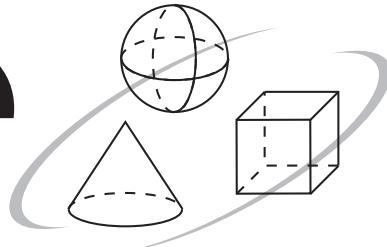# Simple Solutions.

Minutes a Day—Mastery for a Lifetime!

ENGLISH 8

Help Pages

Some material addressed in standards covered at earlier grade levels may not be available in these *Help Pages*, but you can access all grade levels of *Simple Solutions English Help Pages* at SimpleSolutions.org.

Help Pages

Parts of Speech – Nouns

A **noun** names a person, place, thing, or idea. Nouns may be common or proper, singular or plural, abstract or concrete.

A **proper noun** names a particular person, place, thing, or idea and begins with a capital letter.

A **collective noun** names a group or a collection; it is singular and is treated as a single unit. Collective nouns used as subjects take *singular verbs*.
>   *Examples*: the <u>family</u> *is*, the <u>orchestra</u> *plays*, a <u>committee</u> *studies*, the <u>flock</u> *migrates*

<div align="center">Some of the Functions of Nouns</div>

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 <u>piano</u>. To find the DO ask: Tom plays what? Tom plays the <u>piano</u>.
Indirect Object	An indirect object can exist only when there is a direct object. *Example*: Mr. Gore gave the <u>class</u> an assignment. Ask: *To whom* the action of the verb is 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. *Examples*: Tom and Mr. Gore are <u>musicians</u>. The winners are <u>she and Mia</u>.
Possessive	Possessive nouns show ownership and modify another noun. Most possessive nouns are formed by adding an apostrophe and *s*. *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 refers 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 "<u>its</u> pen" means the <u>puppy's</u> pen.)
>   <u>It</u> has been raining all day. ("It" refers to the weather.)

Personal Pronouns

Nominative (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 Independent possessives stand alone. *Singular*: mine, yours, his, hers, its *Plural*: *ours, yours, theirs* Adjective pronouns modify nouns. *Singular*: my, your, his, her, its *Plural*: our, your, their

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Parts of Speech – Pronouns (continued)

Relative Pronouns

A relative pronoun begins an adjective clause that modifies its antecedent.

Nominative (Subjective)	who, which, that *Example:* **The poet who wrote the book will speak today.**
Objective	whom, which, that *Example:* Her **father** is the person whom we met.
Possessive	whose, which, that *Example:* The **man** whose dog I found was very grateful.

Other Types of Pronouns

Demonstrative	Demonstratives can act as pronouns or adjectives. As a pronoun, a demonstrative points out a noun. *Singular*: this, that **Example**: This is my last chance. *Plural*: these, those **Example**: Those are selling out quickly. As an adjective, a demonstrative modifies a noun. **Examples**: Those flowers are red. (used as an adjective to modify the noun *flowers*)

Indefinite	Takes the place of a noun; indefinite pronouns are not specific.
	
	Singular: another, anybody, anyone, anything, each, either, everybody, everyone, everything, little, much, neither, nobody, no one, nothing, one, other, somebody, someone, something
	  Example: Everybody *wants* an ice cream cone.
	
	Plural: both, few, many, others, several
	  Example: Few *pick* strawberry ice cream.
	
	Either: all, any, more, most, none, some
	  Example: Most of the chocolate *is* gone.
	    Most of the boys *are eating* two scoops.

Interrogative	Interrogative pronouns – what, which, who, whom, whose – ask a question.
	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).
	Examples: For **whom** did you bake the cake? (*Whom* is the object of the preposition *for*.)
	    Who is your best friend? (*Who* is the subject of the sentence.)
	    Please call the children **whose** parents have arrived.

Reflexive	Refers back to the subject and cannot be removed without changing the meaning of the sentence. *Singular*: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself *Plural*: ourselves, yourselves, themselves **Example**: I gave myself a well-deserved break.

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Other Types of Pronouns (continued)

Intensive	An **intensive pronoun** emphasizes its antecedent, but it can be removed from a sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence. *Singular*: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself *Plural*: ourselves, yourselves, themselves ***Example***: Chad and Jeremy wrote the lyrics <u>themselves</u>. (The pronoun *themselves* can be removed from the sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence.)

Parts of Speech – Verbs

Verbs convey action or a state of being. A verb is the main word in the predicate of a sentence.

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

Person

Person refers to point of view: *first*, *second*, or *third* person.

