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ATA CERTIFICATION PROGRAM
Into-English Grading Standards
version 2013

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These Into-English Grading Standards (IEGS) apply to the grading of all ATA certification examinations in which English is the target language. The individual entries address specific points of US English grammar and usage as well as various issues peculiar to the practice of translating into English and to the ATA examination. In cases where decisions on errors depend on context, the grader is required to give the candidate the benefit of the doubt whenever reasonably possible.

If candidates are unsure about using a term or construction that is somewhat more informal or less traditional than conservative standard English and these Standards do not provide clear guidance, they are advised that the safest course is to choose the standard English phrase or construction unless there is a compelling contextual reason for not doing so, e.g., the source word is clearly in an informal or even slang register.

This version of the IEGS is in force for the current calendar year; entries and grading decisions may differ in future versions.

For all issues of contemporary US English usage that are not explicitly addressed in these Standards, graders will be guided by the *American Heritage Guide to Contemporary Usage and Style* (2005 edition) and the accompanying *American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, Fifth Edition*. These reference works are referred to in the following Standards as, respectively, "the AH Guide" and "the AH Dictionary."

Candidates are permitted to bring these Standards and any other printed reference works or materials they choose to the examination sitting and to consult them during the examination.

Changes in version 2011

This version of Into-English Grading Standards contains the following changes relative to version 2010:

- Pagination and a table of contents were added.
- Typographical errors were corrected, and several existing entries and examples were modified to improve clarity.
- Eleven new entries were added: Commas; Dangling modifiers; Exclamation points; *May* and its alternatives; Misplaced adverbs; Nonparallel constructions; Non-US usage; Restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses and appositives; Run-on sentence / comma splice; Sentence fragments; and Subjunctive mood.

Changes in version 2013

The standard reference dictionary is now the Fifth Edition of the *American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*. An error in the "Exclamation points" entry was corrected.

Table of Contents

Abbreviated forms and titles

In virtually all contexts encountered in the certification examination, the use of abbreviated forms of words is unacceptable and is penalized as a Usage error. The following are important exceptions to this rule:

Titles used in apposition to proper names

All common titles may be abbreviated if they immediately precede a proper name. This includes military and religious titles and honorifics such as *the Honorable* (*Hon.*). Such titles are written in initial caps; although ending these abbreviations with a period is most common in contemporary practice, omitting the period is also acceptable. Except in the case of *Mr.*, *Ms.*, and *Mrs.*, the full form may be used instead. When not used in apposition, all such abbreviations are Usage errors.

Note that the rules for some military titles are complex. For instance, *Gen.* is not the correct abbreviation for the title *General* unless the person in question is a four or five-star general. It will never be considered incorrect to write out military titles in full on the examination.

Abbreviations that contain a final but no internal periods form the plural by adding a lower-case *s* before the period (e.g., *Drs.*, *Cols.*, *Messrs.*).

Examples:
- *Prof.* (or *Prof* or *Professor*) *Dittmeier was responsible for the breakthrough.* Acceptable.
- *The prof. was responsible for the breakthrough.* Usage error.
- *Gen.* (or *Gen* or *General*) *Bradley returned to a hero's welcome.* Abbreviation may or may not be acceptable. Full form is acceptable.
- *The gen. returned to a hero's welcome.* Usage error.
- *Mr.* (or *Mr*) *Franklin was unceremoniously removed from office.* Correct.
- *Mister Franklin was unceremoniously removed from office.* Usage error.

The terms *Jr.* and *Sr.* are acceptable after a full name (not a surname only), preceded and followed by a comma or with no commas.

Example:
- *Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., was an inspiration to an entire generation.* Acceptable.
- *Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. was an inspiration to an entire generation.* Acceptable.
- *Dr. King, Jr. was an inspiration to an entire generation.* Usage error.

Initials in personal names

Initials in personal names are capitalized and followed by a period and separated by a space from a following full form. A space between double initials is optional (e.g., *I.P. Pavlov, I. P. Pavlov*). Commonly recognized initials such as *FDR*, *JFK*, and *LBJ* are acceptable without punctuation.

Academic degrees

Academic degrees are rendered either with or without periods and may be placed after a name as an alternative to a title. Degrees and other titles that are not commonly used in English should be expanded and translated in full, regardless of whether they are abbreviated in the source.

Examples:
- *Marcus Welby, MD* (or *M.D.*) or *Dr. Marcus Welby.* Either is acceptable.
- *Sarah Smith, PhD* (or *Ph.D.*) or *Dr. Sarah Smith.* Either is acceptable.
- Source: *Akad. I.P. Pavlov*
  - *Academician I.P. Pavlov* or *I.P. Pavlov, Member of the Russian Academy of Sciences*. Acceptable.
  - *Akad.* (or *Acad.*) *I.P. Pavlov.* Usage error.

Units of measurement

Units of measurement may be abbreviated in B passages if the abbreviation is commonly known and is used with a number. Otherwise, and in all A and C passages, the full form must be used. Such abbreviations are typically written with no punctuation and in lower case unless they are based on a proper name, such as *W* (for *watt*) or *C* (for *Celsius*). Deviations from this capitalization principle that are in common use, e.g., *L* for *liter*, will not be considered errors.

Abbreviated units of measurement are never pluralized (*6 yd, 5 lb, 2 pt cream*).

Examples:
- *The sample weighed 83 kg after the process was complete.* B passage: Acceptable.
- *There is no specification of the number of kg that the sample must weigh.* B passage: Usage error.
- *The new law provided funding for the construction of 150 km of new highways.* A passage: Usage error.

Other abbreviation rules

The only "scholarly" abbreviations universally acceptable in the examination are *e.g.* (used to mean *for example*), *i.e.* (used to mean *that is*), and *etc.* (used to mean *other things of that type*). The first two must be followed by a comma and must also be preceded by a comma except when they are preceded by an opening parenthesis; *etc.* must be preceded by a comma. If *etc.* (or any other abbreviation ending in a period) occurs at the end of a sentence, it is followed by one period, not two.

The only abbreviations related to time that are universally acceptable are *a.m.* and *p.m.* (or the alternatives *AM* and *PM*) and *A.D., C.E., B.C.,* and *B.C.E.* (with *AD, CE, BC,* and *BCE* as acceptable alternatives). Units of time such as *hours* may be abbreviated (*hr*) only in B passages when scientific parameters are being reported.

Abbreviations that are part of the name of a company (e.g., *Inc., S.A., GmbH*) are never translated or expanded. Currency abbreviations such as *USD* or *EUR* are also left as in the source text.

See also the "Acronyms" entry in these Standards.

Acronyms

For the purposes of these Standards, "acronyms" are defined as abbreviations that are formed using the initial components of two or more words. These components may be individual letters (as in *CEO*) or parts of

words (as in *Benelux*).

Acronyms: Punctuation, capitalization, and plural forms

In US English, acronyms formed from initial letters are written in all capitals; failure to do so is a Capitalization error. Although the prevailing trend is to write such acronyms without punctuation, such usage is by no means universal, and candidates will not be penalized for including a period after each letter of the acronym.

Acronyms formed from parts of words are written with initial caps, with the subsequent elements usually (but not always) in lower case, and with no periods. Certain acronyms that have come to be accepted as words (e.g., *laser* or *scuba*) follow the capitalization of regular words.

Errors in rendering acronyms that potentially cause them to be mistaken for an unintended English word may constitute an Ambiguity or Mistranslation error.

Examples:
  • *USSR, AIDS*. Acceptable.
  • *U.S.S.R., U.N.E.S.C.O*. Acceptable.
  • *Ussr, ussr, u.s.s.r., Unesco, unesco, u.n.e.s.c.o.* Capitalization error.
  • *Delmarva, Caltech* or *CalTech*. Acceptable.
  • *The most informative workshop at the education conference was about teaching AIDS.* Correct.
  • *The most informative workshop at the education conference was about teaching aids.* Ambiguity or Capitalization error.

Acronyms usually form the plural by adding a lower-case *s* without an apostrophe. However, acronyms that are all lower-case without periods, those with internal periods, and any other acronyms in which *s* alone might cause confusion are pluralized with *'s*.

Example:
  • *UFOs*. Correct.
  • *UFOS* or *UFO's*. Usage error.
  • *SOS's, sst's*. Correct.
  • *SOSs, ssts*. Usage error.

Acronyms: Article usage

In English, some acronyms consisting of initial letters are pronounced as words (e.g., *NASA /na-sa/*), whereas others—sometimes referred to as "initialisms"—are read by pronouncing the names of the individual letters (e.g., *UN /you-en/*). This distinction is important for correct article use. Acronyms pronounced as words, such as *NASA*, are never preceded by articles when used as nouns, whereas initialisms are generally preceded by the definite article. Acronyms consisting of parts of words, such as *Benelux* or *CalTech*, are almost always pronounced as words and thus are used without articles.

In some cases of initialisms, however, the use of *the* is less clear-cut and can vary from speaker to speaker. For example, some users might say *en-eye-aitch* (*NIH*), while others prefer *the en-eye-aitch* (*the NIH*). Except in the case of very common acronyms/initialisms, graders will exercise lenience when penalizing article use in this situation. Note that initialisms for academic institutions (e.g., *MIT*, *UCLA*) are never

written with a definite article.

Examples of common acronyms/initialisms where incorrect article usage may be penalized in all cases:
- *the UN, the EU, the GOP, the USSR, the FBI, the CIA, the IRS*. Correct.
- *NATO, NASA, UNESCO, AIDS*. Correct.
- *She works at UN but used to work at the NATO*. Usage errors.

Note: The above article rules do not apply when an acronym is used as an adjective:
- *The AIDS researchers were stunned by what they found*. Correct.
- *UN aid programs are important to the Third World*. Correct.

Acronyms: Translating acronyms

Whether an acronym occurring in a source text may be repeated in the target text without translation, expansion, or explanation depends primarily on whether the acronym is readily recognizable to the intended target audience in the specified context. In questionable cases, the Translation Instructions will indicate how an acronym is to be handled.

Candidates are expected to provide the correct equivalent of well-known source-language acronyms in cases where a different acronym exists in English. This is true especially of international institutions and concepts. However, acronyms specific to the source-language culture or to a third-language culture are left untranslated where there is no well-known English equivalent (or, in the case of non-Roman alphabet source languages, are simply transliterated). There may be some rare exceptions to this rule; for instance, in diplomatic contexts, *MFA* may sometimes stand for *Ministry of Foreign Affairs* regardless of the country involved. Violations will be marked as Translation errors.

Examples:
- French source passage: *OMS* – only *WHO* is correct.
- Spanish source passage: *SIDA* – only *AIDS* is correct.
- German source passage: *MwSt* – only *VAT* is correct.

But:
- Spanish source passage: *PRI* (for *Partido Revolucionario Institucional*) – only *PRI* is correct; *IRP* (for *Institutional Revolutionary Party*) is a Translation error.
- French source passage *DOM-TOM* (for *départements et territoires d'outre-mer*) – only *DOM-TOMs* is correct; an alternative such as *ODTs* (for *overseas departments and territories*) is a Translation error.

Acronyms: Expanding acronyms

Acronyms found in the AH Dictionary that are in common usage (e.g., *NATO, AIDS, UN, EU*) are always acceptable without further explanation. Candidates are not penalized for expanding acronyms that appear in the source text (as-is or translated; see "Translating acronyms" above), with or without the acronym following the expansion. If the acronym is included, it must be enclosed in parentheses. Repeatedly expanding the same acronym in the same passage may result in a Style error.

Examples:
- *All central European nations in transition have joined NATO before being admitted to the EU*. Acceptable.

- *All central European nations in transition have joined the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) before being admitted to the EU*. Acceptable.
- *The North Atlantic Treaty Organization was founded in 1949 with 12 members. Fifty years later, the most recent round of enlargement has brought the North Atlantic Treaty Organization to 28 members*. Probable Style error.

Acronyms: Introducing acronyms

Candidates may introduce acronyms that are well known to the target audience even if the source text does not use an acronym, assuming that no information is lost in the transfer. This is especially true if the respective acronym does not exist in the source language or a paraphrase is used in the source text. In such a case, a faithful translation of the paraphrased version is also acceptable.

Examples:
- Literal translation: *The Republican Party is in dire straits*. Acceptable. Alternative translation: *The GOP is in dire straits*. Acceptable.
- Literal translation: *The North Atlantic alliance was founded in 1949*. Acceptable. Alternative translation: *NATO was founded in 1949*. Acceptable.

See also the "Abbreviated forms and titles" and "Names, personal and geographic" entries in these Standards.

Anaphora / referents

Few languages have a system identical to English for referring to previously mentioned nouns. Languages with gender, for example, may use relative pronouns reflecting the gender of the noun referred to, often disambiguating a reference. English allows the use of articles to distinguish between references to previously mentioned nouns, whereas certain other languages do not.

Candidates need not use the same method in the translation as in the source for referring back to a previously mentioned noun phrase, as long as the English sentence is grammatically correct, the referent is clear, and meaning is not affected. For example, a noun phrase may sometimes be used instead of a pronoun, or vice versa.

Example:
- *A man was waiting for her. He looked familiar, somehow.* Acceptable.
- *A man was waiting for her. The* (or *This*) *man looked familiar, somehow.* Acceptable.
- *A man and a boy were waiting for her. The man looked familiar, somehow.* Acceptable.
- *A man and a boy were waiting for her. He looked familiar, somehow.* Ambiguity error.

