

LANGUAGE CURRICULUM - GRADE 4

This curriculum guide is available to parents of fourth grade students at Forcey Christian School, so that they can assist their children in doing homework and in preparing for tests. For the most part, it follows the sequential pattern of the text listed below.

Text: Easy Grammar Grades 4 and 5 by Wanda C. Phillips

1. **PREPOSITIONS** - Common prepositions: about, above, across, after, against, along, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, by, down, during, except, for, from, in, inside, into, near, of, off, on, onto, out, outside, over, past, through, throughout, to, toward, under, underneath, until, up, upon, with, without.

Prepositional Phrase - A prepositional phrase (a group of two or more words) begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or pronoun (usually something you can see). It may end with an abstract noun (with much happiness), but usually ends with a concrete noun (with my dad). A phrase doesn't express a complete thought; it will not serve as a subject or verb in a sentence. It's possible to have more than one prepositional phrase in a sentence (this is called a **compound object**). The last word in a prepositional phrase is referred to as the **object of the preposition**.

Compound Subject - Subjects are **not** part of a prepositional phrase. The subject is **who** or **what the sentence is about**. Sometimes a sentence talks about two or more people or things (**compound subject**); look for more than one **who** or **what** in the sentence.

Imperative Sentence - **Gives a command**. To find a subject and verb in an imperative sentence do the following: cross out any prepositional phrase(s), write "you" (it's understood) at the beginning of the sentence, and identify the verb by asking **what** you're being told to do.

Compound Verb - Verbs are not part of a prepositional phrase. The verb tells **what happened** (or **is happening**) or **what is** in the sentence. Sometimes more than one thing happens (happened) or is (was) in a sentence (**compound verb**).

Infinitives - To plus a verb is called an infinitive.

Complete Subject and Complete Verb - To identify these in a sentence do the following: cross out any prepositional phrases, underline the subject once, underline the verb with a double line, underline everything before the verb with a wavy red line (**this is the complete subject**) and underline everything after the verb with another wavy red line (**this is the complete verb**).

Direct Objects - Some sentences contain a direct object. A **direct object receives the action of the verb** (it answers **what**). **The verb always shows action in a sentence that has a direct object. There may be two direct objects in a sentence** (called a **compound direct object**). To find a direct object do the following: cross out any prepositional phrase(s), underline the subject once and the verb twice (if a verb shows an action there might be a direct object), and then read the subject and verb and ask whether there is an object that would answer **what**.

2. **VERBS** - Verbs expresses an action or state a fact (often referred to as **state of being verbs**). (Example of an action verb: Bill plays a guitar.) The conjugation of "to be": is, am, are, was, were, be, being, been. When telling present time use am with the pronoun **I**; use is when the subject is singular; and

use are when the subject is you and when the subject is plural. When telling past time use was if the subject is singular, and use were if the subject is you or plural.

Contractions - To contract means to become smaller. Contractions are formed when two or more words are joined together. When joined, the new word is smaller because a letter or letters have been dropped. Put an apostrophe (') where the letters have been dropped. (Examples: I am/I'm, who is/who's, does not/doesn't.)

Homonyms: You're is a contraction that means "you are." Your shows something owns or has something. It's is a contraction that means "it is." Its is a word used to show that something owns or has something. They're is a contraction that means "they are." Their is used to show that something owns or has something. There indicates **where**.

Helping Verbs and Verb Phrases – There are twenty-three helping verbs (called **auxiliary verbs**): do, does, did, has, have, had, may, might, must, can, shall, will, could, should, would, is, am, are, was, were, be, being, been. If a verb can stand **alone** in a sentence, it's called a **main verb**. **In a verb phrase one or more helping verbs are placed in front of a main verb**. (Example: should have stayed—should have are helping verbs and stayed is the main verb). The **main verb** is the last part of a verb phrase. Helping verbs may be beside the main verb (His brother has worked all day.) or may not be beside the main verb (His brother has already worked for five hours.). The helping verb or verbs will not be beside the main verb when the sentence asks a question. (Has his brother worked all day?) **Not** is an **adverb**; it is not a verb and is **never** part of a verb phrase.

