

Simple Solutions.



Minutes a Day-Mastery for a Lifetime!

Level 8

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 <i>how, when, where, and to what extent</i> .
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 the chart below.)
	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: Ouch! Gosh! Oh no!
Nouns	name a person, place, thing, or idea. Nouns may be common or proper, singular or plural, abstract or concrete. A proper noun begins with a capital letter.
	Collective Nouns are words that name a set. A collective noun is singular and is treated as a single unit. <u>Collective nouns used as subjects take singular verbs.</u> Examples: the <u>family is</u> , the <u>orchestra plays</u> , a <u>committee studies</u>
Prepositions	relate nouns or pronouns to other words in the sentence. For a list of common prepositions, see the chart below. (See the chart below.)
Prepositional Phrases	begin with a preposition and end with a <u>noun</u> or a <u>pronoun</u> . Examples: <i>against the fence, beside me</i>
Pronouns	replace nouns. The pronoun <i>I</i> is always capitalized. Common pronoun types are described on p. 285.
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. 285.

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

Some Common Prepositions					
about	around	down	instead of	out	toward
above	before	during	into	outside	under
across	behind	except	near	over	underneath
across from	below	for	nearby	past	until
after	beneath	from	next to	since	up
against	beside	in	of	through	upon
along	between	in back of	off	throughout	with
alongside	beyond	in front of	on	to	within
among	by	inside	onto	together with	without

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Pronouns					
Demonstrative Pronouns are used to point out something. this, that, these, those Demonstratives can also be adjectives. Examples: <i>this</i> dog, <i>these</i> people					
Interrogative Pronouns are used to ask a question. what, which, who, whom, whose					
Nominative Pronouns are used as the subject or as a predicate nominative. I, you, he, she, it, we, you, they					
Object Pronouns are used in the predicate as a direct object or an object of a preposition. me, you, him, her, it, us, them, whom					
Possessive Pronouns show ownership. Some possessive pronouns are used with nouns. my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their, whose Other possessive pronouns can stand alone: hers, his, mine, ours, theirs, yours, and whose.					
Relative Pronouns are used to relate a clause to an antecedent. that, which, who, whom, whose					
Indefinite Pronouns replace nouns that are not specific.					
Singular:	another	each	everything	nobody	other
	anybody	either	little	no one	somebody
	anyone	everybody	much	nothing	someone
	anything	everyone	neither	one	something
Plural: both, few, many, others, several					
Singular and Plural: all, any, more, most, none, some					
Reflexive Pronouns and Intensive Pronouns are the same; the <u>uses</u> of reflexive and intensive pronouns are different. myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves					
A reflexive pronoun is <u>essential</u> ; it cannot be removed without changing the meaning of the sentence. A reflexive pronoun is used to avoid awkwardly repeating the antecedent within the sentence. Example: Maureen treated <i>herself</i> to a relaxing walk along the beach.					
An intensive pronoun emphasizes a noun or another pronoun in a sentence; however, it is <u>non-essential</u> . It can be removed without changing the meaning of the sentence. Example: The firefighters <i>themselves</i> had installed the smoke detectors.					
Verbs					
Action Verbs show action or possession.					
Transitive Verbs are action verbs that send action to a direct object. Example: Pat <i>reads</i> the newspaper every morning. (verb - reads; direct object - newspaper)					
Intransitive Verbs are action verbs that have no direct object. Example: Pat <i>reads</i> all the time. (verb - reads; 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. appear, become, feel, seem, smell, taste, sounds, and all forms of <i>be</i> .					
Auxiliary (Helping) Verbs are used with other verbs to form a verb phrase. 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. There are fourteen tenses (see the verb conjugation chart on page 287). The <u>basic</u> verb tenses are past, present, and future. (See chart of Perfect Tenses of verbs, see p. 286.)					

