Grammar 5: Sheet 1 Answer Guide

Passage

Henry Reed, p. 30:

Mom or Dad: Please review **nouns**, **verbs**, and **dashes**. We highlight **being verbs** and **homonyms** on today's Activity Sheet. For a review of concepts and examples, please consult the *Grammar Guide* found in the Section 3: Resources. Then read through today's F.Y.I. and have your children answer the questions on the Activity Sheet.

Note: We will present lots of basic and advanced grammar information in the first few weeks of the year. Hopefully, most of this material will be both a review and a refresher. If not, just do what you can. Take your time. You have a whole year in which to "catch up" and move forward beyond what most students in any school will study.

By the time we were kids, my folks—that's your grandparents— had sold three lots here on this side of the road. All the present houses were here except that red brick one which you can see over the evergreens. That belongs to Mr. Apple.

F.Y.I. Synopsis: Being Verbs

- **being verbs** tell what a noun was, is or will be
- They require three parts:
 - 1. a noun
 - 2. a being verb
 - 3. <u>one or more words to clarify the noun's state of being.</u>

For example:

Bubba is strong.

Lisa was laughing.

Zachary will be awake soon.

Exercises

- 1. Circle the being verbs in the second sentence. Then rewrite the sentence so you don't use any form of the verb **be**. (were; Answers will vary: All the present houses existed except that red brick one which you can see over the evergreens.)
- 2. Put check marks above the dashes in the passage above. Why did the author use dashes in this passage?
 - ☐ To indicate interrupted speech☐ For emphasis☐ To set off reports at a set of the second se
 - ▼ To set off parenthetical material□ To indicate a sudden break
- 3. In the second sentence, use an n to label the nouns and a v to label the verbs. (n: houses, evergreens; v: were, see)
 When they are part of a sentence, nouns are often the:
 action word person is subject of the sentence.

Note: The word "can" is a helping verb, which we will discuss on Activity Sheet 4. Also note that in this context, **one** is a numerical pronoun whose antecedent is the noun **houses**.

- 4. **Homonyms** are words that <u>sound the same</u>, are <u>spelled the same</u>, but do not mean the same thing. Words such as "wave" (in the sea) and "wave" (to greet) are homonyms. Underline as many homonyms in the passage as you can. Then choose 3 homonyms and write another meaning for each one. (kids—kids (baby goats), lots—lots (many), present—present (gift), can—can (of beans))
- 5. Homophones are words that sound the same, but do not mean the same thing. Homophones may or may not have the same spelling.¹ Words such as "for" and "four," and "ant" and "aunt," are homophones. Double underline as many homophones in the passage as you can. Then choose 3 homophones and write another meaning for each one. (by—bye (goodbye) or buy (purchased), time—thyme, your—you're (you are), here—hear (listen), road—rode (to ride), red—read (past tense of read), one—won (to win), which—witch (does magic), you—ewe (sheep), see—sea (ocean), to—two (number))

^{1.} See the ${\it Grammar~Guide}$ in the Resource section for more information.

Grammar 5: Sheet 36 Answer Guide

Passage

Homesick, p. 25:

Mom or Dad: Today we introduce **adjectival** and **adverbial clauses** and **relative pronouns**.

"Good-bye," I said. "May the

s v do
River God protect you."

prep art op art s v

(For a moment) the boy stared.

When he spoke, it was as if he were trying out a new sound. "American friend," he said slowly.

dep ind
[When I looked back], [he was still prep there, looking soberly (toward the forop dep prep op eign world)] [(to which) I had gone].

F.Y.I.: Adjectival and Adverbial Clauses

Remember, a clause is a group of related words that includes a subject and a predicate. You also know that while both independent and dependent clauses contain both subjects and predicates, only independent clauses convey a complete thought and can stand alone as a complete sentence—dependent clauses do not, and cannot.

Did you know that clauses can serve different functions in a sentence? **Adjectival clauses** (also called adjective or relative clauses) usually begin with a *relative pronoun* and serve as an adjective. **Relative pronouns** connect phrases or clauses to nouns or pronouns. The most common relative pronouns are *who*, *whoever*, *which* and *that*. For example:

The child *who left her shoes on the stairs* should come and retrieve them.

In the sentence above, **who left her shoes on the stairs** is an adjectival clause because it describes the noun **child**.

Adverbial clauses may begin with a *subordinating conjunction* and serve as an adverb.

I filled the tank with gas before I went home.

The clause **before I went home** is an adverbial clause because it describes *when* I filled the tank and begins with the subordinating conjunction **before**.

Exercises

- 1. **To which I had gone** is an adjectival clause. Draw brackets around the clause and then draw an arrow from the clause to the noun or pronoun it modifies. *(to which I had gone—world)*
- 2. Draw brackets around each clause in the last sentence. Mark any independent clauses with ind and any dependent clauses with dep. (dep: [When I looked back]; ind: [he was still there, looking soberly toward the foreign world]; dep: [to which I had gone])
 Based on your analysis, what is the structure of this sentence?

