



ENGLISH STRUCTURE AND SENTENCE WRITING

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English Language Program

Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Thaksin University

Academic Year 2025



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Preface

English Structure and Sentence Writing is a textbook, specifically developed for a basic writing course for English major students. Moreover, this textbook can be considered as an EFL writing course material, particularly for those who are novice EFL student writers.

English writing is challenging for not only EFL students to acquire the skill but also the instructors to facilitate these students to reach their learning goals and master such a skill. Based on my teaching experience, EFL students, especially English major students, have certain limited English writing proficiency as their prior foreign language exposure has been restricted owing to these driving forces. First, their English language immersion can be witnessed only in the classroom contexts over a short timeframe. In their daily life, they rarely develop the language and gain more language experience. Even they do, English writing has limited application in practice. Besides, their learning activities and linguistic development are bound to the retention of grammatical rules and the drilling practices in the form of the multiple-choice or gap-filling exercises to improve test scores, declining to contribute to their language acquisition and their writing proficiency enhancement. Last but not least, summative assessment of their language learning in the form of MCQ prioritizing English grammar is typically implemented. Due to these factors, EFL students majoring in English generally struggle to write in English even at the sentence level in higher education. To elaborate, they “know” English grammatical rules, yet they “fail to apply” them when writing. For instance, the most common sentence writing problem I have observed is that the students know that the singular verb form is required when writing a present simple sentence with the singular subject, but they do not use it when they write. Most notably, most of their grammatical errors in English sentence writing are derived from the linguistic differences between their mother tongue (Thai) and the English language. Accordingly, as an instructor for these beginner EFL student writers, it is hard to find a commercial book that suits these students’ emerging English writing proficiency even at the university level. Besides, traditional teaching methods typically integrated into such available teaching and learning materials cannot address

the difficulties they face and may not align with Generation Z EFL students' learning styles these days.

To tackle the aforementioned challenges, this textbook is designed not only to help eliminate the discrepancy between the course and program expected learning outcomes and Generation Z EFL students' current underdeveloped English writing proficiency but also to motivate their learning and strengthen their English writing proficiency, particularly at the sentence level. To motivate these students to learn, the fundamental traits contributing to good quality of sentence writing starting from the mechanics of writing to structural differences between phrases, clauses, and sentences together with the functions of core parts and modifiers in English sentence structures are highlighted to challenge them to develop their English sentence writing as Generation Z's learning motivation can be reinforced by learning challenges and opportunities to develop (Manzoni et al., 2021). These contents are mainly presented in a learner-friendly structured format instead of solely limited to lengthy description, together with *Key Takeaways: Mastery Snapshot* functioning as the unit summary, *Concept Map* of each unit, and an inclusion of online corpus-based learning (COCA and BNC) to produce a manageable size comprehension, to promote retention of phrase, clause, and sentence structures, and to create the learning experience beyond the classroom, aligning with the Generation Z's learning characteristics: they prefer concise information, their attention is strategically focused, and they enjoy online learning (Manzoni et al., 2021; Prensky, 2001; Shirazian et al., 2025). Furthermore, English structure and sentence writing is demonstrated through comparative analysis between both languages (English and Thai) in this textbook due to their interlingual interference and intralingual interference (Sermsook et al., 2017). In other words, their frequent grammatical errors based on such interferences are also taken into account for designing this textbook to effectively help improve their sentence writing abilities.

Before doing four sequential levels of exercises, *Mastery Reflection*, the reflection after each unit, is aimed to illustrate Generation Z EFL students' learning gaps to raise their awareness of such learning deficiency to learn more to bridge such gaps and to promote their critical thinking these students lack (Prensky, 2001). The concept of four-level exercises, *Write It Right: Sentence Mastery Zones*, designed based on game-based learning to establish mastery of each unit,

replicating the challenges in games Generation Z enjoy (Manzoni et al., 2021) as it is reported to facilitate their learning (Prensky, 2001), consist of *The Starter Zone* (Form Recognition), *The Builder Zone* (Guided Language Production), *The Sharper Zone* (Textual Analysis of Authentic Input), and *The Master Zone* (Personalized Communicative Application), ranging on the levels of difficulty and reflecting the three learning domains based on Bloom (1956)'s taxonomy with self-directed learning answer keys and sample answers for guidance as only instruction is not sufficient for novice EFL student writers to develop such a productive skill (Hong, 2021). Most significantly, multimedia and social media, regarded as the platforms bridging theory and practice, are integrated into the exercises since they can enrich their learning experience and writing skill development according to the empirical longitudinal study of Cilliers (2021). Also, such textbook design corresponds to an increase in exposure time to multimedia in their real-life environment (Turner, 2015). In addition, the application of authentic materials embraced in this textbook can promote multimodal exercises to narrow the gap between the traditional writing pedagogy and these students' contexts, enhancing their writing competency to apply their English grammatical knowledge, sentence structures, and writing skill to their real-life experiences, so both of their cognitive and affective values can be increased (Agustina et al., 2025).

In brief, through the communicative language teaching approach employed in this textbook, Generation Z novice EFL student writers can gain insight into how English sentence structures are composed of and how English sentences can be formulated for effective written communication based on the triangle grammatical instruction concept: form, function, and meaning grounded in this theory to cherish diverse contexts where English structures and sentences are developed (Agustien, 2016).

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MECHANICS OF WRITING

UNIT I

Learning Objectives

At the end of this unit, the students will be able to ...

- explain the basic rules of writing mechanics: spelling differences between British English and American English, punctuation, and capitalization.
 - apply correct spelling, punctuation, and capitalization in sentences.
-

UNIT I

MECHANICS OF WRITING

INTRODUCTION

Although limited behavioral research and theory on the mechanics of writing can be found (Treiman & Kessler, 2014), its correct usage has been emphasized in writing courses as it is a vital part of writing quality. Nonetheless, it is regarded as one of the language learning challenges, especially for EFL students besides grammar and vocabulary. For a long time, this topic has been taught through various pedagogical approaches in writing pedagogy. To compensate for certain limitations of the conventional methods in pedagogical practices requiring students to memorize the rules of writing mechanics, interactive activities together with examples in specific contexts are recommended as a more effective learning method (Sujani et al., 2025). Furthermore, digital tools should be employed to help enhance students' skills of writing mechanics in the present era as its effective efficacy can be witnessed in the study of Ivanova et al. (2022). This also includes the application of social media, such as Facebook and X to promote students' writing performance on this writing trait as revealed in the study of Altakhaineh and Al-Jallad (2018).

The grammatical error of this writing aspect can commonly be found in students' writing, especially EFL students' even in higher education. The major cause of this problem derives from interlingual interference, especially when their foreign language requires certain conventions of writing mechanics while their mother tongue does not and vice versa. Another reason arises from the traditional concept of teaching grammar heavily relying on tenses and vocabulary in writing courses apart from the fact that writing courses are rarely offered in their earlier foreign language learning stages. This topic is, therefore, downplayed, and these students have no chance to learn and strengthen this fundamental yet important writing skill. Other contributing factors involve no instruction practices and creative teaching strategies in this writing aspect (Abbas & Asy'ari, 2019). Moreover, when a great deal of attention is paid to other writing aspects, such as content, grammar, vocabulary, or organization, this writing trait can easily be ignored (Yuliawati, 2021).

To encourage students to develop such a basic writing skill, the instruction on the mechanics of writing should be delivered, so EFL students can gain some learning experience, and learning activities should be launched to ensure they are able to apply this knowledge into practice.

MECHANICS OF WRITING

The mechanics of writing refers to *the conventions or technical aspects of writing*, for example spelling, punctuation, capitalization, numbers, etc. to frame the message structure for enhancing comprehension in written communication (Treiman & Kessler, 2014). According to the study of Sermsook et al. (2017), punctuation is the most frequent errors whereas capitalization is in the top five of most common errors found in Thai EFL students' writing. Besides, EFL students usually find the following three features of writing mechanics more challenging: spelling, punctuation, and capitalization (Shweba & Mujiyanto, 2017). Hence, they are the main focus of this unit.

SPELLING

Spelling is a significant characteristic of writing quality. Although it is the least frequent error type among three writing mechanics: capitalization, punctuation, and spelling in EFL learners' writing (Raheem & Ghafar, 2024; Shweba & Mujiyanto, 2017), misspellings in writing can hinder the reader's understanding and create a negative impression of the writer (Treiman, 2018).

English spelling is *not* always *consistent*. Even though there are many spelling rules, *exceptions are common*. This causes errors in this type of writing mechanics. Besides, students' grammatical errors in terms of spelling usually result from their unwillingness or no motivation to open dictionaries (Abbas & Asy'ari, 2019). Additionally, English spelling varieties can be recognized as another important issue contributing to EFL students' spelling errors, particularly in the realm of academic writing.

Regarding English spelling varieties, *one major difference* is between *British* and *American English*, the two dominant varieties of English, representing the two countries: the United

Kingdom and the United States of America. While British English had been required by most publications in the past and some in the present, American spelling is more popular as it is more adaptable and more comprehensible (Kovalova, 2023), especially among non-native speakers, including ESL and EFL speakers due to the widespread use on the virtual space, particularly in the digital age (Kongsuwannakul, 2011). Nevertheless, as both follow similar rules, some words are spelled differently. As language learners, awareness of such variations is significant. It helps avoid confusion in reading and remain consistent spelling in writing, specifically in formal or academic writing. The following examples highlight the *common variation* to draw EFL students' attention to this aspect of writing mechanics.

British	American
-re	-er
centre	center
fibre	fiber
litre	liter
metre	meter
theatre	theater

British	American
-our	-or
behaviour	behavior
colour	color
favour	favor
flavour	flavor
honour	honor
humour	humor
labour	labor
neighbour	neighbor
odour	odor
rumour	rumor

British	American
-ise	-ize
apologise	apologize
capitalise/capitalisation	capitalize/capitalization
civilise/civilisation	civilize/civilization
criticise	criticize
emphasise	emphasize
finalise	finalize
industrialise/industrialisation	industrialize/industrialization
memorise/memorisation	memorize/memorization
organise/organisation	organize/organization
realise/realisation	realize/realization
recognise	recognize
standardise	standardize
symbolise	symbolize

British	American
ae	e
aesthetic	esthetic
diarrhoea	diarrhea
faeces	faces
leukaemia	leukemia

British	American
I	II
distil	distill
enrol/enrolment	enroll/enrollment
fulfil/fulfilment	fulfill/fulfillment
instil	instill

British	American
ll	l
cancelled	canceled
fuelled	fueled
quarelling	quarreling
signalling	signaling
counsellor	counselor
jeweller	jeweler
traveller	traveler
marvellous	marvelous

British	American
se	ze
analyse	analyze
paralyse	paralyze

British	American
logue	log
catalogue	catalog
dialogue	dialog

British	American
-ce	-se
defence	defense
licence	license
offence	offense

Past Tense & Past Participle	
British	American
-t	-ed
burnt	burned
learnt	learned
smelt	smelled
spelt	spelled
spoilt	spoiled

Other Words	
British	American
grey	gray
programme	program
cosy	cozy
chilli	chili
cheque	check
omelette	omelet
pyjamas	pajamas
per cent	percent

Through Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) (Davies, 2008-present) and British National Corpus (BNC) (Burnard, 2007), the corpus databases of American English and British English respectively below, vast sentence structure examples of each word pair in diverse genres and real meaningful cultural contexts together with its frequency can be explored and compared to broaden EFL students' exposure to English and to develop their self-regulated learning skills.