Languages differ in the degree to which employing synonymous or near-synonymous referents for the same concept or thing (sometimes referred to as "elegant variation") is considered good usage. Failure to make adjustments for this in an English target text could be marked as an error of ambiguity, cohesion, or style.

Example:
- Literal translation of a text from German: *Turkey is in turmoil. The financial crisis has crippled the*

land on the Bosporus, and social unrest looms. Meanwhile, the rise of fundamentalism has shaken the long-standing secular status quo in Anatolia. This sort of variation would be unusual in English; moreover, the equivalent of *Anatolia* is commonly used in German as a direct synonym for *Turkey*, whereas in English it is not. Style error.

- Literal translation of a text from Japanese: *Turkey is in turmoil. The financial crisis has crippled Turkey, and social unrest looms. Meanwhile, the rise of fundamentalism has shaken the long-standing secular status quo in Turkey.* This lack of variation sounds stilted and repetitive in English. Probable Style error.
- *Turkey is in turmoil. The financial crisis has crippled the country, and social unrest looms. Meanwhile, the rise of fundamentalism has shaken the long-standing secular status quo there* (or *in Turkey*). Acceptable.

When the source language uses a referent equivalent to *it* or *this* to refer to a previously described situation, event, etc., it is acceptable, or even desirable, in English for a neutral noun to be added to make the reference more explicit. However, selecting a noun that has not been previously used in the text and that involves a value judgment or other judgment about the nature of the referent will be considered an Addition error.

Example: Literal translation of source: *This situation has led to rampant inflation.* (In the source text, it is clear what the equivalent of the pronoun *This* refers to.)
- *This has led to rampant inflation.* Acceptable if reference is clear.
- *It has led to rampant inflation.* Usage error.
- *This situation* (or *circumstance, state of affairs, etc.*) *has led to rampant inflation.* Acceptable.
- *This lack of control has led to rampant inflation.* Acceptable if *lack of control* has been previously specified or clearly implied.
- *This manifestation of selfishness has led to rampant inflation.* Acceptable only if *manifestation* of *selfishness* or near synonym has been mentioned or implied in text. If not, Addition error.

See also the "Approximately synonymous terms and translations of cognates" entry in these Standards.

Approximately synonymous terms and translations of cognates

A term that a grader considers less than ideal is acceptable if all five of the following conditions apply:
- one (not necessarily the first) of its definitions in the AH Dictionary is acceptable in context or the term used is listed as a synonym of an acceptable term (in that term's appropriate sense);
- it is not generally considered to be nonstandard English and is not labeled in the AH Dictionary as belonging to a register that is unacceptable in context;
- the usage is grammatically appropriate;
- the dominant sense of the word (or the word as part of a phrase) used by the candidate does not create ambiguity or distortion of meaning; and
- the use of a synonym does not prevent or impede understanding (for instance, in an idiom or set phrase). (See the "Idioms" and "Phrasal verbs" entries in these Standards for additional examples.)

Examples:
- *transport* used for *transportation* in the sense of *the act of being transported.* Acceptable.
- *nowadays* for *today* (meaning *these days*). Acceptable.
- *Nevertheless, throwing money at the problem did not provide a solution.* Preferred rendition.

- *However, throwing money at the problem did not provide a solution.* Acceptable (*nevertheless* appears as AH definition 4 of *however*).

But:

- *I was very tired but decided to go to the concert nevertheless.* Correct.
- *I was very tired but decided to go to the concert however.* Usage error.
- *His sister was also a doctor.* Correct.
- *His sister was too a doctor.* Usage error.
- <u>*State control*</u> *is an important factor in psychology.* Intended meaning is *control of mental states*; dominant meaning is *government control*. Ambiguity error.

The same rules apply to the use of English cognates of source words.

Examples:

- *What did you think of him? He was very <u>amiable.</u>* Translated from Spanish. Acceptable. *Amable* in Spanish would most frequently be translated into English as *nice* or *kind*.
- *My car broke down again; that awful <u>machine</u> is always failing me*. Translation from Russian. Acceptable. The Russian cognate of *machine* means both *car* and *machine*. It is clear that the previously mentioned car is the machine in question, and the register is acceptable in light of the translation instructions.

See also the "Anaphora / referents" and "Register" entries in these Standards.

Capitalization in headings and titles of works

Headings and subheadings

Two systems exist in US English for capitalizing headings. Main headings are most often written with initial capitals for many categories of words; this is sometimes called headline style. Subheadings are most often capitalized like sentences, with initial capitals used only for the first word and for proper nouns and adjectives.

Because examination passages are almost always excerpts, it can be difficult to determine whether headings used in them are intended to be main headings or subheadings. For this reason, and because some authors use one of the two styles for all headings, in most cases either capitalization system is acceptable for examination purposes. An alternative acceptable system is all capital letters, either for all headings or for main headings. Error points will be assessed only in the rare cases in which it is indisputably clear that a candidate has been inconsistent, or if a candidate has used some system other than the two described here.

Example:

- *Education in the Developing World* (main heading); later in the same passage: *Teacher Training* (second main heading) or *Teacher training* (subheading). Either is acceptable.

In the headline system, articles, coordinating conjunctions, and the *to* of infinitives are not capitalized unless they are the first word in the heading. Each type of violation should be regarded as a separate Capitalization error if the errors involve different parts of speech.

Example:
- *Education In The Developing World.* Two Capitalization errors.

The capitalization of prepositions is optional in the headline system but must be handled consistently.

Example:
- *Life Under the Sea* or *Life under the Sea.* Either is acceptable.

Capitalization of titles

Titles of books and articles in examination passages may use either headline-style or sentence-style capitalization. It is not inconsistent to use the headline system for book titles in conjunction with the sentence system for article titles if both are mentioned in a passage. The titles of periodicals should be in headline style, with the initial *the* not capitalized unless it begins a sentence. Multiple violations of this rule count as one or more Capitalization errors per passage depending on whether they are the same or different errors.

Example:
- *The first publication to report the story was the <u>Washington Post</u>.* Correct.
- *The first publication to report the story was <u>The Washington Post</u>.* One Capitalization error.
- *The first publication to report the story was <u>The Washington post</u>.* Two Capitalization errors (because two different rules have been violated).

The usual rule in US English is for the titles of books, plays, and periodicals to be italicized and those of articles and parts of books (sections, chapters), as well as songs and non-book-length poems to be enclosed in quotation marks. Since italicization is not feasible in a handwritten examination, candidates will be advised in the Translation Instructions to represent italics by underlining the respective words.

Collective and mass nouns

Collective and mass nouns are generally treated as singular for the purpose of subject-verb agreement. But it is often acceptable to use collective nouns with a verb in the plural form if the members of the group in question are acting as discrete individuals or are considered as such. This is especially true if the sentence also includes a plural pronoun referring to the same group. If the use of plural pronouns or verbs seems awkward, it is always acceptable to change to an alternate form, e.g., *team* to *team members*, or *jury* to *members of the jury* or *jurors*.

Example:
- *The team (team members) were changing back into their street clothes.* Acceptable.
- *The team was changing back into its street clothes.* Technically incorrect, but possibly a negligible error (0 points).
- *The team was changing back into their street clothes.* Grammar error (inconsistency between singular verb and plural pronoun referring to same subject).

However, the British practice of always treating certain collective singular nouns as plurals is unacceptable in US usage and will be marked as a Grammar error if the group is considered as a whole or is acting in concert.

Example:
- *The committee are in session.* Grammar error.

The word *data* may be used as a singular mass noun in the sense of information or a body of facts. The word *media* is acceptable as a singular mass noun when referring to means of public communication.

Examples:
- *What shall we do with all this data?* Acceptable.
- *The media is not the appropriate forum for deciding this matter.* Acceptable.

However, the plural forms are also acceptable: *all these data*, *the media are*.

In other contexts, *media* is the plural of *medium* and cannot take a singular verb. Nor can *media* be used in the place of *medium*.

Examples:
- *The artist's favorite media is charcoal and watercolor.* Grammar error.
- *Which media did you use for backup, CD or DVD?* Grammar error.

Finally, *the number of...* is always followed by a singular verb, while *a number of...* is followed by a plural verb. Deviations are a Grammar error.

Examples:
- *The number of people involved in the scandal have been growing.* Grammar error: verb should be *has*.
- *A number of people has voiced disapproval of the way the hearings have been conducted.* Grammar error; verb should be *have*.

See also the "Non-US usage" entry in these Standards and the AH Guide entry on "collective nouns."

Commas

Because comma usage in English can differ significantly from conventions in a source language, commas tend to account for a significant share of the Punctuation errors on the examination. Comma issues in the following contexts are addressed here:

- Overview
- Dependent clauses (with subordinating conjunctions)
- Independent clauses (with coordinating conjunctions)
- Conjunctive adverbs
- Compound predicates
- Introductory words and phrases
- Comma between subject and predicate
- Digressions/interrupters
- Special contexts (lists/serial comma, dates, proper names, places, quotations, parentheses)

The use of commas with restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses and with phrases in apposition is a common source of error. These rules are treated in detail in the "Restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses and appositives" entry in these Standards.

Commas: Overview

There are many instances in English in which the use of a comma is considered optional. In these cases, either option is considered acceptable on the examination. In our examples this is indicated with parentheses.

Example:
- *I said yes(,) but he said no.* Acceptable.
  (This indicates that both *I said yes but he said no* and *I said yes, but he said no* are correct.)

In cases where it is optional to use a pair of commas to enclose a phrase, the use of a single comma is a Punctuation error.

Example:
- *I learned as a result that she was blind.* Correct.
- *I learned, as a result, that she was blind.* Correct.
- *I learned as a result, that she was blind.* Punctuation error.

If the grader believes that optional commas are used so inconsistently that this adversely affects the style of the passage, a Style error may be assessed.

Commas: Dependent clauses (with subordinating conjunctions)

When a main clause is followed by a dependent clause, no comma is required if misreading is unlikely; however, the use of a comma is acceptable. When the dependent clause precedes the independent one, a comma should be inserted before the independent clause.

Examples:
- *We will provide the drinks if you bring the food.* Correct.
- *We will provide the drinks, if you bring the food.* Acceptable.
- *If you bring the food, we will provide the drinks.* Correct.
- *If you bring the food we will provide the drinks.* Punctuation error (possibly negligible).

Commas: Independent clauses (with coordinating conjunctions)

If two independent clauses are joined by a coordinating conjunction (such as *for, and, or, nor, but, yet,* or *so*), a comma is optional if the clauses are relatively short and misreading is unlikely. However, a Punctuation error may be marked if a comma separating long independent clauses is omitted.

Examples:
- *I went(,) but my friend stayed behind.* Acceptable with or without a comma.
- *Scientists around the world are experimenting with hundreds of drugs but so far the hoped-for cure has proven elusive.* Punctuation error (possibly negligible) for omission of comma after *drugs*.

It is a Punctuation error to join independent clauses with a comma not followed by a coordinating conjunction. This common error is frequently called a comma splice, and it is a type of run-on sentence. See the "Run-on sentences / comma splices" entry in these Standards.

Commas: Conjunctive adverbs

Conjunctive adverbs, such as *hence*, *therefore*, *nevertheless*, *however*, *still*, and *indeed*, are used to join clauses and sentences and can occupy initial, terminal, or medial position within the larger unit. In most cases, they are set off from other words in that clause or sentence by commas. In initial position, however, commas are optional only after one-syllable adverbs (e.g., *hence*, *now*, *still*, *thus*, *then*) and required after adverbs of two or more syllables. In terminal position a comma is always required before the adverb. In medial position commas are usual but optional for all adverbs except *however*, which must be enclosed in commas.

Examples:
- *He was a brilliant general; nevertheless, it is a mistake to think he could govern a country.* Correct.
- *He was a brilliant general; nevertheless it is a mistake to think he could govern a country.* Punctuation error.
- *Thus(,) we are forced to conclude that we must find another candidate.* Acceptable (both with and without a comma).
- *The search for one should(,) therefore(,) begin immediately.* Acceptable (both with and without a pair of commas).
- *The search for one should however begin immediately.* Punctuation error.
- *He might be considered for a cabinet post though.* Punctuation error.

See also the "Misplaced adverbs" entry in these Standards.

Commas: Compound predicates

If a coordinating conjunction is not followed by a full clause (subject + predicate), the two clauses are not normally separated by a comma. In relatively simple, short sentences, separating such compound predicates with a comma may be considered a Punctuation error, though in many cases a negligible one. However, a comma may be used in this position to set off the end of the sentence as a digression or afterthought. In some cases it may not be possible to tell whether or not the end of the sentence is an afterthought in the original.

In more complex sentences, a comma between two predicates may be acceptable or even necessary to prevent misreading. The omission of a comma in such cases will only be considered an error if it affects the understanding or usefulness of the target text.

Examples:
- *In his act he both sings and dances.* Correct.
- *In his act he both sings, and dances.* Punctuation error, possibly negligible.
- *He is not without talent. He sings, and even dances a little.* Correct (afterthought).
- *The Senate met for an additional two weeks beyond the deadline established the previous spring but failed to reach a satisfactory compromise.* Correct.
- *The Senate met for an additional two weeks beyond the deadline established the previous spring, but failed to reach a satisfactory compromise.* Acceptable.
- *He watched as his aunt slipped the dessert spoon into her pocket, and cringed in embarrassment.*

Correct.

