Exams are administered by appointment only.**
- Any student suspected of cheating will be reported to the Mayborn School of Journalism.
- Exams will be graded, and scores will be emailed to the student within **1 business day**. Once the student has passed all three sections, the Administrative Assistant will email the Mayborn School of Journalism within 1 business day.
- To pass the test, you must score 70% or higher on each of the three sections of the test: a **minimum score of 14**. If you do not pass all three sections, you may take the individual sections again. You may take the GSP up to three times.
- Exams must be graded in the Writing Lab—the GSP key is not to be removed.
- If you do not pass on the first attempt, a tutor can sit down with you and go over your test(s) and even provide you with more material to help you study for your next attempt. You may schedule as many tutoring sessions as you need. There is no longer an appeals process, so you must pass the GSP by the third time, or you will not be allowed to major/minor in journalism or journalism-affiliated programs.

GSP resources available in the UNT Writing Lab

In addition to this review packet, the following resources are available:

- A full supplemental GSP practice test
- A list of commonly misspelled words
- A series of grammar and punctuation worksheets
- *The Harbrace College Handbook*
 - Chapters 1-7: a basic review of grammar
 - Chapters 12-17: a review of punctuation rules
 - Chapter 18: a small section on spelling

If you need a special accommodation to take the GSP exam, please contact the Office of Disability Accommodation at:

Telephone: (940) 565-4323

Fax: (940) 369-7969

TTY: (940) 369-8652

Website: <http://www.unt.edu/oda/>

Please allow sufficient time to arrange the accommodation.

GSP Checklist

- Complete the review packet.
- Attend a GSP workshop or individual tutoring session.
- STUDY! STUDY! STUDY!
- Get more tutoring if you have questions.
- Sign up for a test day and time.
- Pay the one-time fee of \$35 at least 1 day before your scheduled exam.
- Bring a photo ID and pencil or pen to the exam.
- Receive scores by email within 1 business day. Additional instructions will be included if you have scored below a 14 on any section.
- When you pass all 3 sections, scores will be sent to the Mayborn School of Journalism within 1 business day, and you will be unblocked from journalism classes!

Notes and questions for your tutor:

Grammar Review –GSP Test

In order to best prepare you for the grammar section of the Journalism GSP Test, we have divided this review into six different grammatical areas:

- Subject/Verb Agreement
- Parallel Structure
- Sentence Unity
- Dangling Modifiers and Misplaced Parts
- Pronoun Case
- Adjectives and Adverbs

Feel free to review only the areas that you have problems with, but please be aware that the Subject/Verb Agreement, Parallel Structure and Pronoun Case sections are the most extensive, as they account for much of the test material. This review also provides explanations and, unlike the Punctuation Review, sample practice exercises to help students better grasp grammar concepts. However, the type of practice in this section in no way represents test format or prepares students to adequately expect what will be on the test. The Writing Lab has provided a Practice Test for each section of the GSP (Grammar, Spelling and Punctuation) to simulate test format. Best of luck!

Subject/Verb Agreement

Be sure that a verb agrees (“matches”) in number (singular/plural) with its subject. As you study the following rules and examples, remember that “-s” (or “-es”) marks **plural** nouns and **singular** verbs (those present tense verbs with third-person singular subjects). This allows you, once you’ve located your subject, to use the “s” test to determine whether your verb agrees (if your subject is plural, ending in “-s”, then your verb will be plural and will not end in “-s”).

subject + s = plural	or	verb + s = singular
The egotists like attention.		The egotist likes attention.
Tomatoes ripen in the sun.		A tomato ripens in the sun.

Be sure the subject and verb agree when words (such as prepositional phrases) separate them.

Ex. The **rhythm** of the pounding waves **is** calming. (in this sentence, “of the pounding waves” is a prepositional phrase; remember that you will never find a subject in a prepositional phrase.)

Be sure the subject and verb agree when they are separated by additive phrases such as “accompanied by,” “along with,” “as well as,” “in addition to,” “including,” “no less than,” “not to mention” and “together with.”

Ex. The **economy** as well as taxes **influences** votes.
Taxes, not to mention unemployment, **influence** votes.

Remember that subjects joined by “and” are usually plural.

Ex. My friends **and** my mother **like** each other.
The team **and** the band **were** not on the field.

Exception: A compound subject takes a singular verb when the subject denotes **one** person or a **singular** unit.

Ex. My sister and best friend **lives** in New York. (“sister” and “best friend” refer to the same person)

Note: This concept will not be covered on the GSP test because the test will not be able to convey the desired meaning of every sentence.

Remember that singular subjects joined by “either/or” or “neither/nor” take a **singular** verb.

Ex. John or Doris **writes** to us regularly.
Neither Ted nor Carol **is** excited about the meeting.

Remember that only with the case of “either/or” or “neither/nor” constructions, if one subject is singular and one subject is plural, the verb agrees with the **nearer** subject.

Ex. Neither the basket nor the **apples were** expensive.
Neither the apples nor the **basket was** expensive.

Do not let inverted word order (verb + subject) or the structure “there is/are” (or “here is/are”), which also results in inverted word order, cause you to make a mistake in agreement. When a sentence contains inverted word order, as in the following examples, try reading the sentence through completely, then back-tracking to make sure your verb and subject agree.

- Verb + subject

Ex. Hardest hit by the high temperatures and the drought **were** American **farmers**.

- There/here + “to be” verb + subject

Ex. There **are** a few unanswered **questions**.
Here **is** the **list** of candidates.

A relative pronoun (“who,” “which,” “that”) used as a subject has the same number as its antecedent (the word in the sentence to which it refers). It may seem more appropriate to call this type of problem “antecedent/verb agreement,” since the subject of the sentence is often not the antecedent of the relative pronoun, as in the second example below:

- Ex. This is the only store **that** gives triple coupons.
He is one of the many **who** agree with my decision.

Remember that collective nouns and phrases denoting a fixed quantity take a singular verb when they refer to a group as a unit, but take a plural verb when they refer to individuals or parts of the group.

- Singular

- Ex. Ten **million** gallons of oil **is** a lot of oil.
The **number** of applicants **is** very small.

- Plural

- Ex. Ten million **gallons** of oil **were** spilled.
A number of **students** **were** absent.

Practice: Circle the correct verb and underline its corresponding subject.

1. There (is/are) many people who feel that football is not a violent sport.
2. Others (think/thinks) that a degree of violence in sports can be justified.
3. These people (sees/see) contact sports like football as an acceptable outlet for the natural violence pent up in all of us.
4. The various contact sports (allow/allows) people to vent their violent passions in an acceptable way.
5. They point out that athletics (is/are) a less destructive outlet for violence than is war.
6. They claim that games like football and hockey actually (help/helps) to prevent war.
7. Other supporters of contact sports remind us that football, as well as hockey and soccer, (is/are) constantly being made safer to play.
8. The tactics of the game (is/are) being reviewed each year.
9. Each year, a number of changes in rules and equipment (is/are) made to improve the safety of the sport.
10. The number of fatalities and serious injuries (is/are) constantly being reduced.

Parallel Structure

Be sure that the two parts set off by comparison expressions (nouns, main clauses, prepositions, etc.) within a sentence are balanced (parallel) and logical. This is necessary when a sentence is comparing two ideas with two-part expressions such as “so much... as,” “not only... but also,” “not... but,” “either... or” and “neither... nor;” or with one-word expressions or conjunctions like “and,” “but” and “or.” Parallel structure is basically the art of creating a balanced sentence: a sentence that is grammatically equal and in which the elements appear well contrasted.

Note: Due to the test format, you will not necessarily need to create parallel structure on the GSP, but you should have a sense, when you study, of what is **okay** parallel structure and what is **better** parallel structure, so that you can recognize the better option in the multiple choice questions.

Okay – We are **not** so much what we eat **as** the thoughts we think.

Better – We are **not** so much what we eat **as** what we think. (It is much better to parallel the two parts set off by the comparative “so much... as.”)

Sometimes we only have to repeat a preposition in order to make our meaning clearer and our structure more parallel.

Okay – The point of the exercise is found **not** in the tasks **but** through the intellectual gains.

Better – The point of the exercise is found **not** in the tasks **but** in the intellectual gains. (if we reword the sentence so that we have a more parallel structure, the sentence becomes more powerful.)

Practice: Create parallel structure in the following sentences. In some cases, you may need to insert or alter a word; in others, you may need to revise the whole sentence.

1. She is strong but a fool.
2. Either they work or are fired.
3. Let us consider the origin of engineering and how engineering progressed.
4. Failure is due either to a lack of preparation or inability to master the subject.
5. He was not only kind but also knew when to help people in trouble.

Sentence Unity

To create a sentence that is well-formed and unified, we must keep in mind a few rules and practices. Though this is only a short list, it does represent a good starting point for the writer:

- Avoid faulty predication. This is a common grammar problem that occurs when writers set up a comparison between two ideas.

Wrong – A good example of a bad **language** is a construction **worker**.

Right – A good example of a bad **language** is a construction worker’s **dialect**. (not the construction worker himself)

- Define words or expressions precisely. Avoid faulty “is... when,” “is... where” or “is... because” constructions.

Wrong – Unlike a fact, a value judgment is when you express personal opinions or preferences.

Right – Unlike a fact, a value judgment is a personal opinion or preference.

Practice: The following sentences have errors with unrelated ideas, faulty predication, mixed metaphors or unclear definitions. Identify the mistakes and revise the sentences.