Verbs may be regular or irregular. This is indicated by how the verbs form the past tense and the past participle. Past tense indicates time that has happened. Add ed to regular verbs (but not irregular verbs) to form the past tense. The past participle is **not** a tense; it is a form of the verb. Use has, have, or had before the past participle form. Examples of regular verbs: yell, yelled, has yelled. Examples of irregular verbs: sing, sang, has sung. The following is a list of irregular verbs that are given in the following order: **present, past, present participle, past participle**.

List:

is, am, are; was, were; being; been
beat(s), beat, beating, beaten
begin(s), began, beginning, begun
blow(s), blew, blowing, blown
break(s), broke, breaking, broken
bring(s), brought, bringing, brought
burst(s), burst, bursting, burst
buy(s), bought, buying, bought
choose(s), chose, choosing, chosen
come(s), came, coming, come
do, does; did; doing; done
drink(s), drank, drinking, drunk
drive(s), drove, driving, driven
eat(s), ate, eating, eaten
fall(s), fell, falling, fallen
fly, flies; flew; flying; flown
freeze(s), froze, freezing, frozen
give(s), gave, giving, given
go, goes; went; going; gone

lay(s), laid, laying, laid
leave(s), left, leaving, left
lie(s), lay, lying, lain
ride(s), rode, riding, ridden
ring(s), rang, ringing, rung
rise(s), rose, rising, risen
run(s), ran, running, run
see(s), saw, seeing, seen
set(s), set, setting, set
shake(s), shook, shaking, shaken
sing(s), sang, singing, sung
sink(s), sank, sinking, sunk
sit(s), sat, sitting, sat
speak(s), spoke, speaking, spoken
spring(s), sprang, springing, sprung
steal(s), stole, stealing, stolen
swim(s), swam, swimming, swum
swear(s), swore, swearing, sworn
take(s), took, taking, taken

grow(s), grew, growing, grown
have, has; had; having; had
hang(s), hanged or hung (went referring to objects),
hanging, hanged or hung
know(s), knew, knowing, known

teach(es), taught, teaching, taught
throw(s), threw, throwing, thrown
wear(s), wore, wearing, worn
write(s), wrote, writing, written

Clarification - “**To sit**” does not require a direct object; it’s something that one can do alone. “**Set**” requires a direct object; it means “to place”—there needs to be a “thing” to place. “**Rise**” is an irregular verb and “**Raise**” is a regular verb. “**Rise**” – some things can go up (rise) without help (smoke, sun). “**Raise**” – must have a direct object. “**To lie**” means “to rest”—“I lie on the floor.” “A minute ago I lay on the floor.” “I was lying on the floor.” “I had lain there for a few seconds.” “**To lay**” means “to put down on, in, or against something.” **Can** means “to be able to.” **May** asks permission, gives permission, or suggests a possibility.

Verb Tenses - Tense means time. Present Tense indicates present time. If the subject is singular, add s to the verb (es to some verbs). **Past Tense indicates that which has happened.** Past tense never has a helping verb. Form the past tense of a regular verb by adding ed to the verb. Form the past tense of an irregular verb by changing the verb to its correct form. **Future Tense indicates time yet to happen.** Two helping verbs that indicate the future are will (used often for future tense) and shall (used with the pronoun I).

Subject/Verb Agreement - Singular means one; plural means more than one. If the subject is singular, add s to the regular verb for the present tense (some verbs add es). Some irregular verbs completely change form in the present tense. Examples: to have (One boy has the flu); to be (Bob is in fifth grade). With the pronoun I (singular), the verb does not add s. (I enjoy food.) With the pronoun you don’t add s to the verb. (You hit the ball.) If the subject is plural, don’t add s to the verb. (The boys play together.) If the subject is a **compound** (means “**more than one**”), don’t add s. (Fred and Bill play together.) Follow these rules when a compound subject is joined by or: if the subject closest to the verb is singular, add s to the verb; if plural, don’t add s to the verb.

