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ENGLISH 6

Help Pages

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Parts of Speech
There are eight parts of speech. The parts of speech are **nouns**, **pronouns**, **verbs**, **adverbs**, **conjunctions, adjectives**, **prepositions,** and **interjections**. A word's **part of speech** is based on how it is used in a sentence. For example, a word is a noun if it functions as a subject, an object, or a predicate nominative. Here are some examples of how the word *right* can be different parts of speech.

We respect your **right** to speak.	(noun—direct object)
Is this the **right** way?	(adjective)
These changes will **right** a wrong.	(verb)
My house is **right** next to the school.	(adverb)
Right! I absolutely agree.	(interjection)

Parts of Speech - Nouns

A **common noun** names a person, place, thing, or idea. Nouns may be singular or plural. A **proper noun** names a particular person, place, or thing. A proper noun begins with a capital letter.

Some of the Functions of Nouns

Subject	The subject is whom or what the sentence is about. ***Example***: <u>Tom</u> likes to play piano.
Direct Object	A direct object receives the action of the verb. ***Example***: Tom plays the piano. To find the DO ask: Tom plays what? Tom plays the <u>piano</u>.
Indirect Object	An indirect object occurs only when there is a direct object. ***Example***: Mr. Gore gave the <u>class</u> an assignment. Ask: To whom or for whom is the action of the verb directed?
Object of a Preposition	The object of a preposition comes at the end of a prepositional phrase. ***Example***: Mr. Gore plays in an <u>orchestra</u>.
Predicate Nominative (Predicate Noun)	A predicate nominative renames the subject. ***Example***: Tom and Mr. Gore are <u>musicians</u>.
Possessive	A possessive noun shows ownership and usually modifies another noun. ***Example***: <u>Mr. Gore's</u> class uses <u>Tom's</u> piano.

Parts of Speech - Pronouns

A **pronoun** takes the place of a noun. The noun that the pronoun is referring to is called the **antecedent**. The antecedent is in the same sentence or a recent earlier sentence; occasionally, an antecedent is not specifically named, it is implied, or "understood."

Examples: The <u>puppy</u> is in <u>its</u> pen.
(Puppy is the antecedent, so we know "<u>its</u> pen" means the <u>puppy's</u> pen.)
<u>It</u> has been raining all day.
(There is no clear antecedent, but we know "it" refers to the weather.)

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Types of Pronouns

Case	Personal Pronouns
Subjective	Used as the subject of a sentence or clause
	Singular: I, you, he/she, it
	Plural: we, you, they
Objective	Used as an object; found in the predicate of a sentence
	Singular: me, you, him/her, it
	Plural: us, you, them
Possessive	Used to show ownership; modify nouns
	Singular: my, mine*, your, yours*, his*, her, hers*, its*
	Plural: our, ours*, your, yours*, their, theirs*
	* These can stand alone.

Other Types of Pronouns

Indefinite	Replaces a noun that is not specific
	Singular: another, anybody, anyone, anything, each, either, everybody, everyone, everything, little, much, neither, nobody, no one, nothing, one, other, somebody, someone, something
	Plural: both, few, many, others, several
	Either: all, any, more, most, none, some
Relative	Relates a group of words to the rest of the sentence
	(that, which, who, whose, whom, whoever, whomever, whichever, whatever)
Interrogative	Asks a question
	(what, which, who, whom, whose)
Demonstrative	Points out a noun or acts as an adjective
	(this, that, these, those)
Reflexive	Refers back to the subject
	Singular: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself
	Plural: ourselves, yourselves, themselves
Intensive	Emphasizes a noun
	Singular: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself
	Plural: ourselves, yourselves, themselves

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Notes on Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns ask a question (What? Which? Who?). *Whom* is the objective case of *who*, and *whose* is the possessive of *who*.

Use the pronoun *who* as a subject or predicate nominative just like other nominative case pronouns (he, she, or they).

Example: **Who** is your best friend? (*Who* is the subject of the sentence.)