1. The best solution is when you know you’re doing the right thing.
2. My knowledge of car parts is as good as any mechanic.
3. The reason the package arrived so late is because he didn’t mail it soon enough.
4. Sally knows her integrity was greater than her opponent.
5. One book I read believes in eliminating subsidies.

Dangling Modifiers and Misplaced Parts

This section is about recognizing ambiguous sentences. Ambiguity in a sentence may be difficult to recognize at first because often when we read a sentence we immediately search for its most logical possible meaning. If we look closer, though, we may find that a sentence is in fact ambiguous due to the misplacement of a modifier. In order to avoid ambiguity, the general principle is that a modifier (a word or group of words that changes or restricts the meaning of another part of a sentence) must be as close as possible to the word in the sentence which it modifies.

Place the modifier (which can be a group of words or just one word) next to or as close as possible to the word that it modifies. Where the modifier goes in the sentence makes all the difference in what the sentence says. The example below shows how moving the one-word modifier, “just,” can change the meaning of the sentence:

- Ex. He **just** died with his boots on. (he died only moments ago.)
Just he died with his boots on. (he was the only one who died.)
He died with **just** his boots on. (he wasn’t wearing anything else at the time.)

Remember, the modifier can be a word, a phrase or a clause. (In the cases above, the modifier is one word: “just.”) Either way, where we place the modifier is important to the meaning of the sentence.

Avoid the dreaded **dangling modifier**. This sort of misplacement generally happens when a phrase refers to verbal phrases that are not clearly or logically related to another word or phrase in the sentence.

Ex. Instead of playing with Chuck, **television** was watched.

- This sentence makes it seem like “television” is “playing with Chuck,” which is illogical. It would be better to write the sentence as follows:

Instead of playing with Chuck, **I** watched television.

- In the revised sentence, we know who logically “watched television.” This turns the phrase around and makes the actor of the sentence more apparent.

Practice: Revise the following sentences to eliminate errors with dangling modifiers and misplaced parts.

1. The puppy advertised in last night’s paper which was already eight weeks old is a bargain.
2. Even though anticipating difficulties, the motion passed easily.
3. Entering the room, the light was turned on.
4. Robert wrote he wants to leave the country in the first stanza.
5. When only a small boy, my father took me with him to the county fair.
6. The policeman warned Betty not to carry a gun in a car that was loaded.

Pronoun Case

Case refers to the pronoun that shows its relation to other words in the sentence. For example, the different case forms of the boldfaced pronouns below, all referring to the same person, show their different uses.

Ex. **I** (the subject) believe that **my** (modifier) uncle will help **me** (direct object).

Personal pronouns identify the speaker, the person spoken to, and the person or thing spoken about. As you study the following table, observe that the pronouns “I,” “we,” “he,” “she,” “they” and “who” have distinctive forms for all three cases, and for both singular and plural number.

Note: “you” and “it” are the same in both singular and plural, and change case form only in the possessive.

	Singular	Plural	Non-Specific
Subjective	I you he, she, it	we you they, it	who
Possessive (show possession)	my, mine your, yours his, her, hers, its	our, ours your, yours their, theirs	whose
Objective (refer to receiver of action)	me you him, her, it	us you them	whom

Use of Case

The subject of a verb (the actor of the sentence, performing the action) and the subject complement (following the verb “to be”) must be in **Subjective Case**.

Ex. Subjective: He was early. Who noticed? (subjects)
It was I on the phone. (subject complement)

Modifiers that indicate ownership or a comparable relationship must be in the **Possessive Case**. A few possessive pronouns (typically those ending in “-s,” such as “yours” and “theirs,” and the irregular “mine”) take the position of function nouns.

Ex. Possessive: Their dog likes **its** new food. (“its” refers back to the antecedent: “dog”)
That book is **yours**. (pronoun ends in “-s,” functions as an adjective)

The object of a verb, verbal or preposition is in the **Objective Case**.

- Ex. Objective: Marcella blamed **me**. (“me” receives the blame, indirect object)
Telephoning **them** is a nuisance. (“them” receives the telephoning, indirect object)
I gave **him** the book. (“him” receives the giving, indirect object)
To **whom** is it addressed? (“whom” receives the action, object of the preposition “to”)

The pronouns “my,” “our,” “your,” “him,” “her,” “it” and “them” can form a combination with “-self” or “-selves” to become intensive/reflexive pronouns. **Note:** formal English does not accept “myself” as a substitute for “I” or “me.” Similarly, “hissself” and “theirselves,” although the logical forms for the reflexive pronouns are not accepted in formal English; instead, use “himself” and “themselves.”

- Ex. John and **I** (not “myself”) work at the gas station.

The relative pronouns (“who,” “whom,” “which,” “whose” and “that”) introduce clauses that refer to a noun in the main clause.

- Ex. Jennifer, **who** is my sister, lives in Austin.

“Who,” “whose” and “whom” ordinarily refer to people; “which” refers to things, and “that” to either. The possessive pronoun, “whose” (in lieu of the awkward “of which”), sometimes refers to things:

- Ex. The poem, **whose** author is unknown, has recently been set to music.

People commonly have problems with “who” and “whom.” Remember that in formal and academic writing, “whom” will always refer to an object, and “who” will refer to the subject:

- Ex. **Who** called you yesterday? (“who” is performing the action: subject.)
Whom did you call yesterday? (“whom” is receiving the call: object.)

Pronoun/Antecedent Agreement

Another common problem that people have with pronouns is making them agree in both number (singular/plural) and gender (masculine/feminine/neuter). Here are some examples of a common mistake; in both cases, the agreement problem stems from the fact that the word the pronoun refers to is singular, but the pronoun is plural.

- Ex. Wrong: The **University** of North Texas treats **their** students fairly.
Right: The **University** of North Texas treats **its** students fairly.

Here, “University of North Texas” is a singular entity. Because a university might contain many people, students often consider it to be plural. However, UNT is only one university, not two (or more) universities. Therefore, we must use a singular pronoun to accommodate it, not “their.” In this case, university is non-gendered, so we only have one choice: “its.”

- Ex. Wrong: An **individual** who loses **their** keys all the time is careless.
Right: An **individual** who loses **his or her** keys all the time is careless.
Right: An **individual** who loses **his** keys all the time is careless.

This sentence has a similar problem: obviously “individual” is singular, and “there” is not. However, since people are gendered (hence, “individual” is gendered), we cannot use “its” because the gender is not specified; we don’t know whether to use “his” or “her.” We have two options: use “his or her” or pick one. However, there can be problems for each option, namely that the first construction can sound repetitive if you use it too often and that the second construction can sound gender-biased. Therefore, though this option is not available to you on the GSP test, the best way to fix the sentence is to pluralize the subject:

- Ex. Right: **Individuals** who lose **their** keys all the time are careless.

Practice: Choose the pronoun that fits best in the sentence. Be able to explain your choice.

1. When choosing courses, students like Ruben and (I/me) have many options.
2. Between Lana and (she/her), there is little competition.
3. The public and (their/its) needs are often met through entertainment.
4. (Who/Whom) asked (who/whom)?
5. It was (her/she) who answered the door.
6. They voted for the person (who/whom) they trusted.
7. Clara may appoint you and (I/me) for the job.
8. Tom lent Mary and (she/her) ten dollars.
9. The company tripled (their/its) profits last year.
10. They were talking about (who/whom) would succeed us.

Adjectives and Adverbs

Many people confuse adjectives and adverbs, but the difference between them lies in what they modify. Adjectives modify nouns while adverbs modify adjectives, verbs, or other adverbs. Once you determine what part of speech the word in question is modifying, you should be able to decide whether you need an adverb or an adjective.

Ex. Adjective: All I needed to study for the tests was a **quick** review of the material.
Adverb: In order to prepare myself for the test, I **quickly** reviewed the material.

Make sure not to mistake an adjective used as a subject or object complement for an adverb modifying a verb. Keep in mind that **linking verbs** (“appear,” “smell,” “look,” “become,” “feel,” “be,” “see,” “taste”) need a complement (adjective), not an adverb. Look at the following examples:

Ex. Wrong: The lilacs smell **sweetly**. (“lilacs” have no nose!)
Right: The lilacs smell **sweet**. (“lilacs” have a sweet smell, which is a quality: think adjective instead of adverb.)

Remember, you do not want to say “how” (adverb) the lilacs smell, but rather “what” (adjective) they smell like. As a result, you need a subject complement (adjective), not an adverb. This is because “smell” is a linking verb.

Practice: Select the correct adjective or adverb in each sentence.

1. Radio was (sure/surely) a powerful force during World War II.
2. Radio united all Americans from all regions as they had never (previous/previously) been.
3. During the war, most Americans felt (patriotic/patriotically), and a great deal of credit for that patriotism belongs to radio.
4. Americans listened (expectant/expectantly) to the latest war news.
5. (Most/Almost) everyone who is old enough to remember can clearly recall the news that our country had entered the war.
6. From that afternoon in 1941 until peace was declared four years later, Americans listened (attentively/attentive) to the radio for news.
7. Just as (common/commonly) was the use of radio for amusement, especially by children.
8. And what child of the 1940s does not look back (nostalgically/nostalgic) on Sergeant Preston of the Yukon and his dog King?

9. Preston's conversations with his dog, which may have seemed (humorous/humorously) to the adult, struck the child as entirely serious.
10. Radio requires a (noticeable/noticeably) more fertile imagination than does television.
11. When a monster was introduced on a radio serial, the only limitation on how (gruesome/gruesomely) it appeared was the child's imagination.
12. Many radio fans feel (bad/badly) that the days of absolute moral codes for children's heroes are gone.