Scan for COCA.



Scan for BNC.



It is noteworthy that these two corpus databases can be further applied to the remaining topics presented throughout the textbook.

PUNCTUATION

According to Yuliawati's study (2021) about the mechanics of writing in students' writing, punctuation is the most commonly found error type, especially when compared to spelling (Treiman & Kessler, 2014). In contrast, this feature of writing mechanics is always recognized as the second challenging obstacle for EFL learners among three writing features of writing mechanics: capitalization, punctuation, and spelling (Raheem & Ghafar, 2024; Shweba & Mujiyanto, 2017). Treiman and Kessler (2014) point out that this writing mechanics error is generally caused by omissions. More specifically, small punctuation marks like periods or commas are usually omitted by students rather than the larger ones like question marks or exclamation marks. For EFL students, punctuation is still considered as a new complex dimension of language learning, specifically in their 'real' writing courses in higher educational contexts. Due to its importance for language learners, especially when they learn how to write, the following are the basic but most common punctuation marks in English sentences to start with (Kaufman & Straus, 2021).

End Punctuation

End punctuation in English refers to **the marks** used **at the end of a sentence**. They *signal a complete thought* and help *clarify not only the grammatical mood but also the type of sentence*, whether it is an indicative, interrogative, or imperative mood, or *a statement, question, or exclamation*. Missing this type of punctuation leads to a grammatical error in sentence writing. This usually happens because of the students' L1 interference as their mother tongue has no such punctuation usage. For instance, Thai EFL students always forget to use end punctuation marks as they normally use a space or an ending particle instead in Thai. Thus, when they learn how to write English sentences, this type of punctuation is frequently omitted or forgotten, causing a grammatical error in their sentence writing. Accordingly, writing instruction should embrace this writing aspect. In English, there are **three main types of end punctuation marks**.

Period/ Full stop (.)

A period or full stop is used to set a boundary of a complete thought, a sentence (Lukeman, 2011). This punctuation mark is used to mark *the end of a declarative sentence* or *an imperative sentence*. Although it is the punctuation mark students commonly use (Treiman & Kessler, 2014), it requires their linguistic knowledge; otherwise, it can be one of their writing challenges as reported in the study of Raheem and Ghafar (2024).

Examples: Most students prefer working in groups because it helps them finish more challenging tasks easily.

The author's argument could not convince the critics although it was well-written.

Please turn off your smartphone during the movie.

Review the project feedback carefully.

Check your email regularly for more updates.

Question Mark (?)

A question mark is used to *end a direct question*. *The direct question* is a sentence that *asks* something and *expects an answer*. It is a frequently used punctuation mark in English, and its usage is steadily increasing (Pilpel, 2022).

Examples: What factors contribute to the rapid spread of fake news on social media platforms?

Why do some languages have more complex grammatical structures than others?

Can universities support students' mental health?

Do social media influencers affect customer behavior?

Notes:

Do **not** use a *question mark* for *indirect questions*. The indirect questions are *the questions embedded in the statements, imperatives, or direct questions*. Their sentence structure is different from the direct questions since *no inversion* is required. That means *the word order* is in *the statement style*, not the direct question style.

Examples:

I wonder **what time it is**.

Tell me **where Emma went**.

Do you know **why I am here?**

Exclamation Point/ Exclamation Mark (!)

An exclamation point or exclamation mark is used *to end a sentence to show strong emotion, surprise, excitement, or to emphasize a command*. The frequency of its usage is less than that of the question mark (Pilpel, 2022). Nonetheless, *overusing* exclamation points can *reduce their impact*. Use them sparingly for best effect.

Examples:

This is fantastic!

I can't believe you won the singing contest!

Hurry up, or we'll miss the bus!

Stop using your smartphone during class!

What a beautiful sunset!

How quickly time flies!

Notes:

Sometimes, a sentence can *combine a question and an exclamation to show surprise or disbelief*, especially in *informal writing*, but it is usually just *a question mark* in *formal writing*.

Examples:

Informal Writing (!?)

What happened?!

Really?!

How could you?!

Are you serious?!

Formal Writing (?)

What happened?

Really?

How could you?

Are you serious?

Other common punctuation marks in English sentence writing are as follows.

Colon (:)

A colon is vertically written double periods. It is commonly placed *after a complete sentence with no space required to introduce a list, a lengthy quotation, or an explanation*. Make sure its height is the same as the lower-case letters as this issue is one of common mistakes when writing.

1. To introduce a list

Examples:

Our summer vacation will cover three countries: Italy, Spain, and France.

The international conference schedule includes the following sessions:
keynote speech, panel discussion, and networking lunch.

2. To introduce a lengthy quotation

Example: In his novel *To Kill a Mockingbird*, Harper Lee reminds us of the importance of empathy: “You never really understand a person until you consider things from his point of view... Until you climb inside of his skin and walk around in it.”

3. To introduce an explanation

Examples: Here are the tips to bake perfect cookies: preheat the oven, measure your ingredients carefully, and avoid opening the door while they are baking.

This is a simple method to improve your memory: write down key points, review them regularly, and use some devices to help recall information more easily.

Semicolon (;)

A *semicolon* is a period above a comma, vertically written. It has *two main functions* in sentence writing: *linking closely related complete thoughts* and *separating items into a complex list*. Like a colon, no space is required, and its height should match that of the lower-case letters when writing.

1. To join two closely related complete thoughts

Examples: The sky grew dark; a storm was on the way.

He forgot his lines on stage; the audience barely noticed.

I enjoy studying in the morning; my mind feels sharper and more focused.

2. To separate items in a complex list, especially when those items already include commas.

Examples: On our winter trip, we visited Rome, Italy; Paris, France; and Athens, Greece.

Her favorite authors are Jane Austen, known for *Pride and Prejudice*; William Shakespeare, famous for *Romeo and Juliet*; and Charles Dickens, recognized for *Oliver Twist*.

Our guest list includes Ellen Miller, a marketing director; Marcus Lee, a lead designer; and Tara Johnson, a project manager.

Comma (,)

Commas, embedded in sentences, have key roles in sentence writing and come with different functions. Its difficult usage derives from its various linguistic functions in English sentences (Treiman & Kessler, 2014). As discovered in certain studies (Raheem & Ghafar, 2024; Sujani et al., 2025), commas are one of the most challenging punctuation marks for EFL students because of their diverse placements and functions in the sentences apart from their limited knowledge of this punctuation mark. Here are their *most common uses*.

1. Listing commas

Use *commas* to *separate items in a series*. *The final comma* in a list, known as *the serial or Oxford comma*, is optional but *commonly used for clarity* (Kaufman & Straus, 2021).

Examples: They were taught to observe, question, and reflect during the experiment.

For dessert, we had strawberry yogurt, chocolate mousse, and vanilla ice cream.

The kitten chased the string, leapt over the couch, and slid across the floor.

Emma promised that she would arrive on time, that she would bring the documents, and that she would call if anything changed.

2. Introductory Commas

Use **a comma** to separate **introductory words, phrases, or clauses** (*dependent clauses*) from the main part of the sentence (*independent clause*) to avoid confusion.

Examples:

Nevertheless, Sue continued working despite many obstacles.

Sadly, many species are at risk due to habitat loss.

On a cold winter's day, nothing beats a warm cup of hot chocolate.

Despite the bad weather, the music festival went on as planned.

Since the software installation failed, we had to reinstall it again.

When the international guests arrived, the host welcomed them warmly.

Notes:

In this case, **a comma** is used *to separate the dependent clause from the independent clause only if the sentence starts with the dependent clause.*

3. Interrupter Commas/ Bracketing Commas/ Isolating Commas

Use **commas** *before and after words, phrases, or clauses, providing nonessential information, interruptions, or added information*, that breaks the flow of a sentence.

Examples: Our new neighbors, a young couple with two dogs, seem very friendly.
This movie, directed by a famous filmmaker, won several awards.
My brother, who lives in Canada, is coming to visit me next month.
The answer, of course, is not that simple.

4. Joining Commas

4.1 Use **a comma** to *separate two independent clauses* when they are joined by **coordinating conjunctions** such as for, and, nor, but, or, yet, *or* so (FANBOYS) in **compound sentences**.

Examples: He did not complete the assignment on time, for he was dealing with a family emergency.
Our company faced several challenges, and they adjusted their strategy accordingly.
Joe does not like seafood, nor does he enjoy spicy food.
The monthly meeting ran longer than expected, but everyone stayed focused until the end.
You can take the bus, or you can walk.
The movie received poor reviews, yet it was a box office hit.
We had planned to visit the museum, so we bought the tickets in advance.

4.2 Use **a semicolon** before and **a comma** after **conjunctive adverbs** or **adverbial conjunctions**, e.g. therefore, nevertheless, furthermore, likewise, on the other hand, otherwise, for instance, etc. when *joining two independent clauses* to develop **a compound sentence**.

Examples: Ellen and I left early; however, the traffic made us late.
The weather was perfect; moreover, the concert was well organized.
The jewelry store was closed; otherwise, he would have bought the gift.

5. Direct Address Commas

Use **a comma** or **commas** to set off the name when **directly addressing someone**. It can occur at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of the sentence.

Examples: Emily, I need your opinion on this issue.
Could you, Barbara, check the schedule for tomorrow?
Don't be late, Mike!

6. Quotation Commas

Use **a comma** or **commas** to separate **a direct quotation** from the rest of the sentence. In this case, they are used to **introduce** or **interrupt the direct quotation** in the dialog (Kaufman & Straus, 2021).

Examples: "I can't believe," she said, "that we won the game!"
The security guard warned, "Do not enter without permission."
"I don't think so," replied Oliver, "but I'll double-check."
"Hurry up," shouted the basketball coach. "The game is starting soon!"
"For the next step," explained the chef, "we need to add corn syrup slowly."
Ken asked, "Why don't you just talk about that?"

CAPITALIZATION

Capitalization is writing *the first letter* of certain words in *upper case*. It is one of the most challenging writing aspects for EFL students as it is revealed as the most frequent error in EFL learners' academic writing according to certain studies (Raheem & Ghafar, 2024; Shweba & Mujiyanto, 2017). This probably arises from the fact that capitalization is not the aspect of writing mechanics employed in all languages. Therefore, when this language convention is not familiar in students' first language, its application can possibly be neglected, causing grammatical errors in their English sentence writing. Thus, a basic guidance on how it works should be instructed in their writing courses, especially the fundamental course like English Structure and Sentence Writing.