- *He watched as his aunt slipped the dessert spoon into her pocket and cringed in embarrassment.* Ambiguity error.
- *He bought milk, bread, and beans, and picked up the dry cleaning.* Correct. The comma helps to clarify the structure of the sentence.
- *He bought milk, bread, and beans and picked up the dry cleaning.* Acceptable.

Commas: Introductory words and phrases

Commas are generally optional after introductory phrases unless the phrases are long or a misreading is possible.

Examples:
- *While eating, the children were quiet.* Correct.
- *While eating the children were quiet.* Punctuation or Ambiguity error.
- *To William, Shakespeare was boring.* Correct.
- *To William Shakespeare was boring.* Ambiguity error.

Commas are optional after short introductory phrases, especially of time and place. However, if the omission of the comma would lead to ambiguity or confusion, a comma should be used. Interjections (such as *oh*, *my goodness*, *yes*, and *no*) that are used to introduce sentences should be followed by a comma. Even in cases where a comma would usually be omitted, no errors will be assessed for inserting a comma after any introductory phrase.

Examples:
- *On July 6(,) we will celebrate his birthday.* Acceptable with or without a comma.
- *In the rain, forest animals can always find shelter.* Correct (reflects source meaning).
- *In the rain forest animals can always find shelter.* Ambiguity error.
- *"No I guess not," she said.* Punctuation error.
- *This morning(,) we got up early.* Acceptable with or without a comma.

Commas: Comma between subject and predicate

In some languages, a comma is often inserted in order to separate a long subject clause from the verb. Reproducing this usage in an English target text is a Punctuation error. Prevalent incorrect use of commas between subject clause and verb may be considered a Style error.

Examples:
- *The high unemployment rates that have prevailed in recent years, remain intractable.* Punctuation error.
- *A heavily loaded dump truck with faulty brakes, failed to stop at the light and crashed into another vehicle.* Punctuation error.
- *Sending a police force to prevent hostilities, turned out to be useless.* Punctuation error.

However, a digression or adverbial phrase enclosed by commas may intervene between the subject and the predicate.

Example:

- *The high unemployment rates that have prevailed in recent years, however, remain intractable.* Correct.

Commas: Digressions/interrupters

Words or phrases that function as digressions or interrupters may be set off with commas, dashes, or parentheses. All of these boundary markers must occur in pairs, except in the case of a single comma marking the start of a digression at the end of a sentence. There is no need for different digressions in a single passage to be punctuated in the same way, or for the punctuation used for digressions to reflect the source-language punctuation. In some source languages, dashes are used considerably more frequently than in English to indicate a digression; in English, dashes tend to be used only for abrupt or emphatic digressions. Where the use of dashes in the source passage is very frequent, a grader may choose to assess a Style error in a translation that reflects this original usage.

Dashes or parentheses may not be substituted for commas in cases of nonrestrictive clauses or apposition. (See the "Restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses and appositives" entry in these Standards.)

Examples:
- *She slept late into the morning, and sometimes even the afternoon, on weekends.* Acceptable.
- *She slept late into the morning, and sometimes even the afternoon on weekends.* Punctuation error.
- *She slept late into the morning—and sometimes even the afternoon—on weekends.* Acceptable.
- *She slept late into the morning (and sometimes even the afternoon) on weekends.* Acceptable.
- *On weekends she slept late into the morning, and sometimes even the afternoon.* Acceptable.

Commas: Special contexts (serial comma, dates, proper names, places, quotations, parentheses)

Serial comma

Commas are required between items in a list not joined by conjunctions. When commas are required within the items in a series, clarity sometimes demands the use of semicolons to separate the items on the list. But if there is no possibility of misreading, then the use of commas rather than semicolons is acceptable and may be preferable.

Examples:
- *We met with Mr. Fenty, the mayor of Washington; Mr. Surovell, our local delegate; and Mr. Moran, our Congressional representative.* Correct
- *We met with Mr. Fenty, the mayor of Washington, Mr. Surovell, our local delegate, and Mr. Moran, our Congressional representative.* Punctuation or Ambiguity error.

The serial comma before the conjunctions *and* or *or* may be either used or omitted unless omission would result in ambiguity or confusion.

Examples:
- *The company reported its assets, liabilities(,) and earnings.* Acceptable.
- *The company reported expenditures for acquisitions, research and development and investments.* Punctuation or Ambiguity error.

Dates

Dates presented in the month-day-year format require a comma after the day, but a comma following the year is optional. Separating the parts of a day-month-year format with commas is a Punctuation error.

Examples:
- *He was born on December 21, 2000(,) in Alabama.* Acceptable with or without the second comma.
- *He was born on 21 December, 2000.* Punctuation error.

Proper names

Jr. or *Sr.* after a personal name and *Inc.* and *Ltd.* after a company name can be presented either without commas or enclosed in a pair of commas. Commas are not used for Roman numerals with names.

Examples:
- *Raymond Renz(,) Jr.(,) won the race.* Acceptable with two commas or no commas.
- *ABC Design(,) Inc.(,) won the contest.* Acceptable with two commas or no commas.
- *ABC Design, Inc. won the contest.* Punctuation error.
- *John D. Rockefeller, IV.* Punctuation error.

Places

Commas are optional with two-letter state and territory abbreviations without internal periods. It is acceptable to use a pair of commas, to use a single comma following the city name, or to omit the commas entirely.

Examples:
- *I lived in Washington, DC, at the time.* Acceptable.
- *I lived in Washington, DC at the time.* Acceptable.
- *I lived in Washington DC at the time.* Acceptable.

Numbers

Commas should be used to separate groups of three digits for numbers of five digits or more. The comma is optional for four-digit numbers. Use of a period instead of a comma for this purpose as well as omission of the comma is a Usage error. The use of a comma instead of a period to indicate decimals is also a Usage error.

Examples:
- *The stadium has a capacity of 9(,)000.* Acceptable with or without a comma.
- *The stadium has a capacity of 11000.* Usage error.
- *The stadium has a capacity of 11.000.* Usage error.

Years, page numbers, addresses, and decimal fractions do not contain commas.

Quotations

Commas are always required to set a direct quotation off from the rest of the sentence.

Example:
- *"This has been a disaster," the senator was quoted as saying, "that we may never recover from."* Correct.

However, if a quotation is integrated into the syntax of the sentence, no comma should be used.

Example:
- *Her delighted reply was "of course."* Correct.
- *The decision was deemed a "travesty" by the defendant's supporters.* Correct.
- *The lack of funding for this urgently needed and highly popular program is, "an inexplicable omission that must be corrected immediately," said the mayor.* Punctuation error, for the comma following *is*.

See also the "Quotation marks" entry in these Standards.

Parentheses

When a parenthetical phrase falls within a sentence, other punctuation (commas, colons, dashes, and semicolons) comes after, never before, the parenthetical phrase.

Example:
- *He gave her a Bible (and later a rosary), which she kept.* Correct.
- *He gave her a Bible, (and later a rosary) which she kept.* Punctuation error.

Dangling modifiers

A dangling modifier is a participle or participial phrase, an infinitive or infinitive phrase, or an elliptical clause without a subject that is placed next to a word that it cannot logically modify. Although dangling modifiers are clearly incorrect, it is doubtful that the ordinary reader is confused by the supposed alternative meaning or, in many cases, even notices it. Note: Some expressions derived from participles (e.g., *concerning, failing, considering, speaking of*) have become prepositions and may be used to introduce phrases that do not directly modify the immediately adjacent noun phrase.

The severity and category of errors associated with dangling modifiers depend on how glaring the error is and the level of ambiguity that is actually or potentially introduced. When a grammatical parsing of the sentence produces a bizarre or humorous image, an Ambiguity error may be assessed as being a distraction, even if correct understanding can readily be achieved on the basis of world knowledge.

Examples:
- *Surrounded by saltwater, life on the island was harsh, and there was little chance for escape.* Grammar error.
- *Life on the island, which was surrounded by saltwater, was harsh, and there was little chance for escape.* Correct recasting of above.
- *To serve you better, please have identification available.* Grammar error.
- *Please have your identification available so we can better serve you.* Correct recasting of above.
- *Repeatedly late to practice, the coach made the team stay until dark.* Ambiguity error, meaning

possibly affected.
- *The team members were repeatedly late to practice, so the coach made them stay until dark.* Correct recasting of above.

Modifiers can be ambiguous in the middle or at the end of the sentence as well, although technically these may not be grammatical errors.

Examples:
- *The police chief described the capture of the criminal when he spoke at a dinner.* Possible Ambiguity error.
- *I shot an elephant in my pajamas.* Possible Ambiguity error. Amusing image detracts from understanding.
- *I shot an elephant with a borrowed rifle.* Unlikely Ambiguity error, as world knowledge precludes the possibility of the elephant having borrowed the rifle and being in possession of it when shot.

See also the AH Guide entry on "dangling modifiers."

Exclamation points

Certain languages may use exclamation points more frequently or differently than English. In particular, exclamation points may be used for expressive or rhetorical purposes in ways that are unusual or even unacceptable in English. In such cases, a period may normally be used in the English translation even if an exclamation point is used in the source. But where an exclamation point is strongly preferable in English and present in the source, the use of a period (or comma) is a Punctuation error. Finally, if an exclamation point is required by the English construction, it should be used regardless of the punctuation in the source.

Examples:
- *He is causing problems!* Acceptable.
- *He is causing problems.* Acceptable even if source uses an exclamation point.
- *"What a terrible mess," she exploded.* Punctuation error.

In addition, a Style or Cohesion error may be assessed for the use of many more exclamation points than would normally be found in an equivalent English text. This would be true even if the exclamation points in the translation correspond exactly to those in the source passage.

Grammatical ambiguity in the source language

Languages force different grammatical choices and allow different kinds of ambiguity. English grammar, for example, forces choices between restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses and between definite and indefinite articles. Russian grammar, on the other hand, does not. In the certification examination, source-text ambiguity must be reconciled with the rules of English grammar; in other words, certain grammatical choices may have to be made in order for an English sentence or phrase to be considered acceptable. However, each grader should be aware that his or her choice as to which alternative is implied by the source passage may not be the only one consistent with the sentence and passage meaning. Even if a grader considers the candidate's choice to be less desirable, if it is a possible interpretation, then it should be

accepted without error points being assessed.

Example: Source language does not require distinction between singular and plural.
He was buying presents for his sister(s). His sister, Ann, was very fussy. (Passage goes on to discuss only Ann.)
- *He was buying presents for his sister.* Acceptable and probably more desirable.
- *He was buying presents for his sisters.* Acceptable.

Example: Source language does not have articles.
- *He wanted to create literature based on logic.* Acceptable: works of literature.
- *He wanted to create a literature based on logic.* Acceptable: a school of literature.
- *He speaks fluent but heavily accented English.* Acceptable.
- *He speaks a fluent but heavily accented English.* Acceptable.

See also the "Restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses and appositives" entry in these Standards.

He/she and gender-specific terms

When the source text uses *he, him,* or *his* as a generic or gender-neutral singular pronoun, such usage may be reproduced in the translation. Alternative constructions such as *he or she* may also be used, or sentences may be recast in the plural.

Example:
- *Everyone has his own opinion on that.* Acceptable.
- *Everyone has his or her own opinion on that.* Acceptable.
- *All people have their own opinion on that.* Acceptable.

Also acceptable are *he/she, (s)he*, the use of *she* generically, and recasting to avoid the problem where possible.

Examples:
- *Everyone has his/her own opinion on that.* Acceptable.
- *Everyone has her own opinion on that.* Acceptable.
- *Everyone has a personal opinion on that.* Acceptable.

Though many still find the use of *they* or *their* with a singular antecedent (such as *everyone* or *each student*) to be objectionable, this usage has a long history, is widespread today, and is increasingly accepted by authorities. This usage is acceptable in the certification examination.

Example:
- *Everyone has their own opinion on that.* Acceptable.

Recasting to eliminate the third-person singular pronoun entirely is also an acceptable solution if the meaning is preserved:

Example:

- *Ask a sales clerk; he will assist you.* (literal rendering of source) Acceptable.
- *A sales clerk will assist you if you ask.* Acceptable.
- *Ask a sales clerk to assist you.* Acceptable.
- *Ask a sales clerk; one of them will assist you.* Acceptable.

Terms such as *chairman* or *cleaning lady* are acceptable, especially if that is the form used in the source language. It is also acceptable to use gender-neutral forms of such terms: *chair* or *chairperson*, *cleaning person* or *house cleaner*. However, extreme attempts at gender neutrality (such as *cowperson*) could merit a Terminology error. Either *actor* or *actress* can be used to refer to a female thespian, and analogous usages will be accepted in the examination regardless of the exact usage in the source passage.

See also the "Possibly offensive terms" entry in these Standards.

Idioms

Idiomatic expressions may occur in examination passages if the idiom is considered common enough to be readily understood by a qualified candidate. Even if a more or less exact analogue of the idiom exists in English, the candidate is not required to use it, as long as the meaning of the source idiom is conveyed in an appropriate register. Either analogous idioms or straightforward translations of their meaning in context are acceptable. Uninterpretable literal translations of idioms or renderings likely to be strange or ludicrous to the target audience will be marked as Literalness or Misunderstanding errors.