Choose the best answer for each question.

1. By the end of Super Tuesday, it looked like Bradley would be forced to quit and move to Phoenix.

- A. There should be a comma before “and.”
- B. “Would” should be replaced with “could.”
- C. “Like” should be replaced with “as if.”
- D. “Would be” should be replaced with “was.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

2. A number of city polls, including one in Annapolis, Maryland, shows Powell behind Rice.

- A. “A” should be replaced with “The.”
- B. The comma after “Maryland” should be omitted.
- C. “Polls” should be replaced with “poles.”
- D. “Shows” should be replaced with “show.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

3. Due to their lack of training, we accountants are smarter than them.

- A. “We” should be replaced with “us.”
- B. “Them” should be replaced with “they.”
- C. The comma after “training” should be removed.
- D. “Their” should be removed.
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

4. Whom will the boss select as his new assistant?

- A. “Whom” should be replaced with “who.”
- B. “As” should be replaced with “for.”
- C. “His” should be replaced with “him.”
- D. There should be a comma after “boss.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

5. If you ask Sam, he’ll tell you that murderers should be hung.

- A. There should be a comma before “Sam.”
- B. “Tell” should be replaced with “tale.”
- C. “Hung” should be replaced with “hanged.”
- D. There should be an apostrophe after “murderers.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

6. Here is Casey Martin and Joe Montana working together on an auction; it will be fun to see whether it's successful.

- A. The semicolon after “auction” should be replaced with a comma.
- B. “Is” should be replaced with “are.”
- C. “It’s” should be replaced with “its.”
- D. “Whether” should be replaced with “weather.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

7. The cat had laid on the table so long that its fur began to flatten.

- A. “Began” should be replaced with “begun.”
- B. “That” should be replaced with “where.”
- C. “Its” should be replaced with “it’s.”
- D. “Laid” should be replaced with “lain.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

8. You will have to go a little farther down the road to reach the church because it's in the next town.

- A. “It’s” should be replaced with “its.”
- B. “Because” should be replaced with “in that.”
- C. “Farther” should be replaced with “further.”
- D. There should be a comma before “because.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

9. Due to unchecked pollution, the number of types of fish in the ocean seem to be dwindling.

- A. “Seem” should be replaced with “seems.”
- B. “Dwindling” should be replaced with “dwindled.”
- C. “Due to” should be replaced with “Figuring.”
- D. “Unchecked” should be replaced with “striking.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

10. Neither the cowboy nor the six guards think that the gold is safe from the ruffians milling about the area.

- A. “That” should be replaced with “because.”
- B. “Neither” should be replaced with “Either.”
- C. “Think” should be replaced with “thinks.”
- D. “Safe” should be replaced with “saved.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

11. Randy’s argumentative nature is a result of him being a debater in high school; he is not the only person with such an affliction.

- A. “High school” should be replaced with “high-school.”
- B. “A result” should be replaced with “because.”
- C. “Him” should be replaced with “his.”
- D. “Argumentative” should be replaced with “argumentatively.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

12. His masterful skills in the culinary arts are as good as any professional chef.

- A. “Arts” should be replaced with “art’s.”
- B. “Are” should be replaced with “is.”
- C. “Culinary” should be replaced with “food-related.”
- D. “Chef” should be replaced with “chef’s.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

13. The piano as well as the pipe organ have to be tuned for the big concert.

- A. There should be a comma before “as well as.”
- B. “Have” should be replaced with “has.”
- C. “As well as” should be replaced with “in addition to.”
- D. There should be a comma after “organ.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

14. Please give this album, which has received continual praise, to whoever you think might like it.

- A. “Whoever” should be replaced with “whomever.”
- B. “Continual” should be replaced with “continuous.”
- C. The commas before “which” and after “praise” should be omitted.
- D. “It” should be replaced with “them.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

15. Because it sat on the buffet table for more than four hours, the teriyaki chicken tasted badly.

- A. “Sat” should be replaced with “set.”
- B. “Because” should be omitted.
- C. “Badly” should be replaced with “bad.”
- D. The comma after “hours” should be omitted.
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

16. When will the officers accept that we anarchists – who are fighting for freedom – will not go away?

- A. “Officers” should be replaced with “officers’.”
- B. “Accept” should be replaced with “except.”
- C. “Who” should be replaced with “that.”
- D. “We” should be replaced with “us.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

17. Reporters cannot be reluctant to present their ideas if the media expects to connect with the public.

- A. “Expects” should be replaced with “expect.”
- B. “Cannot” should be replaced with “can not.”
- C. “Reluctant” should be replaced with “redundant.”
- D. “Reporters” should be replaced with “Reporter’s.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

18. There were so many early-voting problems that the elections office had to hire more people to fix them.

- A. “Early-voting” should not be hyphenated.
- B. “So” should be omitted.
- C. “That” should be replaced with a comma.
- D. “Were” should be replaced with “are.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

19. Trying not to incriminate themselves, the accused at the international tribunal refused to provide testimony for the prosecutor’s case.

- A. “Incriminate” should be replaced with “convict.”
- B. The comma after “themselves” should be omitted.
- C. “Accused” should be replaced with “accuse.”
- D. “Themselves” should be replaced with “themselves.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

20. During the summer, Jeff’s favorite activities included going to museums, Frisbee, traveling abroad, and attending all-night house parties.

- A. “All-night” should be replaced with “all night.”
- B. “Parties” should be replaced with “partys.”
- C. “Frisbee” should be replaced with “playing Frisbee.”
- D. “Abroad” should be replaced with “a broad.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

21. Establishing any compromise between the existentialists and the creationists are essential to the future of philosophical understanding.

- A. “Establishing” should be replaced with “establish.”
- B. “Compromise” should be replaced with “peacefully negotiated settlement.”
- C. “Are” should be replaced with “is.”
- D. “Are” should be replaced with “are not.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

22. Everybody was forcing themselves into the crowded movie theater, trying to get tickets to the hot new blockbuster “My Name is Fancy.”

- A. “Themselves” should be replaced with “himself.”
- B. “Trying” should be replaced with “to try.”
- C. “Everybody” should be replaced with “Every body.”
- D. The period should be placed outside the quotation marks.
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

Key for the Grammar Practice Test

1. **C** – The word “like” is used to make a comparison to an object, as in “It looked like an elephant.” We use the phrase “as if” to introduce a sentence clause, such as “It looked as if he was going to fall.” (The sentence clause here is “he was going to fall.”)
2. **D** – This is a subject/verb agreement question. The word “number,” as it states in the Grammar Review Section, can be singular or plural, depending on the meaning of the sentence. **Note:** this is really the only case in which we rely on **meaning** to denote agreement. Here, if our subject is “number” and it denotes **quantity**, as in “A number of students were absent,” the subject is plural, but if “number” denotes a **numerical unit**, as in “The number of students seems to be dwindling,” the subject and verb are singular.
3. **B** – In this case, we must replace “them” with “they” because, as we have tendency to do in English, we have left out a fraction of the sentence for convenience. The complete sentence would read, “Due to their lack of training, we accountants are smarter than they are smart.” (If you add the words “are smart” at the end, it’s easier to see why we need the subject pronoun, “they,” here instead of the object pronoun, “them.”)
4. **E** – The main issue in this sentence is that of “who” vs. “whom.” Here, though the word “whom” is the first word of the sentence (the position which usually denotes our subject), “whom” actually receives the action, standing in for the person receiving the action from the verb, “select.”
5. **C** – This one’s easy. It’s a little-known fact that the past participle verb form (ending with “-ed” or “-en”) of the verb “to hang” (as in “from a noose,” different from the verb “to hang,” as in “putting your clothes on a hanger”) is “hanged,” in order to distinguish it from the verb of the same spelling.
6. **B** – This is another subject/verb agreement problem. “Here is/are” and “there is/are” constructions invert the subject and verb order (in English, subjects usually precede verbs). So, we must look beyond the “to be” verb for our subject, then backtrack to make sure they agree. Because Casey Martin and Joe Montana are two subjects joined by “and,” they are treated as plural, and therefore the verb must be plural (“are”).
7. **D** – This one’s easy if you chart it out, keeping in mind that there are two different verbs here: “to lie,” meaning to recline oneself (or to tell an untruth, which is another verb with the same spelling); and “to lay,” meaning to put something down on a surface. “Lie” is thus an active verb (performed directly by the actor), while “lay” is passive (performed by the receiver of action). The confusion comes from the simple past tense forms of these verbs and the past participle (has/have/had) forms. Here’s a chart to remember the difference:

	To Lie	To Lay
Past Tense Form	lay	laid
Past Participle Form	lain	laid

In this sentence, “the cat” is performing the action, so we need the past participle form of the verb “to lie,” which is (had) “lain.”