3. **NOUNS** - **Nouns** name persons, places, things, and ideas. **Common nouns** do not name specific persons, places, or things (man, city, book). These are not capitalized. **Proper nouns** name specific persons, places, and things (Bill, Silver Spring, Washington Monument). These are capitalized. Most nouns are **concrete nouns**—they can be seen (book, desk). **Abstract nouns** usually signify ideas (love, kindness). They can’t be seen.

Noun Determiners

Articles: a, an, and the. (The car is red.)

Demonstratives: this, that, those, these. (Do you like this flower?)

Numbers: (Two boys went home.)

Possessive pronouns: my, his, her, your, its, our, their, whose. (My brother is happy.)

Possessive nouns Bill’s bike is broken.

Indefinites: some, few, many, several, no, and any. (Several girls came to the game.)

There may be nouns without determiners in a sentence. Bob and his cousin went to Chicago.)

Singular and Plural Nouns Singular means one and plural means more than one. To form the plural of most nouns, add s. If a word ends in ch, sh, s, z, or x, add es to form the plural. (The dictionary will say **pl. es**. when es should be added to a noun to make it plural.) To form the plural of a singular noun that ends in a **vowel + y** (ay, ey, iy, oy, or uy), add s to the plural. To form the plural of a noun ending in a

consonant + y, change the y to i and add es. (In a dictionary if y should be changed to i and es added, it will say **pl. ies**.) To form the plural of some nouns ending in f, change the f to v and add es (calf to calves). To form the plural of some nouns ending in f, simply add s (roof to roofs). To form the plural of some nouns ending in o, add s (zoo to zoos). To form the plural of some nouns ending in o, add es (tomato to tomatoes). Some nouns ending in o will add s or es (lasso...pl. sos, soes). Some nouns do not change to form the plural (deer). (In the dictionary, if the word doesn't change it will say **pl. deer**.) Some nouns change totally to form the plural (child to children). (The dictionary will say **pl. children**. If two spellings are given in the dictionary, the first one is preferred.)

Possessive nouns show ownership or that something is part of something else. To form the possessive of a singular noun, add 's (boy's); to form the possessive of a plural noun ending in s, add ' after the s (boys'); to form the possessive of a plural noun not ending in s, add 's (men's).

4. **SENTENCE TYPES** - **Declarative sentences** make a statement and end in a period. **Interrogative sentences** ask a question and ends with a question mark. To determine the subject of an interrogative sentence, change the sentence into a statement (declarative sentence). **Imperative sentences** give a command and ends with a period. **Exclamatory sentences** shows emotion and ends with an exclamation point.

5. **CONJUNCTIONS** - Two or more sentences are usually joined by and, but, and or. These words are called conjunctions or **connecting words**. The most common conjunctions (and, but, and or) are referred to as coordinating conjunctions. But, when it means "except," is a preposition, not a conjunction.

6. **INTERJECTIONS** - An interjection is a word or phrase that expresses strong emotion. An exclamation point (!) is placed after an interjection. (Yeah! Oh rats!)

7. **ADJECTIVES**

Adjectives modify nouns and pronouns. "To modify" means "to go over to." There are **two major types** of adjectives: **limiting** and **descriptive**.

Limiting (Determining) Adjectives (also referred to as **Noun Determiners**) include:

Articles: A, an, and the. An is used before words that begin with a vowel; a is used before words that begin with a consonant. (The boy is sad.) Some limiting adjectives (such as a, an, and the) tell **how many**.

Demonstratives: this, that, those, these. (Do you enjoy this food?)

Numbers: Can be used as limiting adjectives to tell **how many**. (Three girls went home.)

Possessive pronouns: my, his, her, your, its, our, their, whose. (My dad is here.)