Simple Compound-Complex

- 3. The word **looking** in the last sentence is a participle. Rewrite the sentence so that you replace the participle with a true verb. (*Sample answer:* When I looked back, he was still there. He looked soberly toward the foreign world to which I had gone.)
- 4. Write prep above all prepositions, op above all objects of prepositions, and draw parentheses around all prepositional phrases. (For a moment; toward the foreign world; to which)
- 5. The following words are homographs. Think of at least two meanings for each word. We gave you one of them. (May permission, blessing; name of month; spoke past tense of speak; part of a wheel; back adv: the direction behind; noun: part of anatomy; still adv: yet, continuing; adj: motionless; noun: liquor-making equipment)
- 6. Use the standard symbols (**s**, **v**, **do**, **art**, **adj**, etc.) to analyze the second and third sentences. (**hv**: *May*; **art**: *the*; **s**: *River God*; **v**: *protect*; **do**: *you*; **prep**: *For*; **art**: *a*; **op**: *moment*; **art**: *the*; **s**: *boy*; **v**: *stared*.)

Grammar 5: Sheet 72 Answer Guide

Passage

Star of Light, pp. 161–162:

Mom or Dad: Please review semicolons.

"How does the light get into the

empty lantern?" asked Rosemary.

"It's just a matter of opening a door

and placing a candle inside. Jesus

lv art pn cc s v inf

is the Light, and He wants to come

adv cc s prep op v art

in; and we, (by believing), open the

do cc v do adv

door and ask Him in. Then, if the

glass of the lantern is clean, the light shines out clearly; but if the glass is clouded and dirty the light will be very dim."

Exercises

- 1. Why do we find semicolons in the middle of the third and fourth sentences? (Check all that apply.)
 - ☐ To help join two independent clauses in one sentence—especially when they are long or contain commas
 - ☐ To separate groups that contain commas
 - To serve the kind of function that a period does when a comma would do; to provide a more substantial break than a comma would
 - It shouldn't be there; the author should have used instead

Mom or Dad: You may want to discuss how and why a comma can fulfill the same function as the semicolon when it helps to join two independent clauses.

- 2. What is the structure of the first sentence (including the attribution)?
 - Simple Compound Complex Compound-Complex

What is the structure of the second?

Simple: Compound Complex Compound-Complex

What is the structure of the third?

Simple: Compound: Complex Compound-Complex

What is the structure of the fourth?

Simple Compound Complex Compound-Complex

3. What are the tenses of the following clauses? If the glass is clouded and dirty...

Past Present: Future ...the light will be very dim...

Past Present Future

- 4. Double underline the interrogative sentence. (*How does the light get into the empty lantern?*)
- 5. Circle the antecedent to the pronoun **It** in the second sentence. (How does the light get into the empty lantern? —the entire question)
- 6. Think of two antonyms or, at least, contrastive expressions for each of the following words. Feel free to use prepositional phrases, clauses, or other longer means of expressing the opposite idea! (Sample answers: empty full, overflowing; open shut, close; light dark/darkness/darken, murk/murky/murkiness; Aunt Uncle, cousin, niece, nephew; inside outside, round about, away from; him her, it; clearly dimly, darkly, murkily; clean dirty, messy, filthy)
- 7. The last sentence includes a strong example of parallelism. Please underline the parallels and draw two-headed arrows that connect the parallel phrases. (if the glass—if the glass; the light—the light)
- 8. Analyze the third sentence. (s: Jesus; lv: is; art: the; pn: Light; cc: and; s: He; v: wants; inf: to come; adv: in; cc: and; s: we; prep: by; op: believing; v: open; art: the; do: door; cc: and; v: ask; do: Him; adv: in)
- 9. Rewrite the second sentence in such a way that you eliminate the gerunds **opening** and **placing**. (*Sample answer:* You need to open a door and place a candle inside.)

Grammar Guide

Abbreviations

Abbreviations are shortened versions of commonly used words.

Ex. Mr. (for Mister)
St. (for Street or Saint)

TELL ME MORE!

One of the most common abbreviations is *Mr.* to stand for *Mister* and *Mrs.* which stands for *Missus* which, in itself, is a shortened version of *Mistress.* Normally, you indicate that you are using an abbreviation by putting a period after the abbreviation. Some more examples: *Dr.* for *Drive* or *Doctor*; *Blvd.* for *Boulevard*; *etc.* for *etcetera*.

An **acronym** is a special kind of abbreviation that does not need a period and is pronounced as one word.

