

Language Arts Handbook

Synonyms and Antonyms

- A **synonym** is a word that has the same or nearly the same meaning as one or more other words. Examples: reply- answer talk-speak
- An **antonym** is a word that has the opposite meaning of another word. Examples: old- new bad- good

Homonyms

- A **homonym** is a word that sounds the same as another word but has a different spelling and meaning. Examples: aisle-I'll- isle flower-flour

Homographs

- A **homograph** is a word that has the same spelling as another word but a different meaning and sometimes a different pronunciation. Example: saw, meaning “having seen,” and saw, meaning “a tool used for cutting”

Prefixes

- A **prefix** added to the beginning of a base word changes the meaning of the word.
Example: dis-, meaning “opposite of,” + the base word appear = disappear, meaning “the opposite of appear”

Examples:	prefix	meaning	prefix	meaning
	in-	not	re-	again
	dis-	not	fore-	before
	un-	not	pre-	before
	trans-	across	mis-	wrong
			with-	from, against

Suffixes

- A **suffix** added to the end of a base word changes the meaning of the word.
Example: -less, meaning “without,” + the base word worth = worthless, meaning “without worth”

Examples:	suffix	meaning	suffix	meaning
	-less	without	-ist	one skilled in
	-ish	of the nature of	-tion	art of
	-ous	full of	-ful	full of
	-en	to make	-al	pertaining to
	-hood	state of being	-able	able to be
	-ward	in the direction of	-ible	able to be
	-ness	quality of		

- Sometimes you need to change the spelling of the base word when a suffix is added. Example: happy—happiness

Connotation/Denotation

- The **denotation** of a word is its exact meaning as stated in a dictionary.
Example: the denotation of sting is “ungenerous” or “miserly.”
- The **connotation** of a word is an added meaning that suggests something positive or negative.
- Example : **Negative:** Stingy suggests “ungenerous.” Stingy has a negative connotation.
Positive: Economical suggests “efficient” and “careful.”
Economical has a positive connotation.
- Some words are neutral. They do not suggest either good or bad feeling.
Examples: garage, kitchen, roof

Idioms

- An idiom is an expression that has a meaning different from the usual meanings of the individual words within it.
Example: Lit a fire under me means “got me going,” not “burned me.”

Recognizing Sentences

- A **sentence** is a group of words that expresses a complete thought.
Example: We found a deserted cabin at the top of the hill.

Types of Sentences

- A **Declarative sentence**, makes a statement. It is followed by a period(.).
Examples: Alicia is my cousin
- An **Interrogative sentence** ask a question. It is followed by a question (?).
Example: Where are you going?
- An **imperative sentence** expresses a command or request. It is followed by a period (.).
Example: Close the door.
- An **exclamatory sentence** expresses strong emotion. It can also express a command or request that is made with a great excitement. It is followed by an exclamation mark (!).
Examples: How you frightened me!
Look at that accident!

Complete Subjects and Predicates

- Every sentence has two main parts, a **complete subject** and a **complete predicate**
- The complete subject includes all the words that tell who or what the sentence is about. Example: **All chickadees**/hunt insect eggs.
- The complete predicate includes all the words that state the action or condition of the subject. Example: All chickadees/ **Hunt insect eggs**.

Simple Subjects and Predicates

- The **simple subject** of a sentence is the main word in the complete subject. The simple subject is a noun or a pronoun. Sometimes the simple subject is also the complete subject. Examples: Our **car**/ swayed in the strong wind. **Cars**/ sway in the strong wind.
- The **simples predicate** of a sentence is a verb within the complete predicate. The simple predicate may be made up of one word or more than one word. Example: Our car/**swayed**. The wind/**was blowing** hard.

Position of Subjects

- When the subject of a sentence comes before the verb, the sentence is in **natural order**. Example: Maria went home.
- When the verb or part of the verb comes before the subject, the sentence is in **inverted order**. Examples: On the Branch were two birds.
There are four children in my family. Here is my friend.
- Many questions are in inverted order. Example: Where is Jim?
- Sometimes the subject of a sentence is not expressed, as in a command or request. The understood subject is you. Examples: Bring the sandwiches. (You) bring the sandwiches.

Compound Subjects

- A **Compound subject** is made up of two or more simple subjects.
Example: **Henri and Tanya** are tall people.