To follow *the conventions of standard academic English*, use **capital letters** in the following cases (Albright & Langan, 2019; Kaufman & Straus, 2021).

Personal Subject Pronoun: I

Always capitalize the pronoun **I**, *regardless of its position* in the sentence.

Examples:

My friend and **I** are going to the K-pop concert of our favorite boy band.

Three weeks ago, **I** finished the linguistic assignment on time even though **I** was sick.

I have no idea how this washing machine works.

Proper Nouns

Always capitalize *the specific names* of people, places, and things.

Examples:

Dave, Ken, and I visited **Songkhla Old Town Walking Street** in **Songkhla** last weekend.

I am studying at **Thaksin University, Songkhla Campus, Thailand.**

She uses her **iPhone** to record lectures and her **iPad** to take notes.

One of my favorite chocolate brands is **Hershey's Kisses.**

The First Word in a Sentence or Direct Quotation

Always capitalize *the first word in a sentence*, signaling the sentence beginning or *direct quotation*. This is a more common error of capitalization compared to other aspects of capitalization, such as the personal subject pronoun “I” or days of the week (Treiman & Kessler, 2014).

Examples:

That is the most popular landmark in Songkhla City.

In this deserted area, we cannot wander about freely without fear of being kidnapped.

“Look out!” Mia screamed. “You almost ran into my child!”

Tony said, “This is the best novel he’s ever read.”

Days of the Week, Months, and Holidays

Always capitalize all *days*, *months*, and *official holidays*.

Examples:

Many students travel during winter break, especially in **December** for **Christmas** and **New Year’s Eve**.

We have a language lab every **Monday** and **Wednesday** afternoon.

Titles of People with Their Names

Always capitalize *a title when they come before a name*.

Examples: I spoke to **Professor Richard** after class.

The award was presented by **President Obama**.

Mr. William, the chairperson of the company, will address us at noon.

Nationalities, Languages, Religions, and Ethnic Groups

Always capitalize *nationalities*, *languages*, *religions*, and *ethnic groups*.

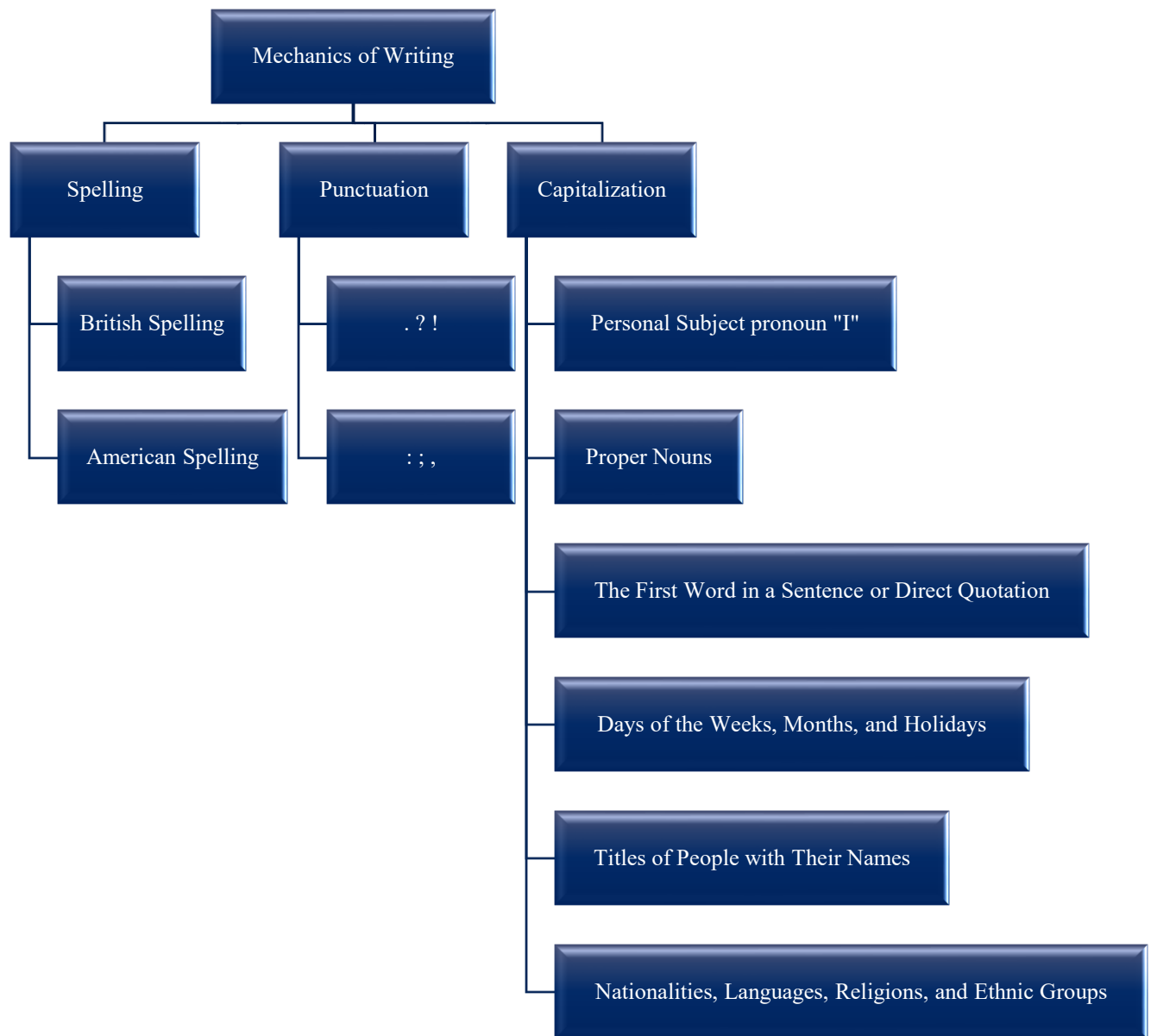
Examples: A **Thai** student who speaks fluent **French** is conducting research on **Christianity** in **African** tribes.

During her internship, the **Italian** journalist explored the role of **Catholicism** in **Latino** communities in Brazil.

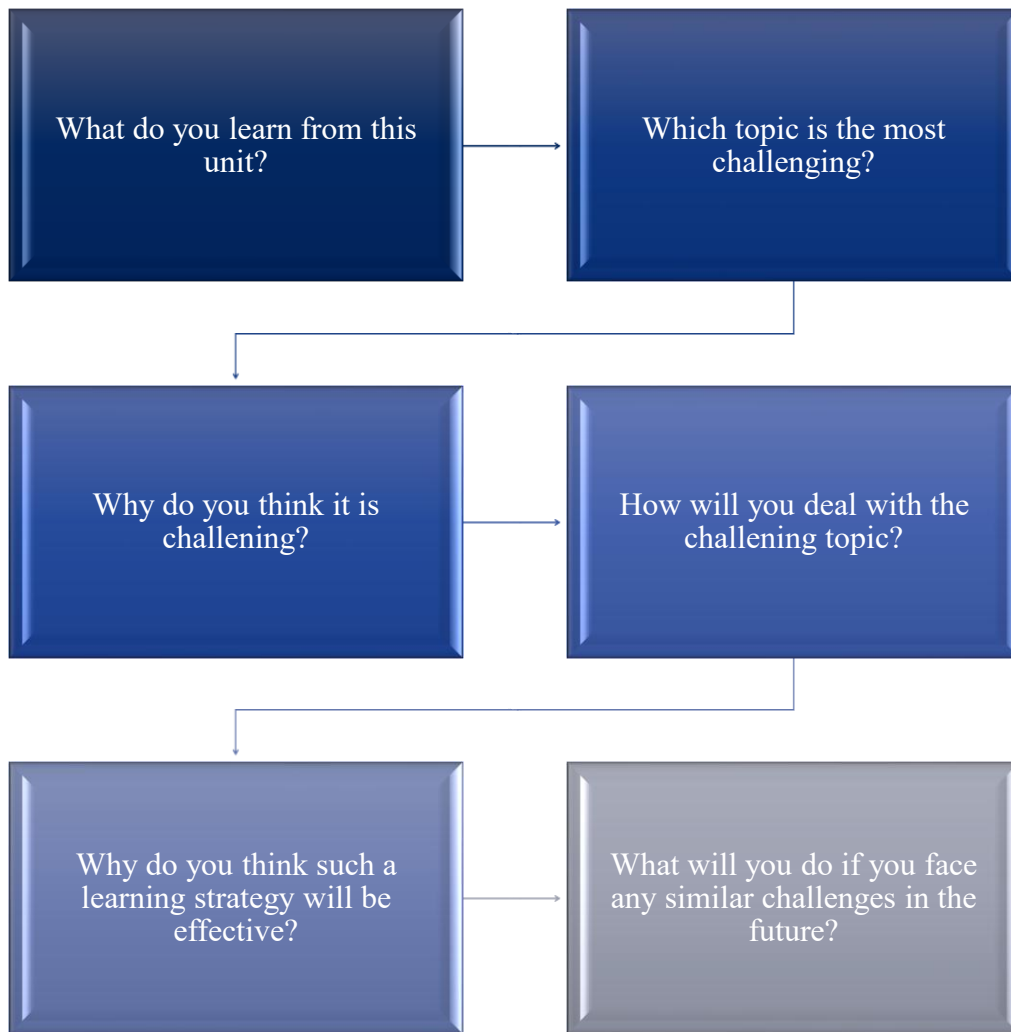
KEY TAKEAWAYS: MASTERY SNAPSHOT

Overall, this unit highlights a fundamental writing aspect: the mechanics of writing as a basic writing skill students need to master in sentence writing. In this case, the three core areas of writing mechanics where EFL students frequently make errors: spelling, punctuation, and capitalization are demonstrated. In terms of spelling, British and American spellings are emphasized to raise their awareness of English spelling varieties, so they are able to use consistent spelling in their writing to avoid the reader's confusion and maintain the formal and academic standard of writing. Regarding punctuation, key punctuation marks: a period, a question mark, an exclamation point, a colon, a semicolon, and a comma are introduced with their common functions to provide basic knowledge in order that they can write English sentences with the correct use of basic punctuation marks. Finally, capitalization is demonstrated to point out the major rules students should take into account when writing English sentences.

CONCEPT MAP



MASTERY REFLECTION



Learning Lens:

WRITE IT RIGHT: SENTENCE MASTERY ZONES

The Starter Zone

Directions: Read each sentence. Tick (✓) the box if the punctuation and capitalization are correct, and the spelling is consistent (either all British or all American). If not, correct the punctuation, capitalization, or spelling. (Use either British or American spelling consistently.)