8. **E** – The main issue here is “farther” vs. “further.” According to the *Harbrace College Handbook*, “farther” is a word most often used to denote geographic distance, as in “I don’t think I can walk any farther,” while “further” is used to denote addition, as in “He needed further proof” or “We experienced further delay at the airport.” “Farther” refers to physical distance, while “further” refers to an extension of time or degree.
9. **A** – Again, this is a subject/verb agreement question dealing with the word “number.” Here, “number” is a subject denoting numerical quantity, and so it must be singular, paired with the singular verb “seems.”
10. **E** – As stated in the Grammar Review Section, the subject/verb agreement topic with “neither/nor” or “either/or,” when using two subjects of different number, depends on the subject closest to the verb. Here, since “the six guards” is plural, the verb must be the plural “think,” even though “cowboy” is singular.
11. **C** – This one is a pronoun issue, and there’s a long explanation and a short one. The long explanation – the objective pronoun “him” in this case is incorrect because the “him” is not what has resulted in “Randy’s argumentative nature”; instead, it is the “being” that has caused his nature; thus, in order to allow that the word “being” is the object referred to, we must change “him” to possessive “his,” so that it merely modifies “being,” instead of taking its position as the object. The short explanation – you can shortcut the thinking for this one and just remember that anytime you see an “-ing” verb following a pronoun, you’ll need a possessive pronoun, not an objective one.
12. **D** – This is a faulty predication issue. Again, as in popular English, we have left out a fraction of the sentence. If we restore it, the sentence is “His masterful skills in the culinary arts are as good as any professional chef’s masterful skills.” Here, we can see that the possessive is necessary. Otherwise, the sentence makes an error in predication, making a comparison not between one person’s skill and another’s, but between one person’s skill and an actual person, which is illogical and therefore ungrammatical.
13. **B** – This is another subject/verb agreement question involving additive elements. In this case, the additive element is “as well as,” and from the Grammar Review Section, we see that we can ignore any object which follows an additive phrase. So, our subject is merely “piano,” and our verb must be singular “has.”
14. **A** – Again, we have the “who” vs. “whom” topic. An easy shortcut for remembering this one is that any word which follows a preposition in grammar is called an “object of the preposition,” and if we extend this to pronouns that follow prepositions (such as “to”) that pronoun must automatically be an object pronoun. Thus, here we need “whomever” instead of “whoever.” If this is too difficult for you to remember, you can still use the “actor or receiver” question to figure it out. For example, here the pronoun “whoever” is actually receiving “this album,” so we must change it into the object/receiver “whom.”

15. **C** – This one’s an adjective/adverb issue, and it’s tricky because it uses the linking verb “to taste.” When we use linking verbs that refer to the quality of something, this is generally closer to an adjective function than an adverb function (adjectives tell us what kind or quality of noun we’re using, and adverbs tell us how we perform a certain verb). Thus, if “the teriyaki chicken” in this sentence is tasting “badly,” it has a tongue and is using that tongue in a bad or incorrect way. However, if the “teriyaki chicken” is tasting “bad,” then it has a bad taste, referring more to the noun “taste” than to the verb “to taste,” and this makes more sense. We need the adjective “bad” instead of the adverb “badly.”
16. **E** – A normal tendency for this question is to choose **D**, replacing the subject pronoun “we” with the object pronoun “us.” However, because the phrase “we anarchists” is paired with the verb “will not go away,” the pronoun “we” is actually in the correct case, the subjective case.
17. **A** – This one’s easy if you remember that the word “media” is actually the plural form of the word “medium.” Remember also that this rule applies to words similar to “media.” For example, “data” and “curriculum.”
18. **E** –
19. **D** – This stems from our tendency to mix reflexive pronouns (“-self” pronouns) with possessive pronouns. Many of us do it in speech, but it’s ungrammatical, so just remember that possessive pronouns (“my/mine,” “your/yours,” “our/ours,” “their/theirs,” “his/hers”) can never be reflexive (have “-self” attached).
20. **C** – In English, when we catalogue (or list) items in a series, we use parallelism to make each element in the list recognizable as equal, meaning that they “sound the same.” In this sentence, all items but one begin with an “-ing” verb (“going,” “traveling,” and “attending”), so we have an easy solution: option **C** places “playing” in front of “Frisbee,” creating perfect parallelism.
21. **C** – This one’s easy to explain if you just remember that any “-ing” verb used as the subject of a sentence is always considered singular. Thus, “Establishing a compromise... is essential to the future of philosophical understanding.”
22. **A** – A common error in pronoun/antecedent agreement comes from the lack of recognition that the word “everybody” is in fact singular, though it conjures up ideas of a plural group. If you break it up into its original two parts (“every” and “body”), you can see that it means “each one,” a singular concept. Thus, the pronoun here for the antecedent is “everybody” should be “him- or herself,” or just “himself” or “herself.” Your choice is up to you as to how politically correct you want to be, so long as the agreement is correct: a singular antecedent matches with a singular pronoun.

Punctuation Review –GSP Test

In this section, you will learn everything that you ever wanted to know about punctuation. Punctuation, though always made out to be some kind of horrible entity that evil English professors torture their students with, really isn't all that bad. In fact, taking a few minutes to learn the rules that apply to various punctuation marks – such as the comma, semi-colon, colon, apostrophe, quotation mark, and dash – will be well worth the time invested. The rules, when applied by themselves or in conjunction with grammar and spelling rules, can greatly enhance a writer's skills and talents (whether a journalist or a novelist).

Before you get started, keep in mind that this is not something that you will learn overnight. Rather than trying to cram all of the information into a one-night study session, take your time. Work on a section or two per day and when you start a new section, take a few minutes to review what you have already learned. Most importantly though, make an effort to incorporate what you learn into your writing. With practice and application, using punctuation correctly becomes a natural part of your writing.

The Comma (,)

When you have two independent clauses (ICs), or two groups of words that have subjects and verbs and can stand alone (think of them as complete sentences), joined together by a coordinating conjunction (“for,” “and,” “nor,” “but,” “or,” “yet” and “so” – also called **FANBOYS**), use a comma before the coordinating conjunction. Think of it this way:

IC + FANBOYS + IC = IC, FANBOYS + IC.

So, if our independent clauses are “punctuation is boring” and “learning it will make me smarter,” then by joining them together with a FANBOYS (in this case, “but”), we get the following:

Punctuation is boring, **but** learning it will make me smarter.

When a dependent clause (DC) is followed by an independent clause, a comma must always follow the dependent clause. First, let's take a closer look at dependent clauses. A dependent clause is a group of words that has a subject and a verb (like an independent clause), but, unlike an independent clause, it cannot stand alone as a complete sentence. For instance, compare the two clauses below:

Commas are stupid

Although commas are stupid

What differences do you notice? First of all, the clauses are almost exactly the same, except for the fact that you wouldn't say, “Although commas are stupid,” and stop right there. Whoever you were talking to would probably look at you kind of strangely and wait for you to finish your thought. Thus, the second clause is an incomplete thought and must be a dependent clause (DC).

The only other difference between the two clauses is that the DC has a word attached to the beginning of it: “although.” Words like “although,” “because,” “if,” “when” and “since” are called subordinating conjunctions. When attached to an independent clause, they make the clause require more information to be a complete thought.

So, now that the mini-grammar lesson is over, what do you do when you have an independent clause and a dependent clause that you want to join together? As stated above, if the dependent clause precedes the independent clause, then a comma must separate the two clauses. Try combining these clauses by placing the dependent clause before the independent clause.

Because punctuation is boring I would rather not learn about commas

Your sentence should look like this:

Because punctuation is boring, I would rather not learn about commas.

It’s pretty simple, but there is a catch. What if you want to put the independent clause before the dependent clause? If you prefer this placement of the clauses, then do not use a comma. Your sentence will look like this:

I would rather not learn about commas because punctuation is boring.

So, the formulas for combining dependent clauses and independent clause look like this:

DC, IC or IC DC

Commas are also used to separate items in a series.

Ex. I need to learn commas, apostrophes, semicolons(,) and colons.

In this example, each item in the series except for the last is followed by a comma. In journalistic writing (as opposed to academic writing), a comma is typically omitted after the second to last item as well, though it is not incorrect to leave it (shown in parentheses above).

If two or more adjectives modify the same noun, we use a comma to separate the adjectives.

Ex. Writing would be easier if we didn’t have to use these boring, stupid commas.

In this case, “boring” and “stupid” both modify “commas.” Since “boring” can’t modify “stupid,” the sentence would not make sense if we left out the comma. If, however, the first adjective modifies both the second adjective and the noun together (i.e., the two adjectives do not hold equal importance in modifying the noun), then no comma is necessary between adjectives.

Ex. I despise those ugly little commas.

In this example, “ugly” modifies “little commas.”

If a sentence contains parenthetical or introductory elements, commas are also used to separate them from the rest of the sentence. A parenthetical element is a phrase or clause that is added to a sentence but does not alter its meaning. In other words, we can take the phrase or clause out of the sentence and the sentence will still mean the same thing. An introductory element is a parenthetical element that is placed at the beginning of a sentence.

Although there are various forms of parenthetical elements (including transition words and appositives), one of the most common parentheticals is a prepositional phrase.

Ex. **After five minutes**, I had already learned too much about punctuation.
I had, **after five minutes**, already learned too much about punctuation.

Notice the placements of the parenthetical elements. Depending on what you are trying to emphasize, you can place the phrase at different points in the sentence.

Another way to look at a parenthetical element is to call it a non-restrictive element: it doesn't restrict the meaning of the sentence.

Ex. My car, **which is blue**, goes fast.

If you were to take out “which is blue,” the sentence would still mean the same thing. All the parenthetical element is doing is modifying, or telling us more about “my car.” What I am really focusing on is the fact that my car is fast. The fact that it is blue doesn't really matter. But what about the following sentence?

Ex. Cars **that are blue** go fast.