Compound Predicates

- A **compound predicate** is made up of two or more simple predicates.
Example: Joseph **dances and sings**.

Combining Sentences

- Two sentences in which the subjects are different and the predicates are the same can be combined into one sentence. The two subjects are joined by and. Example: **Hurricanes** are storms. **Tornadoes** are storms.
Hurricanes and Tornadoes are storms.
- Two sentences in which the subjects are the same and the predicates are different can be combined into one sentence. The two predicates are different can be combined into one sentence. The two predicates may be joined by or, and, or but. Example: Hurricanes **begin over tropical oceans**. Hurricanes **move inland**. Hurricanes **begin over tropical oceans and move inland**.

Direct Objects

- The **direct object** tells who or what receives the action of the verb. The direct object is a noun or pronoun that follows an action verb.

DO

Example: you told the **Truth**.

Indirect Objects

- The **indirect object** is the noun or pronoun that tells to whom or for whom an action is done. In order to have an indirect object, a sentence must have a direct object.
- The indirect object is usually placed between the action verb and the direct object.

DO

DO

Example: Who sold **you** that fantastic **bike**?

Independent and Subordinate Clauses

- A **clause** is a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate. There are two kinds of clauses: **Independent clauses** and **subordinate clauses**.
- An independent clause can stand alone as a sentence because it expresses a complete thought.

Example: **The students came in** when the bell rang. **The students came in.**

Subordinate Clause

- A subordinate clause has a subject and a predicate but cannot stand alone as a sentence because it does not express a complete thought. A subordinate clause must be combined with an independent clause to make a sentence.

Example: The stamp **that I bought** was already in my collection.

Adjective Clauses

- An adjective clause is a subordinate clause that modifies a noun or a pronoun. It answers the adjective question Which one? Or What kind? It usually modifies the word directly preceding it. Most adjective clauses begin with a **relative pronoun**. A relative pronoun relates an adjective clause to the noun or pronoun that the clause modifies. Who, whose, which. And that are relative pronouns.

Example: the coat **that I bought** was on sale.

Noun Adjective clause

Adverb Clauses

- An adverb clause is a subordinate clause that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. It answers the adverb question How? Under what condition? Or why? Words that introduce adverb clauses are called subordinating conjunctions. The many subordinating conjunctions include such words as when, after, before, since, although, and because. Example: I finished **before the bell rang**.

Adverb clause

Simple and Compound Sentences

- A **simple sentence** contains only one independent clause. The subject, the predicate, or both may be compound.

Example: The courthouse/ is the oldest building in town. Gale and Louise/ are making costumes and dressing up.

- A **compound sentence** consists of two or more independent clauses. Each independent clause in a compound sentence can stand alone as a separate sentence. The independent clauses are usually joined by and, but, or, for, or yet and a comma.

Example: Jack brought the chairs, and Mary forgot the extra table.

- Sometimes a semicolon (;) is used to join two independent clauses in a compound sentence.

Example: The music started; the dance had begun.

Complex Sentences

- A **complex sentence** contains one independent clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

Example: The person **who helps me carry these** gets some dessert.

Subordinate Clause

Correcting Run-on Sentences

- Two or more independent clauses that are run together without the correct punctuation are a **run-on sentence**.
- One way to correct a run-on sentence is to separate it into a compound sentence.

Example: The music was deafening. I turned down the volume.

- Another way to correct a run-on sentence is to make it into a compound sentence.

Example: The music was deafening, so I turned down the volume.

- Another way to correct a run-on sentence is to use a semicolon.

Example: The music was deafening; I turned down the volume.

Expanding Sentence

- Sentences can be **expanded** by adding details to make them clearer and more interesting. Example: The audience laughed. The excited audience **in the theater** laughed **loudly**.
- Details added to sentences may answer these questions: When? Where? How? How often? To what degree? What kind? Which? How many?

Nouns

- A **noun** is a word that names a person, place, thing, or quality.
Example: **Nancy Ford** is my **friend**.

Common and Proper Nouns

- There are two main classes of nouns: **Common nouns** and **Proper nouns**
- A **common noun** names any one of a class of objects.
- A **Proper noun** names a particular person, place, or thing. It begins with a Capital letter.