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Some Irregular Verbs		
Present	Past	Past Participle
bear	bore	<i>has, have, or had</i> born
beat	beat	<i>has, have, or had</i> beaten
bend	bent	<i>has, have, or had</i> bent
bid	bid / bade	<i>has, have, or had</i> bid / bidden
bind	bound	<i>has, have, or had</i> bound
burst	burst	<i>has, have, or had</i> burst
cut	cut	<i>has, have, or had</i> cut
dream	dreamed / dreamt	<i>has, have, or had</i> dreamed / dreamt
fit	fit	<i>has, have, or had</i> fit
fling	flung	<i>has, have, or had</i> flung
forsake	forsook	<i>has, have, or had</i> forsaken
hit	hit	<i>has, have, or had</i> hit
hurt	hurt	<i>has, have, or had</i> hurt
knit	knit	<i>has, have, or had</i> knit
leap	leaped / leapt	<i>has, have, or had</i> leaped / leapt
learn	learned	<i>has, have, or had</i> learned
lend	lent	<i>has, have, or had</i> lent
lose	lost	<i>has, have, or had</i> lost
sew	sewed	<i>has, have, or had</i> sewed / sewn
shave	shaved	<i>has, have, or had</i> shaved
show	showed	<i>has, have, or had</i> showed / shown
sink	sank	<i>has, have, or had</i> sunk
sling	slung	<i>has, have, or had</i> slung
spring	sprang / sprung	<i>has, have, or had</i> sprung
uphold	upheld	<i>has, have, or had</i> upheld
weave	weaved / wove	<i>has, have, or had</i> weaved / woven
withhold	withheld	<i>has, have, or had</i> withheld








Perfect Tenses			
There are three perfect verb tenses in English. They are used to indicate that everything happened in the past (is "done"). They all use past tense verbs plus the helping verbs <i>has, have, or had</i> .			
	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.	Shows action that will happen before something else happens.
Helping Verbs	<i>has</i> or <i>have</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>will have</i>
Example (Singular Subject)	Lori <i>has finished</i> the reports.	Ricky <i>had played</i> on another team before joining us.	Tristan <i>will have eaten</i> lunch by noon.
Example (Plural Subject)	The coaches <i>have scheduled</i> the try-outs.	The Fitzgeralds <i>had traveled</i> through Europe prior to meeting us.	The girls <i>will have sold</i> all the magazines by next Tuesday.

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Complete Verb Conjugation		
A complete verb conjugation shows all 14 tenses with the singular and plural nominative pronouns. Below is the complete conjugation chart for the <u>irregular</u> verb <i>show</i> .		
Verb Form	Singular	Plural
Past	I showed. You showed. He / She / It showed.	We showed. You showed. They showed.
Present	I show. You show. He / She / It shows.	We show. You show. They show.
Future	I will show. You will show. He / She / It will show.	We will show. You will show. They will show.
Past Perfect	I had shown. You had shown. He / She / It had shown.	We had shown. You had shown. They had shown.
Present Perfect	I have shown. You have shown. He / She / It has shown.	We have shown. You have shown. They have shown.
Future Perfect	I will have shown. You will have shown. He / She / It will have shown.	We will have shown. You will have shown. They will have shown.
Past Progressive	I was showing. You were showing. He / She / It was showing.	We were showing. You were showing. They were showing.
Present Progressive	I am showing. You are showing. He / She / It is showing.	We are showing. You are showing. They are showing.
Future Progressive	I will be showing. You will be showing. He / She / It will be showing.	We will be showing. You will be showing. They will be showing.
Past Perfect Progressive	I had been showing. You had been showing. He / She / It had been showing.	We had been showing. You had been showing. They had been showing.
Present Perfect Progressive	I have been showing. You have been showing. He / She / It has been showing.	We have been showing. You have been showing. They have been showing.
Future Perfect Progressive	I will have been showing. You will have been showing. He / She / It will have been showing.	We will have been showing. You will have been showing. They will have been showing.
Emphatic Past	I did show. You did show. He / She / It did show.	We did show. You did show. They did show.
Emphatic Present	I do show. You do show. He / She / It does show.	We do show. You do show. They do show.