In this instance, “that are blue” is necessary to the meaning of the sentence. If you were to remove it, the sentence would mean something completely different. Here, we are discussing only those cars that are blue. If we were to remove the element, we would be talking about all cars. Thus, if you have a restrictive element, one that restricts or limits the meaning of the sentence, do not use commas. This is a common mistake in writing. Typically, you will find that “which” is used for non-restrictive elements and “that” is used for restrictive elements.

There are also a few miscellaneous comma rules that apply when addressing people and using quotation marks. If in your writing you address a person by his or her name, you must separate the name from the rest of the sentence with a comma.

Ex. “**Jill**, help me with my homework,” I said.
I said, “Help me, **Jill**, with my homework.”
I said that I wanted **Jill** to help me with my homework. (not a direct address)

Notice that each time Jill is addressed directly, her name is set off by commas; but when she is spoken about (as in the last example), no commas are necessary. Also notice how commas are used to set off quotations. They are used to set off “I said,” which can set up the quote at the

beginning, middle, or end. If, however, you choose to say “that” somebody said something (such as in the last example), no commas are necessary.

Just as there are times when you will use commas, there are also specific instances where you will not:

- Never use a comma to separate a subject and verb or a verb and object.

Ex. Wrong: I went to the store to **buy**, some **milk**.

- Never use a comma with a non-parenthetical or restrictive element.

Ex. Wrong: All cows, **that are brown**, make chocolate milk.

- Never use a comma with items in a series if there are less than three items.

Ex. Wrong: I will buy **milk**, and some **eggs** at the store.

The Semicolon (;)

When you have two independent clauses, and you want to join them together **without** using a coordinating conjunction (FANBOYS), use a semicolon.

Ex. Punctuation is boring; it makes me want to puke.

Sounds pretty simple, right? Well, there is one little catch. If you choose to use a semicolon instead of a comma and a coordinating conjunction, you must make sure that the sentences are closely related. You wouldn't, for instance, say, “I hate punctuation; let's go get some pizza.” The ideas do not relate to each other at all, so the sentence sounds ridiculous.

Similarly, a semicolon is not used to link parts of unequal grammatical rank. For instance, we would not use a semicolon to link “I hate commas” and “the most atrocious part of punctuation.” Instead, we would use a comma to separate the clause and the phrase because the phrase is acting as a parenthetical element and thus, we must separate it from the rest of the sentence with a comma.

Ex. I hate commas, the most atrocious part of punctuation.

So, to add to our list of formulas, we now have two ways to link independent clauses.

IC, FANBOYS + IC.

or

IC; IC.

The only other time a semicolon is used is to separate items in a series that contains commas. In this instance, a semicolon is used for clarity.

Ex. The weather has been bad all week. We had rain, humidity and high temperatures on Monday; thunderstorms on Tuesday; and tornadoes, which destroyed two subdivisions, on Wednesday.

By using a semicolon, we can make a definite distinction between the items in the series. If we were to use a comma however, it would make it difficult to separate the items from each other and understand the sentence.

The Colon (:)

A colon is used to emphasize what follows it, such as a series, a quotation, or an explanation or summary. It may also introduce a second independent clause that elaborates on the ideas of the first independent clause. Although a complete sentence after a colon is usually not capitalized (except in APA format), a capital letter is usually used to begin a quote that follows a colon.

Ex. I have just learned three different types of punctuation: the comma, the semicolon and the colon.
Though many would argue with me, this worksheet does have positive results: it teaches students correct usage of various forms of punctuation.
Dr. Seuss wrote one of the world’s most profound statements: “I do not like green eggs and ham. I do not like them Sam-I-Am.”

Note: Always remember that a colon can only follow a complete sentence and can never separate a verb from its objects.

The Apostrophe (’)

The apostrophe is used to show possession. For singular nouns and indefinite pronouns (such as “anyone”), add “-’s,” as in the following examples:

Amanda’s book	the dog’s house	NATO’s agreement
anyone’s guess	the fox’s den	Alfred’s apartment

Note: If the “-’s” results in awkward repetition of an “s,” “x” or “z” sound, omit the “s” after the apostrophe: “Moses’ city.”

For plural nouns ending in “s,” add only the apostrophe. For plurals not ending in “s,” add the apostrophe and “s,” as in the following examples:

the girls’ dolls	five dollars’ worth	the Joneses’ house
women’s department	men’s pants	children’s shoes

Use the apostrophe to mark numbers and omissions in contractions:

didn’t they’re o’clock ma’am ‘91

Use the apostrophe and “s” for the plural forms of lowercase letters and abbreviations followed by periods. When needed to prevent confusion, the “-‘s” is used for the plural of capital letters and words referred to as examples of words. See the following examples:

a’s Ms.’s I’s plus’s

You may use either “-‘s” or “s” to form such plurals as the following:

1900’s or 1900s	B’s or Bs	and’s or ands
7’s or 7s	VFW’s or VFWs	

Do not use the apostrophe with personal pronouns or with plural nouns not in the possessive case:

theirs yours its ours whose

Quotation Marks (“ ”)

Use quotation marks for direct quotations and all dialogue.

Ex. My momma told me, “You better shop around.”
“How can you have any pudding if you don’t eat your meat?” screamed the headmaster.

In dialogue, the standard practice is to write what each person says, no matter how short, as if it were a separate paragraph. Expressions such as “he said,” are included with the quotations.

Ex. “Excuse me,” I said to the woman, “do you happen to know what time it is?”
She kindly answered, “Of course, it’s 3:30.”
Relieved to know I wouldn’t be late for soccer practice, I replied, “Thank you!”

Use quotation marks for minor titles (short stories, essays, short poems, songs, articles in periodicals, or episodes of a radio or television series) and subdivisions of books.

Ex. My favorite poem is “The Raven” by Edgar Allen Poe.

Used sparingly, quotation marks may enclose words intended in a special or ironic sense. Do not use quotation marks to enclose a cliché.

Ex. Wrong: His “castle” was a cozy little rattrap.

When using various marks of punctuation with quoted words, phrases, or sentences, follow the conventions of American printers.

- Place the period and the comma within the quotation marks (except when internally citing a source – in which case a comma follows the parenthetical reference to the source of the quotation).

Ex. “Hey, Jude,” said Paul, “don’t make it bad.”

- Place the colon and semicolon outside the quotation marks.

Ex. Everyone has heard the song “Lucy in the Sky with Diamonds”; some say the song was based on a picture drawn by John Lennon’s son, while others claim it was a reference to drugs.

- Place the question mark, the exclamation point, and the dash within the quotation marks when they apply only to the quoted matter. Place them outside when they do not.

Ex. “Do you really want to hurt me?” asked Boy George.
Stop singing “Hanging Tough”!
You know what they say – “It’s a Small World, After All.”

The Hyphen (-)

Failure to hyphenate compound adjectives preceding a noun is one of the most common errors found in the printed media. Notice the hyphenation of compound adjectives in this sentence:

Ex. Tracy Austin, the fragile-looking 15-year-old girl from... took her biggest step... by ending the 37-match victory streak of Martina Navratilova.

Do not hyphenate a compound with an adverb ending in “-ly” (another common error found in the media):

recently completed bridge

stylishly dressed woman

The Dash (–)

Use the dash to mark a break in thought, an abrupt change in tone, or faltering speech; to set off parenthetical elements for emphasis or clarity; and to set off an introductory series.

- Ex. Metallica, Slayer, Ratt – those are all of Buddy’s favorite bands.
 A family vacation – which is supposed to be fun – is often stressful.
 When I was six, I made my mother a little hat – out of her new blouse.

Choose the best answer for each question.

- 1. The new president of Denton’s software manufacturing locality, in addition to his new bureaucrats, has little background in administration.**
 - A. The word “president” should be replaced with “President.”
 - B. “Denton’s” should be replaced with “Dentons’.”
 - C. The comma before “in” should be omitted.
 - D. Both commas should be omitted.
 - E. The sentence is correct as written.

- 2. Buttressing the claims of the group of philanthropists was its mission statement; to protect and serve for the betterment of humanity.**
 - A. The semicolon should be replaced with a colon.
 - B. “Its” should be replaced with “their.”
 - C. “Its” should be replaced with “it’s.”
 - D. A comma should be placed after “and.”
 - E. The sentence is correct as written.

- 3. “I can’t decide,” Joan reflected over her latte, “if the book sounds less like interestingly devastating non-fiction or more like pulp fiction vis-à-vis one crazed out guy with a particularly bad case of employee revenge.”**
 - A. “Like” should be replaced in both references with “as.”
 - B. “Less” and “more” should be omitted.
 - C. “Pulp fiction” should be hyphenated.
 - D. “Crazed out” should be hyphenated.
 - E. The sentence is correct as written.

- 4. Suffice it to say, the Society for the Preservation of Grasslands was comprised solely of members from the Midwest; Jim Frock, Iowa; Susan Bay, Minnesota; and Timothy Sax, Kansas.**
 - A. “Solely” should be spelled “soley.”
 - B. The semicolons after “Iowa” and “Minnesota” should be replaced with commas.
 - C. The semicolon after “Midwest” should be replaced with a comma.
 - D. The semicolon after “Midwest” should be replaced with a colon.
 - E. The sentence is correct as written.