First Person	refers to the speaker or writer. Use the pronouns *I*, *me*, *my*, *mine*, *myself*, *we*, *us*, *our*, *ours*, and *ourselves* when writing or speaking in first person. ***Example***: *I* took *my* dog to the animal hospital.
Second Person	refers to the reader or listener, the one being spoken to. Use the pronouns *you*, *your*, *yours*, and *yourself* when speaking or writing in the second person. ***Example***: *You* have an appointment with *your* tutor.
Third Person	refers to the person or thing being described or spoken about. For third person, use the pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*, *him*, *her*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *his*, *her*, *hers*, *its*, *their*, *theirs*, *they*, *them*, and *themselves*. Third person is the most appropriate point of view for term papers, reports, articles, and essays. ***Example***: *She* gave *him* the money and *he* bought the ticket *himself*.

Notice that the idea of "person" is very important for subject-verb agreement and pronoun agreement. The "person" should not change within the same piece of writing.

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Verb Tense

Tense reflects the time when the action or condition of the verb occurs. The basic tenses are *past*, *present*, and *future*.

A **perfect verb** tense describes a completed action. All perfect verb forms use the past participle and a helping verb (have, has, had, will have). The tenses are *present perfect*, *past perfect*, and *future perfect*.

The **progressive** verb tense describes an ongoing action. Verbs in the progressive use a form of the verb *be* with the present participle (an *-ing* verb). The progressive forms are *present progressive*, *past progressive,* and *future progressive*.

The **perfect progressive** verb tense is a combination of the perfect and progressive verb tenses. It uses the past tense forms of the verb *be*; (*has been*, *have been*, *had been*, *will have been*) with the present participle (an *-ing* verb).

The **verb conjugation chart** shows an irregular verb in these various tenses.

Mood

Verbs have mood. The ***indicative*** mood is straightforward and most common. It expresses a fact or an opinion (as in a declarative sentence).
> *Examples*: Next month is my birthday. I will have a fabulous party.

The ***imperative*** mood states a command or request (as in an imperative sentence).
> *Example*: Wear comfortable clothing.

The ***interrogative*** mood asks a question (as in an interrogative sentence).
> *Example*: Have you ever played laser tag?

A ***conditional*** verb expresses something that might, could, or would actually happen if / when something else is true. Conditional sentences have two clauses and often use the word *if* with auxiliary verbs such as *could*, *would*, *might*, *can*, or *may*.
> *Examples*: *If* we make a reservation, we *could* play laser tag at my party.
>
> *If* the shop delivers, we *might* order pizza.
>
> My cousin *will* come to the party *if* she doesn't have soccer practice.

The ***subjunctive*** mood has two uses:

Subjunctive Mood	
Present Tense	Past Tense
I be You be He / She / It be We be They be	I were You were He / She / It were We were They were

1) expresses a wish, desire, or statement contrary to what is true; sentences often include words such as *could*, *would*, or *might*.

2) expresses a demand or suggestion; sentences include a main verb such as *ask*, *command*, *demand*, *insist*, *recommend*, *request*, or *suggest*.

Subjunctive mood uses *be* in present tense and *were* in past tense whether the subject is singular or plural. ***Example***: If <u>Hank</u> <u>*were*</u> president, he would make the speech.

The subjunctive verb does not add *s* even when the subject of the verb is singular, whether written or implied. ***Example***: The judge demands *that* <u>he</u> <u>appear</u> in court.

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Voice

Verbs have two voices: *active* and *passive*. In the *active voice*, the subject performs the action. When the verb is active, it usually comes *after* the subject, and the subject is the *doer* of the action. Writing is often clearer in the *active* voice.

Example: The <u>students</u> <u>painted</u> the <u>mural</u>.
                        subject   verb   direct object

In the *passive voice*, the subject is acted upon; the subject is the *receiver* of the action. A sentence in the passive voice may contain the word *by* which signals the doer of the action.

Example: The <u>mural</u> <u>was painted</u> *by* the <u>students</u>.
                     subject   verb phrase   doer of the action

In *passive voice*, the doer of the action is not always named.

Example: The <u>mural</u> <u>was finished</u> quickly.
                     subject   verb phrase

Voice should remain the same within a sentence.