1. The marketing manager said, “I hope shopping behavior improves after the online catalogue is updated.”

2. Although the flavor was strong, the percent of sugar remained low.

3. During hindu purification rituals in September, the scientist realized the water metre rose quickly.

4. The organizers prepared extra seating for thanksgiving, otherwise many guests would have had to stand.

5. While Chef Lee demonstrated breakfast recipes, he cooked an omelet and sprinkled some chili on top.

6. For the international conference speakers will come from Tokyo, Japan, Berlin, Germany, Paris, France, and New York, USA.

7. The director, of course, approved the bonus despite the tight budget.

8. Kathy settled into the office chair, the cheque and licence lay ready for signing.

9. Alex, which of these sports do you enjoy playing the most?

10. The employee joined the video call in pajamas on Friday, yet the manager could still recognize her ideas and professionalism.

The Builder Zone

Directions: Edit each sentence for correct *punctuation, capitalization, and consistent spelling.* (Choose either British or American spelling.)

1. the traveller checked his tyre pressure before going on a trip and he said "I hope we reach the center safely"

2. last week dr smith emphasized the importance of analysing data accurately

3. despite the heavy rainfall the festival continued the performers however were soaked

4. the company plans to organise a workshop on industrialization trends in asia

5. lina which languages are most commonly spoken in your region

6. the manager said “all employees must submit their reports by Friday otherwise they will face unexpected consequences”

7. at the workshop the participants included dr lee a chemist professor anna a physicist dr sam a biologist and mr robert a mathematician

8. on monday our italian professor will lecture on christianity buddhism and islam in modern societies

9. the theatre on oxford street has a new program for children and the actors rehearsed every day

10. i love the colour of this fiber scarf it is beautiful and comfortable

The Sharper Zone

Directions: Find any social media posts, comments, or captions, then correct the punctuation and capitalization, and rewrite them properly. (Choose either British or American spelling.)

Format:

Source/ Credit:

Last name, F. M./ Group name. (Year, Month Date). *Content of the post up to the first 20 words*

[Description of form]. Site Name. URL

(Provide the reference for the social media you refer to in the APA 7th edition format.)

Rewrite:

1.

Source/ Credit:

Rewrite:

2.

Source/ Credit:

Rewrite:

3.

Source/ Credit:

Rewrite:

4.

Source/ Credit:

Rewrite:

5.

Source/ Credit:

Rewrite:

6.

Source/ Credit:

Rewrite:

7.

Source/ Credit:

Rewrite:

8.

Source/ Credit:

Rewrite:

9.

Source/ Credit:

Rewrite:

10.

Source/ Credit:

Rewrite:

ENGLISH PHRASES

UNIT II

Learning Objectives

At the end of this unit, the students will be able to ...

- define what a phrase is.
- identify different types of phrases.
- describe and analyze the structure of each phrase type.
- write different types of phrases.

UNIT II

ENGLISH PHRASES

INTRODUCTION

In language learning, specifically learning how to write in English, students basically start from writing alphabets, the smallest unit of written language and then words. To produce more effective written language for meaningful communication, words need to be woven together to form a bigger language unit called *a group of grammatically related words* or *phrases*. Although multimodal input from pictures, audio recordings, and video clips is suggested as an effective method to promote students' English phrase learning outcomes, it requires a great deal of preparation from instructors. The three-dimensional learning method: form, meaning, usage is recommended to avoid students' cognitive overload for their language acquisition of this grammatical aspect (Huang et al., 2022). Hence, this unit presents five common English phrases: noun phrases, verb phrases, prepositional phrases, adjective phrases, and adverb phrases through such a learning method to EFL students in order to examine each phrase structure, interpret the meaning, and analyze its usage as a significant component of English sentence structures.

ENGLISH PHRASES

A phrase is a group of grammatically related words that go together and are built around a single word (a head) *without a subject-verb component* (Corbett & Strong, 2016). It is used as *a single part of speech* (Kaufman & Straus, 2021). In English linguistics, there are *several types of phrases*. Each serves a different grammatical or semantic function. Here are some *common types of English phrases*.

NOUN PHRASE (NP)

Students' L1 can have a positive influence on a more effective noun phrase production when both of their L1 and L2 share their mutual phrase structures (Parkinson, 2015). Unfortunately, the students' writing ability on noun phrases is underdeveloped: they can generally generate only basic noun phrases with prepositional phrases as the post-nominal modifiers (Subajana & Senaratne, 2024). Besides, their common grammatical errors on this topic involve word choices, ordering, singular and plural forms, relative pronouns, word forms, etc. This calls for the explicit instruction on this grammatical issue in order that EFL students are able to form and use complex noun phrases in written communication.

A noun phrase consists of a noun with its modifier(s). The noun is the head of the noun phrase. The phrase and its head share the same category. In a structure of modification in which the head is a noun, modifiers can appear before and/or after the head. Thus, there are two types of noun modifiers: pre-nominal modifiers and post-nominal modifiers.

Noun Phrase Structure

Pre-Nominal Modifier(s) + Head Noun + Post-Nominal Modifier(s)

Nouns & Their Modifiers

Pre-Nominal Modifiers

If *modifiers* appear *before the head noun* or in the *pre-posed* or *pre-nominal* position, they are called *pre-nominal modifiers* (Hough, 1971).

Table 1

Different Types of Pre-Nominal Modifiers

PRE-NOMINAL MODIFIERS										
										HN
PRED	D				POSTD		ADJ	N		
	D/ QUANT	ART	POSS ADJ	POSS of Name	DEM ADJ	OR NO	CAR NO			
all	another	a	my	Samuel's	this	first	one	white	school	uniform
both	any	an	your		that	second	two	dirty	lemon	pie
half	each	the	their		these	third	three	old		lady
double	either		our		those		four	sweet		
	neither		its				five			
	enough		his							
	much		her							
	no									
	some									
	many									
	several									
	just									

Abbreviations:

HN	=	Head Noun
N	=	Noun
ADJ	=	Adjective
POSTD	=	Post-determiner/ Post determiner/ Postdeterminer
OR NO	=	Ordinal Number
CAR NO	=	Cardinal Number
D	=	Determiner
DEM ADJ	=	Demonstrative Adjective
POSS of Name	=	Possessive of Name
POSS ADJ	=	Possessive Adjective
ART	=	Article
QUANT	=	Quantifier
PRED	=	Pre-determiner/ Predeterminer

Table 1 demonstrates different categories of pre-nominal modifiers used to form noun phrases. The noun which is the head of the noun phrase is always on the right end with their various pre-nominal modifiers from its left onwards. Starting from the closest type of pre-nominal modifier to the head noun is another noun, but its function is an adjective, modifying the head noun, followed by adjectives, and three categories of determiners: post-determiners, determiners, and pre-determiners respectively: cardinal and ordinal numbers, demonstrative adjectives, possessive of names, possessive adjectives, articles, quantifiers, pre-determiners. Nonetheless, all of them cannot be concurrently employed, but only some of them. The following noun phrase examples in the sentence below illustrate how pre-nominal modifiers modify their head in the meaningful context.

Examples: A magical unicorn is standing near that orange brick house.

A magical unicorn	=	NP	→ a subject
A	=	ART	→ a pre-nominal modifier
magical	=	ADJ	→ a pre-nominal modifier
unicorn	=	N	→ a head noun
that orange brick house	=	NP	→ a prepositional object
that	=	DEM ADJ	→ a pre-nominal modifier
orange	=	ADJ	→ a pre-nominal modifier
brick	=	N	→ a pre-nominal modifier (an adjective)
house	=	N	→ a head noun

Post-Nominal Modifiers

If *modifiers* appear *after the head noun* or in the *post-posed* or *post-nominal* position, they are called *post-nominal modifiers*. There are *eight types* of post-nominal modifiers.

1. Adjective Phrases

Example: Barbara, deeply disappointed, told him what to do next.

Barbara	=	PN	→ a head noun
, deeply disappointed,	=	ADJP	→ a post-nominal modifier

2. Compounded Adjectives

Example: Emma, bored and annoyed, asked him to leave her alone.

<i>Emma</i>	=	PN	→	a head noun
, bored and annoyed,	=	COMP ADJ	→	a post-nominal modifier

3. Adjectival Noun Phrases

Example: The presentation next week will be given by Barbara.

The	=	ART	→	a pre-nominal modifier
<i>presentation</i>	=	N	→	a head noun
next week	=	NP	→	a post-nominal modifier

4. Adjectival Prepositional Phrases

Example: That cat under the bench is probably sick.

That	=	DEM ADJ	→	a pre-nominal modifier
<i>cat</i>	=	N	→	a head noun
under the bench	=	PP	→	a post-nominal modifier

5. Adjectival Participial Phrases

Examples: That lady, sipping her red wine, is my beloved aunt.

That	=	DEM ADJ	→	a pre-nominal modifier
<i>lady</i>	=	N	→	a head noun
, sipping her red wine,	=	PRES PART PHRASE	→	a post-nominal modifier

That dish, cooked by Lucas, was delicious.

That	=	DEM ADJ	→	a pre-nominal modifier
<i>dish</i>	=	N	→	a head noun
, cooked by Lucas,	=	PAST PART PHRASE	→	a post-nominal modifier

6. Adjectival Infinitive Phrases

Example: She has lots of work to do before bed.

lots of	=	QUANT	→	a pre-nominal modifier
<i>work</i>	=	N	→	a head noun
to do before bed	=	INFP	→	a post-nominal modifier

7. Adjective Clauses (Relative Clauses)

Example: Those boys who look exhausted can take a rest for a while.

Those	=	DEM ADJ	→	a pre-nominal modifier
<i>boys</i>	=	N	→	a head noun
who look exhausted	=	ADJC/ RC	→	a post-nominal modifier

8. Adjectival Appositives

Example: Joe, one of my close friends, is going to New York next month.

<i>Joe</i>	=	PN	→	a head noun
, one of my close friends,	=	APP	→	a post-nominal modifier

Positions of Noun Phrases in English Sentences

Noun phrases can appear in *different positions* in English sentences, syntactically *functioning* as *subjects, objects, or complements* (Fabb, 2005).

1. The noun phrase can *precede the verb* or *verb phrase*, functioning as **the subject**.

Example: The tall man *walked* down the street.

The	=	ART	→	a pre-nominal modifier
tall	=	ADJ	→	a pre-nominal modifier
man	=	N	→	a head noun

2. The noun phrase can *follow the linking verb*, functioning as **the subject complement**.

Example: The winner of the contest *was* Margaret's little sister.

Margaret's	=	POSS of Name	→	a pre-nominal modifier
little	=	ADJ	→	a pre-nominal modifier
sister	=	N	→	a head noun

3. The noun phrase can appear *after the preposition* *within the prepositional phrase*, functioning as **the object of the preposition** or **the prepositional object**.

Example: The cat is hiding *behind* the large bush.

the	=	ART	→	a pre-nominal modifier
large	=	ADJ	→	a pre-nominal modifier
bush	=	N	→	a head noun

4. The noun phrase can *follow the transitive verb*, functioning as **the direct object, indirect object, or object complement**.

