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Level 6

English Grammar

& Writing Mechanics

Help Pages

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The Eight Parts of Speech
Adjectives modify nouns or pronouns. A proper adjective begins with a capital letter.
Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. Adverbs tell *how, when, where,* and *to what extent.* For lists of common adverbs, see below.

Adverbs that tell *How* (*see* Lesson #43)	Adverbs that tell *Where* (*see* Lesson #50, 82)
Adverbs that tell *When* (*see* Lesson #54)	Adverbs that tell *To What Extent* (*see* Lesson #66)

Conjunctions connect similar words, clauses, or phrases within a sentence.
Coordinate Conjunctions: *and, or, nor, but, yet, for, so*
Subordinating Conjunctions join a subordinate clause with a main clause. *See* Lesson #58 for a list.
Correlative Conjunctions act in pairs. *either/or, neither/nor, both/and, whether/or, not/but, not only/but also*
Interjections are words or phrases that express strong feeling. **Examples**: Wow! Oh, no! Look!
Nouns name a person, place, thing, or idea. Nouns may be common or proper, singular or plural. A proper noun begins with a capital letter.
Collective Nouns are words that name a "collection." A collective noun is singular and is treated as a single unit. Collective nouns used as subjects take *singular verbs.* **Examples**: the team *is,* the troupe *plays,* a class *studies,* my family *enjoys*
Prepositions relate nouns or pronouns to other words in the sentence. *see* chart below
A **Prepositional phrase** begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or a pronoun. (*See* Lessons #28 – 32).
Pronouns replace nouns. The pronoun *I* is always capitalized. Common pronoun types are described on p. 288.
Verbs convey action or a state of being. A verb is the main word in the predicate of a sentence. For an explanation of verb types, *see* p. 287.

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
alongside	between	in	on	to	within
among	beyond	inside	onto	toward	without

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Editing Marks	
Make capital	☰
Add end punctuation	⊙ ⨶ ⨷
Add something	∧
Make lower case	/
Take something out	⨍
Check spelling	*sp*
Indent	¶

Common Keyboard Symbols	
@	at
®	registered trademark
©	copyright
$	dollar
%	percent
&	and
#	pounds or number

Rules for using Brackets, Colons, Semicolons, & Dashes
Brackets [ ] are used in dictionary definitions or to insert words into writing that is already within parentheses. Brackets are always used in pairs.
Colons: 1. A colon (:) is used between the hour and minutes, or between minutes and seconds when writing the time. **Examples**: At around 12:30, we eat lunch. My running time was 13:35 (13 minutes and 35 seconds).
2. A colon may be used after the greeting in a formal or business letter.
3. A colon may be used before a list of items, but only after an independent clause. Incorrect - I have traveled to: Russia, Italy, Iran, and Cuba. Correct - I have visited many countries: Russia, Italy, Iran, and Cuba
4. A colon may be used before a long quote or if there is no other introduction, such "he said" or "she replied." **Example**: Martha looked up at George: "Where have you been all day?"
Semicolons: 1. A semicolon (;) may be used to separate two independent clauses with no conjunction. The semicolon takes the place of a comma or conjunction. Incorrect - You can come in now; but please sit quietly. Correct - You can come in now; please sit quietly.
2. 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
Dashes (—) are used between words within sentences. A dash is longer than a hyphen and is used to show emphasis. A dash should be used for a special effect — do not overuse it.

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Rules for using Hyphens
Hyphens: 1. A hyphen (-) is used between the tens and the ones place, when writing out the numbers twenty-one through ninety-nine. **Examples**: seventy-six, forty-eight
2. A hyphen is used when writing fractions. **Examples**: four-fifths, one-third, three-eighths
3. A hyphen is used to separate words on two lines. (It is best to avoid separation of words in this way. Furthermore, the hyphen can only be used between syllables.)
4. A hyphen is sometimes used to join a prefix with a base word. The hyphen helps to make the word more clear. **Examples**: re-evaluate, non-military, ex-girlfriend
5. Hyphens are used in some compound words. **Examples**: part-time, president-elect, father-in-law
6. Words are changing, and are continuously being added to the English language. Therefore, always use an up-to-date dictionary to verify whether or not a word can/should be hyphenated.