Examples: Andrew Jackson, Chicago, Statue of Liberty.

Singular and Plural Nouns

The following chart shows how to change singular nouns into Plural Nouns .		
Noun	Plural Form	Examples
Most nouns	Add <u>s</u>	Ship, Ships Nose, noses
Nouns ending in a Consonant and -y	Change the <u>y</u> to <u>-i</u> and add <u>-es</u>	Sky, skies Navy, navies
Nouns ending in -o	add <u>-s</u> or <u>-es</u>	hero, heroes Piano, pianos
Nouns ending in -f or -fe	change the -f or -fe to -ves	Half, halves
Most nouns ending in -ch, -sh, -s or -x	add -es	Bench, Benches bush, Bushes Tax, taxes
Many two- word or Three-word compound nouns	Add -s to the principle word	son-in-law, sons-in-law
Nouns with the same Form in the singular and Plural.	No change	sheep

Possessive Nouns

- A **possessive noun** shows possession of the noun that follows.
- Form the possessive of most singular nouns by adding an apostrophe (') and -s. Examples: A child's toy, my teacher's classroom
- Form the possessive of plural nouns ending in -s by adding only an apostrophe. Examples: Our books' pages, those stores' windows
- Form the possessive of plural nouns that do not end in -s by adding an apostrophe and -s. Examples: Some women's clothes, many men's shoes

Appositives

- An **appositive** is a noun that identifies or explains the noun or pronoun it follows.

Example: My dog, **Fido**, won a medal.

- An appositive phrase consists of an appositive and its modifiers.

Example: My book, **a novel about the civil war**, is one of the best read.

- Use **commas** to set off an appositive or an appositive phrase that is not essential to the meaning of the sentence.
- Don't use commas if the appositive is essential to the meaning of the sentences.

Examples: My brother Kevin arrived late. My other brother Charlie arrived early.

Action Verbs

- A **verb** is a word that expresses action, being, or state of being.

Example: Paul **went** to the store.

- An **action verb** is a verb that expresses action.

Example: The track star **ran** fast.

Linking Verbs

- A linking verb does not show action. Instead. It links the subject to a word that either describes the subject or gives the subject another name.
- A verb is a linking verb if it can replace one of the verbs of being (am, is, are, was, were.)

Examples: We **were** cold. Nancy **is** a dancer. John **looked** tired.
The soup **tastes** delicious.

Principal Parts of Verbs

- A verb has four principal parts: **present, present participle, past, and past participle.**
- For regular verbs, form the present participle by adding **-ing** to the present. Use a form of the helping verb **be** with the present participle.
- Form the past and present part by adding **-ed** to the present. Use a form of the helping verb **have** with the past participle.

Examples:

<u>Present</u>	<u>Present Participle</u>	<u>Past</u>	<u>Past Participle</u>
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Laugh	(is) laughing	laughed	(have,has,had) laughed
Bake	(is) baking	baked	(have, has, had) baked

- Irregular verbs form their past and past participle in the other ways. A dictionary shows the principal parts of these verbs.

Verb Phrases

- A **verb phrase** consists of a main verb and one or more **helping verbs**. A helping verb is also called an **auxiliary verb**. In a verb phrase, the helping verb or verbs precede the main verb. Example: James **has arrived**.
- The helping verbs are:
Am, are, is, was, were, be, being, been
Has, have, had
Do, does, did
Can, could, must, may, might, shall, should, will, would

Verb Tenses

- The **tense** of a verb tells the time of the action or being. There are three simple tenses- present, past, and future.
- **Present tense** tells about what is happening now.
Examples: Conrad **is** busy. Conrad **studies** hard.
- **Past tense** tells about something that happened before.
Example: Conrad **was** sick yesterday.
- **Future tense** tells about something that will happen. The auxiliary verbs will and shall are used in the future tense.
Example: Conrad **will take** the test tomorrow. I **shall** keep my word.

Present Perfect and Past Perfect Tenses

- The **perfect tenses** express action that happened before another time or event.
- The present perfect tense tells about something that happened at an indefinite time in the past. The present perfect tense consists of has or have + the past participle.
Examples: I **have eaten** already. He **has eaten**, too.

