

Liberty High School Grammar Guide

<p style="text-align: center;">PARTS OF SPEECH</p> <p>1. Nouns: name people, places, things, or ideas. Examples: book, matches, sunlight, Maria, baby, shell -I saw the <u>movie</u> in the <u>theater</u>. -The <u>fish</u> swam through the <u>water</u> in the <u>pond</u>.</p> <p>2. Verbs: show actions or states of being. Examples: eat, find, run, walk, become, feel, seem, are -The baker <u>cut</u> the bread. (action verb) -The bread <u>is</u> good. (linking verb)</p> <p>3. Adjectives: describe nouns and pronouns. They tell us <i>Which one? What kind? How many? Whose?</i> Examples: the, orange, special, many, colorful, Charlie's -I would like the <u>fresh</u> muffin. -The <u>blue</u> coat is hanging in the <u>front</u> closet. Note: <i>a, an, and the</i> are types of adjectives called articles.</p> <p>4. Adverbs: describe or modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. They tell us <i>How? When? Where? Why? To what extent?</i> Examples: awkwardly, girlishly, lazily, silently, stylishly, well, yesterday -My friend dresses <u>so stylishly</u>. -<u>Yesterday</u>, we went shopping <u>everywhere</u>!</p> <p>5. Prepositions: show the relationship between a noun or a pronoun and some other word or element in the rest of the sentence. They are always in prepositional phrases (a preposition + a noun or pronoun). Prepositional phrases act as adjectives or adverbs. Examples: above, behind, below, from, inside, up, over, to, of -Will you please go <u>on</u> a walk <u>with</u> me? -<u>In</u> the bottom <u>of</u> the glass, I found an ace <u>of</u> spades.</p> <p>6. Conjunctions join two or more words, phrases, or clauses. Coordinating conjunctions join things that are equal. Examples: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so (FANBOYS) Subordinating conjunctions join independent and dependent clauses. Examples: after, although, because, if, when, whenever -Can we go to the zoo <u>and</u> the fair? (coordinating) -<u>Although</u> that would be nice, we can only go to the zoo. (subordinating)</p> <p>7. Interjections: show emotion. They are not grammatically related to the rest of the sentence. Examples: rats, gee, darn, aww, gosh, yes, fiddlesticks -<u>Oh no</u>, we lost the game. -<u>Holy cow!</u> This cake is delicious!</p> <p>8. Pronouns: take the place of one or more nouns. Examples: I, you, me, they, who, which, yourself -President Lincoln delivered <u>his</u> <i>Gettysburg Address</i> in 1863. Antecedent rule: An antecedent is a word for which a pronoun stands. In the above pronoun example, the pronoun <i>his</i> refers back to the <i>President Lincoln</i> (the antecedent). Rule: The pronoun must agree with its antecedent in number, so a singular pronoun must replace a singular noun, and a plural pronoun must replace a plural noun. Correct: The <u>elephant</u> curled <u>its</u> trunk around the branch. Correct: <u>People</u> tend to sleep with <u>their</u> lights turned off. Incorrect: <u>One</u> must watch <u>their</u> back around Johnnie. Correct: <u>One</u> must watch <u>his</u> or <u>her</u> back around Johnnie.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">CAPITALIZE...</p> <p>-"I" -the first word in a sentence -All the words in a title except articles, prepositions, and coordinating conjunctions (but always the first word of the title) -names of particular people, places, and things (e.g., Dorothy, Corvallis, the Washington Monument) -brand names -days of the week -months -holidays -languages -nationalities -geographical regions (e.g., the Midwest) -names of specific courses (e.g., Math 4) -titles and family terms that come right in front of a person's name or that are used as names (e.g., Senator Ron Wyden, Uncle Bob, Mom)</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">APOSTROPHES</p> <p>Use an apostrophe and s to form possessives: -add 's to the singular form of the word (even if it ends in -s): the owner's car James's hat the boss's husband -add 's to the plural forms that do not end in -s: the children's game the geese's honking -add ' to the end of plural nouns that end in -s: two cats' toys three friends' letters the countries' laws -Use an apostrophe to indicate omitted numbers or letters (contractions): the '60s don't, wouldn't, he's For clarity, use an apostrophe to form <i>special plurals</i>: Mind your p's and q's. Do not add an apostrophe when referring to centuries or decades: 1960s, 1700s, etc. -The following possessive pronouns have no apostrophe: <i>hers, its, theirs, yours</i></p>