Use the pronoun *whom* as an object just like other objective case pronouns (him, her, or them).

Example: For **whom** did you bake the cake? (*Whom* is the object of the preposition *for*.)

Use the pronoun *whose* to show possession just like other possessive pronouns (his, her, or their).

Example: Please call the children **whose** parents have arrived.

Demonstratives can act as pronouns or adjectives. As a pronoun, a demonstrative points out a noun. As an adjective, a demonstrative modifies a noun.

Examples: That is my house. (used as a pronoun)
Those flowers are red. (used as an adjective)

A **reflexive pronoun** refers back to the subject. A reflexive pronoun cannot be removed without changing the meaning of the sentence.

Example: Mindy e-mailed herself a copy of the recipe. vs. Mindy e-mailed a copy of the recipe.
A reflexive pronoun always refers to an antecedent, which in this case, is Mindy.

Intensive pronouns are the same as reflexive pronouns but are used differently. An intensive pronoun emphasizes its antecedent, and can be removed from a sentence without changing the meaning.

Example: Doris built the house herself. Doris built the house.

Parts of Speech - Verbs

Action (Transitive)	Send action to a direct object
	Example: A stunt man performs dangerous feats.
	(verb – performs, direct object – feats)
Action (Intransitive)	Have no direct object
	Example: The symphony performs every Sunday.
	(verb – performs, no direct object)
Being	Do not show action; show a state of being
	Examples: is, are, was, were, be, am, being, been
Linking	Links the subject with a noun or adjective
	Examples: appear, become, feel, seem, smell, taste, sounds, and all forms of *be*.
Auxiliary (Helping)	Used with a main verb to form a verb phrase
	Examples: is, are, was, were, be, am, being, been, might, could, should, would, can, do, does, did, may, must, will, shall, have, has, had

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Verb Tense

Verb Tense tells the time when the action or condition of the verb occurs.

Simple Verb Tenses

Present — The action is occuring now or is unchanging.

The house is new. (singular subject)
The boys swim. (plural)

Past — The action was started and completed in the past.

The clock stopped. (singular subject)
The buses ran. (plural)

Future — The action will not start until the future.

The snow will fall. (singular subject)
The lakes will freeze. (plural)

Perfect Verb Tenses

A **perfect verb tense** or **perfect verb form** describes a completed action. All perfect verb forms use past tense verbs.

Present (has / have) — Action is ongoing or indefinite.

Nick has finished two of his assignments.

We have played soccer for five years.

Past (had) — Shows which event in the past happened first.

She had asked for help before she began working.

The children had napped before coming down to dinner.

Future (will have) — Action will occur in the future, before some other action.

I will have completed my chores by bedtime.

They will have learned the routines by next year.

Progressive Verb Tenses

A main verb that ends in –*ing* works with a helping verb to form the progressive tense. The verb phrase shows action that is ongoing in present, past, or future.

Present   We are talking.   **Past**   We were talking.   **Future**   We will be talking.

Irregular Verbs

Irregular Verbs do not follow the patterns of simple or perfect tense. Such verbs must be memorized. Here is a list of some common irregular verbs.

Present	Past	Use with *has, have*, or *had*	Present	Past	Use with *has, have*, or *had*
bear	bore	born	hold	held	held
bite	bit	bitten	lie	lay	lain
bleed	bled	bled	light	lit / lighted	lit / lighted
buy	bought	bought	sing	sang	sung
cling	clung	clung	shine	shone	shone
deal	dealt	dealt	sit	sat	sat
feel	felt	felt	sleep	slept	slept
forgive	forgave	forgiven	spin	spun	spun
grind	ground	ground	string	strung	strung
hear	heard	heard	swim	swam	swum

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Parts of Speech - Adverbs

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs.