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Sentences			
Sentence Types: Declarative, Exclamatory, Interrogative, and Imperative			
Structure	Parts	Joined by	Example
Simple	subject + predicate	_____	Winter is a great time to try downhill skiing.
Compound	two or more independent clauses	coordinate conjunction (and, but, or)	You can use your own skis, <i>or</i> you can rent all your gear at a ski resort.
Complex	subordinate and main clause	subordinating conjunction	You may want to do some sledding <i>if</i> downhill skiing is too scary.
Compound-Complex	two or more main clauses and one or more subordinate clauses	conjunctions (both coordinate and subordinating)	Snowboarding is also lots of fun, <i>and</i> it's pretty easy <i>as long as</i> you have good balance.

Editing Marks	
Make capital 	Take something out 
Add end punctuation 	Check spelling 
Add something 	Indent 
Make lower case 	

Prefixes, Suffixes, and Roots (Oh my!)							
Meaning		Meaning		Meaning		Meaning	
<i>acous, audio</i>	hearing, listening	<i>circum</i>	around	<i>ig, igni</i>	burning	<i>pan</i>	all
		<i>contra</i>	against	<i>macr, macro</i>	large	<i>pass</i>	feeling
<i>a, an</i>	not, without	<i>crypt, crypto</i>	secret	<i>magni, mag</i>	large	<i>path</i>	strong emotion
<i>amphi</i>	both	<i>dem, demo</i>	people	<i>major</i>	large	<i>ped, pedi</i>	foot
<i>ampli</i>	large	<i>dict</i>	speak	<i>maxi</i>	large	<i>photo</i>	light
<i>anthropo</i>	human	<i>dis</i>	not	<i>meg, megalo</i>	large	<i>poly</i>	many
<i>anti</i>	against	<i>ethno</i>	people	<i>megal, mega</i>	large	<i>popu</i>	people
<i>aqua</i>	water	<i>frac, frag</i>	break	<i>meta</i>	between	<i>pyro</i>	fire
<i>bi</i>	two	<i>flam</i>	fire	<i>meter</i>	measure	<i>recti</i>	straight, right
<i>biblio</i>	book	<i>geo</i>	earth	<i>mono</i>	one	<i>rupt</i>	break
<i>bio</i>	life	<i>grand</i>	large	<i>morph</i>	form	<i>scrib</i>	write
<i>caca</i>	bad	<i>graph, gram</i>	written	<i>omni</i>	all	<i>syn</i>	same
<i>caus</i>	fire	<i>hemi</i>	half	<i>ology</i>	study of	<i>tempo</i>	time
<i>chromo</i>	color	<i>hydra, hydro</i>	water	<i>onym</i>	name	<i>tempor</i>	time
<i>chrono</i>	time	<i>hydr, hyd</i>	water	<i>neo</i>	new	<i>theo</i>	religion, god