<p style="text-align: center;">CLAUSES</p> <p>A clause ALWAYS contains BOTH a subject and a verb. There are two kinds of clauses: independent and dependent.</p> <p>Independent Clauses contain a subject and a verb and can stand alone (a single, complete thought). Example: The dog ran under the bush.</p> <p>Dependent Clauses contain a subject and a verb, but they CANNOT stand alone. They leave us "hanging." Dependent Clauses begin with subordinating conjunctions or relative pronouns/relative adverbs. Example: When the dog ran under the bush (Dependent clause)</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">DON'T CAPITALIZE...</p> <p>-the seasons (e.g., summer) -general school subjects (e.g., math) -general direction words (e.g., go south two miles) -titles and family terms with possessives or with the/a/an (e.g., my mom, the doctor, a father) -the first word after a semicolon</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">SENTENCE PARTS</p> <p>Subjects and Predicates Every sentence has two basic parts: a subject and a predicate. The subject tells whom or what the sentence is about. The predicate tells what the subject is or does or what happens to the subject. Example – The violent storm battered the sailboat. simple subject– storm simple predicate– battered -The complete subject includes the simple subject and all the words that modify or tell more about it -The complete predicate includes the verb and all the words that modify or tell about it Example – Disaster movies fascinate nearly everyone. complete subject – Disaster movies complete predicate– fascinate nearly everyone</p> <p>Compound Subjects and Verbs A compound subject is made up of two or more subjects that share a verb Example -Divers and climbers share a love of adventure. <i>Divers</i> and <i>climbers</i> combine to form a compound subject. A compound verb is made up of two or more verbs or verb phrases that are joined by a conjunction and have the same subject. Example –The exhausted diver ached and moaned.</p> <p>Objects Action verbs often require complements called direct objects and indirect objects to complete their meaning. Direct Object—a word or group that receives the action of an action verb The girl threw the <u>ball</u> to her father. Indirect Object—tells to what, to whom, for what, or for whom an action is done. The girl threw the ball to her <u>father</u>.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">PHRASES</p> <p>Phrases are groups of words that DO NOT contain a subject and a verb. Three common types of phrases are prepositional phrases, appositive phrases, and participle phrases.</p> <p>Prepositional phrase: begins with a preposition (in, around, about, of, with, etc.), ends with the object of the preposition (always a noun or pronoun)</p> <p>Appositive phrase: a noun or noun phrase that renames the noun that precedes it; offset by commas ("Batman, <i>a masked vigilante</i>, protects Gotham City")</p> <p>Participle phrase: -Present participle phrase begins with an '-ing' verb and acts as an adjective for a noun ("<i>Barking wildly</i>, the dog chased the mailman") -Past Participle phrase begins with a past-tense verb and acts as an adjective for a noun ("<i>Exhausted from the trip</i>, I slept for twelve hours when I got home")</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">SENTENCE STRUCTURE</p> <p>Simple-Has only one independent clause; may have compound subjects or verbs. -Peter ran home today.</p> <p>Compound-Made up of two or more simple sentences joined by a coordinate conjunction (and, or, but, for, nor, yet, so). -Peter ran home today, and he ran fast.</p> <p>Complex-Contains one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses (can't stand alone) joined with a subordinating conjunction. -Because Peter ran home today, he was tired.</p> <p>Compound-Complex-Contains two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses. -When Peter ran home today, he saw his neighbors, but he didn't stop to say hello.</p>	