Adverbs That Tell *When*

after	earlier	last	now	seldom	then	when
afterwards	early	late	occasionally	since	today	whenever
again	finally	later	often	sometimes	tomorrow	while
always	first	never	once	soon	until	yesterday
before	frequently	next	permanently	still	usually	yet

Adverbs That Tell *How*

angrily	firmly	happily	noisily	quickly	selfishly	unbelievably
calmly	gracefully	kindly	perfectly	quietly	slowly	wildly
eagerly	greedily	loudly	politely	sadly	softly	willingly

Adverbs That Tell *Where*

downstairs	forward	inside	somewhere
far	here	outside	upstairs

Adverbs That Tell *To What Extent*

almost	completely	permanently	really	too
also	extremely	quite	scarcely	vaguely
barely	more	rather	thoroughly	very

Parts of Speech - Conjunctions

Conjunctions connect similar words, clauses, or phrases within a sentence.

Coordinating   Join two equal elements or two complete thoughts
(Use the acronym FANBOYS: *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*.)
Example: We swam in the ocean <u>and</u> roasted hot dogs over the fire.

Correlative   Work in pairs to join words
either/or   neither/nor   both/and   whether/or   as/as   if/then
Example: <u>Neither</u> Jim <u>nor</u> his father cared for mushrooms.

Subordinating   Join a complete thought with an incomplete thought
See chart below.
Example: Finish your homework <u>before</u> you go outside.

Examples of Subordinating Conjunctions				
after	before	if	though	when
although	even if	since	till	whenever
as	even though	than	unless	wherever
because	how	that	until	while

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Parts of Speech – Adjectives

Adjectives modify nouns or pronouns. Adjectives tell *how many*, *what color*, *how big*, *how small*, *what kind*, and so on. **Example**: He was a <u>tall</u> man.

A proper adjective begins with a capital letter. **Example**: <u>Alaskan</u> Husky.

An article is a special type of adjective (a, an, the). **Example**: Throw Jack <u>the</u> ball.

Parts of Speech – Prepositions

Prepositions relate nouns or pronouns to other words in the sentence. A **prepositional phrase** begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or a pronoun.

Some Common Prepositions

about	around	by	into	out	under
above	before	down	near	outside	underneath
across	behind	during	nearby	over	until
after	below	except	next to	past	up
against	beneath	for	of	through	upon
along	beside	from	off	throughout	with

Parts of Speech – Interjections

An interjection is a word or a phrase that shows emotion (surprise, relief, fear, or anger).
Examples: Ouch! Good grief! Wow!

Sentences

Features of a sentence
1. Begins with a capital letter
2. Ends with punctuation/end mark
3. Conveys a complete thought

Fragments
A fragment is not a sentence because it does not express a complete thought. A fragment is missing either a subject or a verb.

Examples: The book that I read. (missing a verb)   Running down the street. (missing a subject)

Run-on Sentences
A run-on is two or more complete thoughts that run together without proper punctuation or conjunctions.

Examples:

Incorrect: Lori wants to be a biologist because she likes nature but she does not enjoy being outside if it is cold because she is more of a warm weather person and some biologists must do research outside so maybe Lori should study something else instead.

Correct: Lori wants to be a biologist because she likes nature. However, Lori does not enjoy being outside if it is cold. She is more of a warm weather person and some biologists must do research outside. Maybe Lori should study something else instead.

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Parts of a Sentence

Subject The **simple subject** has no modifiers. Every sentence has a simple subject.

      The **complete subject** includes the simple subject plus all of the modifiers that go with it.

      Example: <u>A few ravenous **teenagers**</u> devoured the pizza. *Teenagers* is the simple subject. *A few ravenous teenagers* is the complete subject.

Predicate The **simple predicate** is the verb.

      The **complete predicate** is the verb as well as all the words that modify the verb.

      Example: The tired children **<u>climbed</u>** <u>slowly upstairs</u>. *Climbed* is the simple predicate, or verb. *Climbed slowly upstairs* is the complete predicate.