Possessive nouns Show ownership. (Bob's hat flew off!)

Indefinites: several, some, many, few, no, and any can be used as limiting adjectives to tell **how many**. (Some people are hungry.)

There may be two determiners before a noun. (His first tooth came in.) There may be a determiner + a descriptive word or words before a noun. (A small blue candle was lit.)

Descriptive adjectives - Most adjectives are descriptive; they describe things that you can see. Descriptive adjectives often tell **what kind**. Sometimes more than one adjective are used to describe nouns (a big yellow balloon). An adjective may come after the verb and go back to describe the subject. (That girl is sweet.) Adjectives may come after a noun (or pronoun)—(Bob's bathing suit, sandy and wet, is on the bed).

When identifying adjectives, first identify any limiting adjectives and then look for any descriptive adjectives.

Proper Adjectives – These come from proper nouns (Switzerland/Swiss village, Idaho/Idaho potatoes).

Comparative Form - Adjectives can make comparisons. The **comparative form** compares two items: add er to most one-syllable adjectives (dumb/dumber); add er to some two-syllable adjectives (funny/funnier); place more (or less) before some two-syllable adjectives (loving/more loving); place more (or less) before adjectives of three or more syllables (fantastic/more fantastic); some adjectives totally change forms when comparing two items (good/better, bad/worst).

Superlative Form - The **superlative form** compares three or more items: add est to most one-syllable adjectives (long/longest); add est to some two-syllable adjectives (pretty/prettiest); place most (or least) before some two-syllable adjectives (patient/most patient); place most (or least) before adjectives of three or more syllables (delicious/most delicious); some adjectives totally change forms when comparing three or more items (good/best, bad/worst).

Review – One-syllable words ending in CVC (consonant-vowel-consonant) double the final consonant if the suffix (ending) begins with a vowel (big/bigger/biggest). One-syllable words ending in e drop the e when adding a suffix that begins with a vowel (cute/cuter/cutest). Check the dictionary to determine if a two-syllable word should add er (est). (If an adjective needs to add er and est, this will appear in the dictionary entry **shiny**—(**shin**) – **adj. shinier, shiniest.**)

8. **ADVERBS**

Adverbs can tell **how** someone (or something) does or did something. Most adverbs, but not all, that tell how, modify (go over to) a verb, and end in ly. Fast, hard, and well tell how but don't end in ly. Adverbs that tell how usually will not be part of a prepositional phrase. (He sat on the chair cautiously.)

Adverbs can tell **when** something happens (happened). Most of these modify a verb. Some adverbs that tell when are now, then, soon, sooner, late, later, when, whenever, first, afterwards, always, never, forever, again, sometimes, early, earlier, daily, yesterday, today, tomorrow, and tonight.

Adverbs can tell **where**. These adverbs usually modify a verb. Some adverbs that tell where are here, there, where, nowhere, everywhere, anywhere, somewhere, home, in, out, inside, outside, up, down, near, far, and around.

Adverbs can tell **to what extent**. Adverbs that tell to what extent may modify an adjective, an adverb, or a verb. Seven adverbs that usually tell to what extent are not, so, very, too, quite, rather, and somewhat. (Her teacher is very creative. He went rather slowly. I am not going.) There are other words such as unusually, extremely, etc.

A word may have a **noun** form, an **adjective** form, and an **adverb** form (n – happiness, adj – happy, adv – happily). Fast and hard are the same in both the adjective and adverb forms. (They are fast runners. They run fast. He is a hard worker. He hit the ball hard.)

There are times when a preposition and an adverb will stand side by side. (She came over in the evening.) To serve as a preposition, the word must have an object. (“Down the highway” tells where but it isn't an adverb.)