COMMAS

- Use commas to separate independent clauses when they are joined by any of these seven coordinating conjunctions: *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so* (FANBOYS).
 - The game was over, but the crowd refused to leave.
 - Yesterday was her brother's birthday, so she took him out to dinner.
- Use commas after introductory a) clauses, b) phrases, or c) words that come before the main clause. However, don't put a comma after the main clause when a dependent clause follows it (except for cases of extreme contrast**).
 - clauses
 - Correct: While I was eating, the cat scratched at the door.
 - Incorrect: The cat scratched at the door, while I was eating.
 - **Correct: She was still quite upset, although she had won the Oscar.
 - phrases:
 - Having finished the test, he left the room.
 - The sun radiating intense heat, we sought shelter in the cafe.
 - introductory words (includes *yes, however, well*)
 - Yes, the package should arrive tomorrow morning.
 - However, you may not be satisfied with the results.
- Use a pair of commas in the middle of a sentence to set off clauses, phrases, and words that are not essential to the meaning of the sentence.
 - Clause: That Tuesday, *which happens to be my birthday*, is the only day that works.
 - Phrase: This restaurant is nice. The food, *on the other hand*, is rather bland.
 - Word: In this case, *however*, you seem to have over-exerted yourself.
- Do not use commas to set off essential elements of the sentence, such as clauses beginning with *that* (relative clauses).
 - Correct: The book *that I borrowed from you* is excellent.
 - Correct: The candidate *who had the least money* lost the election.
 - Incorrect: Students, *who cheat*, only harm themselves.
- Use commas to separate three or more words, phrases, or clauses in a series.
 - Joe wanted ice cream, candy, and cake for breakfast.
 - The candidate promised to lower taxes, protect the environment, reduce crime, and end unemployment.
- Use commas to separate two or more coordinate adjectives (adjectives with equal status in describing the noun) that describe the same noun. You can decide if two adjectives are coordinate by asking the following questions:
 - Does the sentence make sense if the adjectives are written in reverse order?
 - Does it make sense if the adjectives are written with *and* between them?If yes, then the adjectives are coordinate and should be separated by a comma.
 - Coordinate: He was a difficult, stubborn child.
 - Coordinate: Your cousin has an easy, happy smile.
 - Non-coordinate: They lived in a white frame house.
 - Non-coordinate: She often wore a gray wool shawl.
- Use a comma near the end of a sentence to separate contrasted coordinate elements or to indicate a distinct pause or shift.
 - He was merely ignorant, not stupid.
 - You're one of the senator's close friends, aren't you?
 - The speaker seemed innocent, even gullible.
- Use commas to set off all geographical names, items in dates (except the month and day), addresses (except the street number and name), and titles in names.
 - Birmingham, Alabama, gets its name from Birmingham, England.
 - Who lives at 1600 Pennsylvania Avenue, Washington, DC?
 - Rachel B. Lake, MD, will be the principal speaker on July 22, 2019.
- Use a comma to shift between the main discourse and a quotation.
 - John said without emotion, "I'll see you tomorrow."
 - "I was able," she answered, "to complete the assignment."
 - In 1848, Marx wrote, "Workers of the world, unite!"
- Use commas wherever necessary to prevent possible confusion or misreading.
 - To Michael, Jordan had been a sort of idol.
- Use a comma (or commas) when directly addressing someone by name or description.
 - Could you come here, James?
 - Farm boy, polish my horse's saddle.
 - I promise, dear readers, that I do not intend to bore you.

COMMA SPLICES

A comma splice is a common mistake in which two independent clauses are joined only by a comma.

Incorrect: The dog chased the squirrel, the squirrel ran up the tree.

Here are four common solutions to correct a comma splice:

1. Use a period.

Correct: The dog chased the squirrel. The squirrel ran up the tree.

2. Add a coordinating conjunction.

Correct: The dog chased the squirrel, but the squirrel ran up the tree.

Correct: The dog chased the squirrel, so the squirrel ran up the tree.

3. Use a semicolon. The semicolon (;) is appropriate when separating two independent clauses that are closely related in subject.

Correct: The dog chased the squirrel; the squirrel ran up the tree.

4. Use a dependent clause. Turn the two independent clauses into a complex sentence by making one of the clauses dependent.

Correct: Because the dog chased the squirrel, the squirrel ran up the tree.

Correct: The dog chased the squirrel until the squirrel ran up the tree.

Tip: "However" is not a coordinating conjunction, and therefore cannot join two independent clauses with only a comma. Use a semi-colon instead.