Ex. NASA (National Aeronautics and Space Administration)

An **initialism** is a special kind of abbreviation in which each letter used to form the abbreviation is pronounced separately. Like acronyms, initialisms do not need periods.

Ex. FBI (Federal Bureau of Investigation)

Acronym (see Abbreviations)

Action Verb (see Verb)

Active Voice (see Voice)

Adjective

An adjective describes or modifies a noun.

Ex. *Green* book *Sleepy* girl *Hot* potato

TELL ME MORE!

<u>Adjectives</u> add to our understanding of nouns. If you have a box (noun), and then say it is soft, hot, dark, and wet, the words <u>soft</u>, hot, dark, and wet are all **adjectives**. If you are talking about a young man, young is an adjective; it describes the man. In yellow flower, <u>yellow</u> is an adjective; it describes the flower. If you are talking about his satin shirt, his and <u>satin</u> both serve as adjectives that describe the shirt.

Notice that some words—like *soft*, *hot*, and *dark*— are always and only adjectives. Other words—like *satin* and *his*—can serve as adjectives but are nouns (*satin*) and pro-

nouns (*his*) as well. Notice, too, that even verbs can serve as adjectives: the *shining* star, a *crumpled* sheet of paper.

You can string adjectives together.

Ex. The *green* men ate. The *three green* men ate. The *three tall green* men ate. The *three strong tall green* men ate.

Adjectives come in one of three forms: positive, comparative, or superlative. The **positive form** modifies a word without comparing it to anything else. For example: That dog is big. The **comparative form** modifies a word by comparing it to one other thing. Comparative adjectives often use the ending -er or the words *more* or *less*. For example: That dog is bigger than my dog. The **superlative form** modifies a word by comparing it to two or more other things. Superlative adjectives often use the ending *-est* or the words most or least.

Ex.: That dog is the biggest dog on my block.

For further information about special types of adjectives, see *Article*, *Determiner*, and *Quantifier*.

Adjective/Adjectival Clause (see Clause)

Adverb

An adverb adds to or modifies our understanding of a verb. Adverbs tell us how, when, or where the verb happened (or is happening or will yet happen). They can also describe or modify our under-standing of an adjective or another adverb.

Ex: The green men ate *quickly*. (*Quickly* describes how the verb ate.)

The woman walked *slowly*. (*Slowly* describes the verb walked.)

Josh fell *down*. (*Down* is an adverb because it describes the verb fall. It tells us about Josh's falling: He fell *down*)

Emily will feel better *tomorrow*. (*Tomorrow* describes when Emily will feel better.)

The *deep* green moss grew. (*Deep* describes the adjective green.)

The green moss grew *extremely quickly*. (*Quickly* describes how the moss grew. *Extremely* describes the other adverb, *quickly*.)

TELL ME MORE!

Here's a clue that will help you identify many adverbs: if you find a word that ends in *-ly*, it is almost assuredly an adverb.

In the phrase *talk loudly*, the verb *talk* is modified by the adverb *loudly*. How did he talk? He talked loudly. Loudly adds to our understanding of talk. How about the phrase *worked hard*? Which word is the verb that tells us what happened? (*worked* is the verb) And which is the adverb that tells us how the person or machine worked? (*hard* is the adverb) How about *suddenly remembered*? What is the verb and what is the adverb? (*remembered* is the verb; *suddenly* is the adverb)

You can find adverbs right next to the verbs they modify—either in front of or after the verb; and you can find them at distances from their verbs.

Ex. He *quickly* jumped on the horse.

He jumped *quickly* onto the horse. *Quickly*, the large man jumped onto the horse.

He jumped onto the galloping horse *quickly*—before it got away.

Examples of adverbs that modify adjectives: in the phrase the very bright light, very is an adverb; it modifies the adjective bright. (Notice that very does not modify light! You can't have a very light!) In tremendously loud engine, tremendously is an adverb; it modifies the adjective loud; you can have a loud engine and a tremendously loud engine, but you can't have a tremendously engine.

Adverbs come in one of three forms: positive, comparative, or superlative. The **positive form** modifies a word without comparing it to anything else. For example: He runs fast. The **comparative form** modifies a word by comparing it to one other thing. Comparative adverbs often use the ending *-er* or the words *more* or *less*. For example: He runs faster than my dog. The **superlative form** modifies a word by comparing it to two or more other things. Superlative adverbs often use the ending *-est* or the words *most* or *least*. For example: He runs the fastest of all the dogs on my block.

Adverbs add power to your writing. Use them often.

Adverb/Adverbial Clause (see Clause)

Agreement (see Subject-Verb Agreement)

Alphabetization

Alphabetization is the process of placing a series of words in alphabetical order—in order from a to z beginning with the first letter of the word. When two words start with the same letter, then you compare their second letters. When

two words share the same first and second letters, then you compare the third letters . . . and so on until you find a letter on which they disagree.