5. **“Come, students,” Dr. Apsimle beckoned, “we all know it: jargon – that beast of a language that ‘is not meant to obfuscate but demarcate’”.**
- A. The comma after “beckoned” should be omitted.
 - B. “Jargon” should be replaced with “archaic words.”
 - C. The period at the end of the sentence should go before the single quotation mark.
 - D. The period should go after the single quotation mark and before the double quotation mark.
 - E. The sentence is correct as written.
6. **All mothers who hear such a contrived excuse are justified in taking action – especially when they are being patronized by their children.**
- A. There should be a dash after “patronized.”
 - B. There should be a comma before “who” and after “excuse.”
 - C. There should be a comma after “especially.”
 - D. “Mothers” should be replaced with “mother’s.”
 - E. The sentence is correct as written.
7. **Superman is quite capable of saving a person in distress but his powers are limited by his susceptibility to the eerily green gemstone, Kryptonite.**
- A. “Eerily” and “green” should be hyphenated.
 - B. The comma before “Kryptonite” should be omitted.
 - C. There should be a comma before “but.”
 - D. The comma after “gemstone” should be replaced with a dash.
 - E. The sentence is correct as written.
8. **Stealing babies’ toys during Christmas time though ruthless, is a lucrative business for the common peddler.**
- A. “Babies” should be replaced with “baby’s.”
 - B. There should be a comma after “time.”
 - C. The comma after “ruthless” should be omitted.
 - D. There should be a hyphen between “Christmas” and “time.”
 - E. The sentence is correct as written.

- 9. After laying eyes on the stylishly-clad poodle, Jody realized that it was time she confront her senile grandmother.**
- A. The hyphen between “stylishly” and “clad” should be omitted.
 - B. The comma after “poodle” should be omitted.
 - C. There should be a comma after “Jody.”
 - D. There should be a colon after “confront.”
 - E. The sentence is correct as written.
- 10. Orson Wells astonished an early twentieth-century audience when he stated frantically over the radio waves, “Aliens have invaded Earth... This is the war of the worlds.”**
- A. There should be a hyphen between “radio” and “waves.”
 - B. There should be a hyphen between “early” and “twentieth.”
 - C. A period should be added after “Earth...”
 - D. There should be a comma after “when.”
 - E. The sentence is correct as written.
- 11. Cell phone service is rife with age-old difficulties, people will soon come to realize that PCS service is the wave of the future.**
- A. There should be a comma before “that.”
 - B. The hyphen between “age” and “old” should be omitted.
 - C. The comma after “difficulties” should be replaced with a semicolon.
 - D. The comma after “difficulties” should be replaced with a colon.
 - E. The sentence is correct as written.
- 12. Upon further examination of his Ford truck, Buddy was amazed when he realized that the “fender bender” had, in fact, not damaged it’s fender after all.**
- A. The comma after “truck” should be omitted.
 - B. There should be a comma after “that.”
 - C. The double quotation marks around “fender bender” should be replaced with single quotation marks.
 - D. “It’s” should be replaced with “its.”
 - E. The sentence is correct as written.
- 13. Some of Stevie’s favorite bands – Radiohead, Ani Difranco, and Bright Eyes, attract skepticism from her less cultured friends.**
- A. “Stevie’s” should be replaced with “Stevies.”
 - B. The dash after “bands” should be replaced with a colon.
 - C. The comma after “Eyes” should be replaced with a dash.
 - D. There should be a hyphen between “less” and “cultured.”
 - E. The sentence is correct as written.

14. Why, after so many hours of deliberation, did she decide that she wanted to be called the “grammar hammer”?

- A. The comma after “Why” should be omitted.
- B. There should be a comma after “called.”
- C. There should be a dash after “deliberation.”
- D. The question mark should be placed after “hammer” inside the quotation marks.
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

15. On June 19, 1215 in Runnymede, England, King John was forced by noblemen to sign the Magna Carta, which is a document that forever changed the system of government.

- A. The comma after “Carta” should be omitted.
- B. The comma after “England” should be omitted.
- C. There should be a comma after “1215.”
- D. There should be a comma after “John.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

16. What many people do not know about stewardesses (who should now be referred to as flight attendants), is that they are protected by federal law.

- A. The comma before “is that they” should be omitted.
- B. There should be a comma after “stewardesses”
- C. There should be an apostrophe after “stewardesses.”
- D. There should be a colon before “is that they.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

17. The police officer, when he saw the carnage, stated in a rather insensitive manner that “the boy should never have ridden his bike in the middle of the road.”

- A. There should be a comma after “that.”
- B. The comma after “carnage” should be omitted.
- C. The quotation marks should be omitted.
- D. There should be a colon after “manner.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

18. To qualify for the “Little Miss Baby” beauty pageant, the child must be a six- to eight-month-old infant.

- A. There should be a semicolon after “pageant.”
- B. There should be a colon after “pageant.”
- C. “Six-” should be replaced with “six.”
- D. There should be a comma after “child.”
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

19. “Run over to the refrigerator James, and snag a cold brewsky for me,” the young man declared.

- A. “The young man declared” should be put in parentheses.
- B. The comma after “me” should be replaced with a period.
- C. There should be a comma before “James.”
- D. The comma after “James” should be omitted.
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

20. Unfortunately, though, unethical politicians will continue to be elected as long as the populace remains aloof – aloof to the goings-on of the government.

- A. The comma before “though” should be omitted.
- B. The hyphen between “goings” and “on” should be replaced with a dash.
- C. There should be a comma before “as long as.”
- D. “Government” should be capitalized.
- E. The sentence is correct as written.

Key for the Punctuation Practice Test

1. **E** – The commas surrounding “in addition to his fellow bureaucrats” offset superfluous information or a non-restrictive phrase. We will only capitalize “president” if it’s the first word in a sentence, or if it refers to the President of the United States. The “-’s” is tagged on to Denton to indicate its possession of the North Texas locality.
2. **A** – As is, the semicolon separates an independent and dependent clause, but in order to use a semicolon, we must have two independent clauses. Only one of these can stand alone as a complete sentence. Since, the latter clause further modifies the word, “statement,” we can use a colon. The group of words to the left of a colon must be a complete sentence, whereas the group of words to the right can be a list, statement, directions, or a wide array of things. The key is to make sure that the group of words to the right of the colon modifies or further explains the sentence to the left of the colon.
3. **D** – “Like” will remain as is. This is an example of the different meanings of prepositions. Although the difference is very slight in the cases of “like” and “as,” it is still significant and something to be mindful of when taking the GSP. There is no need for the comma before “or” because the group of words that follow it is not a complete sentence. “Pulp fiction” is not hyphenated. “Crazed-out” is hyphenated because the words are jointly describing “guy.”
4. **D** – The semicolons in this sentence are used to divide the items in the list that contain commas. The semicolon after “Midwest” does not act as a divider between the items that contain commas. One should replace the semicolon with a colon because the colon acts as a formal introducer to call attention to what follows, in this case the names of the members.
5. **C** – Commas and periods always go to the left of quotation marks, regardless of whether there are two, three, or twenty quotation marks.
6. **E** – There is no abrupt change in tone in the phrase “by their children” worthy enough to merit the use of a dash. The commas surrounding “who hear... excuse” do not surround a non-restrictive phrase. Which mothers? The mothers who hear such a contrived excuse. Since that phrase is necessary to clarify which mothers specifically, do not set it off with commas. There is no need for an “-’s” after “mothers” because the mothers are not showing ownership of anything.
7. **C** – “Superman... in distress” and “his powers... Kryptonite” are complete sentences. The conjunction “but” is not strong enough to hold them together on its own. Consequently, either add a comma or replace “but” with a semicolon. Since the option to add a semicolon is not a provided answer (the GSP will never ask you to choose between two right answers), add a comma before “but.”

8. **B** – “Though ruthless” is irrelevant to the central point of the sentence. By surrounding the phrase with commas, the sentence reads “Stealing babies’ toys at Christmas time is a lucrative business,” which stands perfectly well on its own. Commas should always set off non-restrictive clauses or elements: information that is not crucial to the point of the sentence.
9. **A** – Never hyphenate “-ly” words. Hyphenated words can usually be thought of as one word. A hyphen connects two or more words serving as a single adjective or to avoid ambiguity.
10. **C** – The series of incessant dots are commonly referred to as ellipses. If one cuts out one part of a sentence and then resumes one thought within the same sentence, one would use three periods (...). Think of it as an omission within the same sentence.

Ex. My sister, who lives in Vancouver, is quite strange.
My sister... is quite strange.

If one were to cut off the end of a sentence and then resume one’s thought in another sentence, the result would be four periods and a capital letter starting off the first word in the new sentence: an ellipsis followed by a period.

Ex. We’ve all had little glimpses into the dirty, dark elevator shaft and seen the greasy cables passing each other. They never look totally safe. The idea of being trapped in a small box induces a kind of phobia in us.
We’ve all had little glimpses into the dirty, dark elevator shaft.... The idea of being trapped in a small box induces a kind of phobia in us.

11. **C** – “Cell phone... difficulties” is a complete sentence, as is “people... the future.” One either needs a comma and a conjunction or a semicolon. Since the former is not an option, a semicolon will adequately suffice.
12. **D** – “It’s” is always a contraction for “it is,” whereas “its” always denotes possession. “It’s” is an exception to the general rule that apostrophes indicate possession.
13. **C** – Set “Radiohead, Ani DiFranco, and Bright Eyes” off with either two commas or two dashes because the list is superfluous information that simply clarifies for the reader what Stevie’s favorite bands are. It is not crucial to the overall meaning of the sentence. Thus, either surround the list with two commas or two dashes. Since it is not an option to replace the dash after “bands” with a comma, replace the comma after “Eyes” with a dash.
14. **E** – Although commas and periods always go to the left of the quotation marks, it is not always so for exclamation and question marks. The main thing to keep in mind is that if the emphasis or question is within the quotations, we must place the end mark within the quotations. However, if the emphasis or question is outside the quotation marks, then the

end mark will be outside the quotations. In this case, the question is being asked outside the quotations.