Rules for Using Commas
1. 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.
2. Use a comma to separate two independent clauses joined by a conjunction. **Example**: Dad works in the city, and he is a commuter.
3. 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.
4. Use a comma to separate two words or two numbers, when writing a date. **Example**: Friday, April 8, 2011
5. Use commas between adjectives if the order doesn't matter. **Example**: the exciting, fresh dance moves (This could also read: fresh, exciting dance moves or exciting *and* fresh dance moves.)
6. Do not use commas between adjectives that describe in different ways. **Example**: three green tomatoes (*Three* tells how many and *green* describes the color.)
7. Insert a comma after introductory words or phrases in a sentence. **Example**: On the other hand, you may not need any help.
8. Use commas before and after "interrupting phrases" within a sentence. **Example**: Ms. Cole, *the bank teller*, was very helpful.
9. Use commas before and/or after contrasting phrases that use *not*. **Example**: I worked on my science project, *not my essay*, all evening.

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Sentences

Sentence Types: Declarative, Exclamatory, Interrogative, and Imperative – *see* Lesson #2.

Structure	Parts	Joined by	Example
Simple	subject & predicate only	---	We will hold a rally at the local park.
Compound	two independent clauses	conjunction (and, but, or)	There will be speeches in the morning, and we will play games in the afternoon.
Complex	subordinate and main clause	subordinating conjunction	The rally will last until dusk unless the weather is severe.

Verbs

Action Verbs show action.

> **Transitive Verbs** are action verbs that send action to a direct object.
> **Example**: A stunt man *performs* dangerous *feats*.
> (verb - *performs*; direct object - *feats*)

> **Intransitive Verbs** are action verbs that have no direct object.
> **Example**: The symphony *performs* every Sunday.
> (verb - *performs*; no direct object)

Verbs of Being (Forms of *be*) do not show action; they can act as linking or helping verbs.
is, are, was, were, be, am, being, been

Linking Verbs do not show action; they show a condition.
Examples: *appear, become, feel, seem, smell, taste, sounds,* and all forms of *be*.

Auxiliary (Helping) Verbs are used with other verbs 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*

Verb Tense tells the time when the action or condition of the verb occurs. The basic verb tenses are *past, present*, and *future*. There are also three perfect verb tenses in English; they all use past tense verbs, plus the helping verbs *had, has*, or *have*.

	Present Perfect	**Past Perfect**	**Future Perfect**
Use of the Verb	Shows action that is ongoing or indefinite.	Shows which event in the past happened first. (Both things already happened.)	Shows action that will happen before something else happens.
Helping Verbs	*has* or *have*	*had*	*will have*
Example with singular subject	Nick *has finished* two of his assignments.	She *had asked* for help before she began working.	I *will have completed* my chores by bedtime.
Example with plural subject	We *have played* soccer for five years.	The children *had napped* earlier that afternoon.	They *will have learned* the routines by then.

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Pronouns		
Type	**Singular**	**Plural**
Nominative Case Pronouns (or Subject Pronouns) are used as the subject of a sentence or clause.	*I, you, he, she, it*	*we, you, they*
Objective Case Pronouns (or Object Pronouns) are found in the predicate of a sentence.	*me, you, him, her, it*	*us, you, them*
Possessive Pronouns are used to show possession. These possessive pronouns modify a noun.	*my, your, his, her, its*	*our, their, whose*
These possessive pronouns are used alone.	*mine, yours, his, hers*	*ours, theirs, whose*

Indefinite Pronouns replace nouns that are not specific. They can be either singular or plural.
    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*
    Singular or Plural: *all, any, more, most, none, some*		

Relative Pronouns are used to relate a clause to an antecedent. **Example**: the room *which* is next to ours (*which* is the relative pronoun; *room* is the antecedent)	*that, which, who, whom, whose*	
Interrogative Pronouns are used to ask a question.	*what, which, who, whom, whose*	

Demonstrative Pronouns are used to point out something.
    Example: *That* is my house.
Demonstratives can also be adjectives.
    Examples: *those* flowers, *this* vase
	this, that, these, those	

Figures of Speech	
Simile	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*. (baby compared to a kitten)
Metaphor	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.)
Denotation	The **denotation** is the literal meaning of a word. *See* Lesson #85.
Connotation	The **connotation** is the feeling associated with a word. *See* Lesson #2.