Incorrect: The Grand Canyon <u>*was hiked*</u> by Jamie, and she <u>*climbed*</u> the rock cliffs.
                                      passive   active

Correct: Jamie <u>*hiked*</u> the Grand Canyon, and she <u>*climbed*</u> the rock cliffs.
                     active   active

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	Present Participle	Past	Past Participle	Present	Present Participle	Past	Past Participle
arise	arising	arose	arisen	forget	forgetting	forgot	forgotten
bear	bearing	bore	born	hit	hitting	hit	hit
beat	beating	beat	beaten	hold	holding	held	held
bend	bending	bent	bent	hurt	hurting	hurt	hurt
bet	betting	bet	bet	know	knowing	knew	known
bind	binding	bound	bound	learn	learning	learned	learned
bleed	bleed	bled	bled	lend	lending	lent	lent
burst	bursting	burst	burst	lay	laying	laid	laid
buy	buying	bought	bought	lie	lying	lay	lain
cut	cutting	cut	cut	lose	losing	lost	lost
do	doing	did	done	put	putting	put	put
fit	fitting	fit	fit	see	seeing	saw	seen
fling	flinging	flung	flung	send	sending	sent	sent

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Irregular Verbs (continued)

Present	Present Participle	Past	Past Participle	Present	Present Participle	Past	Past Participle
show	showing	showed	showed/ shown	spring	springing	sprang/ sprung	sprung
shut	shutting	shut	shut	swim	swimming	swam	swum
shrink	shrinking	shrank	shrunk	tell	telling	told	told
sink	sinking	sank	sunk	withhold	withholding	withheld	withheld

Verb Conjugation

Below is a conjugation of the underlined irregular verb *forget*.

Verb Form	Singular	Plural
Past Perfect	I had forgotten. You had forgotten. He / She / It had forgotten.	We had forgotten. You had forgotten. They had forgotten.
Present Perfect	I have forgotten. You have forgotten. He / She / It has forgotten.	We have forgotten. You have forgotten. They have forgotten.
Future Perfect	I will have forgotten. You will have forgotten. He / She / It will have forgotten.	We will have forgotten. You will have forgotten. They will have forgotten.
Past Progressive	I was forgetting. You were forgetting. He / She / It was forgetting.	We were forgetting. You were forgetting. They were forgetting.
Present Progressive	I am forgetting. You are forgetting. He / She / It is forgetting.	We are forgetting. You are forgetting. They are forgetting.
Future Progressive	I will be forgetting. You will be forgetting. He / She / It will be forgetting.	We will be forgetting. You will be forgetting. They will be forgetting.
Past Perfect Progressive	I had been forgetting. You had been forgetting. He / She / It had been forgetting.	We had been forgetting. You had been forgetting. They had been forgetting.
Present Perfect Progressive	I have been forgetting. You have been forgetting. He / She / It has been forgetting.	We have been forgetting. You have been forgetting. They have been forgetting.
Future Perfect Progressive	I will have been forgetting. You will have been forgetting. He / She / It will have been forgetting.	We will have been forgetting. You will have been forgetting. They will have been forgetting.

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Parts of Speech – Adverbs

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. Adverbs tell *how*, *when*, *where*, and *to what extent*.

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

Adverbs That Tell *How*

angrily	firmly	happily	noisily	quickly	selfishly	unbelievably
calmly	gracefully	kindly	perfectly	quietly	slowly	wildly

Adverbs That Tell *Where*

downstairs	far	forward	here	inside	somewhere	there

Adverbs That Tell *To What Extent*

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

Parts of Speech – Conjunctions

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

Coordinating   join two equal elements (two verbs, two nouns, two phrases …)
Use the acronym FANBOYS –for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so –to remember them.
Example: It was ninety degrees, <u>so</u> we spent the day at the beach.

Correlative   work in pairs: either/or, neither/nor, both/and, whether/or, as/as, if/then
Example: <u>Neither</u> Jim <u>nor</u> his father cared for broccoli.

Subordinating   join a subordinate clause with a main clause in a complex sentence
Example: Finish your homework <u>before</u> you go outside.

Examples of Subordinating Conjunctions

after	as much as	even if	in order that	so that	when
although	as soon as	even though	now that	then, that	whenever
as	as though	how	once	though	where
as if	because	if	provided	unless	wherever
as long as	before	inasmuch as	since	until	while

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 wearing a <u>small</u> <u>green</u> hat.

A **proper adjective** begins with a capital letter.   *Example*:   <u>French</u> bread, <u>Siberian</u> tiger

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

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Parts of Speech – Adjectives (continued)

Coordinate adjectives are next to each other and modify the same noun. The order of coordinate adjectives does not matter. Use a comma between coordinate adjectives.