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Punctuation Rules	
Commas	
1. Use commas to separate words, phrases, or clauses in a series.	Examples: Words - leaves, twigs, seeds, and grass Phrases - running errands, buying groceries, or cleaning the garage Clauses - Jill wrote the draft, Harry edited it, and Marcie read the final copy.
2. Use commas to separate adjectives that describe <i>in the same way</i> – do not use commas to separate adjectives that describe in different ways.	Example: a cold, snowy day two large reindeer
3. Use commas to separate consecutive words and numbers, for example, when writing dates and names of cities (addresses). Use a comma <u>before</u> and <u>after</u> a professional title that follows a name within a sentence.	Examples: Freemont, Alabama Thursday, February 15, 2007 Dr. Lois Walker, M.D., is my mother.
4. Use a comma to separate two independent clauses joined by a <i>coordinate conjunction</i> (as in a compound sentence).	Example: I brought a lunch, but Janie forgot hers. I shared my sandwich, and George gave her some chips.
5. Use commas to set off anything that interrupts a sentence. An example is given for each.	Appositives - This hat, my father's favorite, has been around since before I was born. Adjectives that follow nouns - The hat, tattered and worn, hangs on a hook above the coats. Contrasting phrases - Dad always wore a hat, not earmuffs, when the weather was cold. Conjunctive adverbs - (also, besides, furthermore, however, indeed, instead, moreover, nevertheless, otherwise, therefore, thus); Furthermore, he wore a hat in almost any kind of weather. It suited him, however. Any non-essential component , such as a non-restrictive modifier; - My father's hat, which is made of wool, was imported from Ireland.
6. Use a comma after an introductory word (direct address, interjection, etc.), clause, or phrase (especially if the phrase contains more than four words).	Examples: Interjection - Look, it's starting to rain. Incidentally, here is the umbrella you left at my house. Direct Address - Phillip, close the door. Clause - Since it is raining, we may not be able to go. Phrase - On the other hand, we could take the bus.
7. Use a comma before quotation marks if there is no other punctuation mark.	Example: Fred replied, "I never do the same thing twice."
8. Use a comma after the salutation in a personal letter and after the closing in any letter.	Examples: Dear Renee, Sincerely yours, Yours truly,
Quotation Marks	
1. Always put someone's words inside quotation marks. All the punctuation that goes with the statement goes inside the quotation marks.	Example: Gina said, "Meet me at three."
2. When writing a dialogue, put the speaker's words in quotation marks, and begin a new paragraph with each new speaker.	Example: "Hello, Dennis," beamed Lucy. "What are you doing here?" exclaimed Dennis. "Don't worry – I'm not following you," laughed Lucy.
3. Use quotation marks to indicate the title of a short story, book chapter, song, poem, or article.	Examples: We read "The Tortoise and the Hare," one of Aesop's famous fables. Eliza is singing "Twinkle, Twinkle, Little Star."

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Quotation Marks (continued)
<p>4. Use quotation marks to indicate slang words. Example: I'm exhausted; I've been working "24/7."</p>
<p>5. To set apart words which are already in quotes, use single quotation marks. Examples: "Let's read 'Three Blind Mice,'" she said. Mary asked, "Did she say 'hello' or not?"</p>
Apostrophes
<p>1. Use an apostrophe with the letter -s to show possession. Examples: Singular Possessive - the farm's equipment, the man's home Plural Possessive - the apples' stems, the vegetables' colors Compound Possessive - Larry and Ed's company (They both own the company.) More than one owner - Sue's and Ivory's projects (They each have a project.)</p>
<p>2. Use an apostrophe to show that letters have been left out, as in contractions. Examples: Contractions - can't, aren't, he's, shouldn't, I'll, they're Other words - four o'clock, the blizzard of '07, 'twas the night before, o'er the hill</p>
<p>3. Use an apostrophe to make an individual letter, number, or symbol plural. Examples: Today we learned how to write our 2's and t's. Morgan eats BLT's for lunch. What do those #'s mean? Use %'s when you write your answers.</p>
Semicolons
<p>1. Use a semicolon to connect two independent clauses. The semicolon replaces a coordinate conjunction, so do not use both.</p>
<p>2. Use a semicolon instead of a comma to separate items that already have commas. Example: Monday, March 5; Tuesday, April 10; and Wednesday, April 16</p>
Colons
<p>1. Use a colon after an independent clause to introduce a list. Do not use the colon after a verb or preposition. Example: The ingredients are fairly simple: tomatoes, garlic, basil, and oregano.</p>
<p>2. Use a colon to introduce a lengthy quotation, or to introduce a quotation that is not preceded by a form of <i>said</i>. Place the colon before the quotation marks. Example: Lincoln began his speech: "Four score and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent, a new nation, conceived in Liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal."</p>
<p>3. Use a colon to separate independent clauses if you want to add emphasis. Example: Paula tried something new: Instead of borrowing the book, she downloaded it. *Notice that the clause after the colon begins with a capital letter.</p>
<p>4. Use a colon after the salutation in a business letter. Examples: To Whom this May Concern: Dear Madam:</p>
Dashes, Parentheses, Brackets and Ellipses
<p>1. A dash is twice the length of a hyphen. Use dashes to add words (like appositives) within a sentence or at the end of a sentence. A dash is used for emphasis and should not be used very often. Examples: Within a Sentence - The final competition – a stressful affair – begins immediately. At the End of a Sentence - Tomorrow is a big day – the finalists will be announced.</p>
<p>2. Use dashes instead of commas when too many commas make a sentence unclear. Examples: Unclear - There are two companies, A to Z Movers and Atlas Movers in Chicago, Illinois, for example, that do a great job. Clear - There are two companies – A to Z Movers and Atlas Movers in Chicago, Illinois, for example – that do a great job.</p>