15. **C** – Always place commas after dates, years, cities, states, countries, names, addresses and area codes.

Ex. Last year on October 15th, 2003, in Denton, Texas, my brother crashed the family car into the living room.

Mail the package to Jamie X. Zinchainai, 720 Sycamore, Denton, Texas, 73902.

16. **A** – There is no reason for the comma after “attendants.” If you cannot explain why a piece of punctuation is positioned as it is, it probably shouldn’t be there.

17. **E** – There is a comma after various forms of the word “said,” but it is not needed after “that.”

Ex. The President said that he “had no idea.”

Julie always says, “there’s no reason for that kind of vulgar behavior.”

18. **E** – This is an odd question at first glance because it appears that “six-to” is one word. As with ellipses, pay attention to the little things, like the space between the hyphen and “to.” It would be one word if it were typed “six-to.” By placing the space, it indicates that the infant is either a six-month-old or an eight-month-old. If the hyphen were removed after “six,” then it would imply an eight-month-old to six month-old. And there is no such thing as a “month-old.”

19. **C** – Anytime we add a proper noun that can fit anywhere in a direct address, we should surround it with commas.

Ex. James, run over to the refrigerator, James, and snag a cold brewsky for me, James.

“James” can fit in several different places in the sentence. Thus, we need to surround it with commas. Also, proper nouns that act as appositives, which usually rename a noun, may be nonrestrictive (set off by commas) or restrictive (not set off by commas). A nonrestrictive appositive provides additional but not essential details about the noun or pronoun.

Ex. The hybrid of aloe vera, xkeyzx, has not been approved yet by the FDA.

20. **E** – “Though” is a superfluous, nonrestrictive word, thus it requires commas. “Goings-on” should be thought of as one word, because it’s not “the goings of the government” nor is it “the on of the governments.” “As long as...” is restrictive and crucial to the meaning behind why “unethical politicians will continue to be elected...” Only capitalize “government” if you are referring to a specific government.

Spelling Review –GSP Test

In order to review for the spelling portion of the GSP, we've listed some of the most problematic spelling rules below. For the most part, we have concentrated only on rules that will be applicable in the GSP test.

Rule 1: “ei” vs. “ie”

In grade school, most of us were taught the following rhyme to help us decide the correct way to spell a word containing either “ei” or “ie”:

“I” before “e”
Except after “c”
Or when it sounds like long “a”
As in “neighbor” and “weigh”

While this does help in memorizing, unfortunately this rule doesn't always work. However, it does work for most of the words you are likely to spell on a day-to-day basis. This portion of the rule applies when the combination “ei” or “ie” is pronounced with a long “e,” the sound in the words “believe” and “field.” When the sound is long “e,” you can, for the most part, spell the sound “ie,” except when it comes **immediately** after “c.” Also, 2/3 of all “ei/ie” words use “ie.” The odds are in your favor if you use “ie” when you're not sure.

There are exceptions to this rule:

- This rule only applies when the combination is a diphthong, that is, a combination that is pronounced as one syllable.
- The rule does not apply when the combination spreads over two syllables as in “fiesta,” “science,” and “deity.”
- Also, the rule does not always apply to words borrowed from foreign languages such as the French-derived word “reveille.”
- Other common words that do not follow the rules:

ancient	Fahrenheit	leisure	sheik
caffeine	fiery	neither	sleight
codeine	financier	protein	stein
counterfeit	friend	seize	their
either	height	seizure	weird

Practice: Fill in the blank with the correct version of “ei” or “ie.”

1. He was filled with conc_____t.
2. How can you conc_____ve of such an idea?
3. She carried a br_____fcase.
4. He hit a v_____n of solid gold.
5. The slow fr_____ght came through the town at _____ght o’clock.
6. The sl_____gh flew over the snow.
7. Work little, ach_____ve little.
8. She painted the c_____ling.
9. Get a rec_____pt for the money.
10. It is better to give than rec_____ve.

Rule 2: Final “y”

In words that end with “y,” making the word plural can be confusing. For example, “attorney” becomes “attorneys,” but “apology” becomes “apologies.” However, notice that in “attorney,” the final “y” is preceded by a vowel. In the word “apology,” there is no vowel to precede the final “y”; therefore, to make the word plural, add “-ies.” In this situation, think of this rhyme:

Words that end in “y”
Are always served the best
In changing “y” to “i”
And then adding “-es”

- When you add “-ed,” follow the same procedure: the word “ally” becomes “allied.”
- When adding “-er,” follow the same procedure: the word “steady” becomes “steadier.”
- When a suffix beginning with the letter “i” is added to a word ending in “y,” keep the “y”: the word “steady” becomes “steading.”
- With suffixes beginning with any letter except “i,” either a vowel or consonant, change the “y” to “i”: the word “steady” becomes “steadiest.”
- There are a few long words where even the “y” is dropped. For example, when you add “-ist” to “accompany,” you get “accompanist.” The same can be said for adding “-ism” to the end of a word ending in “y” (“military” becomes “militarism”) and adding “-ish” to the end of a word ending in “y” (“girly” becomes “girlish”).

Practice: Rewrite the following words ending with “-y,” adding a suffix or making them plural.

- | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. murky + ness _____ | 6. lonely + ness _____ |
| 2. chimney + s _____ | 7. quantity + es _____ |
| 3. busy + ness _____ | 8. apply + cation _____ |
| 4. funny + er _____ | 9. ninety + eth _____ |
| 5. allay + ed _____ | 10. baby + ing _____ |

Rule 3: The final consonant

When words end in a single final consonant and are preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant if you’re adding a suffix beginning with a vowel and when the vowel is accented.

Because this is complicated, follow the checklist below to see if the word you’re spelling requires you to double the final consonant:

- Is there a single final consonant?
- Is there a single preceding vowel?
- Does the suffix to be added begin with a vowel?
- Is the last syllable accented?

If the word checks out completely, double the final consonant. Try the check with the following words:

Ex. Begin + ing

- yes, there’s a single final consonant: “n”
- yes, “i” is the single vowel before “n”
- yes, the suffix to be added (“-ing”) begins with a vowel: “i”
- yes, it is accented on the last syllable: beGIN
- so double the final consonant of “begin” and change it to “beginning”

Ex. Enter + ing

- yes, there’s a single final consonant: “r”
- yes, “e” is the single preceding vowel before “r.”
- yes, the suffix to be added (“-ing”) begins with a vowel: “i”
- no, it is not accented on the last syllable: Enter
- so “enter” doesn’t double the final consonant, and it becomes “entering”

Practice: Add the suffixes to the root words below

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. occur + ing _____ | 6. propel + ant _____ |
| 2. quiz + ed _____ | 7. exceed + ed _____ |
| 3. accent + ing _____ | 8. submit + ing _____ |
| 4. quiet + er _____ | 9. rebel + ion _____ |
| 5. depend + ent _____ | 10. god + ess _____ |

Rule 4: Additive elements

When you add a prefix, suffix or word to another word, do you know when to add, drop or keep letters? For example, when you add the suffix “-ness” to drunken, how do you spell the resulting combination—“drunkenness” or “drunkeness”? And when you add the prefix “-mis” to “interpret,” is it “misinterpret” or “missinterpret”?

Think back to the final consonant rule and extend the rule by adding prefixes. If the prefix ends with a vowel and it’s being joined to a word that starts with the same vowel, make sure to keep the extra vowel. In addition, if the prefix ends with a consonant and it’s being joined to a word that starts with the same consonant, make sure to keep the extra consonant.

Conversely, apply the same rule to suffixes. For example, “uncivil” + “ly” becomes “uncivilly,” and “cool” + “ly” becomes “coolly”.

Practice: Apply these rules to the following words.

- | | |
|----------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. in + novate _____ | 6. knick + knack _____ |
| 2. ship + ment _____ | 7. dis + approve _____ |
| 3. cruel + ly _____ | 8. over + rate _____ |
| 4. out + talk _____ | 9. un + needed _____ |
| 5. re + enter _____ | 10. inter + related _____ |

Rule 5: Final/silent “e”

It is important to know the relationship between silent “e” and the vowel preceding it. It helps to explain the relationship between “at” and “ate,” “her” and “here,” and “us” and “use.”

The final “e” is generally dropped before a suffix beginning with a vowel, but retained before a suffix beginning with a consonant. For example, the word “care” becomes “caring” by dropping the final “e” when adding “-ing,” but becomes “careful,” and retains the final “e,” when adding the suffix “-ful.”

With words ending in “-ue” (“argue,” “true,” “due”), the final “e” is also dropped before a suffix beginning with a consonant, as in “argument,” “truly” and “duty.”

This last rule can be tricky, so pay close attention:

With words containing “c” or “g” before the silent “e,”
when the “c” has an “s” sound
and the “g” has a “j” sound,
the silent “e” is retained with the suffixes “-able” and “-ous”;
“-able and “-ous” are the exceptions to the rule.

Practice: Write the proper spelling of the following combinations.

- | | | | |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------|-------|
| 1. lose + ing | _____ | 6. live + able | _____ |
| 2. care + less | _____ | 7. lodge + ment | _____ |
| 3. receive + able | _____ | 8. mere + ly | _____ |
| 4. nine + ty | _____ | 9. berate + ed | _____ |
| 5. value + able | _____ | 10. definite + ly | _____ |

Rule 6: Plurals

If you are willing to learn a few rules, the mastery of forming plurals should come fairly easily. The overwhelming majority of English words are made plural by simply adding “s.”