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Spelling Rules
Rules for Forming Plurals
1. Words ending in *s, x, z, ch*, or *sh*, add *–es* to make the plural.
2. Many words that end in *f* or *fe* form the plural by changing the *f* or *fe* to *–ves*.   **Example**: thief - thieves   Some nouns that end in *f* or *ff* do not follow the rule for making plurals.   **Examples**: cliff - cliffs, belief - beliefs
3. Some nouns that end in a consonant + *o* form the plural by adding *– s*.   **Example**: zero - zeros; others add *–es* . **Example**: tomato - tomatoes
4. Irregular plural nouns have a completely different spelling in the plural form.   **Examples**: ox - oxen, goose - geese, louse - lice
Other Spelling Rules
5. Place *i* before *e*, except after *c*, or when sounded like *ā* as in *neighbor* and *weigh*.   **Examples**: mischief, eight
6. Regular verbs show past tense by adding *–ed*.   **Example**: stop - stopped   Irregular verbs change their spelling in the past tense. (*see* "Irregular Verbs")
7. When adding a prefix to a word, do not change the spelling of the prefix or the root.   **Example**: mis- + step ➔ misstep
8. If a word ends in a vowel + *y*, add a suffix without changing the spelling of the word.   **Example**: employ + -er ➔ employer
9. If a word ends in a consonant + *y*, change the *y* to *i* before adding suffixes such as *–es, -er*, or *–est*.   **Example**: try ➔ tried   If the suffix begins with an *i*, do not change the *y* to *i*.   **Example**: hurry ➔ hurrying
10. There are many exceptions to spelling rules. If you are not sure of the spelling of a word, use a dictionary to check.

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Irregular Verbs		
Present	**Past**	**With *has, have,* or *had***
bear	bore	*has, have,* or *had* born
bite	bit	*has, have,* or *had* bitten
bleed	bled	*has, have,* or *had* bled
buy	bought	*has, have,* or *had* bought
cling	clung	*has, have,* or *had* clung
deal	dealt	*has, have,* or *had* dealt
feel	felt	*has, have,* or *had* felt
flee	fled	*has, have,* or *had* fled
forgive	forgave	*has, have,* or *had* forgiven
grind	ground	*has, have,* or *had* ground
hear	heard	*has, have,* or *had* heard
hold	held	*has, have,* or *had* held
lie	lay	*has, have,* or *had* lain
light	lit/lighted	*has, have,* or *had* lit/lighted
overtake	overtook	*has, have,* or *had* overtaken
overthrow	overthrown	*has, have,* or *had* overthrown
shine	shone	*has, have,* or *had* shone
sit	sat	*has, have,* or *had* sat
sleep	slept	*has, have,* or *had* slept
slide	slid	*has, have,* or *had* slid
spin	spun	*has, have,* or *had* spun
string	strung	*has, have,* or *had* strung

Prefixes, Suffixes, and Roots (Oh my!)							
	Meaning		**Meaning**		**Meaning**		**Meaning**
able	able to	*co, com*	with	*im, in*	not	*phobia*	fear
amphi	both	*con*	with	*inter*	between	*phone*	sound
ante	before	*de*	take away	*less*	without	*photo*	light
anthropo	human	*di*	two	*mal*	evil	*port*	carry
anti	against	*dia*	across	*micro*	tiny	*post*	after
auto	self	*dict*	speak	*mis*	badly	*pre*	before
bi	two	*dis*	not	*mono*	one	*re*	again
biblio	book	*ful*	full of	*morph*	form	*scrib*	write
bio	life	*geo*	earth	*neo*	new	*script*	write
bronte	thunder	*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

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Analogies

An **analogy** is a way of comparing things.