Examples:

I *found* the key which you gave to me.

the	=	ART	→	a pre-nominal modifier
key	=	N	→	a head noun
which you gave to me	=	ADJC/ RC	→	a post-nominal modifier

I *sent* my parents a postcard from Italy.

my	=	POSS ADJ	→	a pre-nominal modifier
parents	=	N	→	a head noun
my parents	=	NP	→	an indirect object
a	=	ART	→	a pre-nominal modifier
postcard	=	N	→	a head noun
a postcard	=	NP	→	a direct object

She *considered* the plan a complete failure.

the	=	ART	→	a pre-nominal modifier
plan	=	N	→	a head noun
the plan	=	NP	→	a direct object
a	=	ART	→	a pre-nominal modifier
complete	=	ADJ	→	a pre-nominal modifier

failure	=	N	→	a head noun
a complete failure	=	NP	→	an object complement

VERB PHRASE (VP)

Conceptually defined by Hug (2007), *a verb phrase* consists of *a main verb, alone or preceded by primary auxiliary verbs* (e.g. *v. to be, v. to do, and v. to have*) or *modal auxiliary verbs* (e.g. *can, could, will, would, shall, should, may, might, must*). It functions as *a single verb* with the **main verb** as its *head*. The phrase may also include the negation word **not**; however, the word “not” is not a verb but *a modifier to negate the verb* it modifies (Young, 2009). Thus, there are *three basic verb phrase structures* as shown in the following three sentence examples.

Verb Phrase Structure 1

Main Verb (Head)

Example: They laughed loudly at the joke.

laughed	=	MV	→	a head
---------	---	----	---	--------

Verb Phrase Structure 2

Modal Verb + (Negation Word: not) + Main Verb (Head)

Example: Noah will sing a pop song.

will	=	MO		
sing	=	MV	→	a head

Verb Phrase Structure 3

Auxiliary Verb + (Negation Word: not) + Main Verb (Head)

Example: I was not reading his letter.

was	=	AUX		
not	=	NEG		
reading	=	MV	→	a head

Verb Phrases & Their Modifiers

Pre-Verbal Modifiers & Post-Verbal Modifiers

Verb Phrase Structure

Pre-Verbal Modifier(s) + Main Verb (Head) + Post-Verbal Modifier(s)

In a structure of modification in which *the head* is *the verb*, *modifiers* usually appear *after the head*. They are called *post-verbal modifiers*. There are *five types* of *post-verbal modifiers*.

1. Adverbial Prepositional Phrases

Example: George *can dive* **in the sea**.

<i>can</i>	=	MO		
<i>dive</i>	=	MV	→	a head
in the sea	=	PP	→	a post-verbal modifier

2. Adverbial Noun Phrases

Example: Henry *does not work every week.*

<i>does</i>	=	AUX	
<i>not</i>	=	NEG	
<i>work</i>	=	MV	→ a head
every week	=	NP	→ a post-verbal modifier

3. Adverbial Participial Phrases

Examples: That lady *sat crying with frustration.*

<i>sat</i>	=	MV	→ a head
crying with frustration	=	PRES PART PHRASE	→ a post-verbal modifier

Helen *returned wounded by an assassin.*

<i>returned</i>	=	MV	→ a head
wounded by an assassin	=	PAST PART PHRASE	→ a post-verbal modifier

4. Adverbial Infinitive Phrases

Example: Joe *is dancing to relieve his stress.*

<i>is</i>	=	AUX	
<i>dancing</i>	=	MV	→ a head
to relieve his stress	=	INFP	→ a post-verbal modifier

5. Adverbial Clauses

Example: David *sleeps* **when he feels bored**.

<i>sleeps</i>	=	MV	→	a head
when he feels bored	=	DC (ADVC)	→	a post-verbal modifier

However, when *an adverb* is the modifier of *the head*, it can appear *before* or *after* the head, so it can be *a pre-verbal modifier* or *a post-verbal modifier*.

Examples: Katherine *is* **bitterly** *crying*.

<i>is</i>	=	AUX		
bitterly	=	ADV	→	a pre-verbal modifier
<i>crying</i>	=	MV	→	a head

Katherine *is* *crying* **bitterly**.

<i>is</i>	=	AUX		
<i>crying</i>	=	MV	→	a verb
bitterly	=	ADV	→	a post-verbal modifier

All in all, EFL students should be aware of the linguistic difference in case some of their L1 pre-nominal/ verbal modifiers may be considered as their L2 post-nominal/ verbal modifiers and vice versa; otherwise, the misplaced nominal or verbal modifiers can occur at the noun phrase or verb phrase level. For example, adjectives and some types of adverbs are pre-nominal modifiers and pre-verbal modifiers in English noun phrase and verb phrase structures, but they are post-nominal modifiers and post-verbal modifiers in Thai noun phrase and verb phrase structures.

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE (PP)

A preposition is multidimensional in its nature. Undoubtedly, it is one of the most frequent errors EFL students produce in the realms of syntactic, lexical, semantic, or socio-cultural configurations (Zapata-Leal & Ávila-Portuanto, 2021). Consequently, it should be instructed, especially in higher education. More specifically, it should be done through not only the collocationist approach but also the prototypical approach apart from the traditional approach in their early age so that EFL students are able to be exposed to a large number of them and learn about them in the meaningful contexts to be familiar with the words they frequently occur with and to relate their meanings in such contexts (Lorincz & Gordon, 2012). With such an acquisition through varied approaches, it can reduce or even eliminate the influence of their interlingual interference on their prepositional phrase writing as it is the major factor causing such errors when they construct prepositional phrases.

A prepositional phrase consists of a **preposition**, its **object**, and any **modifiers** of that object. *The preposition*, usually placed before the noun or the noun phrase (hence “pre-position”), is *the head of the phrase* (Fabb, 2005).

Prepositional Phrase Structure

Preposition (Head) + Noun/ Noun Phrase (Prepositional Object)

It functions as *an adjectival modifier* when *modifying a noun* and as *an adverbial modifier* when *modifying a verb* (Hug, 2007). Here are some prepositional phrase examples with their *various structures* in meaningful contexts.

Examples: The *depth* **of snow** surprised everyone.

of	=	PREP	→	a head
snow	=	N	→	a noun
of snow	=	PP	→	a post-nominal modifier (ADJ)

His voice **on the phone** sounded worried.

on	=	PREP	→	a head
the	=	ART	→	a pre-nominal modifier
phone	=	N	→	a head noun
on the phone	=	PP	→	a post-nominal modifier (ADJ)

We visited the house **near the river**.

near	=	PREP	→	a head
the	=	ART	→	a pre-nominal modifier
river	=	N	→	a head noun
near the river	=	PP	→	a post-nominal modifier (ADJ)

Ava worked **for hours**.

for	=	PREP	→	a head
hours	=	N	→	a noun
for hours	=	PP	→	a post-verbal modifier (ADV)

She spoke **with great confidence**.

with	=	PREP	→	a head
great	=	ADJ	→	a pre-nominal modifier
confidence	=	N	→	a head noun
with great confidence	=	PP	→	a post-verbal modifier (ADV)

The child cried for his mother.

for	=	PREP	→	a head
his	=	POSS ADJ	→	a pre-nominal modifier
mother	=	N	→	a head noun
for his mother	=	PP	→	a post-verbal modifier (ADV)

The book on the table belongs to David.

on	=	PREP	→	a head
the	=	ART	→	a pre-nominal modifier
table	=	N	→	a head noun
on the table	=	PP	→	a post-nominal modifier (ADJ)
to	=	PREP	→	a head
David	=	PN	→	a noun
to David	=	PP	→	a post-verbal modifier (ADV)

The sound of thunder echoed through the valley.

of	=	PREP	→	a head
thunder	=	N	→	a noun
of thunder	=	PP	→	a post-nominal modifier (ADJ)
through	=	PREP	→	a head
the	=	ART	→	a pre-nominal modifier

valley	=	N	→	a head noun
through <i>the valley</i>	=	PP	→	a post-verbal modifier (ADV)

ADJECTIVE PHRASE (ADJP)

An adjective is another challenging grammatical issue for EFL students as this linguistic concept is varied across languages, and its syntactic position and semantic representation are also diverse both within and across languages (Syrett, 2024). Due to differences between their L1 and L2, EFL students can have difficulties in writing adjective phrases besides their developmental grammatical knowledge on this topic. Hence, both interlingual and intralingual errors on adjective phrases can be found in their writing (Kurniasari, et al., 2019; Sarmadani, et al., 2021). More specifically, it is reported that a number of errors on attribute adjectives extend beyond those on predicative adjectives in the study of Sarmadani, et al. (2021). Thus, the instruction on this grammatical aspect is required to help promote accuracy on this issue in English writing.

An adjective phrase is a phrase that consists of *an adjective as its head*. It *modifies a noun or noun phrase* to give more information about it. *The adjective phrase* can appear *inside* or *outside the noun phrase* (Fabb, 2005). The adjective phrase that is *a part of the noun phrase* is called the *attribute adjective phrase*, and the one *after the linking verb* is *the predicative adjective phrase*. In either case, it *describes the noun*. Some adjective phrase examples are illustrated below to reveal their two adjective phrase structures and varied functions in the sentences.

Adjective Phrase Structure 1

Adverb (Modifier) + Adjective (Head)

Examples: The *runner* was **extremely tired**.

extremely	=	ADV	→	a modifier
tired	=	ADJ	→	a head

extremely tired = ADJP → a subject complement

The **extremely tired** runner collapsed at the finish line.

extremely = ADV → a modifier

tired = ADJ → a head

extremely tired = ADJP → a pre-nominal modifier

It was **the most beautiful** day I could imagine.

the = ART → a pre-nominal modifier

most = ADV → a modifier

beautiful = ADJ → a head

the most beautiful = ADJP → a pre-nominal modifier

Adjective Phrase Structure 2

Adjective (Head) + Coordinating Conjunction + Adjective (Head)

(and, but, yet)

Examples: The doctor, **calm and confident**, handled the emergency well.

calm = ADJ → a head

and = CONJ → a coordinating conjunction

confident = ADJ → a head

calm and confident = ADJP → a post-nominal modifier

That *student*, ***intelligent but lazy***, failed the exam.

intelligent	=	ADJ	→	a head
but	=	CONJ	→	a coordinating conjunction
lazy	=	ADJ	→	a head
<i>intelligent but lazy</i>	=	ADJP	→	a post-nominal modifier

ADVERB PHRASE (ADVP)

A misuse of adverbs can occur because of students' insufficient grammatical knowledge and limited language exposure regarding this topic (Yılmaz & Dikilitaş, 2017). Moreover, grammatical errors about its syntactic positions are commonly found in EFL writing, even in advanced students' writing (Başöz & Aydın, 2011). It is also discovered that ESL students frequently place adverbs or adverb phrases in the initial syntactic position and the post-verbal position as their default positions in English sentences although this finding is statistically insignificantly related to an influence of their L1 interference according to the study of Zhang and Koller (2015). Last but not least, since adverbs are not the core part of English sentence structures, and their function is a modifier which is optional, EFL students with their restricted language proficiency rarely use adverbs, especially adverb phrases in their sentence composition. As a consequence, an understanding of adverb phrases and their structure together with their various syntactic positions is required to broaden their knowledge in this topic, leading to the application of this linguistic structure to express their ideas in a more meaningful written communication.