The Four Sentence Types

Type	Other Name	Punctation	Example:
declarative	statement	period	This is a sentence.
interrogative	question	question mark	Is this correct?
imperative	command/request	period	Please open the door.
exclamatory	exclamation	exclamation point	This is awesome!

Sentence Structure

Simple **Parts**: one complete thought; subject and predicate only
    Example: We will hold a rally at the local park.

Compound **Parts**: two or more complete thoughts
    Joined by: coordinating conjunction
    Example: There will be speeches in the morning, <u>and</u> we will play games in the afternoon.

Complex **Parts**: join a complete thought with one or more incomplete thoughts
    Joined by: subordinating conjunction
    Example: The rally will last until dusk <u>unless</u> the weather is severe.

Restrictive and Nonrestrictive phrases

If a word or phrase is **nonrestrictive**, it can be removed without changing the meaning of the sentence. ***Example***: Chocolate, *of course*, is the best ice cream flavor.

If a phrase is **restrictive**, you cannot remove it without changing the meaning of the sentence.
    Example: The shop *around the corner* sells single slices of pizza.

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Punctuation	
Dash (−)	Use a dash to set off extra information that comes in the middle or at the end of a sentence. This information is not essential to the meaning of the sentence. A dash can be used in the same way as a colon. Dashes are used for special effect and should not be used very often. ***Example***: Dan Kick – a college all-star – is our new coach.
Semicolon (;)	Use a semicolon to separate items in a series if there are already commas in the items. ***Example***: Lorain, Ohio; New Castle, Pennsylvania; and Chicago, Illinois
Comma (,)	Use commas to separate words or phrases in a series. ***Example***: Sun brought a coloring book, some crayons, a pair of scissors, and a ruler.
	Use a comma to separate two independent clauses joined by a conjunction. ***Example***: Dad works in the city, and he is a commuter.
	Use a comma after an introductory word, such as an interjection. ***Example***: Hey, who wants to play tennis? Do not use a comma if there is an end mark after the interjection. ***Example***: Oh no! It's starting to rain.
	Use a comma to separate two words or two numbers when writing a date. ***Example***: Friday, April 8, 2011
	Use a comma between the city and state in an address. ***Examples***: Boston, MA Seattle, WA Honolulu, HI
	Use a comma before or after a quote if there is no end mark. ***Example***: "You know," said Marta, "Robert is an excellent violinist."
	Insert a comma after introductory words or phrases in a sentence. ***Example***: On the other hand, you may not need any help.
	Use commas before and after "interrupting phrases" within a sentence. ***Example***: Ms. Cole, *the bank teller*, was very helpful.
	Use commas before and/or after contrasting phrases that use *not*. ***Example***: I worked on my science project, *not my essay*, all evening.
	Use a comma to separate the words *yes* and *no* from the rest of a sentence. ***Examples***: Yes, I will join you. No, thank you.
	Use a comma to separate a "tag question" from the rest of a sentence. ***Examples***: You saw that, didn't you? George will lead the choir, won't he?
	Use a comma to show direct address. ***Examples***: Please sit down, Mrs. Schumacher. Come here, Peggy, I want you to meet Mrs. Schumacher.
Apostrophe (')	Use an apostrophe to form contractions or to form a possessive noun. ***Examples***: I don't want to go. That was Sherry's little sister.

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Punctuation (continued) - Other Types of Punctuation

Punctuating nonrestrictive elements: Use commas, parentheses, or dashes to separate nonrestrictive elements.

commas: Jerry, *as you may know*, is Coretta's brother. I will, *therefore*, call Jerry to get Coretta's address. *On the other hand*, I can look up the information myself.

parentheses: Poppy's Pizza Shop (in Wexford Plaza) won the award for best veggie pizza. All of my sisters (including Vera) will be bridesmaids.

dashes: *The Sound of Music*–one of my favorite films–featured the music of Rogers and Hammerstein. It starred two excellent actors–Julie Andrews and Christopher Plummer.

Punctuating Titles

Show the title of a book, movie, play, television show, or website by using italics or underlining it.