MORE PUNCTUATION

- A **colon (:)** is used at the end of a complete thought to introduce a list, an explanation, or a formal quotation. (Do not use a colon if the list or explanation is connected to the sentence without a complete stop.)
 - To repair this truck, we need the following: a sparkplug and a head gasket.
 - This amplifier is not worth repairing: the replacement parts cost too much.
 - Lincoln's "Gettysburg Address" begins with these words: "Four score and seven years ago."
 - The three students who scored 100 were Josh, Belinda, and Sara. (No stop, so no colon needed.)
- A **semi-colon (;)** is used to separate two independent clauses that are closely related in subject.
 - I can't go out tonight; I have a test in the morning.A semi-colon can also be used to separate items in a list when the items contain commas. This prevents confusion from too many commas:
 - This week's winners are Joe from Reno, Nevada; Claire from Cody, Wyoming; and Dave from San Jose, California.
- A **dash (--)** indicates a dramatic pause or special emphasis. Dashes are used to emphasize information that interrupts the flow of the sentence. A dash can also be used to highlight a special comment or shift in meaning at the end of a sentence. A dash is also found before a summarizing phrase or clause that follows a list. Study the following examples:
 - Three prominent citizens--Edwin Wilkes, Tom Smith, and Roberta Marsh--were elected to the board.
 - I knew the material perfectly--until test day.
 - Math, English, psychology, biology--I have a busy schedule this quarter.
- Parenteses ()** are used to set off information that is useful (or helpful) but not essential to the meaning of the sentence. Study the following examples:
 - Chapter Four (pages 123-156) is the most difficult we will study this quarter.
 - I have seen many changes (most of them for the better) at Sinclair during the last ten years.
- A **hyphen (-)** is used to join two or more words together that are being used to describe a noun. It is also used in some compound words and with some prefixes (all-, ex-, self-) and suffixes. It is used with numbers and to divide a word between syllables at the end of a line. Study the following examples:
 - A slow-moving train delayed my sister-in-law's arrival.
 - All twenty-one students in my math class appeared to be self-motivated.
 - Everyone was supposed to read pages 24-94 over the weekend.

FORMAL VOICE

Not all writing requires a formal voice, but most academic writing does. When a piece of writing calls for a formal voice, follow these guidelines:

1. Do not use first-person pronouns ("I," "me," "my," "we," "us," etc.).

Tip: "One," "the reader," "readers," "the viewer," or something similar sometimes can be used effectively in place of first-person pronouns in formal papers, but be careful not to overuse these expressions. You want to sound formal, not awkward and stiff.

2. Avoid addressing the readers as "you."

3. Avoid the use of contractions ("can't," "it's," "shouldn't," etc.)

4. Avoid colloquialisms and slang.

Informal: The guy was nailed for ripping off a liquor store.

Formal: The man was convicted of robbing a liquor store.

5. Avoid abbreviated versions of words ("photo" and "TV" should be written as "photograph" and "television").

COMMON USAGE ERRORS

affect/effect

affect is a verb (It will *affect* you one way or another.)

effect is a noun (What *effect* will it have on me?)

its/it's

its is the possessive form of *it* (It carried *its* food to the hive.)

it's is a contraction of *it is* (She knows *it's* going to happen soon.)

there/they're/their

there has several uses, such as meaning "that place" or the opposite of *here*.

they're is a contraction of *they are* (*They're* running to the car.)

their is the possessive form of *they* (They ran to *their* car.)

who/whom – *Who* is used for the subjective case, whereas *whom* is used for the objective case. This means that if "who/whom" is the subject (the one doing the verb), *who* is the correct choice. If "who/whom" is the object (the one receiving the action of the verb), *whom* is the correct choice.

-*Whom* should I vote for?

-*Who* is mowing the lawn at this hour?

whose/who's

whose is possessive (You're the one whose family is crazy!)

who's is a contraction of *who is* (*Who's* running for mayor this year?)

your/you're

your is the possessive form of *you* (Grab *your* bag, please.)

you're is a contraction of *you are* (*You're* not too happy, are you?)

to/too/two

to is a preposition (I am going *to* the store.)

too means "excessively" or "also" (This is *too* much. You should come, *too*.)

two is the written form of the number "2" (I have *two* eyes.)