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Dashes, Parentheses, Brackets and Ellipses (continued)
<p>3. Use parentheses to add information that is relevant but not essential to the sentence. Parentheses can be used in the same way as dashes, but they are less emphatic. Notice that the end punctuation goes outside of the parentheses. Examples: Uncle Larry (my dad's brother) is a zoologist. He also lives in the city (New York).</p>
<p>4. When a complete sentence is inside parentheses, it should begin with a capital and end with an end mark. Otherwise, do not capitalize or punctuate within parentheses. Examples: We visited the Bahamas in 1998. (That was our first trip together.)</p>
<p>5. Use parentheses to set apart numbers or lettered choices. Examples: 1) Rudy 2) Clara 3) Tim Choose one: a) library b) post office c) city hall</p>
<p>6. An ellipsis lets the reader know that something (words or numbers) is missing. An ellipsis may come at the beginning, middle, or end of a sentence; it is often used in quotations. Examples: 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 23, 24, 25,...,100.</p>
<p>7. Brackets have limited usage. Use brackets to insert something that is already in parentheses. Example: (The Gettysburg Address [November 19, 1863] was delivered in Gettysburg, Pennsylvania.)</p>
<p>8. Use brackets around the word <i>sic</i>, a Latin word that shows a mistake is acknowledged by the writer. Example: Her answer was, "You ain't seen nothin' [sic] yet!"</p>
Hyphens
<p>1. Use a hyphen between the tens and the ones place, when writing out the numbers twenty-one through ninety-nine. Examples: forty-two seventy-six</p>
<p>2. Use a hyphen when writing fractions. Example: three-fifths two-thirds</p>
<p>3. Use a hyphen to separate words on two lines. The word must be separated by syllables, and each syllable should have at least two letters. (Whenever possible, avoid separation of words in this way.)</p>
<p>4. Use a hyphen to join a prefix with a base word. The hyphen helps make the word more clear. Examples: co-captains ex-mayor non-taxable</p>
<p>5. Use a hyphen in some compound words. Examples: well-rounded president-elect</p>

Capitalization Rules
<p>1. Capitalize the first word in any sentence – including sentences within quotation marks and complete sentences which follow a colon. Capitalize interjections.</p>
<p>2. Capitalize all proper nouns. This includes the names of people, pets, and buildings.</p>
<p>3. Capitalize the names of places: geographical locations, oceans, rivers, lakes, streets, cities, states, regions, countries, and continents.</p>
<p>4. Capitalize all proper adjectives.</p>
<p>5. Capitalize social titles.</p>
<p>6. Capitalize the names of historic events and time periods, monuments, and documents. Examples: Gettysburg Address Roaring Twenties Sears Tower Articles of Confederation</p>

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Capitalization Rules (continued)	
7.	Capitalize the days of the week, months, and holidays.
8.	Always capitalize the pronoun <i>I</i> .
9.	Capitalize the first word and every important word in a title.
10.	Some abbreviations are capitalized; others are not.
11.	Capitalize the first word in the greeting and the first word in the closing of a letter.