Examples:
Sarah, Plain and Tall	or	Sarah, Plain and Tall
Peter and the Wolf	or	Peter and the Wolf
Sesame Street	or	Sesame Street

Put quotation marks around the title of a short work, such as a poem, song, short story, or book chapter.

Examples: "Dreams" is a poem by Langston Hughes.

We sang "Jingle Bells" and many other winter songs.

"The Monkey's Paw" is a scary short story by W.W. Jacobs.

In My Side of the Mountain, by Jean Craighead George, one of the chapters is called "The Old, Old Tree."

Proofreader's Symbols

Description	Symbol	Example
Make capital	≡	the car raced down the street.
Add something	⋀	The car raced down ⋀street. *the*
Make lower case	/	The Car raced down the street.
Take something out	℘	The car raced down the the street.
Check spelling	*sp*	The *sp* cor raced down the street.
Indent	¶	¶The car raced down the street.
Add end punctuation	⊙ ! ?	The car raced down the street⊙

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Greek and Latin Roots and Their Meanings

Root	Meaning	Root	Meaning	Root	Meaning	Root	Meaning
able	able to	*co, com*	with	*im, in*	not	*pan*	all
amphi	both	*con*	with	*inter*	between	*phon*	sound
ante	before	*de*	take away	*less*	without	*photo*	light
anthropo	human	*di*	two	*mal*	bad	*port*	carry
anti	against	*dia*	across	*micro*	tiny	*post*	after
astro	star	*dict*	speak	*mis*	bad	*pre*	before
auto	self	*dis*	not	*mono*	one	*re*	again
bi	two	*ful*	full of	*morph*	form	*scrib*	write
biblio	book	*geo*	earth	*neo*	new	*script*	write
bio	life	*graph, gram*	written	*non*	not	*thermo*	heat
centri	center	*hemi*	half	*ology*	study of	*trans*	across
chrono	time	*hydro*	water	*ped*	foot	*tri*	three
circum	around	*ible*	able	*phobe*	fear	*un*	not

Figurative Language

A **simile** is a way to describe something by using a comparison. A simile compares two things using the words *like* or *as*.

Example: The baby is *as playful as a kitten*. (A baby is compared to a kitten.)

A **metaphor** compares two things but does not use *like* or *as*. It uses a form of the verb *be*.

Example: Joey is *a magnet for bad luck*. (He attracts bad luck.)

The **denotation** of a word is its most specific and exact meaning, the dictionary definition. The **connotation** of word is a symbolic or figurative meaning.

Example: Mrs. Beardsley has a big heart. (The word heart <u>connotes</u> kindness.)

Eﾠﾠﾠﾠﾠﾠ The patient has an enlarged heart. (The word heart <u>denotes</u> an internal organ.)

Personification is a literary device in which an author gives human features to something non-human.

Example: A battalion of sunflowers stood at attention, facing the commanding officer. (On a farm, sunflowers grow in rows; they are rigid, like soldiers in formation, and the flower always turns toward the sun.)

An **idiom** is a saying with a figurative–not literal–meaning; the saying usually only has meaning within a specific culture.

Examples: We bought a used car, and it's <u>a real lemon</u>!
(refers to a car that has many problems or doesn't run)

At first I was angry, but I <u>got over it</u>.
(refers to letting go of something that was upsetting)

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Spelling Rules

Adding Prefixes

When adding a prefix, or joining two words do not change the spelling of the base word.

Adding Suffixes that Begin with a Consonant

When adding a suffix that begins with a consonant, do not change the spelling of the base word.

Examples: joy + ful → joyful   wool + ly → woolly   agree + ment → agreement
                  pain + ful → painful   sincere + ly → sincerely   govern + ment → government

Common Exceptions: argue + ment → argument   true + ly → truly   nine + th → ninth
                           judge + ment → judgment   due + ly → duly   awe + ful → awful

Adding Suffixes that Begin with a Vowel

When a word ends in a **vowel + y**, add a suffix without changing the spelling of the base word.