    Example: sharp, prickly branches can be prickly, sharp branches

Adjectives are not coordinate if one of the adjectives is linked to the noun, and the other describes both. Adjectives that are not coordinate are not separated by commas.

    Example: six wild geese (*six* modifies *wild geese*), the shiny silver box (shiny modifies *silver box*)

Parts of Speech – Verbals

A **verbal** is a verb that functions as a noun, adjective, or adverb.

	How it is Formed	Part of Speech	Function within a Sentence	Examples
participle	present participle (*-ing* verb)	adjective	modifies a noun or pronoun	A **barking** *dog* alerted
	past participle			the **experienced** *guard*.
gerund	present participle (*-ing* verb)	noun	subject direct object object of a preposition predicate noun	**Golfing** is my aunt's favorite sport. Dad enjoys **grilling**. I had some success with **drawing**. My hobby is **cooking**.
infinitive	*to* + base verb	noun	subject direct object object of a preposition predicate noun	**To succeed** takes hard work. Ariana likes **to garden**. There is nothing else except **to vote**. Jayden's wish is **to travel**.
		adjective	modifies a noun modifies a pronoun	Please find *something* **to read**. There was *nobody* **to ask**.
		adverb	modifies a verb modifies an adjective modifies an adverb	**To order**, *call* the department store. It would be *wise* **to wait**. They waited *patiently* **to hear**.

Parts of Speech – Prepositions

Prepositions relate nouns or pronouns to other words in the sentence.

Example: *against* the <u>fence</u>

          preposition ↑   ↑ object of the preposition

A **prepositional phrase** begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or a pronoun (the object of the preposition).

Some Common Prepositions

about	around	by way of	in	next to	throughout
above	before	down	in front of	of	under
according to	behind	during	instead of	outside	underneath
across	beneath	except	into	past	until
across from	beside	for	near	since	up

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Parts of Speech – Interjections

Interjections are words or phrases that express a strong feeling (surprise, relief, fear, or anger). Interjections are followed by a comma or an exclamation point.

    Examples: Ouch! I stubbed my toe.   Wait, it is not your turn.

Sentences

Sentence	Expresses a complete thought; every sentence has a subject and a predicate
Phrase	A group of words that does not contain a subject/verb pair
Clause	A group of words that has both a subject and a verb and can be dependent or independent (Every sentence has at least one independent clause.)

Fragments: A fragment does not express a complete thought. It is missing either a subject or a verb.

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

Sentence Type and Structure

The four sentence types are **declarative**, **exclamatory**, **interrogative**, and **imperative**.

Simple	Parts:	subject and predicate only
	Example:	<u>We will hold a rally at the local park</u>.
Compound	Parts:	two or more complete thoughts
	Joined by:	coordinating conjunction
	Example:	<u>There will be speeches in the morning</u>, *and* <u>we will play games in the afternoon</u>.
Complex	Parts:	a complete thought with one or more incomplete thoughts
	Joined by:	subordinating conjunction
	Example:	<u>The rally will last until dusk</u> *unless* the weather is severe.
Compound - Complex	Parts:	more than one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses
	Joined by:	coordinating and subordinating conjunctions
	Example:	*If* it starts to rain, <u>we can move inside</u>, *and* <u>we will end the rally</u>.

Restrictive and Nonrestrictive phrases

If a 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.

Run-on Sentences

A run-on sentence has two or more independent clauses that are not properly joined.
    Example: Today we had planned to go on a picnic it rained all afternoon!

Ways to correct a run-on sentence:

Separate two independent clauses into two sentences.
    Example: Today we had planned to go on a picnic. It rained all afternoon!

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Run-on Sentences (continued)

Insert a semicolon between the two independent clauses.

   Example: Today we had planned to go on a picnic; it rained all afternoon!

Insert a semicolon between the two independent clauses and add a transitional word (therefore, moreover, for example, etc.) and a comma.

   Example: Today we had planned to go on a picnic; *however*, it rained all afternoon!

Insert a comma and a coordinating conjunction between the two independent clauses.

   Example: Today we had planned to go on a picnic, *but* it rained all afternoon!

Rewrite the sentence using a subordinating conjunction.

   Example: *Although* we had planned to go on a picnic today, it rained all afternoon!

Punctuation

Apostrophe (')

Use an apostrophe to form a contraction or to form a possessive noun.

Examples: I don't want to go.   That was Sherry's little sister.