An adverb phrase is a phrase with *an adverb* as *its head*. It usually *modifies the verb* or *the whole event* and can *move freely* in the sentence *without changing its core meaning* (Fabb, 2005).

Adverb Phrase Structure

Adverb (Modifier) + Adverb (Head)

Examples:

The turtle *moved* **quite slowly** across the path.

quite = ADV → a modifier

slowly = ADV → a head

quite slowly = ADVP → a post-verbal modifier

The turtle moved across the path **quite slowly**.

quite = ADV → a modifier

slowly = ADV → a head

quite slowly = ADVP → a post-verbal modifier

Quite slowly, the turtle *moved* across the path.

Quite = ADV → a modifier

slowly = ADV → a head

Quite slowly, = ADVP → a pre-verbal modifier

The turtle **quite slowly** *moved* across the path.

quite = ADV → a modifier

slowly = ADV → a head

quite slowly = ADVP → a pre-verbal modifier

Jennifer **very confidently** *answered* the question.

very = ADV → a modifier

confidently = ADV → a head

very confidently = ADVP → a pre-verbal modifier

Uncle Joe *solved* the puzzle **surprisingly fast**.

surprisingly = ADV → a modifier

fast = ADV → a head

surprisingly fast = ADVP → a post-verbal modifier

That cat *ran* down the street **extremely quickly** and **completely silently**.

extremely = ADV → a modifier

quickly = ADV → a head

extremely quickly = ADVP → a post-verbal modifier

completely = ADV → a modifier

silently = ADV → a head

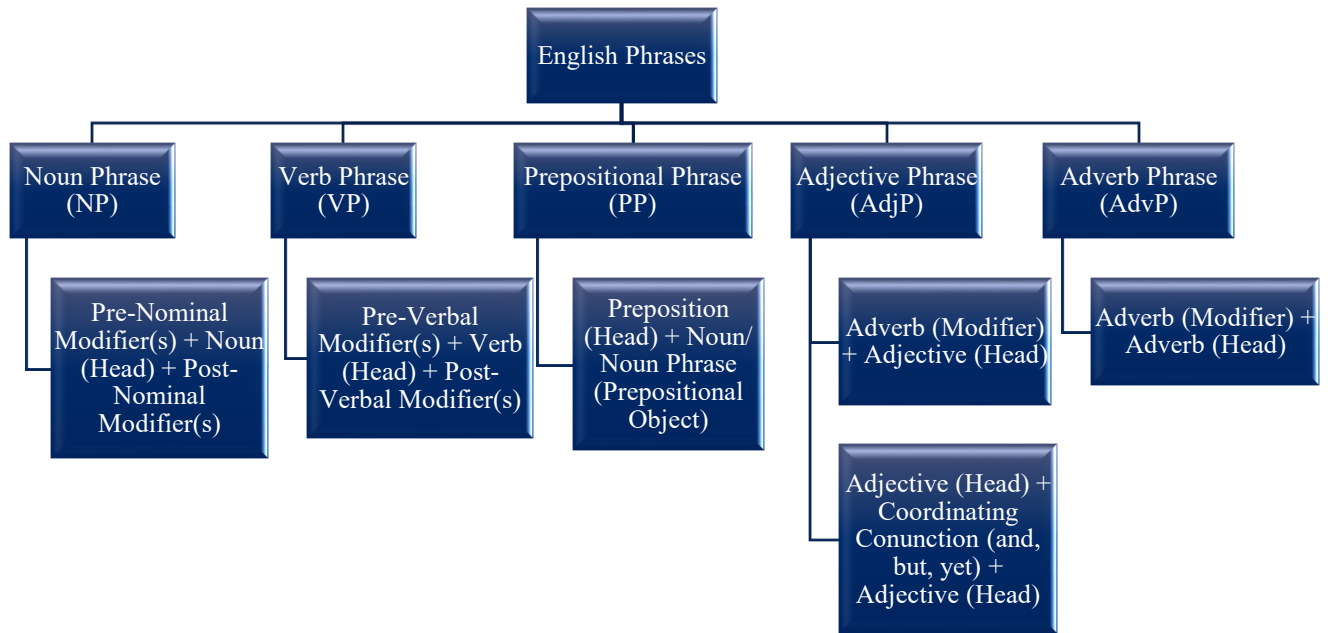
completely silently = ADVP → a post-verbal modifier

KEY TAKEAWAYS: MASTERY SNAPSHOT

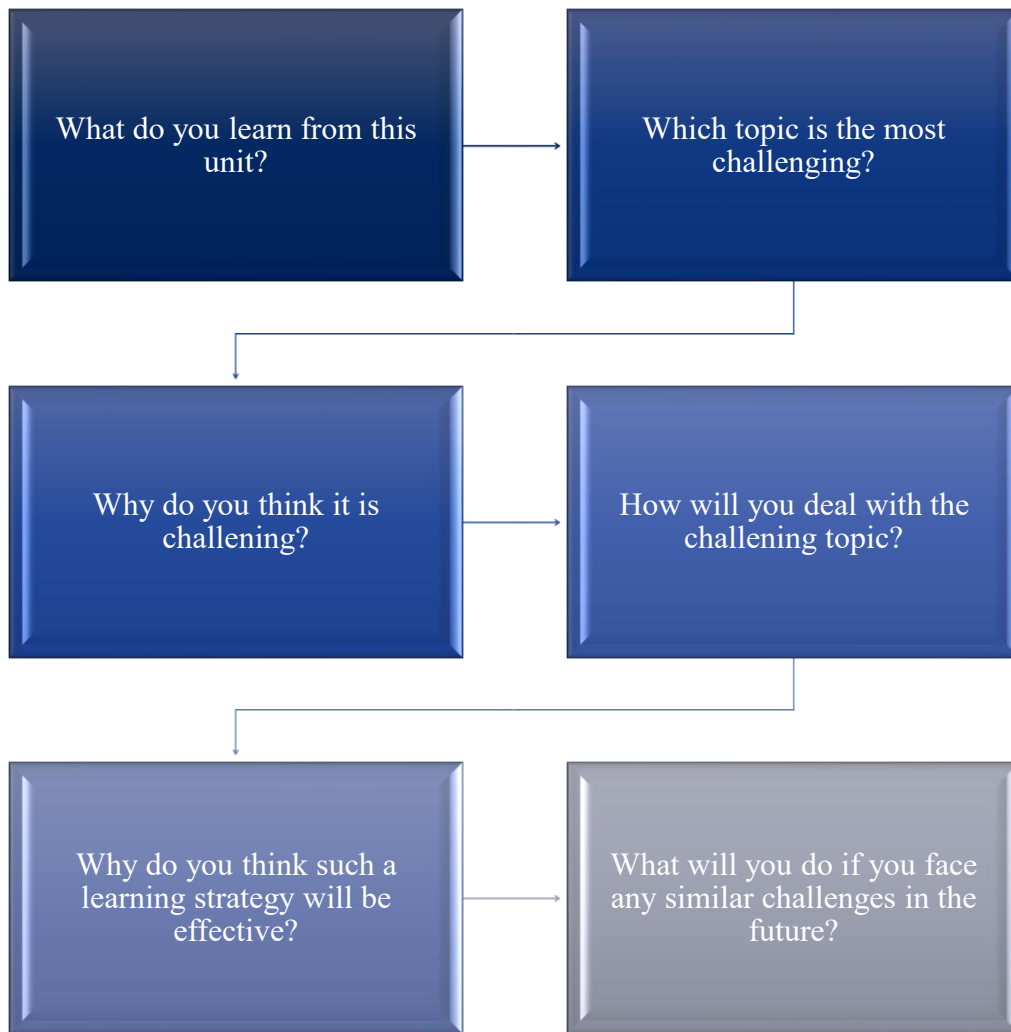
All in all, this unit focuses on a basic language unit in the syntactic structure: English phrases by introducing different yet frequently used types of English phrases. The first one is a noun phrase, the most commonly found phrase and the core part employed in various functions in English sentences: a subject, subject complement, prepositional object, direct object, indirect object, and object complement. With its modifiers, both pre-nominal and post-nominal modifiers, a noun phrase can be formed differently to serve different semantic functions in varied written communicative purposes. A verb phrase is another essential part of an English sentence portraying the predicate. Like the noun phrase, it also has both pre- and post- verbal modifiers to present the

action or the state of being of the subject of the sentence. The structures of a prepositional phrase, an adjective phrase, and an adverb phrase and their diverse syntactic functions also help EFL students be exposed to the starting point how a sentence structure can be basically developed and expanded to deliver more details in a more meaningful yet compact English sentence structure.

CONCEPT MAP



MASTERY REFLECTION



Learning Lens:

WRITE IT RIGHT: SENTENCE MASTERY ZONES

The Starter Zone

Directions: Identify each phrase. Write ‘NP’ for a noun phrase, ‘VP’ for a verb phrase, ‘PP’ for a prepositional phrase, ‘ADJP’ for an adjective phrase, or ‘ADVP’ for an adverb phrase.

- _____ 1. before falling in love
- _____ 2. perfectly happily
- _____ 3. slightly sleepy
- _____ 4. can stay up
- _____ 5. terribly badly
- _____ 6. a collection of new arrivals
- _____ 7. during the lecture
- _____ 8. that young man standing among the crowd
- _____ 9. apparently haunted
- _____ 10. the 18th century
- _____ 11. was struck
- _____ 12. without you
- _____ 13. quite worried
- _____ 14. because of the storm
- _____ 15. completely differently
- _____ 16. my notebook on the glass table
- _____ 17. extremely tired
- _____ 18. last night
- _____ 19. has been waiting

_____ 20. incredibly fast

The Builder Zone

Directions: Write each phrase that includes the given word in the parentheses.

1. a noun phrase (old)

2. a noun phrase with a pre-nominal modifier (balloons)

3. a noun phrase with a post-nominal modifier (butter)

4. a noun phrase with a pre-nominal modifier and a post-nominal modifier (culture)

5. a verb phrase (can)

6. a verb phrase with a pre-verbal modifier (talk)

7. a verb phrase with a post-verbal modifier (drink)

8. a prepositional phrase (near)

9. an adjective phrase (fat)

10. an adverb phrase (frequently)

The Sharper Zone

Directions: Find a travel blog that interests you and write all the five types of English phrases you can find in the space below.