- The **past perfect** tense tells about something that happened before something else in the past. The past perfect tense consists of had + the past participle.

Example: I already **had eaten** when they arrived.

Using *Is/Are* and *Was/Were*

- Use is and was with a singular subject. Example: Here **is** Roberto.
- Use are and were with a plural subject. Example: There **are** Dr. Thomas and Dr. Williams.
- Always use are and were with the pronoun you. Examples: You **are** my favorite cousin. You **are** late today.

Present Tenses of *Give, Take, and Write*

- Never use a helping verb with gave, took, and wrote.
- Always use a helping verb with given, taken, and written.

Past Tenses of *See, Go, and Begin*

- Never use a helping verb with saw, went, and began.
- Always use a helping verb with seen, gone, and begun.

Wear, Rise, Steal, Choose and Break

- Never use a helping verb with wore, rose, stole, chose, and broke.
- Always use a helping verb with worn, risen, stolen, chosen, and broken.

Come, Ring, Drink, Know, and Throw

- Never use a helping verb with came, rang, drank, knew, and threw.
- Always use a helping verb with come, rung, drunk, known, and thrown.

Eat, Fall, Draw, Drive, and Run

- Never use a helping verb with ate, fell, drew, drove, and ran.
- Always use a helping verb with eaten, fallen, drawn, driven, and run.

Forms of Do

- Never use a helping verb with did.
Examples: Anne **did** a great job on her test.
- Always use a helping verb with done.
Example: Hallie **had** also **done** a great job.
- Doesn't is the contraction of does not. Use it with singular nouns and the pronouns he, she, and it.
Examples: Rachel **doesn't** want to go. It **doesn't** seem right.
- Don't is the contraction of do not. Use it with the plural nouns and with the pronouns I, you, we, and they.
Examples: Mr. and Mrs. Ricci **don't** live there. You **don't** have your purse.

Transitive and In transitive Verbs

- There are two kinds of action verbs: **transitive** and **intransitive**.
- A transitive verb has a direct object.
D.O.
Example: Jeffrey **Painted** the house.
- An intransitive verb does not need an object to complete its meaning.
Example: The sun **rises** in the east. She **walks** quickly.

Verbals

- A verbal is a verb form that functions as a noun or adjective. There are three types of verbals: **infinitives**, **participles**, and **gerunds**.
- An **infinitive** is the base form of the verb, commonly preceded by to.
An infinitive that functions as a noun is a verbal.
Example: The object of the game is **to win**.
- A present or past **participle** that functions as an adjective is a verbal.
Examples: A **running** horse galloped down the road. **Dried** leaves flew from his hooves.
- A **gerund** is the present participle of a verb form ending in -ing that is used as a noun.
Example: **Skiing** is her favorite sport.

Active and Passive Voice

- Voice refers to the relation of a subject to its verb.
- In the active voice, the subject acts.

Example: **I painted** the house.

- In the **passive voice**, the subject receives the action.
Example: The house **was painted** by me.
- Only transitive verbs are used in the passive voice.

Pronouns

- A **subject pronoun** is used in the subject of a sentence after a linking verb.

Example: **We** are going to the tournament. The woman in the suit is **she**.

- An **object pronoun** is used after an action verb or preposition.

Example: James threw the ball to **me**.

- A **possessive pronoun** is used to show ownership of something.

Example: The red shoes are **mine**. Those are **my** red shoes.

- An indefinite pronoun does not refer to a specific person or thing.

Example: **Someone** should take that history class.

- Use who as a subject pronoun, and use whom as a object pronoun.

Examples: **Who** is going to the party? We will ask **whom** to go with us?

Antecedents

- An **antecedent** is the word to which a pronoun refers.

Example: **Dogs** are dangerous if **they** bite.

- A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in **gender**, (**masculine**, **feminine**, or **neuter**) and in number (**singular** or **plural**).

Examples: Sally washed **her** hair. The storm changed **its** course. The workers went to **their** offices.

- If the antecedents is an indefinite pronoun one that doesn't refer to a specific person or thing), to both masculine and a feminine pronoun. However, it is now common to use both a masculine and a feminine pronoun.

Examples: **Someone** lost **his** gloves. **Someone** lost **his or her** gloves.

Adjectives

- An adjective is a word that modifies a noun or a pronoun.