Examples:
- German source text: *Das erscheint mir noch abwegiger als Eulen nach Athen zu tragen.*
  - *That strikes me as even more absurd than carrying coals to Newcastle.* Acceptable. This is a close English analogue to the German idiom, which literally translates as "taking owls to Athens."
  - *That strikes me as a completely useless* (or *superfluous*) *endeavor.* Acceptable paraphrasing.
- Russian source text: *Его обвиняли в том что он вешал лапшу на уши избирателей.*
  - *He was accused of trying to pull the wool over the electorate's eyes.* Acceptable. The Russian idiom literally translates as "hanging noodles on the electorate's ears"; this English translation conveys the meaning accurately in an equivalent register.
  - *He was accused of trying to dupe the electorate.* Acceptable paraphrasing.
  - *He was accused of hanging noodles on the electorate's ears.* (Literal translation of previous Russian example.) Literalness or Misunderstanding error.

Similar criteria will be used to evaluate literal translations of source idioms that accidentally evoke English idioms with different meanings. Literal translations of source idioms that are understandable as being analogous to English idioms but may be perceived as slightly off will be judged according to how distracting they are likely to be to the target reader.

Examples:
- Russian source text: *Во время обсуждения положения в Афганистана, министр иностранных дел заметил что кровь не вода.*
  - (Literal translation) *In discussing the situation in Afghanistan, the foreign minister remarked that blood is not water.* Possible Ambiguity error, since this misleadingly evokes the English expression "blood is thicker than water."

- *In discussing the situation in Afghanistan, the foreign minister remarked that spilling blood is a very serious matter.* Acceptable. This paraphrase reflects the actual meaning of the Russian idiom.

A literal translation of a source idiom to produce a metaphorical usage that is not an English idiom *per se* is not penalized as long as the meaning can readily be deduced in context.

Example:
- Dutch source text: *De klus om onze rivieren hoogwaterbestendig te maken zodat wij de voeten droog houden, kost miljarden euro's.*
  - *The job of preparing our rivers for high water levels* (or *making our rivers flood-resistant*)*, so that we will be safe from flooding, will cost billions of euros.* Correct. The idiom *de voeten droog houden* means "be safe from flooding."
  - *The job of preparing our rivers for high water levels, so that we can keep our feet dry, will cost billions of euros.* (literal rendering of idiom) Probably acceptable. The context makes the meaning of the idiom fairly clear.

But:
- Dutch source text: *Het ontwerp voorziet in opgehoogde stukken, zodat de bomen de voeten droog houden.*
  - *The design includes elevated areas, so that the trees are safe from flooding.* Correct.
  - *The design includes elevated areas, so that the trees keep their feet dry.* Overly literal. Probably a Literalness or Mistranslation error.

Translations (whether or not they are literal translations) that are similar to a context-appropriate English idiom but contain a noticeable deviation in choice of term or phrasing will be marked as Usage or Terminology errors.

Examples:
- Russian source text: *Я не маменькин сынок, но звоню моей маме каждую неделю.*
  - *I am not a mama's boy, but I do call my mother every week.* Correct.
  - *I am not a mama's son, but I do call my mother every week.* (Literal translation.) Possible Usage or Terminology error.
- *We learned the hard way not to argue with the boss.* Correct.
- *We learned the difficult way not to argue with the boss.* Usage or Terminology error. "Learn the hard way" is a set phrase in English, regardless of source-language usage.

Literal translations of idiomatic similes of the type *as big as a house* or *as white as a sheet* are readily perceived by readers as meaning that the referent has the quality of the respective adjective to an extreme or absolute degree, even if the noun used in the foreign-language simile is not normally used in this context in English. Idiomatic similes of the type *to drink like a fish* or *to go over like a lead balloon* may be slightly more ambiguous, but frequently these are also appropriately understood without difficulty. If such similes are translated literally from the source, and the divergence from English idiomatic usage is noticeable, they will not be treated as Mistranslation errors unless meaning is truly rendered ambiguous, but may be marked as Usage or Literalness errors. Where appropriate meaning is difficult to recover or there is real possibility of confusion, errors of Literalness or Mistranslation may arise.

Examples:
- French source text: *La femme de l'amiral était jolie comme une cœur.*
  - *The admiral's wife was as pretty as a picture* (or *as pretty as can be*). Acceptable. Appropriate

transfer of the French idiom.
- *The admiral's wife was as pretty as a heart.* (Literal translation.) Usage or Literalness error.
- Spanish source text: *Los otros miembros de la expedición estaban tan frescos como una lechuga.*
  - *The other members of the expedition were as fresh as a daisy.* Acceptable. Appropriate transfer of the Spanish idiom.
  - *The other members of the expedition were as fresh as* (*a head of*) *lettuce.* (Literal translation.) Usage or Literalness error.
- Russian source text: *Он любил математику, как собака палку.*
  - *He loved mathematics about as much as a horse loves a whip* (or *cats love baths*). Acceptable.
  - *He loved mathematics about as much as a dog loves a stick.* (Literal translation.) Ambiguity error. Unclear in English, depending on whether the metaphor is taken to refer to the stick being used for a beating or for playing "fetch."

In attempting to supply an equivalent English idiom, candidates may inadvertently change the meaning of the sentence in an unacceptable way.

Example:
- Dutch source text: *Ze konden hem missen als kiespijn.*
  - *They could miss him like toothache.* (Literal translation.) Literalness or Mistranslation error.
  - *They had no desire for his company.* Acceptable. This is a reasonable approximation of the meaning of this idiom.
  - *They needed him around like they needed a hole in the head.* Probably acceptable. This is an English idiom with roughly the same meaning.
  - *They avoided him like the plague.* Possible Faithfulness error, because they may not actually have avoided him at all. The seriousness of the error depends on the context.

A source-language idiom may be rendered in a different register in English as long as that register is appropriate in context.

Example:
- Croatian source text: *Po onome pasjem vremenu malo je tko uopće izlazio iz kuće.*
  - *In such inclement weather, few people even ventured out of their homes.* Acceptable rendering in standard / high register.
  - *In such lousy weather, few people even ventured out of their homes.* Probably acceptable despite lower register.
  - *In such crappy weather, few people even ventured out of their homes.* Probable Register error, unless this is consistent with colloquial usage elsewhere in the passage.
  - *In such dog's weather, few people even ventured out of their homes.* (Literal translation.) Literalness or Misunderstanding error.

See also the "Register" entry in these Standards.

Legal language in C passages

In C passages written in a legal style, graders will accept both 1) traditional legal writing with phrases like *cease and desist* and *hereinafter referred to as* and regular use of the modals *shall* and *may*, and 2) standard

English renderings of the document in an appropriate register that use standard English synonyms of some or all traditional legal terms, as long as these have identical meanings for the purpose specified in the Translation Instructions.

Examples:
- *The Undersigned hereby extends said lien on said property until said indebtedness has been fully paid.* Acceptable.
- *The person signing below will continue to maintain a lien on this property until the debt has been paid in full.* Acceptable.

A grader may assess one or more Style errors for a distracting or inappropriate mixing of the two styles or a Register error for phrasings in a register too informal for the document's specified purpose. The use of what a grader identifies as very obscure legal terms, e.g., *sub suo periculo*, will be marked as a Register error.

Examples:
- *If you cannot finish the job because of illness or for any other reason, you must inform your supervisor in writing within a week.* Acceptable.
- *If you get sick or have some other problem and cannot finish the job you have to write a letter to the boss letting him know within a week.* Register (or Style) error.
- *No off-the-record evidence may be admitted to show irregularities in the proceedings.* Acceptable.
- *No evidence dehors the record can be admitted to show irregularities in the proceedings.* Register (or Style) error.

Use of the modals *shall* and *may* in a way appropriate to traditional legal writing will not be marked as an error in a passage using standard English renderings of other terms.

Acceptable standard English equivalents of *shall* include *must*, *will be* (or *is*) *required to*, *has the obligation to*, *has a duty to*, etc. When preceded by a negative word, such as *nothing* or *neither*, *shall* can be replaced with full meaning by *may* or its synonyms, e.g., *neither party may assign this Agreement*. *May* can acceptably be replaced by *is permitted to*, *is allowed to*, etc. The use of *can* in a passage where the traditional term would be *may* is an Ambiguity error. The use of *might* or *could* in this context is a Misunderstanding error. *May not* in legal usage essentially means *must not*, and the use of *cannot* in such a context is an Ambiguity error while *might not* is a Misunderstanding error.

Examples:
- *The debtor may request an extension of the loan's duration beyond the agreed upon term.* Acceptable.
- *The debtor can request an extension of the loan's duration beyond the agreed upon term.* Ambiguity error.
- *The debtor might* (or *could*) *request an extension of the loan's duration beyond the agreed upon term.* Misunderstanding error.
- *The debtor may not extend the duration of the loan beyond the agreed upon term.* Acceptable.
- *The debtor cannot extend the duration of the loan beyond the agreed upon term.* Ambiguity error.
- *The debtor might not extend the duration of the loan beyond the agreed upon term.* Misunderstanding error.

Passive sentences are especially common in legal passages. For guidelines relating to passive and active sentences, see the "Passive and active voice" entry in these Standards.

It is often particularly important in a legal text that the same thing, person, concept, etc., be referred to by a consistent name. The introduction of synonymous variations for the sake of stylistic elegance for terms that are referred to consistently in the source may be marked as a Faithfulness or Style error. If the source text uses synonymous expressions in a way that would be confusing if translated with synonyms in English, an overly literal translation may constitute a Cohesion or Literalness error. The grader must judge with reference to the context whether such errors affect comprehension of the text or are merely stylistic.

Example:
- *If the will is ambiguous or unclear, then the testament is invalid.* Error, unless prior context has clearly established that *the will* and *the testament* refer to two different documents. If the source text uses the same term twice, then this is an error of Faithfulness or Style. If the source text uses two different terms to refer to the same document, then this is an error of Literalness or Cohesion.

See also the "Anaphora / referents" entry in these Standards.

Legal doublets, such as *cease and desist* or *null and void*, are acceptable in translations of legal passages, as is either member of the doublet or standard English synonyms that do not alter meaning.

Examples:
- *If any of these conditions are violated this contract shall be deemed null and void.* Acceptable.
- *If any of these conditions are violated this contract shall be deemed null* (or *void*). Acceptable.
- *If any of these conditions are violated this contract shall be deemed not to be legally binding any longer.* Acceptable.

In *Legal Writing in Plain English*, Bryan A. Garner provides the following list of legalisms and their suggested substitutes with the assurance that the latter are just as precise and acceptable in legal documents as the former. Graders should accept terms from both columns, as well as analogues of both sets of terms. This is by no means an exhaustive list of legalisms, and other alternatives for the legalisms on the list may also be acceptable.

Legalism	Plain English
As to	About, of, by, for, in
Bring an action against	Sue
Herein	In this [agreement, etc.]
Inasmuch as	Since, because
Instant case	Here, this case
In the event that	If
Not less than	At least
Prior to	Before
Pursuant to	Under, by, in accordance with
Said (adj.)	The, this, that
Same (pronoun)	It, them

Subsequent to	After
Such	That, this, those, the
Thereafter	Later
Therein	In it, in them, inside

See also the following entries in these Standards: "Anaphora / referents"; "Passive and active voice"; "Plain English"; "Register"; "Shall and will"

May and its alternatives

Use of *can* for *may* (i.e., for permission as well as ability) is becoming more acceptable in many contexts, but *may* is still preferred when used for permission. Forms of *can* instead of *may* are often acceptable in A and B passages, especially in the past and/or the negative. If the use of *can* for permission is inappropriate or introduces ambiguity, a Grammar or Ambiguity error may be marked.

Examples:
- *Employees may make suggestions about ways to improve services.* Correct.
- *Employees can make suggestions about ways to improve services.* Acceptable.
- *They asked if they might attend the conference as nonvoting participants.* Acceptable.
- *They asked if they could attend the conference as nonvoting participants.* Acceptable.
- *Unauthorized individuals may not use the facilities.* Correct.
- *Unauthorized individuals cannot use the facilities.* Acceptable.

While there are still contexts in nonlegal discourse where use of *can* for *may* would be considered an error, it is extremely unlikely that such contexts will occur on the types of A and B passages that appear on the examination.

Example:
- *I would like to come visit you, if I may.* Correct.
- *I would like to come visit you, if I can.* Grammar or Ambiguity error, but unlikely to occur in an A or B passage.

In A or B passages, *may* and *might* may be used interchangeably to suggest reasonable probability or to express a polite request.

Examples:
- *Bronchitis may develop into pneumonia.* or *Bronchitis might develop into pneumonia.* Both acceptable.
- *Might I express an opinion?* or *May I express an opinion?* Both acceptable.

The distinction between *can* and *may* is often quite important in legal texts of the sort commonly used for the C passage of the examination.

Example:

- *The purchaser can terminate the contract by notifying the seller in writing at least one month before the next shipment.* Grammar error in a C passage or else a Style error if repeated throughout the target text.

For more detailed discussion see the "Legal language in C passages" entry in these Standards.

Misplaced adverbs

Misplacement of an adverb may be marked as a Syntax, Ambiguity, or Mistranslation error.