Here is an example: mayor : city :: governor : state

This is read as,

          "Mayor is to city as governor is to state."

To solve an analogy, you need to figure out what the relationship is between the two words.

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

Here is another example: lamb : sheep :: calf : _____

                              horse   piglet   cow   kitten

What is the relationship?   A *lamb* is <u>a</u> <u>baby</u> *sheep*.

          The missing word must be *cow* because a *calf* is <u>a</u> <u>baby</u> *cow*.

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

The words may be synonyms.

          Example: happy : joyful :: tall : high
          Happy and *joyful* are <u>synonyms</u>. *Tall* and *high* are <u>synonyms</u>, too.

The words may be antonyms.

          Example: thin : thick :: rich : poor
          Thin is the <u>opposite</u> of *thick*. *Rich* is the <u>opposite</u> of *poor*.

One word may describe the other.

          Example: bright : sunshine :: prickly : porcupine
          Sunshine is *bright*. A *porcupine* is *prickly*.

One word may name a part of the other.

          Example: wheels : bicycle :: legs : table
          A *bicycle* has *wheels*. A *table* has *legs*.

One word may be in the category or group of the other.

          Example: rabbit : mammal :: orange : fruit
          A *rabbit* is a type of *mammal*. An *orange* is a type of *fruit*.

Bibliography

A bibliography is a list of sources that were used in the preparation of a research document. The bibliography is arranged in alphabetical order by author's name. The title of the book, magazine, or Internet article is included, as well as the publisher, date of publication, and sometimes page numbers. Bibliography styles may differ slightly, and you should follow your teacher's specific directions for setting up your bibliography. Here are some guidelines and examples of how to list various sources. The following use MLA format. **Some of the information listed here may not be available. If the information is not available, just include as much as you can find in the citation.**

Book with One Author:
Author's Last name, First name. <u>Title of Book</u>. City: Publisher,
Date.
Example:
Lawry, Matthew. <u>Fascinating Desert Life Forms</u>. Dayton:
Traders Press, 2004.

Book with Two or Three Authors:
Author's Last name, First name and additional author's First and
Last name(s). <u>Title of Book.</u> City: Publisher, Date.
Example:
Morris, Paul, Trudy Willis, and Marie Jenson. <u>Hiker Meets
Cactus</u>. Chicago: Toads Press, 2008.

Encyclopedia:
Author's Last name, First name. "Title of Article."
<u>Title of Encyclopedia</u>. City: Publisher, year ed.
Example:
Hernandez, Noreen. "Arid Biomes." <u>Universe Encyclopedia</u>.
New York: Green, Inc., 2006 ed.

Magazine Article:
Author's Last name, First name. "Article Title." <u>Title of
Magazine</u> Month year: page numbers.
Example:
Parched, Sandy. "My Days in the Sahara." <u>Geography and More</u>
May 2000: 13-19.

Internet Article:
Author's Last name, First name. "Article Title." <u>Website Title</u>.
Date of posting or last update. Site sponsor. Date you
visited the website. <web address>.
Example:
Greenberg, Tasha. "Desert Life." <u>Topics to Research</u>. March
2006. International Geographics. Sept. 16, 2010.
<http://topicstoresearch.com/biomes/desert.html>.

Bibliography (continued)
Website with No Author: 　　"Site Title." <u>Sponsor</u>. Copyright date or latest update. Date 　　　　you visited the website. <web address>. **Example:** 　　"Desert Days." <u>Environments Global</u>. 2009. Aug. 23, 2010. 　　　　<http://environsglobal.net/days/desert.html>.
Personal Interview: 　　Person's Last name, First name. Kind of interview (personal 　　　　interview or phone call). Date of interview. **Example:** 　　Jogan, James. Personal interview. February 20, 2007.