Example: He like **chocolate** cookies.

- Adjectives usually tell **what kind**, **which one**, or **how many**.

Examples: **bright** penny, **these** oranges, **twelve** classmates

- A proper adjective is an adjective that is formed from a proper noun. It always begins with a capital letter.

Examples: **Asian** continent, **English** language

- The articles a, an, and the are called **limiting adjectives**.

Demonstrative Adjectives

- A **demonstrative adjective** is one that points out a specific person or thing.
- This and that modify singular nouns. This points to a person or thing nearby and that points to a person or thing farther away.

Examples: **This** movie is my favorite. **That** sign is difficult to see.

- These and those modify plural nouns. These points to persons or things nearby and those points to persons or things farther away.

Examples: **These** ribbons are the most colorful.

Those towels need to be folded.

- The word them is a pronoun. Never use it to describe a noun.

Comparing with Adjectives

- An adjective has three degrees of comparison: **positive**, **comparative**, and **superlative**.
- The simple form of the adjective is called the **positive** degree.

Example: Ian is **short**.

- When two people or things are being compared, the **comparative** degree is used.
- When three or more people or things are being compared, the **superlative** degree is used.

Example: Ian is the **shortest** person in the group.

- For all adjectives of one syllable and a few adjectives of two syllables, add -er to form the comparative degree, and -est to form the superlative degree.

Example: smart-smarter-smartest

- For some adjectives of two syllables and all adjectives of three or more syllables, use more or less to form the comparative and most or least to form the superlative.

Examples: This test is **more** difficult than I expected. Carol is the **most** generous of all. Kate is **less** talkative than Tom. Mary is the **least** talkative of all.

Adverbs

- An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Examples: The rain poured **steadily**. His memories were **extremely** vivid. She responded **very** quickly.
- An adverb usually tells **how, when, where, or how often**.
- Many adverbs end in -ly.

Comparing with Adverbs

- An **adverb** has three degrees of comparison: **positive, comparative** and **superlative**.
- The simple form of the adverb is called the **positive** degree. Example: Kathy ran **fast** in the race.
- When two actions are being compared, the **comparative** degree is used. Example: Amy ran **faster** than Kathy.
- When three or more actions are being compared, the **superlative** degree is used. Example: Maureen ran the **fastest** of all.
- Use -er to form the comparative degree and use -est to form the superlative degree of one-syllable adverbs.
- Use more or most with longer adverbs and with adverbs that end in -ly. Examples: Lousia ran **more energetically** than Bob. Ms. Baker ran the **most energetically** of all the runners.

Prepositions

- A **preposition** is a word that shows the relationship of a noun or a pronoun to another word in the sentence. Example: The child ran **into** the **house**. He put his boots **under** the **table**.
- These are some commonly used preposition:
about against at between from of through under
above among behind by in on to upon
across around beside into over toward with

Prepositional Phrases

- A **phrase** is a group of closely related words used as a single part of speech but not containing a subject and predicate. Example: The writer **of this novel** is signing autographs.

- A **prepositional phrase** is a group of words that begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or pronoun.

Example: He took the train to **New York**.

- The noun or pronoun in the prepositional phrase is called the object of the preposition.

Example: He took the train to **New York**.

Prepositional Phrase as Adjectives and Adverbs

- A prepositional phrase can be used to describe a noun or a pronoun. Then the prepositional phrase is being used as an **adjective** to tell which one, what kind, or how many.

Example: The bird **in the tree** whistled.

The prepositional phrase in the tree tells **which** bird.

- A prepositional phrase can be used to describe a verb. Then the prepositional phrase is being used as an adverb to tell how, where, or when.

Example: Charlie ate breakfast **before leaving for school**.

The prepositional phrase **before leaving for school** tells **when** Charlie ate breakfast.

Conjunctions

- A **conjunction** is a word used to join words or groups of words.

Examples: Yuri **and** Brant have arrived. They worked **until** the sun went down.

- These are some commonly used conjunctions:

although because however or that when whereas
and but if since though whether yet as for nor
than unless while

- Some conjunctions are used in pairs. These include either...or, neither...nor, and not only...but also.

Using Capital Letters

- **Capitalize** the first word of a sentence and of each line of poetry.

Examples: Jim recited a poem. The first two lines follow.