Examples:
- *The manager hired only six new workers.* Correct; corresponds to meaning of source text.
- *The manager only hired six new workers.* Possible but unlikely interpretation: He hired them but did not train them. Ambiguity error, possibly negligible.
- *The runners immediately submitted applications to compete.* Correct; corresponds to meaning of source text.
- *The runners submitted applications to compete immediately.* Ambiguity error.
- *They lost nearly all their equipment*. Correct; corresponds to meaning of source text.
- *They nearly lost all their equipment.* Mistranslation error, if the meaning of the source is that almost all of the equipment was lost.

Displacement of sentence-modifying adverbs into the middle of the sentence may be penalized as a Syntax or Usage error, if the result is an awkward or ungrammatical sentence.

Examples:
- *I went to school today.* Correct.
- *I went, today, to school.* Syntax or Usage error.
- *She felt, surprisingly, that the potential of Lung's invention had been underestimated.* Correct. The adverb *surprisingly* has been displaced to the middle, but the result is not awkward or ungrammatical.
- *She did, surprisingly, not feel that the potential of Lung's invention had been underestimated.* Syntax error.

See also the "Commas: Conjunctive adverbs," "Commas: Digressions/interrupters," and "Split infinitives" entry in these Standards.

Names, personal and geographic

Candidates are expected to provide the correct English equivalent of personal and geographic names from the source- or target-language culture.

Examples:
- Russian source text: *Хрущев* – only *Khrushchev* is acceptable.
- German source text: *Wien* – only *Vienna* is acceptable.

For non-Roman source languages, any reasonable transliteration of proper names is acceptable unless the

correct version is provided in the Translation Instructions.

Example:
- *Пётр Чайковский*: *Piotr Tchaikovsky* (the most common English transliteration of this name) is acceptable, as is *Pyotr Chaykovskiy* (a version transliterated consistently according to an accepted scheme), unless one or the other (or a third variant) is specified in the Translation Instructions.

For third-language (neither source nor target) personal and geographic names, candidates are expected to recognize and provide the correct English equivalent for well-known persons and geographic names. Failure to do so is marked a Translation error.

Examples:
- *Varšava*, *Varsovie*, ワルシャワ = *Warsaw*. Anything else is penalized.
- *Convenio de La Haya* = *Hague Convention*. *La Haya Convention* or *Haya Convention* would be a more severe Translation error than the previous example because "Hague Convention" is a specific concept that goes beyond geographic terminology.

The incorrect transfer of diacritical marks in personal names may be marked as a Diacritical marks error. Diacritical marks in the source language must be rendered in English either with <u>all</u> diacritical marks intact or with <u>no</u> diacritical marks indicated, consistently throughout the entire passage.

Example:
- *Bošković* or *Boskovic*. Either is acceptable.
- *Boškovic*. Diacritical marks error.
- *Ugrešić* and then, later in the same passage, *Drakulic* (instead of *Drakulić*). Diacritical marks error.

Candidates are not expected to correctly translate or transliterate lesser-known or hard-to-recognize personal or geographic names, especially those from a third-language culture. The appropriate renderings of these will be indicated in the Translation Instructions.

Examples:
- *Чан Кайши* appears in a Russian passage: Translation Instructions state "Translate *Чан Кайши* as *Chiang Kai-shek*."
- *Dinariden* appears in a German passage: Translation Instructions state "Translate *Dinariden* as *Dinaric Alps*."

See also the "Acronyms" entry in these Standards.

Nonparallel constructions

Errors of nonparallel construction are marked as Syntax errors. The severity of such errors depends on the extent to which they impede understanding.

Examples:
- *You must either do the job or it will be assigned to someone else.* Syntax error.
- *You must do the job, or else it will be assigned to someone else.* Acceptable.

- *Electric cars are quiet, cause no air pollution, and gasoline is not used.* Syntax error.
- *Electric cars are quiet, cause no air pollution, and use no gasoline.* Acceptable.
- *Her hobbies are painting landscapes and sculpture.* Syntax error.
- *Her hobbies are landscape painting and sculpture.* Acceptable.
- *The volume of business depends on the institution's delivery method, production time, and whether or not it is open or closed.* Syntax error.
- *The volume of business depends on the institution's delivery method, its production time, and whether or not it is open or closed.* Acceptable.

It is not necessary (but acceptable) to repeat *to* in a simple series of infinitive constructions. Omitting the *to* in more complex cases could be considered a Syntax error, especially if understanding is impeded.

Examples:
- *It became possible to earn a living, take vacations, and save for emergencies.* Acceptable.
- *It became possible to earn a living, to take vacations, and to save for emergencies.* Acceptable.
- *The aim of the legislation was to promote green solutions in regions where alternative energy has traditionally made few inroads, provide incentives for producers willing to convert existing facilities, and raise awareness.* Syntax error.

Some words and constructions allow different types of grammatical complements. Combining these different grammatical types is not necessarily an error.

Examples:
- *They do not know your name, where you come from, or that you are watching them.* Acceptable.
- *The dot is yellow, outside the box, and moving toward the edge of the screen.* Acceptable.

Non-US usage

Candidates are told to translate into US English. British (Canadian, Australian, etc.) spelling is penalized as a Spelling error for each separate misspelling. British (or other non-US English) usage that is found in US English at least occasionally and that is not disruptive of understanding is not penalized even if it is not the predominant US form. British (and other) usage that virtually never occurs in US English is marked as a Terminology or Usage error. British (or other non-US English) terms or usage that introduce confusion may be considered Ambiguity or Terminology errors. The safest course for candidates is to avoid non-US spelling and usage entirely.

Examples:
- *It was a matter of honour to him.* Spelling error.
- *I never dreamt it would happen to me.* Acceptable.
- *He tossed it into a rubbish bin.* Acceptable.
- *He was hit by a lorry.* Terminology error.
- *The prime minister spent two weeks in hospital.* Usage error.
- *We made fun of him because he was so mean* (in the British English sense of *stingy* or *ungenerous*). Ambiguity error. If *mean* is being used in the American English sense of *hostile*, then the usage is acceptable and does not qualify as an Ambiguity error.

See also the "Collective and mass nouns" and "Subjunctive mood" entries in these Standards.

Parenthetical material and use of parentheses

Parentheses may be used to enclose asides or explanations without penalty if the sentence retains its meaning and reads normally in English, even if the original had the analogous phrase enclosed in commas or dashes.

Examples:
- *She slept late into the morning, and sometimes even the afternoon, on weekends.* Acceptable.
- *She slept late into the morning—and sometimes even the afternoon—on weekends.* Acceptable.
- *She slept late into the morning (and sometimes even the afternoon) on weekends.* Acceptable.

Lack of parentheses enclosing an abbreviation following a complete term in its first citation in a passage will be considered a Punctuation error.

Examples:
- *This work was performed at the Naval Research Laboratory (NRL).* Correct.
- *This work was performed at the Naval Research Laboratory, NRL.* Punctuation error.

See also the "Acronyms: Expanding acronyms" entry in these Standards.

When parenthetical material appears within a sentence it is not capitalized, nor does it close with a period, even if it forms a complete sentence. However, if appropriate, a question mark or exclamation point may be used within the parentheses.

Examples:
- *This cat was not a Siamese. Its eyes were green (not blue).* Correct.
- *This cat was not a Siamese. Its eyes were green (not blue.).* Punctuation error.
- *This cat was not a Siamese. Its eyes were green (not blue.)* Punctuation error.
- *Edward (you know him, don't you?) won the prize.* Acceptable.
- *Are you aware that I only found out yesterday (March 20)?* Correct.
- *Are you aware that I only found out yesterday (March 20?)* Punctuation error.
- *Are you aware that I only found out yesterday (March 20?)?* Punctuation error.

When a parenthetical phrase falls within a sentence, other punctuation (commas, colons, dashes, and semicolons) comes after, never before, the parenthetical phrase.

Example:
- *He gave her a Bible (and later a rosary), which she kept.* Correct.
- *He gave her a Bible, (and later a rosary) which she kept.* Punctuation error.

The grammar of a sentence (primarily agreement) that includes a phrase in parentheses must be determined without considering the parenthetical phrase.

Example:
- *He gave her a Bible (and later a rosary), which was found by her bedside.* Correct.

- *He gave her a Bible (and later a rosary), which were found by her bedside.* Grammatical error.

When a sentence within parentheses stands alone, it begins with a capital and terminal punctuation is placed within the parenthesis.

Example:
- *Cook until golden brown. (Do not allow to burn.)* Correct.
- *Cook until golden brown. (Do not allow to burn).* Punctuation error.

But:
- *Cook until golden brown (do not allow to burn).* Acceptable.
- *Cook until golden brown (Do not allow to burn).* Punctuation error.

Passive and active voice

Writing guides and teachers often frown on the use of the passive voice, but it has a place in good English writing—for instance, when the agent of an action is not known or not relevant. Passive sentences may be used to put the emphasis on the process rather than the actor. They occur with particular frequency in certain types of English writing, such as legal documents and scientific papers. In other languages that have a passive voice, this construction may be used more or less frequently than in English, or it may be used differently.

Candidates will not be penalized for rendering individual active sentences in the source text as actives or passive sentences as passives, as long as the result is a grammatical English sentence. It is possible that a candidate, by following the source-language norms, would produce an English document containing too many passive sentences to be consistent with the appropriate English style (for example, translation of a set of instructions from German using a sequence of passive sentences in place of the more normal imperatives). In that case, a Style error may be assessed.

Sentences that are passive in the source text may be converted to active sentences in the English target text as long as the subject of the active sentence is clearly and unambiguously stated or implied in the source. If this is not the case and the meaning is affected, graders will assess an error of Addition or another category as appropriate.

Example:
- *The attorney's argument was ridiculed and subsequently ruled inadmissible.* Corresponds to source, correct.
- *The court ridiculed the attorney's argument and subsequently ruled it inadmissible.* Addition, or possibly Mistranslation. (While only courts can rule an argument inadmissible in a trial, another agent, e.g., the opposing attorney, may well have been responsible for the ridicule.)

Sentences that are active in the source may be converted to passive English sentences, provided that no meaning is lost and that the sentence is acceptable in English and suitable to the type of document.

Examples:
- *However, a trivial accident soon destroyed her state of ignorant bliss.* Correct; corresponds to source.
- *However, her state of ignorant bliss was soon destroyed by a trivial accident.* Acceptable.
- *The ANOVA statistic was used to analyze data.* Correct.

- *Someone* (or *A member of the research team*) *used the ANOVA statistic to analyze data.* Style error.

See also the "Legal language in C passages" entry in these Standards.

Phrasal verbs

In these Standards, the term "phrasal verb" refers to a combination of an ordinary verb and a particle or preposition with a meaning that is not predictable from the literal meanings of the elements. Such verbs are extremely common in English. Examples with particles include *take out, take over, take up, bring out, make over,* and *put up.* Examples with prepositions that take an object include *take after, go for, have at, stumble upon,* and *harp on.* Some phrasal verb constructions involve both a particle and an ordinary preposition, such as *go on about* and *get away with*.

Errors in phrasal verbs virtually always involve the use of the wrong particle or preposition. In such cases, if the intended phrase (and thus its meaning) can be readily inferred, a Usage error is marked. If use of the wrong particle or preposition creates real ambiguity or suggests the wrong meaning, an Ambiguity or Mistranslation error will be marked, even if the context helps to clarify the intended meaning.

Examples:
- *Several people in the audience nodded off.* Correct.
- *Several people in the audience nodded out.* Usage error.
- *He was looking for his dog.* Correct.
- *He was looking after his dog.* Mistranslation error.
- *By the time she arrived he had passed out.* Correct.
- *By the time she arrived he had passed away.* Mistranslation error.
- *After months of house hunting, we settled onto a ranch house on Broad Street.* Ambiguity error. *Settle onto* has no clear meaning; out of context, *settle for, settle into,* or *settle on* are possible readings.

Plain English

What is plain English?

There is a worldwide movement promoting the use of plain language in a wide variety of contexts. Here is a definition of plain English by Professor Robert Eagleson, a scholar of plain language:

Plain English is clear, straightforward expression, using only as many words as are necessary. It is language that avoids obscurity, inflated vocabulary and convoluted sentence construction. It is not baby talk, nor is it a simplified version of the English language. Writers of plain English let their audience concentrate on the message instead of being distracted by complicated language. They make sure that their audience understands the message easily.

This quote is taken from the US government site http://www.plainlanguage.gov, which contains other background information on this topic.

Use of plain English on the examination

Rather than providing a literal translation that precisely reflects the stylistic properties of the source text, translators striving for a plain English style might make certain changes, such as

1. Recasting passive verbs as actives (for example, instead of *which had been read by everyone*, using *which everyone had read*).
2. Replacing nominalized verbs with active verbs (for example, replacing *conduct an examination of* with *examine*; replacing *take into consideration* with *consider*).
3. Breaking up long sentences.
4. Replacing "bloated phrases" with shorter ones (for example, replacing *an adequate number of* with *enough*; replacing *at the present time* with *now*; replacing *in the event that* with *if*).
5. Replacing less common words with everyday synonyms (for example, replacing *additional* or *further* with *more*; replacing *bestow* with *give*; replacing *terminate* with *end* or *stop*).

These types of changes are acceptable as long as they do not

- alter or distort meaning;
- make sentences ambiguous, vague, or unclear;
- introduce grammatical or mechanical errors;
- reduce the coherence of the text; or
- add or omit meaningful elements.