        Examples: employ + er → employer   play + ing → playing   gray + est → grayest
                   enjoy + ment → enjoyment

When a word ends in **silent e**, usually drop the *e* to add a suffix that begins with a vowel.

        Example: love + able → lovable   (suffix begins with a vowel)

When a word ends in a **consonant + y** pattern, usually change the *y* to *i* when adding a suffix.

        Example: try + ed → tried   (ends in consonant + *y*; change the *y* to *i*)

Do not change the *y* to *i* if the word ends in a vowel + *y* pattern or if the suffix is *ing*.

        Examples: destroy + ed → destroyed   (vowel + *y*)
                   hurry + ing → hurrying   (suffix is *ing*)

When a one-syllable word ends in the **cvc pattern (consonant - vowel - consonant)**, usually double the final consonant to add a suffix that begins with a vowel.

        Examples: ship + ing → shipping   (suffix begins with a vowel)
                   ship + ment → shipment   (suffix begins with a consonant)
                   nut + y → nutty   (suffix is *y*)

When a one-syllable word ends in the **cvc pattern**, and the final consonant is **s**, **x** or **w**, do not double the final consonant.

        Examples: mix + ing → mixing
                   box + ed → boxed
                   slow + er → slower

When a multi-syllable word ends in the **cvc pattern**, and the **accent is on the last syllable**, usually double the final consonant to add a suffix that begins with a vowel.

        Example: commit + ing → committing   (suffix begins with a vowel)

Common Exception: prefer + able → preferable

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Spelling Rules (continued)
Making Plurals
When a word **ends in s, x, z, ch, or sh** add -*es* to make the plural   ***Examples***:   tax → taxes   wish → wishes

Many words that **end in f or fe,** change the *f* or *fe* to -*ves*.
 	
      Examples: life → lives   thief → thieves
Other words that **end in f or ff** do not follow the rule for making plurals.
 	
      Examples: cliff → cliffs   belief → beliefs

For words that **end in a consonant + o**, add an *s* to make the plural.
 	
      Example: piano → pianos
Other words that end in a consonant + *o*, add an *es* to make the plural.
 	
      Example: tomato → tomatoes

Irregular plural nouns have a completely different spelling in the plural form.   ***Examples***:   ox → oxen   goose → geese   louse → lice
Place *i* before *e*, except after *c*, or when sounded like /ā/ as in neighbor and weigh.   ***Examples***:   mischief   receive   eight
There are many exceptions to spelling rules. If you are not sure of the spelling of a word, use a dictionary to check.
Analogies

An **analogy** is a way of comparing.
Example: mayor : city :: governor : state.   This is read: mayor is to city as governor is to state.

To solve an analogy, figure out the <u>relationship</u> between the two words.

       The *mayor* is the <u>leader</u> of the *city*. The *governor* is the <u>leader</u> of a *state*.

Example: lamb : sheep :: calf : _____   horse   piglet   cow   kitten

What is the <u>relationship</u>? A *lamb* is a <u>baby</u> *sheep*. The missing word must be *cow* because a *calf* is a <u>baby</u> cow.

In an **analogy**, the words may be compared in many ways.

Relationship	Example
synonyms	happy : joyful :: tall : high *Happy* and *joyful* are <u>synonyms</u>. *Tall* and *high* are <u>synonyms</u> too.
antonyms	thin : thick :: rich : poor *Thin* is the <u>opposite</u> of *thick*. *Rich* is the <u>opposite</u> of *poor*.
descriptions	bright : sunshine :: prickly : porcupine *Sunshine* is *bright*. A *porcupine* is *prickly*.
parts	wheels : bicycle :: legs : table A *bicycle* has *wheels*. A *table* has *legs*.
categories or subgroups	rabbit : mammal :: orange : fruit A *rabbit* is a type of *mammal*. An *orange* is a type of *fruit*.

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