Adverbs can make comparisons. The **comparison form** compares two things. When forming comparatives, add er to most one-syllable adverbs (fast-faster); add more before most two or more syllable adverbs (cheerfully-more cheerfully)—some two-syllable words add er (early-earlier)—(if dictionary doesn't say **adv. er**, use more); some adverbs totally change form (well/better). The **superlative form** compares three or more things. When forming superlatives, add est to most one-syllable adverbs (fast-fastest); add most before two or more syllable adverbs (cheerfully/most cheerfully)—some two-syllable words add est (early/earliest); some adverbs totally change form (well/best).

Double Negatives - The following are negative words: no, not (n't), never, none, nobody, and nothing. Never use more than one negative in the same sentence. Exception: If no is used to answer a question, another negative word may be used in the sentence. (No, I have not found the lost item.)

9. **PRONOUNS - Personal pronouns** - Pronouns **take the place of nouns** (Bill/he). **Subject** pronouns are usually the subject of a sentence. Include: I, he, she, we, they, who, you, and it. These are called **nominative** pronouns. When talking about yourself, use the pronoun I at or near the beginning of the sentence. When making reference to yourself and another person, use the other person's name first. **Objective** pronouns include: me, him, her, us, them, whom, you, and it. These can serve as an **object of the preposition**. An object of the preposition is the word that comes **after** a preposition (Bob went shopping with him). Object pronouns can serve as a **direct object** (a d.o. receives the action of the verb). Example: Mary sees her often.

Compound Pronouns - There can be more than one subject in a sentence and there can be more than one object in a sentence. Examples: Bill and I went to the game. Jean sat next to Mary and her.

Possessive Pronouns take the place of nouns and show ownership. Include: my, his, her, your, its, our, and their—**these come before a noun (pronoun)**—and mine, hers, yours, ours, and theirs—**these come after a noun (pronoun)**.

Possessive Pronouns – Antecedents - To have an antecedent, there must be a possessive pronoun. The antecedent is the noun or pronoun to which the possessive pronoun refers. (Bob fixed his car.) The possessive pronoun his refers back to the **antecedent** Bob. An antecedent will not be a word in a prepositional phrase. (The girl with blond hair followed her teacher.) Girl is the antecedent of her.

Its/It's, Your/You're, Their/There/They're - Its is a possessive pronoun; if you can use its, asks **its what?** It's is a contraction for "it is." Your is a possessive pronoun; if you can use your, ask **your what?** You're is a contraction for "you are." Their is a possessive pronoun; if you can use their, ask **their what?** There is an adverb telling where. They're is a contraction for "they are."

Interrogative Pronouns - The interrogative pronoun asks a question. Interrogative pronouns: who, whom, whose, which, and what. Who is a nominative pronoun (Who will help me?) Whom is an objective pronoun. Whom will serve as an object of a sentence. (To whom did I give the ball?) Don't end a sentence with to, for, with, or at! Use whom after to, for, from, with, or at. A direct object receives the action of a verb. Whom can be used as a direct object. (The ball hit whom on the arm?)

What, which, and whose are pronouns if they stand alone, but they serve as adjectives when they modify a noun (or pronoun) in a sentence. Whose is this? (Pronoun) Whose book is this? (Adjective).

10. **FRIENDLY LETTER** – The parts of a friendly letter include a **heading**, **greeting**, **body**, **closing**, and **signature**. The greeting is also called the **salutation**. Use a three-lined heading in **formal** letters. The date is often the only item used in **informal** letters. Abbreviations are not used in formal letters.

Exception: the postal code for states—these are capitalized (PA, NY, MD). **Use commas:** between city and state in second line of heading, after the name in the greeting, and after the closing. **Capitalize:** first word and name in greeting and first word of closing. The first word of each line of heading begins at the same place; the first word of each line of closing and signature begins at the same place. **Envelope: return address** in upper left hand corner with name on first line; house number and street name on second line; city, state, and zip code on third line; **main address** in center with name of person to whom letter is being sent on first line; person's house number and street name on second line; and city, state, and zip code on the third line.