All the animals looked up in wonder

When they heard the roaring thunder.

- Capitalize the first word of a direct quotation.

Example: Beth said, “Let’s try to memorize a poem, too.”

- Capitalize the first, last and all important words in the titles of books, poems, stories, and songs.

Examples: *The Jungle Book*, “Snow Time”

- Capitalize all **proper nouns**.

Examples: James T. White, Mother, Fifth Avenue, Italy, Missouri, Smokey Mountains, Thanksgiving, November, Statue of Liberty, *Mayflower*, British Columbia.

- Capitalize all **proper adjectives**. A proper adjective is an adjective that is made from a proper noun.

Examples: the Italian language, Chinese food, French tourist

- Capitalize a person’s title when it comes before a name.

Examples: Mayor Flynn, Doctor Soares, Governor Kuhn

- Capitalize abbreviations of titles.

Examples: Ms C. Cooke, Dr. Pearsoll, Gov. Milne, Judge Brenner

Using End Punctuation

- Use a **period** at the end of a declarative sentence.

Example: Sunlight is essential for the growth of plants.

- Use **question mark** at end of an interrogative sentence.

Example: How much sunlight does a plant need?

- Use a **period** at the end of an imperative sentence.

Example: Open this jar of tomatoes for me, please.

- Use an **exclamation point** at the end of an exclamatory sentence and after an interjection that shows strong feelings. If a command expresses great excitement, use an exclamation point at the end of the sentence.

Example: Look at the stars! Ouch! I’m so excited!

Using Commas

- Use a **comma** between words or groups of words that are in a series.

Example: Pears, peaches, plums, and figs grow in the southeast states.

- Use a **comma** before a conjunction in a compound sentence.

Example: The farmers planted many crops, and they will work long hours to harvest them.

- Use a **comma** after a subordinate clause when it begins a sentence.

Example: After we ate dinner, we went to a movie.

- Use a **comma** to set off a quotation from the rest of a sentence.

Examples: “I want to go with you,” said Paul.

Paul said, “ I want to go with you.”

- Use a **comma** to set off the name of a person who is being addressed.

Example: Emily, are you ready to go?

- Use a **comma** to set off words like yes, no, well, and oh at the beginning of a sentence.

Example: Yes, as soon as I find my jacket.

- Use a **comma** to set off an appositive.

Example: Felix, Emily’s dog, is entered in dog show.

Using Quotation Marks and Apostrophes

- Use **quotation marks** to show the exact words of a speaker. Use a comma or another punctuation mark to separate the quotation from the rest of the sentence. Begin the quote with a capital letter.

Examples: Pat said, Please take the dog for a walk.” “Please take the dog for a walk,” said Pat.

- A **quotation** may also be divided within the sentence.

Example: “ Pat ,” said Scott, “I just returned from a walk!”

- Use an **apostrophe** in a contraction to show where a letter or letters have been taken out.

Examples: I **can’t** remember your name. **I’ll** have to think about it.

- Use an apostrophe to form a possessive noun. Add ’s to s few nouns that have irregular plurals.

Examples: **Dina’s** house is made of brick. All the **neighbors’** houses are wooden. The **children’s** treehouse is wooden.

Using Colons and Hyphens

- Use a **colon** after the greeting in a business letter.

Examples: Dear Mr. Johnson: Dear Sirs:

- Use a colon between the hour and the minute when writing the time.

Examples: 1:30 6:15 11:47

- Use a colon to introduce a list.

Example: Our grocery list included the following items: chicken, milk, eggs, and broccoli.

- Use a **hyphen** between the parts of some compound words.

Examples: twenty-one sister-in-law go-getter well-behaved

Air-conditioned middle-aged sixty-six great-grandfather

Blue-green middle-aged sixty-six great-grandfather

- Use a hyphen to separate the syllables of a word that is carried over from one line to the next.

Examples: When the coach has finished his speech, the class mem-
bers will be allowed to use the pool.

Writing Sentences

- Every sentence has a base consisting of a simple subject and a simple predicate

Example: Amanda baked.

- Expand the meaning of sentence by adding adjectives, adverbs, and prepositional phrases to the sentence base.