Format:

Source/ Credit:

Last name, F. M./ Group name. (Year, Month Date). Title of blog post. *Blog Name*. URL

(Provide the reference for the travel blog you used in the APA 7th edition format.)

Source/ Credit:

Noun Phrases

Verb Phrases

Blank area for notes or examples related to Verb Phrases.

Prepositional Phrases

Blank area for notes or examples related to Prepositional Phrases.

Adjective Phrases

Blank area for notes or examples related to Adjective Phrases.

ENGLISH CLAUSES

UNIT III

Learning Objectives

At the end of this unit, the students will be able to ...

- define what a clause is.
 - identify different types of clauses.
 - describe and analyze the structure of each clause type.
 - write different types of clauses.
-

UNIT III

ENGLISH CLAUSES

INTRODUCTION

A more complex sentence element is *a clause*. Unlike phrases, a subject-verb component is a crucial part of its nature structure. Novice student writers, specifically EFL students with restricted language proficiency, usually find it is quite challenging to differentiate between the two at first. Even after certain explicit classroom instruction of such concepts is conveyed, grammatical errors in these two topics can be found. Multimodal authentic materials are suggested to be applied to optimize the grammatical instructional approach to raise EFL students' awareness of such linguistic concepts in a more motivating and engaging language learning atmosphere (Agustina et al., 2025). In so doing, it promotes context-driven grammatical instruction based on the communicative language teaching approach in order to close the gap between the functional grammatical instruction and their real-life experience. However, this recommended instructional approach will be applied through their learning activities in the exercise section under the topic: *Write It Right: Sentence Mastery Zones* of this unit as a final touch to ensure that the students acquire sufficient knowledge of this topic and are able to apply in practice.

ENGLISH CLAUSES

Clauses are the basic structure of English sentences. (Corbett & Strong, 2016). *A clause is a group of related words* containing *a subject and verb*. There are *two* types of English clauses: *independent clauses* and *dependent clauses*.

INDEPENDENT CLAUSES

An independent or *main clause* expresses *a complete thought* and can *stand alone*. It can also be referred to as *a sentence* (Young, 2009). However, when it is *part of a longer sentence*, it is still called *an independent* or *main clause* (Young, 2009). The independent clause contains *a*

grammatical subject in the nominative case and *at least one finite lexical verb* that *agrees with the subjects* and *shows tense* (Gelderen, 2013).

Independent Clause Structure

Subject + Verb

Independent Clauses and Their Punctuation

Independent clauses usually end with *a period (a full stop)*, but they can also end with *an exclamation point (an exclamation mark)* or *a question mark*.

The independent clauses with *a period* or *a full stop* at the end of the sentences can be *statements* and *imperatives* or *commands* as shown in the following examples.

Examples:

Statements

This little puppy *looks* dirty.

They *Painted* the walls blue.

Everyone *has been laughing* at her for a long time.

Our family *built* a treehouse in the backyard last year.

She *might not listen*.

Ken *is not* my type.

That old man in the blue shirt *may not know* the truth.

Emily *has not sent* an email to her boss yet.

Imperatives (Commands)

Stop right there.

Don't leave me here alone.

Please *forgive* me.

Be careful.

Let's celebrate.

The independent clauses with *an exclamation point* or *an exclamation mark* at the end of the sentences are *exclamatory sentences* and *imperatives* or *commands*, particularly when a strong emotion is emphasized.

Examples:

Exclamatory Sentences

That roller coaster *was* amazing!

I can't *wait* for our long vacation!

You *are* an idiot!

Hooray, **we** *won* the first prize!

It's unbelievable!

Imperatives (Commands)

Run!

Tell me!

Help me!

Watch out for the icy road!

Don't *touch* the wet paint!

Both types of questions: *yes/ no questions* and *questions with interrogative words* are *the independent clauses* with *a question mark* at the end of the sentences.

Examples:

Yes/ No Questions

Is Peter feeling better today?

Am I interrupting you?

Does Barbara speak Spanish?

Do we need to leave now?

Have they arrived at the airport yet?

Did you see that shooting star?

Will it be sunny tomorrow?

Can we start the meeting now?

Questions with Interrogative Words

What *did you have* for breakfast?

What time *does the train depart*?

Where *did you put* my keys?

Who *is* the representative of our group?

Why *are they* late?

When *will Mark finish* his assignment?

Which plan *would you prefer*?

How is **Kathy** going to deal with this problem?

At the beginning of clause composition, especially independent clauses, a period or a full stop is the most omitted punctuation mark in EFL students' writing due to their L1 interference. Accordingly, this linguistic point should be highlighted to raise the students' awareness of linguistic differences between the two languages.

DEPENDENT CLAUSES

A dependent or subordinate clause has a subject and verb but does not express a complete thought and cannot stand alone (Young, 2009). Its nature clause structure begins with a *subordinator or subordinating conjunction*, such as *although, as long as, unless, before, since, as soon as, while, though, even though, as, if, when, until, after, because, who, whom, that, which, whose, why, how, what(ever), where(ever)*, etc. (Kaufman & Straus, 2021) followed by *a grammatical subject* and *a verb* that *agrees with the subjects and exhibits tense*.

Dependent Clause Structure

Subordinating Conjunction + Subject + Verb

To communicate the idea properly, *the dependent clause* must be *used with the independent clause*. Notably, this clause concept is typically forgotten as dependent clauses are frequently punctuated with a period/ a full stop to cause sentence fragments in EFL students' writing. This grammatical error happens due to their unconscious awareness of their over punctuation in L2 writing and their L1 interference, particularly when dependent clauses are considered as a complete linguistic unit in their L1. Accordingly, the examples below are designed to emphasize how *dependent clauses cannot stand alone in English sentence structures*, compared to the aforementioned independent clause examples.

Examples:

Statements

This little puppy *looks* dirty because it plays outside.

They painted the walls blue although we didn't want it.

As Margaret is funny, **everyone** *has been laughing* at her for a long time.

Our family built a treehouse that we wanted in the backyard last year.

She might not listen since she does not care.

Ken is not my type whereas Bob is.

That old man in the blue shirt *may not know* the truth that we are hiding.

Emily, whose schedule is always tight, *has not sent* an email to her boss yet.

Imperatives (Commands)

Stop right there if you want to be alive.

Don't leave me here alone as long as you love me.

Please *forgive* me after I tell you the truth.

Be careful when you cross the busy street.

Let's celebrate until we are drunk.

Exclamatory Sentences

That roller coaster that we rode last week *was* amazing!

I can't *wait* for our long vacation that we have planned for months!

You are an idiot who never cares about yourself!

Hooray, **we won** the first prize even though we were cheated!

It's unbelievable if you ask me!

Imperatives (Commands)

Run whenever you can!

Tell me so that I can help you!

Help me as soon as you see me!

Watch out for the icy road as it is difficult to drive on!

Don't *touch* the wet paint before it dries!

Yes/ No Questions

Is **Peter**, who was sick yesterday, feeling better today?

Am **I** *interrupting* you as you look busy?

Does **Barbara** *speak* Spanish if she meets Lucia, our Spanish newcomer?

Do **we** *need* to leave now because no one says a word?

Have **they** *arrived* at the airport where we are supposed to meet yet?

Did **you** *see* that shooting star that I saw yesterday?

Will **it** *be* sunny tomorrow after the storm passes?

Can **we** *start* the meeting now before it is too late?

Questions with Interrogative Words

What *did you* *have* for breakfast before you went to work?

What time *does the train* *leave* after we leave?

Where *did you* *put* my keys that I gave you two hours ago?

Who *is* the representative of our group who will give the presentation?

Why *are* **they** late since they leave the hotel quite early?

When *will* **Mark** *finish* his assignment that has been done for almost two months?

Which plan *would* **you** *prefer* if you were me?

How *is* **Kathy** *going to deal* with this problem that is getting worse?

Dependent Clauses and Their Punctuation

In some cases, you can *switch the order* of *the dependent* and *independent clauses* without *changing the meaning*; however, when *the dependent clause comes first*, it is followed by *a comma*. As demonstrated in the examples below, only the dependent clauses that function as *adverb clauses* can be repositioned. For the dependent clauses whose functions are *noun* and *adjective clauses* must remain in the fixed positions in the sentences.

Examples:

Adverb Clauses	
<i>With a Comma</i>	<i>Without a Comma</i>
<i>Although Barbara is rich</i> , I don't like her.	I don't like Barbara <i>although she is rich</i> .
<i>Before our boss left the office</i> , she texted me.	Our boss texted me <i>before she left the office</i> .
<i>After Bob had left</i> , his son cried bitterly.	Bob's son cried bitterly <i>after he had left</i> .
<i>If water reaches 0°C</i> , it freezes.	Water freezes <i>if it reaches 0°C</i> .
<i>Unless plants get enough water</i> , they die.	Plants die <i>unless they get enough water</i> .
<i>Because I was hungry</i> , I ate quickly.	I ate quickly <i>because I was hungry</i> .

Until I come back, wait here.

Wait here **until I come back**.

When the storm started, the lights went out.

The lights went out **when the storm started**.

Since it started snowing, we have stayed inside.

We have stayed inside **since it started snowing**.

As long as you study hard, you will pass the test.

You will pass the test **as long as you study hard**.

While Emma was cooking, her little brother was playing outside.

Emma's little brother was playing outside **while she was cooking**.

but...

Noun Clauses

He knew **that it was wrong**.

I am happy **that you passed the test**.

That he passed the exam made his parents proud.

Who called you is still a mystery.

Adjective Clauses

Mary wore **a dress that she bought in Paris**.

Emily likes **the restaurant that serves**

Italian food.

The lady who helped me yesterday is his aunt.

Whom we choose will represent us.

The young man whom we met at the party

I don't know **whom they invited to the conference.**

last night is famous.

I forgot **where I put my keys.**

The restaurant where they serve the best sushi is always crowded.

He wonders **whose idea this is.**

Jacob has **a friend whose father works in France.**

My boss and I don't understand **why he left so suddenly.**

The reason why Jack was late is unknown.

Why the system crashed is unknown.

The study explored **the factors why students drop out.**

She asked **how the software should be installed.**

I like **the way how she solved the problem.**

How he solved the problem was not mentioned in the document.

The presentation showed **the process how the data was analyzed.**

Tell me **which option is better.**

The movie which won the award was amazing.

In practice, a comma can still be found when the independent clause comes first, and it is omitted when the sentence begins with the adverb clause in EFL students' writing no matter how clear the

instruction is. Hence, an emphasis on these issues is highlighted through multiple examples above to reduce or avoid such grammatical errors.

FUNCTIONS OF DEPENDENT CLAUSES

Dependent or *subordinate clauses* can function as *nouns*, *adjectives*, or *adverbs* in sentences. Such clauses are accordingly classified as *noun clauses*, *adjective clauses*, and *adverb clauses*.