Use of an elaborate style on the examination

Graders' judgments about whether the style of the target text is too wordy or elaborate will always take into account the target audience and context, as specified in the Translation Instructions. An elaborate style is more likely to be acceptable in certain passage types, such as academic and legal writing. This is true even if the source text uses a plain style.

See also the "Legal language in C passages" entry in these Standards.

Possibly offensive terms

No word is acceptable that is clearly labeled as unconditionally offensive by the AH Dictionary and felt by the grader to be so in context. Such usage will be marked as a Register or Style error if the tone of the passage is adversely affected. However, some terms identified in the definition or usage notes of the AH Dictionary as frequently offensive—e.g., *Negro*—or as offensive to some people—such as *lady* in the phrase *lady doctor*—will not be marked as errors unless they are blatantly offensive in context, especially if analogous terms are used in the source. Regardless of the source term, "politically correct" translations such as *black* and *female doctor*, are also acceptable in virtually all contexts. The exception would be the use of politically correct substitutes in historical contexts in which they stand out as modernisms or are parts of set phrases or references to the names of institutions.

Examples:
- *The most brilliant poet of the 19th century was confined to a lunatic asylum for the last years of his life.* Correct.
- *The most brilliant poet of the 19th century was confined to a psychiatric facility for the last years of*

- *his life.* Acceptable.
- *In the years before his death in 1943, George Washington Carver was frequently called a "credit to the Negro race."* Acceptable.
- *In the years before his death in 1943, George Washington Carver was frequently called a "credit to the African-American race."* Style error. *African-American* is anachronistic in this context.
- *Lady doctors were rare even in the late 19th century.* Acceptable.
- *Female doctors were rare even in the late 19th century.* Acceptable.

A variety of different terms for people with disabilities are in current use. The use of terms such as *handicapped* and *crippled*, which are sometimes considered offensive or outdated, will be judged leniently. Terms such as *physically challenged individual* and *person with a visual impairment* will also be accepted, even though some people may consider such terms verbose or euphemistic. This applies regardless of the term used in the source language. Similarly, *black*, *African American*, and *person of color* will all be considered acceptable, as will *Hispanic*, *Latino*, and *person of Latin American descent*.

Outright insults and terms of abuse are never acceptable alternatives for neutral descriptive terms. In the unlikely case that a source passage intentionally uses a term clearly meant to be offensive or insulting, it is of course appropriate to use an analogous term in the translation. Avoiding a literal translation of the offensive term may also be appropriate, depending on the context in which the translation will be used, as specified in the Translation Instructions.

Example:
- *The Councilman later apologized for having called the talk show host a bastard.* (*Bastard* is comparable to the term used in the source text.) Acceptable.
- *The Councilman later apologized for having called the talk show host a jerk.* (*Jerk* is milder than the term in the source text.) Possibly acceptable, depending on context.

See also the "He/she and gender-specific terms" entry in these Standards.

Quotation marks

With one exception, explained below, only double quotation marks (straight or curly) are acceptable in certification examinations. Other marks or conventions used in other countries or in special contexts to indicate quoted speech, such as single quotes, «xxx», „xxx", dashes, or italics, are not acceptable. Only the first usage of such marks in each passage will be graded as a Punctuation error.

In US usage, commas and periods are always placed inside a closing quotation mark, while colons and semicolons are placed outside. Exclamation points and question marks are placed inside closing quotation marks only if they are part of the matter being quoted. Any deviation from these rules is marked as a Punctuation error.

Examples:
- *Though I would not use the term "disaster," I do see her point.* Acceptable.
- *Though I would not use the term "disaster", I do see her point.* Punctuation error.
- *Benjamin Franklin even called him a "cool and prudent man"!* Acceptable.
- *Benjamin Franklin even called him a "cool and prudent man!"* Punctuation error.

Single quotation marks are required for quotations within quotations. Double quotations are used in all other instances requiring quotation marks. Deviations are Punctuation errors.

Examples:
- *There has been considerable controversy concerning how difficult the 'Star-Spangled Banner' is to sing.* Punctuation error (one, not two).
- *A world-renowned opera singer has been quoted as saying, "I never claimed "The Star-Spangled Banner" was unsingable, just that I myself found it impossible to sing."* Punctuation error.

The use of so-called scare quotes to alert readers that a term is being used in a nonstandard, ironic, or other special sense is acceptable, but the overuse of scare quotes or the use of quotation marks simply to highlight or emphasize a term may be marked as a Style error, even if such usage is acceptable in the source language. Failure to use scare quotes will be penalized only in very clear cases. In ambiguous situations, where quotation marks in the original can be interpreted either as indicative of sarcasm or as simple emphasis, either the presence or absence of quotation marks is acceptable.

Examples:
- *The patent office was unimpressed by this "scientific breakthrough."* Acceptable. Quotation marks indicate sarcasm on the part of the author. It would also be acceptable to indicate this in a different way, such as the use of the word *purported* instead of or in addition to the quotes.
- *The discovery of "dark matter" was a landmark event in modern physics.* Possible Style error. Quotation marks merely indicate that *dark matter* is a term of art. This usage may be tolerable in some cases, but only if the term is being introduced for the first time. It is always correct to omit the quotation marks in cases like this, even if they are used in the source text.
- *Repaying the foreign debt will "eat up" the accumulated savings.* Probable Style error, if the quotes merely serve to indicate that *eat up* is being used figuratively.

Quotation marks may be used to indicate that a person's exact words are being quoted within a paraphrase.

Example:
- *Rumi seems to be suggesting that his "golden face" is just as heavy a burden as his "iron legs."* Acceptable. Omitting the quotation marks might also be acceptable, depending on the context.

In general, words or phrases that are mentioned, rather than used, in a sentence are placed in quotes or italics.

Examples:
- *"Honey" has two syllables.* Correct.
- *"Honey" is sweet.* Punctuation error.

However, there are many unclear cases and some exceptions to this rule. If it is debatable whether a word is being used or mentioned, graders will give candidates the benefit of the doubt.

Example:
- *"Ezti" is the Basque word for "honey."* Acceptable.

For the purposes of the certification examination, the use of quotes may be optional if specific words in the sentence (such as *name* or *call*) make it clear that a word or phrase is being mentioned rather than used. This is true regardless of whether quotes are used in the source language.

Examples:
- *His friends called him Hank.* Acceptable.
- *His friends called him "Hank."* Acceptable.
- *She always described him as a vile little prig.* Acceptable.
- *She always described him as a "vile little prig."* Acceptable.
- *I try not to use derogatory terms like "idiot" around the children.* Acceptable.
- *I try not to use derogatory terms like idiot around the children.* Acceptable.

If the omission of the quotes leads to ambiguity in such a case, an Ambiguity error may be marked.

Example:
- *I try not to use derogatory phrases like "an idiot" around the children.* Acceptable.
- *I try not to use derogatory phrases like an idiot around the children.* Ambiguity error.

The use of quotes with indirect reported speech is unacceptable.

Example:
- *He explained that "he had missed his train."* Punctuation error.

Italics are required for the titles of books, films, and theatrical works, while double quotes are required for the titles of articles, short stories, non-book-length poems, songs, and sections of books. The two are not interchangeable, nor are single quotes acceptable in these cases. (Underlining, in the place of italics, is acceptable in all certification exams, and encouraged in handwritten exams. Reminders of this will be included in the Translation Instructions where pertinent.)

Names of companies and other organizations are not normally placed in quotes in English. (Nor are they normally italicized.)

See also the "Capitalization in headings and titles of works" entry in these Standards.

Redundancy

A certain amount of redundancy is common in language, especially for purposes of emphasis, and this will not be penalized in the certification examination. On the other hand, elimination of redundancy will not be penalized either.

Example:
- *High rates of endemism in both flora and fauna…* Acceptable. Here *both* is a literal translation from the source.
- *High rates of endemism in flora and fauna…* Acceptable. In this case, *both* adds no new or essential information.

On the other hand, there are cases where *both* adds meaning and cannot be left out without incurring an Omission error.

Example:
- *Both suitcases exceeded the airline weight limit.* Correct. This implies that each one was over the limit.
- *The suitcases exceeded the airline weight limit.* Ambiguity error. This may well mean the total of both weights.

Similarly, addition of a redundant form—having the effect of mild emphasis, for example—will not be penalized if no change of meaning is detectable.

Example:
- *Experts differ as to the desirability of teenagers having after-school jobs. Some consider them an invaluable lesson in responsibility; on the other hand, others think they detract from the educational process.* Equivalent to the source language.
- *Experts differ as to the desirability of teenagers having after-school jobs. Some consider them an invaluable lesson in responsibility, while, on the other hand, others think they detract from the educational process.* Acceptable. The addition of *while* adds no meaning and is an acceptable redundancy in English. Similarly, if the source sentence included analogues of both *while* and *on the other hand*, no error would be marked for omission of either (or both).
- *Experts differ as to the desirability of teenagers having after-school jobs. Some consider them an invaluable lesson in responsibility; others think they detract from the educational process.* Acceptable.

Redundant or somewhat redundant adjectives (*absolutely perfect, old adage, hollow tube*) will not be penalized if similar adjectives or other emphatic devices are legitimately used in the source.

It is difficult to gauge the exact effects of linguistic devices for indicating emphasis and especially difficult to compare these across languages. A great deal depends on context. For example, the semantic redundancy *absolutely identical* would be appropriate (even if not an exact translation) if used emphatically in an A passage, but possibly not in a B passage because in most scientific documents the word *identical* is used precisely.

Examples:
- *Although the candidate criticized his predecessor's Middle East policy, the policy he adopted after his election was absolutely identical.* Introduction of redundant *absolutely* is acceptable.
- *The two precipitates were absolutely identical in composition.* Introduction of *absolutely* may be a Usage error.

Finally, some source languages may conventionally use redundancy more than in English, or in different contexts. Translations that eliminate such redundancy with no loss of meaning or cohesion will not be penalized. Retention of such redundancies will be judged on acceptability in English. Language- or passage-specific guidelines for individual language pairs may address such issues.

Register

Candidates are expected to find terms and phrases appropriate to the register (or language level) of the target context. Information about the target audience and/or medium, as indicated in the Translation Instructions for the passage, is often useful in making decisions about proper register.

Register: General principles

Register decisions for into-English examinations typically involve choosing between a standard English usage and an alternative that may be considered informal, slang, obsolete, dialect, or nonstandard in some other way. Because all passages used in the certification examination are in a register for which standard English is appropriate, use of standard English is always considered correct. Graders may penalize candidates for the use of English words labeled as nonstandard in register in any dictionary, including bilingual ones. In some contexts, however, nonstandard terms or phrasings may be acceptable. In particular, informal or even slang terms are acceptable in contexts where a term of similar register is used in the source language and it is presented as a direct or indirect quotation.

Example:
- *The opposition party claims that the new administration project is nothing more than a huge boondoggle.* Acceptable (source text uses a term in an equivalent register).
- *The opposition party claims that the new administration project is nothing more than a huge waste of money.* Acceptable (paraphrasing in a more standard register).

Although the AH Dictionary does label some terms *nonstandard, offensive, vulgar, slang, informal, archaic, obsolete,* or *dialect*, many terms not so labeled may also be considered of inappropriate register in examination passages. A grader who considers a term used by a candidate to be inappropriately informal or archaic in register for the context may assess a Register error, even if the term is not specifically marked as such in the dictionary. However, graders will consider such cases carefully and, if unsure, give the candidate the benefit of the doubt.

Example:
- *If a modern family wishes to eat mussel soup...* Acceptable.
- *If a modern family desires to eat mussel soup...* Acceptable: The first definition of *desire* is *wish*, and *desire* is not marked for register in the AH Dictionary in any way.
- *If a modern family has a hankering to eat mussel soup...* (*Hanker/hankering* is not marked in the dictionary as other than standard English.) Possible Register error.
- *If a modern family is jonesing for mussel soup...* Clear Register error; term is marked as slang.

English terms marked by the AH Dictionary as archaic, or considered by the grader to be so, are acceptable in context if they are the specific names of an archaic institution, object, or the like being discussed in a passage, or the name of something appropriate to the time under discussion in the passage.

Example:
- *My grandmother often reminisced about the time her father brought a gramophone home from a trip East—the first one ever seen in their small Midwestern town.* Acceptable. (*Record player* or *phonograph* also acceptable.)

Expressions of politeness, honorifics, etc., may be regarded as Register or Style errors if inappropriate in the English context, regardless of usage in the source.

Example:
- *Please read these instructions thoroughly before attempting to use the product.* Acceptable.
- *Please be so kind as to read these instructions thoroughly before attempting to use the product.*

Register or Style error.

Register: Technical terms in A passages

In A passages, graders may penalize candidates for using terms that could be confusing or unfamiliar to a general audience, even if they are cognates of the foreign-language words used.

Examples:
- *In the movie, he is bitten by a rabid dog.* Acceptable, even if a cognate of *hydrophobic* is used in the source text.
- *In the movie, he is bitten by a hydrophobic dog.* Probable Style or Register error, depending on broader context and designated audience.
- *The government fell after a series of ugly scandals.* Acceptable, even if cognate of *concatenation* is used in the source text.
- *The government fell after a concatenation of ugly scandals.* Probable Register or Style error.
- *The senator denied that he had ever been convicted or charged with committing any unlawful act.* Acceptable.
- *The senator denied that he had ever been convicted or charged with committing any tort.* Register error.