Example: **My cousin** Amanda baked a **delicious orange cake for dessert.**

Writing Topic Sentences

- A **topic sentence** states the main idea of a paragraph. It is often placed at the beginning of a paragraph.

Example: **Mario was asked to write an article about the new recreation center for the school paper.** He wrote a list of questions to ask. He interviewed the park superintendent. He found out about the old park and why it was necessary to build a recreation center.

Writing Supporting Details

- The idea expressed in the topic sentence can be developed with sentences containing **supporting details**. Details can include facts, examples, and reasons.

Ordering Information within a Paragraph

- One way to organize information in a paragraph is to put it in **chronological order**-the time in which events occurred. Words such as first, next, second, then, finally, and later are used to indicate the order in which events happen.

Example: **First**, Mario checked his tape recorder, **Then** he left for the interview.

- Another way to organize information is to use **spatial order**. Words such as above, near, over, beside, right, left, closer, farther, up, and down are used to express spatial relationships.

Example: The bald eagle sat on **top** of the tree. He watched the pond **below**.

Topic and Audience

- The **topic** of a story or an article is the subject written about.
- The **audience** is the group of readers.

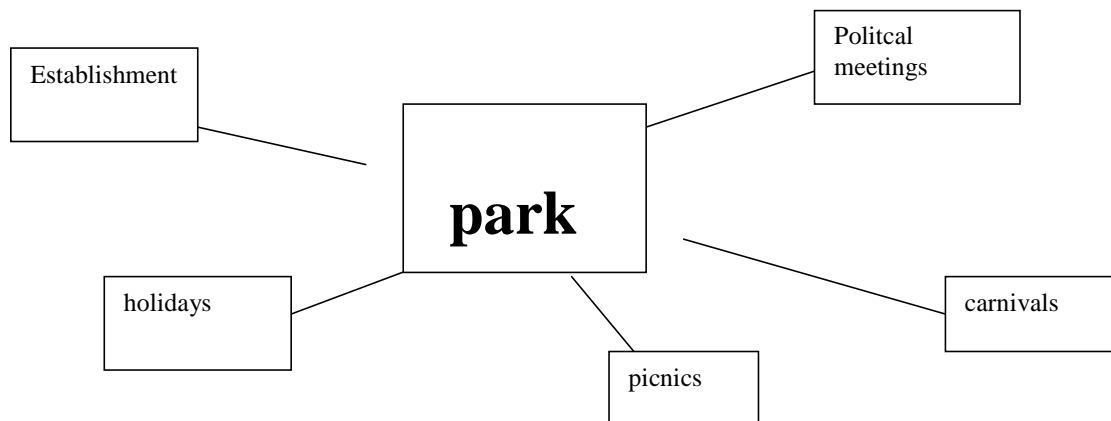
Examples: students, family members, neighbors, readers of a newspaper.

Clustering

A **clustering topic diagram** shows how ideas relate to a particular topic. The topic is written in the center. Related ideas are written around the topic. Lines show the connections between the ideas.

Example:

Topic sentence: The recreation center will be built in land that was once a park.



Outlining

- Before you write about a topic, organize your thought by making an **outline**. An outline consists of the title of the topic, main headings for the **main idea**, and **subheadings** for supporting ideas.
- Main headings are listed after Roman numerals. Subheadings are listed after capital letters.

Example:

Topic: The need for a recreation center

- I.** Problems with park
 - A. Age of equipment
 - B. Limited usefulness for residents
- II.** Advantages of recreation center
 - A. wide range of uses
 - B. Safe, up-to-date equipment

Preparing Interview Questions

- Writers use interviews to get information. Good interview questions will encourage the person being interviewed to talk freely about the subject.

Examples: Why do we need a recreation center? Who will be involved in making decisions?

- Avoid questions that can be answered either yes or no by beginning them with words such as who, what, why, and how.

Example: Why do we need a recreation center?

Writing Based on an Interview

- Many factual articles are based on information gathered in an interview. The writer asks questions about the subject he or she wants to cover and then uses the information to write an article.

Revising and Proofreading

- **Revising** gives you a chance to rethink and review what you have written and to improve your writing. Revise by adding words and information, by taking out unneeded words and information, and by moving words, sentences, and paragraphs around.
- **Proofreading** has to do with checking spelling, punctuation, grammar, and capitalization. Use proofreader's marks to show changes needed in your writing.