Spelling Rules	
Rules for Forming Plurals	
1.	Words ending in <i>s</i> , <i>x</i> , <i>z</i> , <i>ch</i> , or <i>sh</i> , add <i>-es</i> to make the plural.
2.	Many words that end in <i>f</i> or <i>fe</i> form the plural by changing the <i>f</i> or <i>fe</i> to <i>ves</i> . (thief - thieves) Some nouns that end in <i>f</i> or <i>ff</i> do not follow the rule for making plurals. (cliff - cliffs, belief - beliefs)
3.	Some nouns that end in a consonant + <i>-o</i> form the plural by adding <i>-s</i> (tattoo - tattoos); others add <i>-es</i> . (veto - vetoes)
4.	Some nouns do not add <i>-s</i> or <i>-es</i> to form the plural; these irregular plurals must be memorized. (phenomenon - phenomena)
5.	Some nouns have the same form whether they are singular or plural. (deer, grapefruit, salmon)
6.	Some nouns have only a plural form, and they always take a plural verb. (scissors, pants, dues)
7.	Some nouns are singular even though they end in <i>-s</i> ; they take singular verbs. (mumps, economics, atlas)
Other Spelling Rules	
8.	Place <i>i</i> before <i>e</i> , except after <i>c</i> , or when sounded like <i>ā</i> as in <i>neighbor</i> and <i>weigh</i> . (mischief, eight)
9.	Regular verbs show past tense by adding <i>-ed</i> . (stop → stopped) Irregular verbs change their spelling in the past tense. See the Irregular Verbs chart on p. 236.
10.	When adding a prefix to a word, do not change the spelling of the prefix or the root. (<i>mis-</i> + step → misstep)
11.	If a word ends in a vowel + <i>-y</i> , add a suffix without changing the spelling of the word. (employ + <i>-er</i> → employer)
12.	If a word ends in a consonant + <i>-y</i> , change the <i>y</i> to <i>i</i> before adding suffixes such as <i>-es</i> , <i>-er</i> , <i>-ed</i> , or <i>-est</i> . (try → tried) If the suffix begins with an <i>-i</i> , do not change the <i>-y</i> to <i>-i</i> . (hurry → hurrying)

Person	
Writing will be in the first, second, or third person.	
First Person	refers to the speaker or writer. Use the pronouns <i>I</i> , <i>me</i> , <i>my</i> , <i>mine</i> , <i>myself</i> , <i>we</i> , <i>us</i> , <i>our</i> , <i>ours</i> , and <i>ourselves</i> when writing or speaking in first person. Example: <i>I</i> took <i>my</i> dog to the animal hospital.
Second Person	refers to the reader or listener, the one being spoken to. Use the pronouns <i>you</i> , <i>your</i> , <i>yours</i> , and <i>yourself</i> when speaking or writing in the second person. Example: <i>You</i> have an appointment with <i>your</i> tutor.

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Person (continued)

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: The mothers watched *their* children playing.

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.

Verbals

Participles, gerunds, and infinitives are called verbals because they are formed from verbs. A summary of verbals can be found in Lesson #97.

Participles are verbs that act as adjectives. Participles modify nouns or pronouns. In the example below, *barking* modifies *dog* and *experienced* modifies *patrol officer*.

Example: A barking dog alerted the experienced patrol officer.

present participle

past participle

A **gerund** is a verb ending in *-ing* that is used as a noun.

Since a gerund acts as a noun, it may be a subject, predicate nominative, direct object, indirect object, or object of a preposition.

Examples: **Subject** - Knitting is my grandmother’s favorite pastime.

Predicate Nominative - My pleasure is cooking.

Direct Object - Dad enjoys golfing.

Indirect Object - Someday, I will give painting a try.

Object of a Preposition - I have had some success with drawing.