Comma (,)

Use commas to separate items in a series, repeated adjectives, and coordinate adjectives.

    Items in a series:
       Example: The shop sells books, newspapers, magazines, and posters.

    Repeated adjectives:
       Example: We need a big, big tent for that many people.

    Coordinate adjectives:
       Example : Pixie is a loving, loyal friend.

Use a comma before the coordinating conjunction in a compound sentence.

    Example: I rang the bell, but no one answered.

Use a comma to set off an introductory element such as a phrase or clause.

    <u>Lengthy</u> **prepositional phrase at the beginning of a sentence**
     Example: *Before the invention of the printing press*, monks copied manuscripts by hand.

    A shorter prepositional phrase to prevent confusion
     Example: *After eating*, the host quickly began to set up chairs for his guests.

Use a comma with introductory participial phrases

    Example: *Drenched by the downpour*, Roxie did not look her best.

    (*Note*: In the case of an inverted sentence do <u>not</u> use a comma.
    Example: Standing in the doorway was another girl who had been caught in the rain.)

Use a comma with a subordinate clause followed by a main clause.

    Example: *When we were younger*, we took naps in the afternoon.

Help Pages

Punctuation (continued)

Comma   (,)

Use commas to set off nouns of direct address, interjections, tag questions, interrupting phrases, and conjunctive adverbs.

> *Examples*: *Gina*, please collect the tablets.   The film was great, *wasn't it?*

> **Interrupting phrases**: in the first place, generally speaking, to say the least, of course, I think

> *Examples*:   *On the other hand*, you could have spent less.
> An architect is able to provide a cost estimate, *I think*.

> **Conjunctive adverbs:**   also, besides, however, furthermore, moreover, therefore, next, etc.

> *Example*:   The refreshments, *however*, cost nothing.

Use commas to set off nonrestrictive clauses or phrases and parenthetical elements.

> **Nonrestrictive appositives:**

> *Example*:   Ohio, *the Buckeye State*, was the birthplace of James Garfield.

> **Contrasting phrases:**

> *Example*:   The mother, *not the father*, picked up the child.

> **Nonrestrictive clauses:**

> *Example*:   The new principal, *who is Venezuelan*, is fluent in three languages.

Use a comma between a person's name and title.

> *Example*:   Dr. Ellen Wallace, PhD, teaches at the regional high school.

Ellipsis   (…)

An **ellipsis** is three spaced periods. It lets the reader know that something has been left out (words, phrases, sentences, or numbers). An ellipsis may come at the beginning, middle, or end of a sentence and is often used in a quotation. When an ellipsis is at the end of a sentence, there is a space between the end punctuation and the ellipsis.

> *Quotation*: "Now we are engaged in a great civil war…It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this. …"   ~Abraham Lincoln, 1863

> *Number Set*: See numbers 24, 26, 28,…, 100.

Colons (:)

A **colon** may be used before a list of items but only after an independent clause.

> *Incorrect:* I have traveled to: Russia, Italy, France, and Spain.
> *Correct:*   I have visited many countries: Russia, Italy, France, and Spain.

A colon may be used before a long quote or if there is no other introduction, such as "he said" or "she replied."

> *Example*:   Martha looked up at George: "Where have you been all day?"

A colon may be used after the greeting in a formal or business letter.

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Punctuation (continued)

Dashes (—)

Use dashes to indicate a pause or break in a sentence. A dash is longer than a hyphen and is used to show emphasis. Dashes should be used for a special effect and should not be overused.

Dashes can set off non-restrictive elements, for example, appositives, contrasting phrases, or parenthetical statements.

    Examples: The dash is effective—when it is used properly—at emphasizing a clause.

Use dashes instead of commas when too many commas make a sentence unclear.

    Example: There are companies–A to Z Movers in Elmo, Utah or Atlas Company in Saco, Maine, for example–that do a great job.

Parentheses ( )

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

    Examples: Poppy's Pizza Shop (my favorite pizzeria) won the award for best veggie pizza.
               All of my sisters (including Vera) will be bridesmaids.

Hyphens (-)

A hyphen is sometimes used to join a prefix with a base word to help make the word more clear.

    Examples: re-evaluate, non-military, ex-girlfriend

Hyphens are used in some compound words.

    Examples: part-time, president-elect, father-in-law

A hyphen (-) is used between the tens and the ones place, when writing out the numbers twenty-one through ninety-nine, or when writing fractions.