However, there are exceptions to this rule. You can easily identify most of them. They include words that end in “y,” “o” and “f.” Words that end in a sibilant, such as “church,” “thrush,” “lass,” “buzz” and “tax,” are also exceptions. In addition, some words borrowed from other languages that have retained their foreign plurals are irregular. Irregular English nouns and compound nouns, such as “brother-in-law,” are also exceptions to the rule.

Nouns that end in “y”

When a word ends in “y,” look at the vowel or consonant that precedes the “y” to determine how to make it plural. For example, “activity,” “apology” and “duty” all have consonants that precede the “y.” When this occurs, drop the “y” and add “-ies” to make the word plural.

- Ex. “activity” becomes “activities”
- “apology” becomes “apologies”
- “duty” becomes “duties”

Conversely, if the word ends in “y” and is preceded by a vowel, just add “s.” For example, “attorney,” “monkey” and “toy” all have vowels that precede the “y.”

- Ex. “attorney” becomes “attorneys”
- “monkey” becomes “monkeys”
- “toy” becomes “toys”

Nouns that end in “o”

When a word ends in “o,” look at the vowel or consonant that precedes the “o” to determine how to make it plural. In the case of words ending in an “o” preceded by a vowel, simply add an “s” after the “o.” For example, “boo,” “radio,” “studio” and “rodeo” are all words that end in an “o” preceded by a vowel.

- Ex. “boo” becomes “boos”
- “radio” becomes “radios”
- “studio” becomes “studios”
- “rodeo” becomes “rodeos”

Words that end in an “o” preceded by a consonant are a different matter. When a word ends in “o” and is preceded by a vowel, make sure to add “-es” to the end.

- Ex. “banjo” becomes “banjos”
- “echo” becomes “echoes”
- “tomato” becomes “tomatoes”
- “zero” becomes “zeroes”

Words that end in “f”

Some words that end in “f” become plural by adding “s” to the end. This includes most words that end in “-ff.” For example, “surf,” “chef,” “sheriff” and “roof.”

- Ex. “surf” becomes “surfs”
- “chef” becomes “chefs”
- “roof” becomes “roofs”
- “sheriff” becomes “sheriffs”

However, most words that end in “f” drop the “f” and any letters that follow it, and add “-ves.” The changing of consonants is clearly heard in the pronunciation. Some of the words that follow this rule are

Ex. “calf” becomes “calves”	“loaf” becomes “loaves”
“elf” becomes “elves”	“self” becomes “selves”
“half” becomes “halves”	“shelf” becomes “shelves”
“knife” becomes “knives”	“thief” becomes “thieves”
“life” becomes “lives”	“wife” becomes “wives”

A few other words that end in “f” can use either form of the plural. For example, “dwarf,” “hoof,” “scarf,” “staff” and “wharf.”

Words that end in the sibilant

Words that end in the sibilant (“ch,” “sh,” “s,” “x” and “z”) present no great problem. In fact, simply add “-es.”

Ex. “church” becomes “churches”
“splash” becomes “splashes”
“catch” becomes “catches”
“box” becomes “boxes”

Compound nouns

Compound nouns form their plurals by adding “s” or “-es” at the end of the main word in the compound list. Sometimes the trick is to decide which portion of the word is the main word.

Ex. “attorney at law” becomes “attorneys at law”
“brother-in-law” becomes “brothers-in-law”
“brigadier general” becomes “brigadier generals”

Rule 7: The hyphen

The hyphen is one of the trickier marks of punctuation. However, its use falls into two main categories: compounds used as adjectives, and numbers and fractions. **Note:** hyphenation is one area where the GSP sections will overlap, as it can be considered a Punctuation topic **or** a Spelling topic.

Compounds used as adjectives

Generally, when you compound words and use them as adjectives to describe one noun, you hyphenate them. Consider the following:

- Ex. the six-cylinder engine
their too-little-and-too-late attitudes
a happy-looking girl
a health-related issue
his up-to-date methods

When compounds are used as adjectives and are placed **before** the noun modified, they are usually hyphenated. When a compound appears **after** a verb, it is usually not hyphenated.

Hyphenating a compound before a noun is often essential to understanding. A “light-brown sweater” is a sweater that is light in color; a “light, brown sweater” is a brown sweater that is light in weight. In another example, there is a big difference between a “pink-skinned rabbit,” and a “pink, skinned rabbit.”

Numbers and fractions

Numbers from twenty-one through ninety-nine that are compound numbers, such as “twenty-four” and “seventy-six,” are hyphenated. Also, place a hyphen between the numerator and denominator of fractions. When either the numerator or denominator is already hyphenated, omit the hyphen between the two.

Practice: Determine whether or not you need to hyphenate the words in bold. Write your answers in the space provided.

1. The issue was **health related**. _____
2. The **red headed** girl was too beautiful not to notice. _____
3. His **color blind** cousin knew that the girl was gorgeous. _____
4. The **human interest** story was what won the journalist his prize. _____
5. The **half time** show went on too long and the players got restless. _____
6. His methods are **up to date**, according to the magazine. _____
7. **Eighty five** students were arrested during the protest last night. _____
8. Over **two thirds** of the campus’ students remained in their classes. _____
9. Two of the students were given a **six year** sentence. _____
10. One hundred and **ninety nine** students were expelled. _____

The “Potholes”

The “potholes” are the words that tests show are more commonly misspelled than any others. Use any or all of the memorization devices that follow to learn their proper spelling:

- **Pronunciation:** Locate the pothole in your dictionary. Using the dictionary’s pronunciation key, be sure you pronounce the word correctly
- **Writing/saying/hearing/tracing:** Carefully write the pothole at least ten times, saying the letters as you write them. When you complete the word, pronounce it carefully. Listen to yourself as you write and speak. If you have access to a digital recorder, use it. Record your spelling of the word as you write and speak it. Then, play the word back and trace over the letters of the written word as you hear them. With these methods, you are fixing the word in your mind with both your aural and visual senses.
- **Mnemonic devices:** Use mental association tricks to help you remember the pothole. Make up sentences that emphasize the troublesome part of the pothole. For example, the idea that it’s c-c-cold in the **arCtic** will help you to remember to place “c” in the word. Remembering that **MeN** march in a **clouMN** may help you visualize the “-mn” that ends the word. The question, “**is land** surrounded by water an **island**?” should help you with the pothole, “island.” Mnemonic devices don’t have to be logical or sensible. The important thing is that they be memorable.

Here is the list of potholes:

angel	development	many	reception
annual	embarrass	meant	recommend
answer	etcetera	muscle	rhythm
around	expense	necessary	schedule
arouse	familiar	nickel	separate
article	fascinate	obstacle	sergeant
attendance	further	occasion	shoulder
auxiliary	guarantee	parallel	speech
breathe	guard	pastime	stretch
brilliant	heroine	peculiar	syllable
certain	island	possess (ion)	until
column	its (it’s)	possible	vegetable
conscientious	lead	prove	vengeance
dealt	maneuver	psychology	Wednesday

Choose the correct spelling of each word.

1.
 - A. acclemate
 - B. acclimate
 - C. acklimate
 - D. acclimait
2.
 - A. bicentenial
 - B. biscentennial
 - C. bicentennial
 - D. bisenteneal
3.
 - A. katharses
 - B. katharsis
 - C. catharsis
 - D. cathersis
4.
 - A. krysanthemum
 - B. crisanthimum
 - C. chrisanthemum
 - D. chrysanthemum
5.
 - A. gangrine
 - B. gangrene
 - C. cangreen
 - D. gangrean
6.
 - A. hypochondriac
 - B. hipochondriac
 - C. hypocondreak
 - D. hypocondriac
7.
 - A. subconshus
 - B. subcontius
 - C. subconscious
 - D. subconciuous
8.
 - A. indescipherable
 - B. indeciferible
 - C. indecipherible
 - D. indecipherable
9.
 - A. leopard
 - B. leapard
 - C. lepeard
 - D. leopird
10.
 - A. disposable
 - B. disposeble
 - C. dispoisible
 - D. disposeable
11.
 - A. quintessenshul
 - B. quintessential
 - C. quintessental
 - D. kwintessential
12.
 - A. carouze
 - B. charouse
 - C. caruose
 - D. carouse
13.
 - A. redundancy
 - B. redundancy
 - C. redundincy
 - D. redundancie
14.
 - A. forfeite
 - B. forfeite
 - C. forfeit
 - D. forfeiet

GSP – Practice Spelling Section

15.

- A. reccurrence
- B. reccourance
- C. reocurrance
- D. recurrence

16.

- A. sucinct
- B. succenct
- C. suceint
- D. succinct

17.

- A. mommentum
- B. momentum
- C. momentom
- D. mommentom

18.

- A. collaborashon
- B. collaboration
- C. colaboracion
- D. colaberation

19.

- A. uthinashia
- B. euthenazia
- C. uthenasia
- D. euthanasia

20.

- A. inoculation
- B. innoculation
- C. innoculacion
- D. inoculasion

Key for the Spelling Practice Test

1. B

2. C

3. C

4. D

5. B

6. A

7. C

8. D

9. A

10. A

11. B

12. D

13. B

14. C

15. D

16. D

17. B

18. B

19. D

20. A