An **infinitive** is the word *to* plus the simple present tense form of a verb. An infinitive may function as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

Part of Speech	Function	Examples
Noun	subject	<u>To succeed</u> takes patience.
	predicate noun	Grandpa’s desire is <u>to dance</u> .
	direct object	Millie likes <u>to garden</u> .
	object of a preposition	I could think of nothing to do except <u>to scream</u> .
Adjective	modifies a noun / pronoun	In the library there is so <i>much</i> <u>to read</u> !
Adverb	modifies a verb	<u>To apply</u> , <i>complete</i> this form.
	modifies an adjective	Phyllis was <i>happy</i> <u>to see</u> you.
	modifies an adverb	It was too late <i>even</i> <u>to try</u> .

Help Pages

How to Fix a Run-on Sentence

A **run-on sentence** has two or more independent clauses which are not properly joined.

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

- **Separate two independent clauses into two sentences.** Today we had planned to go on a picnic. It rained all afternoon!
- **Insert a semicolon between the two independent clauses.** 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.** 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.** Today we had planned to go on a picnic, but it rained all afternoon!
- **Rewrite the sentence using a subordinating conjunction to separate the two independent clauses.** Although we had planned to go on a picnic today, it rained all afternoon!

Avoiding Plagiarism

What is plagiarism? **Plagiarism is the illegal use of someone else's written or spoken words.**

Plagiarism can take many forms:

- copying another student's work (even with permission) to hand in for credit;
- allowing someone else to write your paper;
- downloading a paper from the Internet and handing it in for credit;
- using someone else's words or ideas without giving proper credit; and/or
- failing to properly cite sources in a written bibliography.

As you prepare for high school and beyond, you will be required to write papers based on research. You will want to include information from outside sources: books, encyclopedias, periodicals, interviews, film documentaries, and the Internet. Any information – words, ideas, graphics, etc. – that comes from anyone other than you must be cited within the text and in a bibliography. **A bibliography is a list of sources that were used to get information for your paper.**

When doing research for an assignment, be sure to write down authors' names, titles of publications, dates, and whatever other information is required by your teacher. These details will help you to write the citations for your bibliography. **A citation is a list of the details needed to find the full source of information used in your paper.** A citation always includes the author's name if it is available. If your teacher does not have a specific guide for you to follow, you can use the Bibliography on the next page of this book.

If you want to use someone's exact words in your writing, always include the speaker's name, and put the words in quotation marks. If you want to use information that you saw on TV, read in a book, or found online, make sure you put the information in your own words, and cite the source in your bibliography. Remember, you can use information from any source as long as the information is properly cited.

Help Pages

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 in the citation.**

Book with One Author:

Author's Last name, First name. Title of Book. City: Publisher, Date.

Example:

Lawry, Matthew. Fascinating Desert Life Forms. 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). Title of Book. City: Publisher, Date.

Example:

Morris, Paul, Trudy Willis, and Marie Jenson. Hiker Meets Cactus. Chicago: Toads Press, 2008.

Encyclopedia:

Author's Last name, First name. "Title of Article." Title of Encyclopedia. City: Publisher, year ed.

Example:

Hernandez, Noreen. "Arid Biomes." Universe Encyclopedia. New York: Green, Inc., 2006 ed.

Magazine Article:

Author's Last name, First name. "Article Title." Title of Magazine Month year: page numbers.

Example:

Parched, Sandy. "My Days in the Sahara." Geography and More March 2000: 23-29.

Internet Article:

Author's Last name, First name. "Article Title." Website Title. Date of posting or date of last update. Site sponsor. Date you visited the website. <web address>.

Example:

Greenberg, Tasha. "Desert Life." Topics to Research. March 2006. International Geographics. Sept. 16, 2010. <<http://topicstoresearch.com/biomes/desert.html>>.

Website with No Author:

"Site Title." Sponsor. Copyright date or latest update. Date you visited the website. <web address>.

Example:

"Desert Days." Environments Global. 2009. Aug. 23, 2010. <<http://environglobal.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.