Dictionary : Guide Words

- A **dictionary** is a reference book that contains definitions of words and other information about their history and use.
- **Entries** in the dictionary are listed in **alphabetical order**.

- **Guide words** appear at the top of each dictionary page. Guide words show the first and last entry on the page.

Example: The word lease would appear on a dictionary page with the guide words learn/lesson. The word lever would not.

Dictionary: Syllables

- A **Syllable** is a part of a word that is pronounced at one time. Dictionary entry words are divided into syllables to show how they can be divided at the end of a writing line.
- A Hyphen (-) is placed between syllables to separate them.

Example: quar-ter-back

- If a word has a beginning or ending syllable of only one letter, do not divide it at the end of a writing line so that one letter stands alone.

Example: a-fraid bus-y

Using Parts of a Book

- A **title page** lists the name of a book and its author.
- A **copyright page** tells who published the book, where it was published, and when it was published.
- A **table of contents** lists the chapter or unit titles and the page numbers on which they begin. It is at the front of a book.
- An **Index** gives a detailed list of the topics in the book and the page numbers on which each topic is found. It is in the back of a book.

Using the Library

- Books are arranged on library shelves according to **call numbers**. Each book is assigned a number from 000-999, according to its subject matter. The following are the main subject groups for call numbers.

000-099 Reference
 100-199 Philosophy
 200-299 Religion
 300-399 Social Studies
 400-499 Language

500-599 Science & Mathematics
 600-699 Technology
 700-799 The Arts
 800-899 Literature
 900-999 History & Geography

Using the Card Catalog

- The **card catalog** contains information cards on every book in the library. Some libraries are now computerized and have no card catalogs, but the information in the computer is filled in the same manner as the information in the card catalog.
- Each book has three cards in the catalog. The cards are filled separately according to: 1. The author's last name, 2. The subject of the book, and 3. The title of the book.
- Smaller libraries use the **Dewey Decimal System** to organize their books. Each book is assigned a **call number** from 000-999, according to its subject matter.

Using an Encyclopedia

- An **encyclopedia** is a reference book that contains articles on many different topics. The articles are arranged alphabetically in volumes. Each volume is marked to show the first topic on each page.
- Guide words are used to show the first topic on each page.
- At the end of most articles there is a listing of **cross-references** to related topics for the reader to investigate.

Using an Encyclopedia Index

- Most encyclopedias have an **index** of subject titles, listed in alphabetical order.
- The index shows the volume and the page number where an article can be found. Some encyclopedias contain articles on many different topics. Other encyclopedias contain different articles relating to a broad general topic.

Using a Thesaurus

- A **thesaurus** is a reference book that writers use to find the exact words they need. Like a dictionary, a thesaurus lists its entry words alphabetically. Each entry word has a list of **synonyms (syn.)**, or words that can be used in its place. Some thesauruses also include **antonyms (ant.)**, for each entry word.

Example: You have just written the following sentence: I was so hungry that I **ate** my lunch quickly. With the help of a thesaurus you could improve your

sentence by replacing ate with a more specific synonym, such as devoured. I was so hungry that I **devoured** my lunch quickly.

Using the Readers; Guide

- The **Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature** lists by author and by subject all the articles that appear in nearly two hundred magazines. Use the *Readers' Guide* when you need
- Recent articles on a particular subject,
- Several articles written over a period of time about the same subject,
- Many articles written by the same author.

Choosing Reference Source

- Use a **dictionary** to find the definitions of words and pronunciations of words, suggestions for word usage, and etymologies.
- Use an **encyclopedia** to find articles about many different people, places, and other subjects. Use an encyclopedia to find references to related subjects.
- Use the **thesaurus** to find synonyms and antonyms.
- Use the **Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature** to find magazines articles on specific subjects or by particular authors.
- Use a **atlas** to find maps and other information about geographical locations.
- Use an **almanac**, an annual publication, to find such information as population numbers, annual rainfall, election statistics, and other specific information for a given year.

Using Reference Sources

- Use reference source-dictionaries, encyclopedias, the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*, thesauruses, atlas, and almanacs- to find information about people, places, or things with which you are not familiar. You can also use these sources to find out more about subjects that interest you.