Graders may also penalize excessively simplistic language or overexplanation, especially if the language of the source text is not simplistic.

Examples:
- *By and large, Spanish is written phonetically.* Acceptable.
- *By and large, Spanish is written the way it sounds.* Possible Register error for unnecessary dumbing down, especially if the literal equivalent of *phonetically* is used in the source text.
- *They bombarded it with photons.* Acceptable.
- *They bombarded it with tiny bits of light.* Possible Register error, especially if the literal equivalent of *photons* is used in the source text.

A legal or technical term that may well be known to the target audience, but is unsuited to the context of a particular A passage, may be deemed a Style error.

Example:
- *Following his mother's instructions, Jeff gave the note to his teacher.* Acceptable.
- *Pursuant to his mother's instructions, Jeff gave the note to his teacher.* Unacceptable, even if wording used in the source text could be translated as *pursuant to* in a different context.

Register: B passages

In medical and scientific (B) passages, a Register error is marked for the use of a colloquial term when the medical or other technical term is in common use. When a medical term is at least somewhat obscure, either it or the standard English term is acceptable.

Examples:
- *Bacteria were cultured from a saliva* (or *sputum*) *specimen.* Acceptable.
- *Bacteria were cultured from a spit specimen.* Register error.

- *The major symptom at this stage was hyperhidrosis.* Acceptable.
- *The major symptom at this stage was excessive perspiration.* Acceptable.
- *The major symptom at this stage was sweating a lot.* Register error.

Once a medical or technical term is used, it is advisable to use that term rather than a synonym to avoid confusion unless there is a specific justification for a shift in register. Graders may penalize violations of this principle. Cohesion errors may be assessed if lack of consistency is deemed confusing or ambiguous.

Example:
- *In their study of hyperhidrosis, researchers visited construction sites in hot weather and asked workers if they were bothered by sweating a great deal.* Acceptable (use of the word *sweating* justified by the implied indirect quote; this is how researchers put the question to the workers.)

In a B passage, if the source text uses a technical term, candidates are not penalized for using the English cognate, provided it is listed in English dictionaries as having the appropriate meaning. Such cognates may be used even if another English term is more commonly used in technical contexts.

Example (source term is a cognate of *erythrocyte*):
- *Changes were noted in red blood cells*. Acceptable.
- *Changes were noted in erythrocytes*. Acceptable.

Register: C passages

See the "Legal language in C passages" entry in these Standards.

Restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses and appositives

A **restrictive clause** is a dependent clause that identifies the noun, phrase, or clause it modifies and limits or restricts its meaning. A **nonrestrictive clause** (also known as a *descriptive clause*) does not limit the reference in this way: The noun or situation it modifies has already been identified in the text, is unique (e.g., a proper noun), or is assumed to be unique.

Examples (all punctuated correctly for the indicated restrictive or nonrestrictive form):
- *People who live in glass houses should not throw stones.* Restrictive: *People* is restricted to those living in glass houses.
- *People, who depend on air, should not pollute it.* Nonrestrictive.
- *The car that is parked in the garage has bad brakes.* Restrictive: Parked in the garage uniquely identifies which car is being talked about.
- *The car, which is parked in the garage, has bad brakes.* Nonrestrictive: Only one car is under discussion, and it just happens to be parked in the garage.
- *John, whom I told you about, has lost his job.* Nonrestrictive: Proper noun.
- *My husband, who sends his regards, is undergoing surgery next week.* Nonrestrictive: *My husband* is assumed to be unique.
- *My brother who is a doctor makes more money than my brother the teacher*. Restrictive: The *who is a...* clause serves to identify and distinguish between the two brothers.

This distinction, which in English is shown principally through the use of commas and the choice of relative pronouns, is absent in some other languages. Thus, it may be unclear from context whether a relative clause in a source text is intended to be restrictive or nonrestrictive. If a sentence may be interpreted either way with no disruption of meaning, then neither interpretation will be penalized, even if the grader considers one reading or the other to be more likely.

Examples:
- *We do not starve during Ramadan as argued by some of our atheist brothers who attack the holiday.* Acceptable (restrictive). (The source language, Arabic, does not make the restrictive-nonrestrictive distinction.)
- *We do not starve during Ramadan as argued by some of our atheist brothers, who attack the holiday.* Acceptable (nonrestrictive).
- *He visited the old cemetery where his grandparents are buried.* Acceptable (restrictive).
- *He visited the old cemetery, where his grandparents are buried.* Acceptable (nonrestrictive).

However, in situations where a clause is unambiguously restrictive or nonrestrictive within the immediate or overall context of the text, errors will be marked if the fixed rules of English usage concerning commas and relative pronouns are violated, regardless of usage in the source text. Dashes or parentheses may not be substituted for commas in cases of nonrestrictive clauses or apposition.

See also the "Grammatical ambiguity in the source language" entry in these Standards.

Restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses and appositives: Commas

In English, restrictive clauses are never set off with commas, whereas nonrestrictive clauses are. The use of commas to set off a clause that is unambiguously restrictive can be marked as a Grammar or Punctuation error or, if meaning is affected, as an Ambiguity or Mistranslation error. In many cases, whether a clause is meant to be restrictive or nonrestrictive can be determined on the basis of real-world knowledge or overall context.

Examples:
- *People, who live in glass houses, should not throw stones.* Grammar or Punctuation error; this suggests that all people live in glass houses. Since no one thinks all people live in glass houses, this error has no real effect on comprehension, so no Mistranslation or Ambiguity error is assessed.
- *Some of the students have failed. All the students who completed the course work will graduate next month.* Correct.
- *Some of the students have failed. All the students, who completed the course work, will graduate next month.* Mistranslation error; suggests that all students will graduate, but the preceding sentence has made clear that some failed.

In other cases, the noun (for example, a proper name) modified by the clause indicates whether the clause is restrictive or not. Failure to set off an unambiguously nonrestrictive clause with commas is marked as a Grammar or Punctuation error.

Example:
- *John whom I told you about has lost his job.* Grammar or Punctuation error.

Restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses and appositives: Relative pronouns

The most common relative pronouns used with restrictive clauses are *who/whom* and *that*. *Which* (with no preceding comma) is also acceptable in place of *that* but never in place of *who/whom* in restrictive clauses. Nonrestrictive clauses are most commonly introduced by *which* or *who/whom*.

Examples:
- *The man who came earlier is here again.* Correct (restrictive).
- *The letter that came yesterday is on your desk.* Correct (restrictive)
- *The letter which came yesterday is on your desk.* Correct (restrictive)
- *Al, who came yesterday, is here again.* Correct (nonrestrictive).
- *The letter from Al, which came yesterday, is on your desk.* Correct (nonrestrictive, referring to the letter)
- *The letter from Al that came yesterday is on your desk.* Grammar error (nonrestrictive) unless Al sent more than one letter, but only the one that came yesterday is under discussion.

In addition, *that* (but not *which*) may stand in for *who/whom* in a restrictive clause, but not in a nonrestrictive one.

- *The man that was here yesterday has returned.* Correct. (restrictive).
- *Al, that was here yesterday, has returned.* Grammar error. (nonrestrictive).

Who/whom is limited to humans or anthropomorphized objects (pets, stuffed animals, etc.) and does not apply to countries or organizations. For countries or organizations, *that* or *which* is used.

Examples:
- *My cat Fluffy, who is very sensitive, doesn't respond well to strangers.* Correct.
- *The dog that always accompanied him was absent that day.* Correct.
- *The countries who are having financial problems are also deep in debt.* Grammar/Usage error.
- *The ten professional associations that see the greatest increase in membership will be eligible for a year-end award.* Correct.

That or *who/whom* may be omitted from a restrictive clause when it refers to the logical object of a transitive verb, but never from a nonrestrictive one.

Examples:
- *The bread that* (or *which*) *I bought yesterday has already gone stale.* Correct (restrictive).
- *The bread I bought yesterday has already gone stale*. Correct (restrictive).
- *This bread, which I bought yesterday, has already gone stale.* Correct (nonrestrictive)
- *This bread, I bought yesterday, has already gone stale.* Grammar error
- *The man who bought the bread is here again.* Correct (restrictive)
- *The man bought the bread is here again.* Grammar or possibly Ambiguity error. (*Man* is the logical subject, not the object, of the verb *bought*.)

Either type of clause may also begin with *where* or *when* or with phrases such as *because of which, in which, by which method*, etc. In such cases the difference between the two types of clause is indicated only by comma usage.

Examples:
- *I wandered around the park until the moment when the birds started to sing.* Correct (restrictive).
- *I wandered around the park until sunset, when the birds started to sing.* Correct (nonrestrictive).
- *The technology stocks in which I invested have not done well.* Correct (restrictive).
- *Technology stocks, in which I invested, have not done well.* Correct (nonrestrictive)

A restrictive or nonrestrictive clause with a relationship of possession to the independent clause is introduced by *of which* or *whose*. *Whose* is acceptable for either animate or inanimate antecedents.

Examples:
- *The man whose dog this is lives down the street.* Correct (restrictive).
- *The man over there, whose dog this is, lives down the street.* Correct (nonrestrictive).
- *I removed the tree, whose roots were damaging the pipes.* Correct (nonrestrictive).
- *I removed the tree, the roots of which were damaging the pipes.* Correct (nonrestrictive).

Clauses (both restrictive and nonrestrictive) that are introduced by *who*, *which*, or *that* and contain a form of the verb *to be* have reduced adjective-phrase counterparts in which the relative pronoun and *to be* are omitted. These are punctuated identically to the full form. Full clauses and corresponding adjective phrases are considered equivalent, and no error is marked if one is substituted for the other in a translated text.

Examples:
- *The man who is walking down the street is my uncle.* Correct.
- *The man walking down the street is my uncle.* Correct.
- *The man, walking down the street, is my uncle.* Grammar or Punctuation error.
- *These students, who were hoping to get their pictures in the paper, held a protest.* Correct.
- *These students, hoping to get their pictures in the paper, held a protest.* Correct.
- *These students hoping to get their pictures in the paper held a protest.* Grammar or Punctuation error.

See also the "Who and whom" entry in these Standards and the "who" entry in the AH Guide.

Restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses and appositives: Appositives

An appositive is a word or phrase that identifies the noun or pronoun immediately preceding it. If the information provided by the appositive is not essential to identify or specify the preceding noun phrase, the appositive is enclosed in commas. The commas may be omitted, however, when a proper name follows a brief noun phrase describing a personal relationship ("My loving husband Abdul") ("My manservant Lars"). This is true even if the name is not necessary to specify the referent of the preceding noun phrase. If the name is necessary for this purpose, then the use of commas is always incorrect. Otherwise, the rules for commas with apposition are exactly analogous to those for restrictive clauses.

Examples:
- *She hails from Oman, a Persian Gulf state.* Correct.
- *She hails from Oman a Persian Gulf state.* Punctuation error.
- *She hails from the Persian Gulf state, Oman.* Punctuation error.
- *My husband(,) Ned(,) loves to exercise.* Both possibilities are correct: *My husband* is assumed to be unique.
- *My son David loves basketball, while his brother prefers football.* Correct.

- *My son, David, loves basketball, while his brother prefers football.* Punctuation error.

Run-on sentences / comma splices

Two or more syntactically complete independent clauses may appear in a single sentence in English if they are joined by a semicolon, a comma plus a coordinating conjunction, or a semicolon plus a conjunctive adverb. The common syntax error known as a run-on sentence combines such clauses in a sentence without using the appropriate joining structure. The most common form of run-on sentence, known as a comma splice, connects the two clauses with a comma but no conjunction. Even if such usage is considered acceptable in the source language, run-on sentences must be recast when translated into English. This might involve using a semicolon, breaking the sentence up into two sentences, using a comma plus an appropriate conjunction, or using a semicolon and a conjunctive adverb. Literal renderings are marked as Literalness or Syntax errors. If the second sentence occurs in a reduced (or gapped) form that is syntactically incomplete, then the use of a comma is correct.

Examples:
- *In recent years adults have been smoking less, teenagers have been smoking more.* (literal translation of source text) Literalness or Syntax error.
- *In recent years adults have been smoking less, (but) teenagers more.* Correct.
- *In recent years adults have been smoking less; teenagers have been smoking more.* Correct.
- *In recent years adults have been smoking less, but teenagers have been smoking more.* Correct.
- *In recent years adults have been smoking less; however, teenagers have been smoking more*. Correct
- *In recent years adults have been smoking less. Teenagers, on the other hand, have been smoking more.* Correct.

Two short clauses may be combined simply by a conjunction; in this case, the comma is optional.

Example:
- *Many adults smoke, so do many teenagers*. Literalness or Syntax error.
- *Many adults smoke(,) and so do many teenagers*. Both versions are acceptable.

As long as an inserted coordinating conjunction or conjunctive adverb is appropriate in context, a candidate is not penalized for using one that the grader does not find optimal.

Examples:
- *I was getting very annoyed, he just kept sitting there.* (literal translation of source text) Literalness or Syntax error.
- *I was getting very annoyed; he just kept sitting there.* Acceptable.
- *I was getting very annoyed, but he just kept sitting there.* Acceptable.
- *I was getting very annoyed, and he just kept sitting there.* Acceptable.
- *I was getting very annoyed, since he just kept sitting there.* Acceptable.
- *I was getting very annoyed; however, he just kept sitting there.* Acceptable.