Ex. aardvark, adjective, adverb, amber, ambulance

Analogy

An analogy compares two (or more) things that, although otherwise dissimilar, are similar in some important way. Analogies are used to suggest that because two (or more) things are similar in some way they are also similar in some further way. For further information about special types of analogies, see *Simile* and *Metaphor*.

Ex. Phil hates receiving unsolicited "spam" e-mail because deleting it from his inbox wastes so much time. He insists there must be some solution to this problem on the horizon! Of course, he also used to think that, by now, he wouldn't need to continually pitch the "junk" mail that accumulates in his mailbox on a daily basis. (The analogy in this paragraph suggests that "spam" e-mail, like postal "junk" mail, may be here to stay!)

Antecedent

An antecedent is the noun that a pronoun refers to.

Ex. *Emily* cooked breakfast. She is a good cook. (*Emily* is the antecedent for the pronoun *she*.)

TELL ME MORE!

"Ante" means "before" or "in front of." The noun to which the pronoun refers usually comes before or "ante" the pronoun.

When you say, He came, the person you're talking to wants to know "Who is he? To whom are you referring when you talk about him or he?" If you answer, "Oh! I'm talking about John (or whoever)," John (or whoever) is the *antecedent*. That is the noun to which he refers.

Antecedents are extremely important, especially when you begin to use pronouns. For example, read the following sentences: Mike and Tim were talking. Tim said he could marry Sarah because he didn't mind if Sarah didn't like him. Every pronoun in the second sentence must have an antecedent or an implied antecedent. Tim is obviously the one who's talking. Tim says he (who? Tim? Mike? Someone else?) could marry Sarah because he (who?) didn't mind if Sarah didn't like him (again, who is Tim talking about?). Never use a pronoun unless you know that its antecedent is obvious! Besides the pronouns where

it is very obvious that you need to know the antecedent, there are a few pronouns where you can usually figure out what the antecedent is . . . even if no one tells you.

Ex. I/me/my you/your/yours we/us/our/ours

Antonym

An antonym is a word that means the opposite of another word.

Ex. *Up* is the opposite of—or antonym for—*down Cold* is the antonym for *hot Out* is the antonym for *in*.

Apostrophe

An apostrophe (') is a punctuation mark that can show possession, make contractions, or show when letters are left out. Apostrophes are also used to make letters, numbers, and signs plural.

Ex. the kids' cookbook (the cookbook belongs to the kids)

didn't (did not)

I'm waitin' for him. (shortened version of *waiting*) Z's, 9's, \$'s

Appositive

An appositive is a noun or noun phrase (appositive phrase) that renames or describes the nouns or pronouns that come immediately before it. Appositives are usually surrounded—or set off by—commas.

Ex. Mark, *first baseman for the Rangers*, had a strong season.

Carmen, *a mother of three*, barely had time to make dinner.

My guitar, an Ibanez, is a real beauty.

TELL ME MORE!

Use an appositive when you want to say something important about the subject, but you want the sentence itself to focus on something you consider even more important. So, for example, you want to say that *Samson lost all his strength when he cut his hair*. That is the main message you want to tell people. But in order for them to really understand what you are saying, you need to tell them that he was normally a strong man. So you insert the appositive: Samson, *a strong man*, lost all his strength when he cut his hair.

Appositive Phrase (see Appositive)

Article

An article is a special type of adjective. There are three articles—*the*, *a*, and *an*. Articles tell something about the nouns that follow them.

Ex. *The* dogs fight *A* plane flies *An* apple falls.

TELL ME MORE!

The is called a *definite article*, because it defines exactly which one: the specific apple that we've been talking about or the apple that we are about to talk about. *The* tells you that the noun that follows is a particular one.

Ex. *The* apple (one specific apple) *An* apple (any apple)

A and An are called *indefinite articles*, because you can't be sure which particular item they are talking about. They just say that it is some item. A and an mean the same thing. A is used when the noun that follows it begins with a consonant sound. An is used when the noun that follows it begins with a vowel sound.

Ex. a boa constrictor a one-dollar bill an ant an hour

Attribution

An attribution is the phrase that indicates who said whatever is being quoted.

Ex. Eddie said Josh yelled Caitlyn laughed

TELL ME MORE!

An attribution can be placed before, in the middle of, or after the quotation. When the attribution is before the quotation, identify who is being quoted, follow that with a comma, and then begin the quotation.

Ex. *Michael said*, "I sure am hungry." *Duane says*, "I love to eat Italian food."

When an attribution is in the middle of a quotation, attach the attribution to whatever comes before it. Then, follow the attribution with a comma and treat it and the quotation that follows as if the attribution were before the quotation.

Ex. "I love that idea!" *said Amber*. "This will be so much fun."

"I'm not sure," commented Chase, "if it will work."