    Examples: seventy-six, forty-eight, four-fifths, one-third, three-eighths

Semicolons (;)

A semicolon (;) may be used to separate two independent clauses with no conjunction. The semicolon takes the place of the comma and the conjunction.

    Incorrect: You can come in now; but please sit quietly.

    Correct: You can come in now; please sit quietly.

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

Punctuating Titles

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

    Examples: *My Life in Dog Years*   **or**   My Life in Dog Years
               Sciencenewsforkids.org   **or**   Sciencenewsforkids.org
               Despicable Me   **or**   Despicable Me

Put quotation marks around the title of a short work, such as a poem, song, short story, or chapter.
Example: "Dreams" is a poem by Langston Hughes.

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Figurative Language, Word Relationships, etc.

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, or the dictionary definition. The **connotation** of word is a symbolic or figurative meaning.

> *Examples*: The patient has an enlarged *heart*. (The word *heart* <u>denotes</u> an internal organ.)
> John has a big *heart*. (The word *heart* <u>connotes</u> kindness.)

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. (Sunflowers stand tall in rows similar to soldiers in formation, and the flower always turns toward the sun.)

Hyperbole (*hī pér bə lē*) A type of figurative language that exaggerates to make a point.

> *Example*: I've walked this path a <u>million</u> times.

Alliteration is a type of figurative language that repeats beginning consonant sounds.

> *Examples*: windy wintry weather   mired in mud

Onomatopoeia is the use of words that sound like what they mean.

> *Examples*: *bawl* of a baby   *croak* of a frog   *screech* of the tires   *gurgling* brook

Verbal Irony

Irony is saying or writing the opposite of what is meant–usually for humor or emphasis.

Sarcasm: irony intended to offend, show irritation, or be funny; may be sharp or cutting

> *Example*: As Laney stumbles, John jokes, "Nice trip. See you next fall!"

Understatement: intentionally describes a situation as less important that it really is

> *Example*: When asked how he was feeling, Chet replied from his hospital bed, "I've been better."

Overstatement: intentionally exaggerates a situation (hyperbole)

> *Example*: That movie was so funny, I almost died laughing.

Pun

A **pun** is a play on words in which a word with more than one meaning or spelling is used to evoke humor.

> *Example*: I'm glad to be working at the bakery because I really knead the dough! (need the dough; dough is money)

Help Pages

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 a *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*.

Proofreader's Symbols

Description	Symbol	Description	Symbol
Make capital	≡	Take something out	ℒ
Add end punctuation	⊙ ⃝! ⃝?	Check spelling	⬭sp
Add something	∧	Make lower case	/

Help Pages

Greek and Latin Roots and Their Meanings

Root / Meaning		Root / Meaning		Root / Meaning		Root / Meaning	
a, an	not, without	crypt, crypto	secret	macr, macro	large	phile	fondness
acous	hearing	dem, demo	people	magni, mag	large	phobe	fear
amphi	both	dict	speak	maj	great	phon	sound
ampli	large	dis, dys	not	mal	bad	photo	light
anthropo	human	ethno	people	mania	madness	plegia	paralysis
anti	against	flam	fire	maxi	large	pod	foot
aqua	water	frac, frag	break	meg, megalo	large	poly	many
audio	hearing	gastro	stomach	megal, mega	large	popu	people
bi	two	geo	earth	meter	measure	port	carry
biblio	book	grand	large	mono	one	pseudo	false
bio	life	graph, gram	written	morph	form	pyro	fire
caco	bad	hemi	half	neo	new	recti	straight, right
caus	burn	homo	same	ology	study of	rupt	break
cede	to go	hydr	water	omni	all	scrib	write
cephalo	of the head	hyper	extreme	onym	name	syn, sym	same
chromo	color	ig, igni	fire	pan	all	tempo	time
chrono	time	ize	make/become	pass	feeling	tempor	time
circum	around	jur, jus, jud	law	path	strong emotion	terra	earth
contra	against	logue, log	speech, word	ped, pedi	foot	theo	religion, god

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A **bibliography** is an alphabetical list of sources used in the writing of a paper. The title, author, date, and other information listed for each source is called a **citation**. Citation styles differ, so always follow your teacher's specific instructions. Here are some MLA format guidelines and examples of how to complete a citation for different types of sources. If any information is not available, make each citation as complete as possible. If no date is provided, **n.d.** is used (no date). Note that a proper citation includes indenting the second and subsequent lines by one half inch to create a hanging indent. While proper form for titles of major works in a typed paper requires italics, handwritten citations, as in this workbook, are underlined.

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