If a conjunctive adverb is used to join two independent clauses, it must be preceded by a semicolon, not a comma.

Examples:
- *These measures are reducing our company's environmental impact; therefore(,) they should be continued.* Correct (with or without second comma).
- *These measures are reducing our company's environmental impact, therefore(,) they should be continued.* Punctuation error.

Further rules for punctuating sentences containing independent clauses can be found in the "Commas" entry in these Standards.

A second type of run-on sentence, a fused sentence, does not use any punctuation or conjunctive word to join independent clauses. Such sentences are marked as Syntax errors and, if the run-on structure is present in the source text, must be recast in the same ways as comma splices.

Examples:
- *He sings she dances.* (literal translation of source text) Syntax error.
- *He sings and she dances.* Acceptable.
- *He sings but she dances.* Acceptable.
- *He sings; she dances.* Acceptable.
- *He sings; however, she dances.* Acceptable.
- *He sings. She dances.* Acceptable.

See also the "Commas: Independent clauses" entry in these Standards.

Sentence fragments

Source and target languages often differ in their use of sentence fragments. Though many authorities describe sentence fragments as grammatical errors, they are occasionally acceptable in formal English writing as a rhetorical device. Other languages may use them more often and be more tolerant of them in the types of passages used in the examination. In light of this, replacing a sentence fragment in the source with a complete sentence in English is never considered an error. While sentence fragments may very occasionally be acceptable in an English translation, if warranted by context and passage tone, overuse of sentence fragments is a Style error, regardless of how they are used in the source text.

Examples:
- *A fine example of a phenomenon that has fascinated economists for decades: "external costs." Incurred by one person or group, but paid for by others.* Style error; the use of two sentence fragments in a row does not seem justified in English.
- *A fine example of a phenomenon that has fascinated economists for decades: "external costs." These are costs that are incurred by one person or group, but paid for by others.* Acceptable.
- *This is a fine example of a phenomenon that has fascinated economists for decades: "external costs."* Acceptable.

Shall and will

Both *shall* and *will* are acceptable for simple futurity for first-person subjects.

Example:
- *We will have more information on this topic after the senator's speech.* Acceptable.
- *We shall have more information on this topic after the senator's speech.* Acceptable.

However, for second- and third-person subjects, only *will* is acceptable for simple futurity. The use of *shall* in such contexts is a Usage error.

Example:
- *Experts believe that global warming will accelerate over the next 20 years.* Correct.
- *Experts believe that global warming shall accelerate over the next 20 years.* Usage error.

There is a distinction in meaning between *shall* and *will* in yes-no questions with a first-person subject. Such questions using *will* are inquiries about future events. Those with *shall* are requests for permission or participation. Failure to follow these rules may be considered a Mistranslation or Ambiguity error.

Examples:
- *Will I open the window?* Mistranslation error.
- *Shall we be on time for dinner if we get there at 8:30?* Mistranslation error.
- *Will we get out of this heat? There's an air-conditioned cafe over there, but I don't know if it's open.* Mistranslation or Ambiguity error.

Use of *shall* in contracts and similar legal documents to indicate explicit obligation is acceptable in C passages. An acceptable alternative in C passages is the use of *must* or another synonym such as *has the obligation to*. Use of *will* or *should* in a legal context in which *shall* is expected is to be penalized and may be deemed to constitute an Ambiguity or Terminology error instead of, or in addition to, a Usage error.

Example:
- *Officials shall be permanent residents of Fairfax County.* Acceptable.
- *Officials must be permanent residents of Fairfax County.* Acceptable.
- *Officials will be permanent residents of Fairfax County.* Usage or Ambiguity error.
- *Officials should be permanent residents of Fairfax County.* Usage or Terminology error.

Occasional appropriate use of *shall* in A or B passages to indicate strong moral obligation or emphasize certainty of future occurrence is acceptable but not required.

Example:
- *The president vowed, "Our government shall not be brought down by mob violence."* Acceptable.

See also the "Legal language in C passages" and "Plain English" entries in these Standards.

The "shall/will" entry in the AH Guide provides further discussion and explanation of contemporary US usage of *shall* and *will*.

Split infinitives

Infinitives "split" by short phrases that read normally and are clear in meaning will incur no errors. Such constructions may be penalized as a Usage error if so many words intervene between *to* and its verb that the sentence is awkward or hard to parse.

Examples:
- *She set out to laboriously parse every sentence in the Sunday Times.* Acceptable.
- *She set out to laboriously and with intense conscious effort parse every sentence in the Sunday Times.* Usage error.
- *This authority will allow the Municipality to, after thirty (30) days have passed without the offender having paid, send the documents to the Department of the Treasury for the corresponding surcharge to be applied.* Usage error.

Unnecessary rephrasing of a sentence to avoid a split infinitive will not incur a penalty if the resulting sentence is well-formed and preserves the meaning of the source. However, when an attempt to avoid a split infinitive leads to word order that is awkward or impedes understanding, an error (Usage or Syntax) will be marked.

Example:
- *To better understand the required procedures, please consult the following documents.* Acceptable.
- *To understand the required procedures better, please consult the following documents.* Acceptable.
- *For better understanding of the required procedures, please consult the following documents.* Acceptable.
- *Better to understand the required procedures, please consult the following documents.* Usage or Syntax error, possibly impeding understanding.

For further discussion see the "split infinitives" entry in the AH Guide.

Stranded prepositions

A stranded (or "dangling") preposition—a preposition at the end of a sentence or clause—is generally acceptable.

Example:
- *It does not matter what cause we attribute it to.* Acceptable.

There are uncommon cases, usually involving repetition of the same or similar preposition (or a synonymous adverb), in which stranding of the preposition sounds truly awkward. These will be marked as Usage errors and may even be found to disrupt understanding.

Example:
- *There is a log book that all participants must sign in in.* Usage error.

Rephrasing a sentence to avoid preposition stranding is also acceptable, though usually unnecessary. However, if rephrasing results in ambiguity, sounds awkward, or breaks up a phrasal verb or idiomatic phrase, it will be penalized.

Examples:

- *Where did you fly in from?* Acceptable.
- *In from where did you fly?* Usage error, possibly affecting understanding.
- *Smoking was far from being the worst habit into which I fell.* Usage error possibly affecting understanding.

In the AH Guide, preposition stranding is discussed in the "prepositions" entry under "preposition ending a sentence" and in the "who and whom" entry under "who." See also the "Who and whom" entry in these Standards.

Subjunctive mood

Clauses containing *if* require the past subjunctive if a situation is presented as hypothetical or contrary to fact. This form is identical with the past tense except in the case of the verb *be*, which uses *were* for all persons. Violations are marked as Grammar errors.

Example:
- *If I were rich, I would sail around the world.* Correct.
- *If I was rich, I would sail around the world.* Grammar error.

However, the verb is indicative if the word *if* can be replaced by *whether* or *though* and in other situations where the speaker is expressing uncertainty rather than making a hypothetical statement.

Examples:
- *She asked me if I was there when it happened.* Correct.
- *She asked me if I were there when it happened.* Grammar error.
- *I went running every day, even if it was raining.* Correct.
- *I went running every day, even if it were raining.* Grammar error.
- *If I was rude to you, I apologize.* Correct.
- *If I were rude to you, I apologize.* Grammar error.

The present (or mandative) subjunctive is used for commands, requests, or suggestions, typically with verbs such as *propose*, *recommend*, or *demand* or adjectives such as *imperative*, *important*, or *necessary*. The present subjunctive is identical to the base form of the verb. It differs from the indicative only for the verb *to be* and for the third person singular of all other verbs (*have* instead of *has*, *give* instead of *gives*, etc.).

Use of the indicative where the present subjunctive is required is typically penalized as a Grammar error.

Examples:
- *He recommends that there be no further discussion of the matter.* Correct.
- *He recommends that there is no further discussion of the matter.* Grammar error.
- *It is important that each committee member have a say.* Correct.
- *It is important that each committee member has a say.* Grammar error (or Ambiguity error, if this can be construed as "the fact that each member has a say is important").

Reasonable efforts to avoid this entire issue by recasting as an impersonal construction are acceptable:

Example:
- *It is required that all members be registered.* Correct; corresponds to source text.
- *All members must be registered.* Acceptable alternative.

Note that non-US English sometimes avoids the present subjunctive with a *should* construction. Such usage is acceptable in the examination.

- *He recommends that there should be no further discussion of the matter.* Acceptable.
- *It is important that each committee member should have a say.* Acceptable.

Who and whom

Even though *whom* is increasingly disappearing from conversational English and certain types of informal prose, its correct use as the object of a verb or preposition (where the forms *him* or *them* can be substituted) is required in the sort of formal prose found in the ATA examination. In some situations, as described in the following, the incorrect use of *who* or *whom* will always be marked as a Grammar error. In other situations, the use of *who* for *whom* may be considered a negligible Grammar error (0 points assigned) or else a Register or Style error, depending on the context specified in the Translation Instructions. All rules concerning *who* and *whom* also apply to *whoever* and *whomever*.

Who or *whom* as the object of a preposition

Directly following a preposition and functioning as its object, *whom* must be used and *who* is always a Grammar error. This applies both to interrogative and relative pronouns. However, *who* is correct if it is the subject of the following clause, even if immediately preceded by a preposition.

Examples:
- *To whom were they referring?* Correct.
- *To who were they referring?* Grammar error.
- *The senator to whom that remark referred appeared angry.* Correct.
- *The senator to who that remark referred appeared angry.* Grammar error.
- *We disagree about who would be the best candidate.* Correct; *who* is the subject of the verb "would be."
- *We disagree about whom would be the best candidate.* Grammar error.

In some styles of writing, *who* may be considered less objectionable when it appears as the object of a preposition that does not immediately precede it. If, in the grader's judgment, the use of *who* for *whom* as the object of a verb or a preposition corresponds to a register and style appropriate for the purpose, audience, and medium specified in the Translation Instructions, the grader will mark it as a negligible Grammar error (0 error points assigned).

Examples:
- *The senator to whom that remark was addressed appeared angry.* Correct.
- *The senator whom that remark was addressed to appeared angry.* Correct.
- *The senator who that remark was addressed to appeared angry.* Negligible Grammar error (0 points) or Register / Style error.

- *Whom did he express his anger to?* Correct.
- *Who did he express his anger to?* Negligible Grammar error (0 points) or Register / Style error.

If separating the word *whom* from the preposition of which it is the object is stylistically awkward, the sentence may be recast.

Example:
- *The senator who was the object of that remark appeared angry.* Acceptable recasting.

Who or **whom** in questions without prepositions

When a question is asked about the subject of a verb, only *who* is acceptable; the hypercorrection *whom* is a Grammar error. When the question is asked about the object of an action and no preposition is involved, *whom* is correct and *who* is a Grammar error, although possibly a negligible one.

Examples:
- *Who is John's girlfriend?* Correct.
- *Whom is John's girlfriend?* Grammar error.
- *Whom is John dating?* Correct.
- *Who is John dating?* Grammar error, possibly negligible (0 points).

Who or **whom** in relative clauses (without prepositions)

Who is correct when it functions as the subject of a relative clause. The hypercorrection in which *whom* is used as the subject of a relative clause will always be marked as a Grammar error.

Examples:
- *The senator who is accused of misusing funds denied all charges.* Correct.
- *The senator whom is accused of misusing funds denied all charges.* Grammar error; *who* is correct as the subject of the verb "is accused."
- *The senator whom they say has misused funds denied all charges.* Grammar error; *who* is correct as the subject of the verb "has misused."
- *The senator whom the papers accused of misusing funds denied all charges.* Correct; *whom* is the object of the verb "accused."
- *The senator who the papers accused of misusing funds denied all charges.* Grammar error, possibly negligible.
- *Whoever is nominated by the majority party always wins.* Correct; *whoever* is the object of the verb "is nominated."
- *Whomever is nominated by the majority party always wins.* Grammar error; the relative pronoun is the subject of the verb "is nominated."
- *Whomever the majority party nominates will win.* Correct; *whomever* is the object of the verb "nominates."
- *Whoever the majority party nominates will win.* Grammar error, possibly negligible.

Who and **whom** in restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses

Who or *whom* may be omitted when they introduce restrictive clauses. *Who* and *whom* may not be dropped

when introducing nonrestrictive clauses.

Examples with restrictive clauses:
- *The man whom the police described as the mastermind was arrested.* Correct.
- *The man the police described as the mastermind was arrested*. Correct.
- *The man who the police said masterminded the crime was arrested.* Correct.
- *The man the police said masterminded the crime was arrested*. Correct.

Examples with nonrestrictive clauses:
- *Robert Jones, who the police said masterminded the crime, was arrested*. Correct.
- *Robert Jones, the police said masterminded the crime, was arrested*. Grammar error.

Use of *that* instead of *who* as the subject of a restrictive clause is acceptable, as is the use of *that* for *whom* as the object of a restrictive clause.

Examples:
- *He wanted to be a policeman who protects people rather than one who scares them.* Acceptable.
- *He wanted to be a policeman that protects people rather than one that scares them.* Acceptable.
- *The senator whom the Committee selected had resigned.* Acceptable.
- *The senator that the Committee selected had resigned*. Acceptable.

See also the "Restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses and appositives: Relative pronouns" and "Stranded prepositions" entries in these Standards and the "restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses" and "who" entries in the AH Guide.