11. **CAPITALIZATION** - Capitalize people's name (Frank); initials (T. K. Smith); titles with names (Aunt Susan); pronoun I; first word of a sentence, of a direct quotation, of a line of poetry; first word and name in a letter greeting; first word of a letter closing; names schools, colleges, hospitals, or libraries; names of stores, restaurants, and other businesses; days of the week (Sunday); months of the year (July); holidays (Memorial Day); special days (Mother's Day); special events (Senior Day); names of streets, roads, avenues, drives, lanes, highways, trails, turnpikes, and other roads; names of towns and cities (Philadelphia), states (Maryland); countries (France); names of a languages (English, French); brand names (Nike sneakers); Mother, Dad, and other words if you can insert a person's name (Did Dad buy milk?); historical events (American Revolution); first word, last word, and all important words in titles of books (**do not capitalize** a, an, the, and, but, or, not, or prepositions of four or less letters unless they are the first or the last word); Roman numerals, major divisions and first word of outlines; names of particular buildings (Forcey Memorial Church); canals, tunnels, roads, and bridges; names of geographic places (Atlantic Ocean); names of organizations (Boy Scouts of America); names of religions, religious denominations, religious documents; name of the Supreme Being (God); and names of churches. **Do not capitalize:** seasons of the year, directions (unless they are part of a place name), school subjects (unless they state a language or are numbered) foods, games, musical instruments, diseases, plants, or animals.

12. **PUNCTUATION**

Period (.) Put a period at the end of a declarative sentence, end of an imperative sentence, after initials (M. R. Roper), after an abbreviation for a day of the week (Tues.), after an abbreviation for a month (Oct.), after an abbreviation for a title (Mr./Mister), after the abbreviation for some places (St.-Street, Rd.-Road), after abbreviations such as Co., A.D., P.M. , and after the letter(s) and number(s) in an outline.

Apostrophe (') Use an apostrophe in a contraction to show where a letter or letters are left out; to show ownership: if one item owns something, add ' + s (Bob's room); if a word is plural and ends in s, add ' after the s (cats' dish); and if a word is plural and does not end in s, add ' + s (children's room).

Comma (,) Use a comma to invert a name (Lincoln, Abe); after the greeting in a letter; after the closing of a letter; after three or more items in a series; after an introductory word like **yes** or **no** at the beginning of a sentence; after the person's name when speaking to someone, if the name is at the beginning of the sentence (direct address)— (Bill, I like your home.); before the person's name if the person's name is at the end of a sentence (I like your home, Bill.); before and after the person's name if the person is addressed in the middle of the sentence (Will you, Bill, go to the game with me?); use a comma to make a sentence clear (During the night, they like to fly around.); to set off interrupters (The house, in fact, is quite old.); put a comma at the end of most direct quotations (after the last word of the quotation or if the person who is talking is given first, after the person's name + said or asked); between the day and year in a date; between the name of a day and date; between a town or city and a state; between a city and a country; in a street address, after the street and after the city; (**don't put a comma** between the state and the zip code); and between two or more descriptive adjectives unless one is a color or a number (A small, playful dog...).

Colon (:), Question Mark (?), and Exclamation Point (!) - Use a **colon** between the hour and minute(s) in time, to set off lists, between chapter and verse(s) in the Bible, and after divisions of topics. Use a **question mark** at the end of a sentence that asks a question. Use an **exclamation point** after an exclamatory sentence—a sentence that shows strong feeling (We're almost finished!), and after a word or phrase that shows strong feeling—interjection (wow!).

Hyphen (-) - Use a **hyphen** between fractions (one-half), between two digit word numbers between 21 and 99 (twenty-five), to combine some closely related words (soon-to-be), and when dividing a word of two or more syllables at the end of a line (you must have at least two letters on the first line and three on the next line).

Underlining - Underline the name of ships, planes, and trains; the titles of books, magazines, newspapers, movies, and television shows. (You can use italics for this purpose on a computer.)

Quotation Marks - Put quotation marks around a direct quotation and titles of articles, short stories, poems, songs, and chapters.