NOUN CLAUSES

A *noun clause* is a *dependent* or *subordinate clause* that *functions* as a *noun* in a sentence. Thus, it can be a *subject*, *subject complement*, *extraposed subject*, *object complement*, *direct object*, *prepositional object*, *adjectival complement*, *appositive*, or *adverbial* depending on its syntactic role (Gurning, 2022). It usually begins with a *subordinator* such as *what*, *how*, *why*, *who*, *whoever*, *whom*, *whomever*, *that*, *where*, *whose*, or *which*. This type of clause is recognized as the most difficult dependent clauses for students, especially EFL students, to master due to its various syntactic functions as discovered in certain studies (Hanim & Anggraini, 2023; Haryanti & Setyandari, 2018) and its similar sentence structures to those of adjective clauses (Agustina, 2025). To avoid cognitive overload, its only most frequently used syntactic functions are introduced, so EFL students are able to gain basic knowledge to apply in their English sentence writing. Now, let's take a closer look at the previous noun clause examples.

<i>Examples:</i>	He knew that it was wrong.	(a direct object)
	I am happy that you passed the test.	(an adjectival complement)
	That he passed the exam made his parents proud.	(a subject)
	Who called you is still a mystery.	(a subject)
	Whom we choose will represent us.	(a subject)
	I don't know whom they invited to the conference.	(a direct object)
	I forgot where I put my keys.	(a direct object)

He wonders **whose idea this is**. (a direct object)

My boss and I don't understand **why he left so suddenly**. (a direct object)

Why the system crashed is unknown. (a subject)

She asked **how the software should be installed**. (a direct object)

How he solved the problem was not mentioned in the document. (a subject)

Tell me **which option is better**. (a direct object)

More Examples: **What she decided** surprised everyone. (a subject)

Your honesty is **what I need most**. (a subject complement)

How the experiment was conducted remains unclear. (a subject)

We talked about **how we could improve our plan**. (a prepositional object)

Whoever arrives first will get the best seat. (a subject)

Give the prize to **whoever wins the contest**. (a prepositional object)

I will hire **whomever you recommend**. (a direct object)

You may invite **whomever you like**. (a direct object)

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

An adjective clause is also referred to as *a relative clause*, *a dependent* or *subordinate clause* that functions as *an adjective* in a sentence. In other words, it *modifies a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase*. Such clauses are introduced by *relative pronouns*—such as *who, whom, that, which, or whose*—and, as dependent constructions, cannot stand alone (Swick, 2018). *The adjective clause* is another type of clause students usually make grammatical errors (Haryanti & Setyandari, 2018). Such linguistic errors are related to the types of adjective clauses as it is reported that *the contact clauses* whose relative pronouns are omitted are the most difficult ones for EFL students (Koçak,

2020). Thus, explicit form-focused instruction can foster language learning and acquisition of such a complex sentence structure for EFL students (Nezakat-alhossaini et al., 2014).

Generally, there are *two types* of *relative clauses: restrictive (defining)* and *non-restrictive (non-defining)*. In both types, the *relative pronoun* can function as *a subject, an object, or a possessive pronoun* as shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Relative Pronoun Functions and Their Modified Idea Types

Relative Pronoun Function	Modified Idea Type				
	People	Things	Places	Time	Reasons
<i>Subject</i>	who/ that*	that/ which*			
<i>Object</i>	whom/ that*/ who*	that/ which*	where	when	why
<i>Possessive</i>	whose	whose			

* *informal*

Table 2 illustrates the different functions of relative pronouns modifying varied types of ideas. EFL students need to identify the type of idea they are going to modify with the adjective clause first whether it is a person, thing, place, period of time, or reason. Then determine what function the relative pronoun will be in such a sentence. Is it a subject, object, or possessive? Finally, choose the appropriate choice of relative pronoun that corresponds to the type of your writing whether it is an academic or informal piece of writing to start writing the adjective clause to modify such an idea.

Modifying the ideas with the relative pronouns in the adjective clauses is one of the most challenging concepts for EFL students to apply in their English sentence writing. Their most frequent grammatical error in this dependent clause type is a misplaced adjective clause: it is not

placed right after the idea it modifies. As a result, various types of ideas modified with different relative pronouns in both types of adjective clauses are highlighted in all examples to give a clearer concept of how this dependent clause functions in English sentences.

Restrictive (Defining) Adjective Clauses

Restrictive (defining) adjective clauses are not set off by commas. These clauses provide *essential information* about the modified idea, which is necessary for the sentence's meaning and *cannot be omitted*. Study the aforementioned adjective clause examples below.

Examples:

Mary wore ***a dress that she bought in Paris***.

Emily likes ***the restaurant that serves Italian food***.

The lady who helped me yesterday is his aunt.

The young man whom we met at the party last night is famous.

The restaurant where they serve the best sushi is always crowded.

Jacob has ***a friend whose father works in France***.

The reason why Jack was late is unknown.

The study explored ***the factors why students drop out***.

I like ***the way how she solved the problem***.

The presentation showed ***the process how the data was analyzed***.

The movie which won the award was amazing.

More Examples:

The man who lives next door is a doctor.

The woman whom I met yesterday had a car accident.

or *The woman I met yesterday* had a car accident.

The girl whose father is sick won the prize.

The local company whose policies are strict is expanding.

The book that explains grammar is very helpful.

The movie that we watched last night was amazing.

or *The movie we watched last night* was amazing.

I visited *the town where I grew up*.

I remember *the day when we first met*.

I don't know *the reason why she was upset*.

Non- Restrictive (Non-Defining) Adjective Clauses

Non-restrictive (non-defining) adjective clauses are *set off* from the main clause *by commas*. *Which* is generally *the preferred relative pronoun* for these clauses (Swick, 2018). Non-restrictive clauses provide *additional, non-essential information* about the modified idea, which *can be omitted* without affecting the sentence's meaning. Here are some examples.

Examples:

Sarah, who is my best friend, moved to Canada.

Sarah, whom I met yesterday, is joining our team.

I met *John, whose car had been stolen*, at the police station.

That blue book in your hand, which explains grammar rules, is very popular.

Last night's movie, which we watched, was fantastic.

We visited *Paris, where we both first learned French*.

I remember *the day before yesterday, when we all went to the beach*, very

well.

She explained *Alice's plan, why it would succeed*, very clearly.

ADVERB CLAUSES

An adverb clause is a *dependent* or *subordinate clause* that functions as *an adverb* in a sentence. It modifies *a verb, an adjective, an adverb, or the idea in the independent (main) clause*. Thus, it expresses *causes, effects, conditions, time, places, purposes, manner, or comparison*. This clause is the most frequently used function of dependent clauses in students' writing (Quansah & Tetteh, 2018). Moreover, it is the easiest type of dependent clause EFL students can master (Agustina, 2025). It begins with *a subordinator* or *subordinating conjunction*, such as *although, though, even though, before, after, if, unless, because, until, when, since, as long as, while, as soon as, whenever, wherever, once, as though, as, so that, in case that, in order that, or than*. To start with, see the adverb clause examples mentioned earlier.

Examples:

I don't like Barbara *although she is rich*.

or *Although Barbara is rich*, I don't like her.

Our boss texted me *before she left the office*.

or *Before our boss left the office*, she texted me.

Bob's son cried bitterly *after he had left*.

or *After Bob had left*, his son cried bitterly.

Water freezes *if it reaches 0°C*.

or *If water reaches 0°C*, it freezes.

Plants die *unless they get enough water*.

or *Unless plants get enough water*, they die.

I ate quickly *because I was hungry*.

or **Because I was hungry**, I ate quickly.

Wait here **until I come back**.

or **Until I come back**, wait here.

The lights went out **when the storm started**.

or **When the storm started**, the lights went out.

We have stayed inside **since it started snowing**.

or **Since it started snowing**, we have stayed inside.

You will pass the test **as long as you study hard**.

or **As long as you study hard**, you will pass the test.

Emma's little brother was playing outside **while she was cooking**.

or **While Emma was cooking**, her little brother was playing outside.

More Examples:

Mark ran to hug me **as soon as I walked into his room**.

or **As soon as I walked into his room**, Mark ran to hug me.

I call my parents **whenever I miss them**.

or **Whenever I miss my parents**, I call them.

We usually try local food **wherever we travel**.

or **Wherever we travel**, we usually try local food.

You can play games **once you finish your homework**.

or **Once you finish your homework**, you can play games.

but...

Samantha smiles **as though she won the lottery**.

Barbara looked **as if she had seen a ghost**.

Bob whispered *so that no one could hear him*.

I left a note *in case that dad and mom came home early*.

Kathy took notes *in order that she could remember the instructions*.

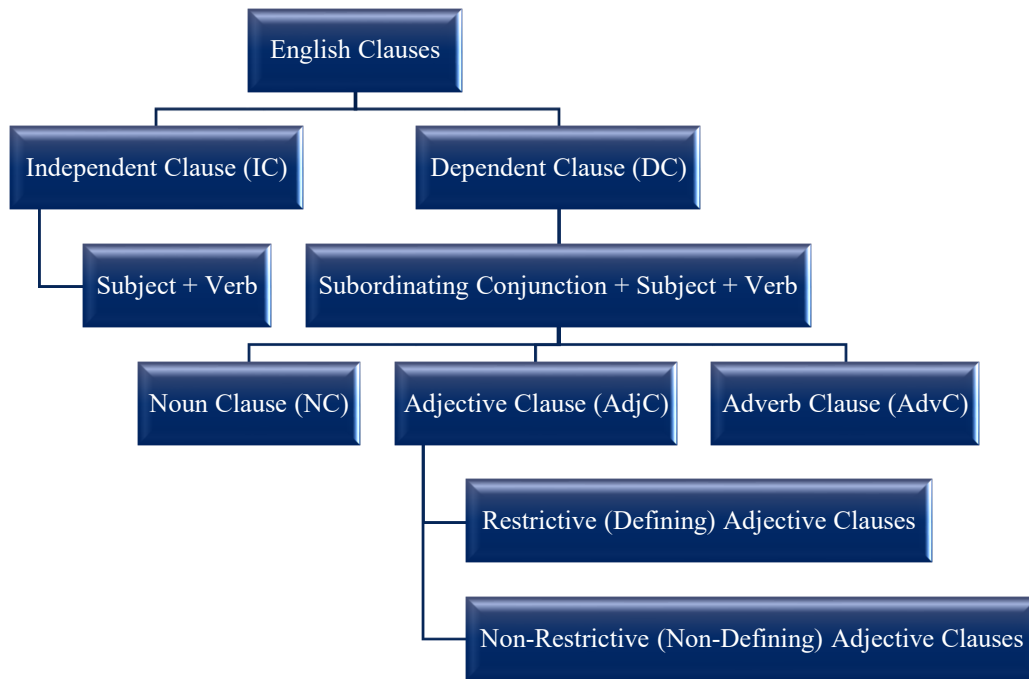
Joe works harder *than his colleague works*.

or Joe works harder *than his colleague*.

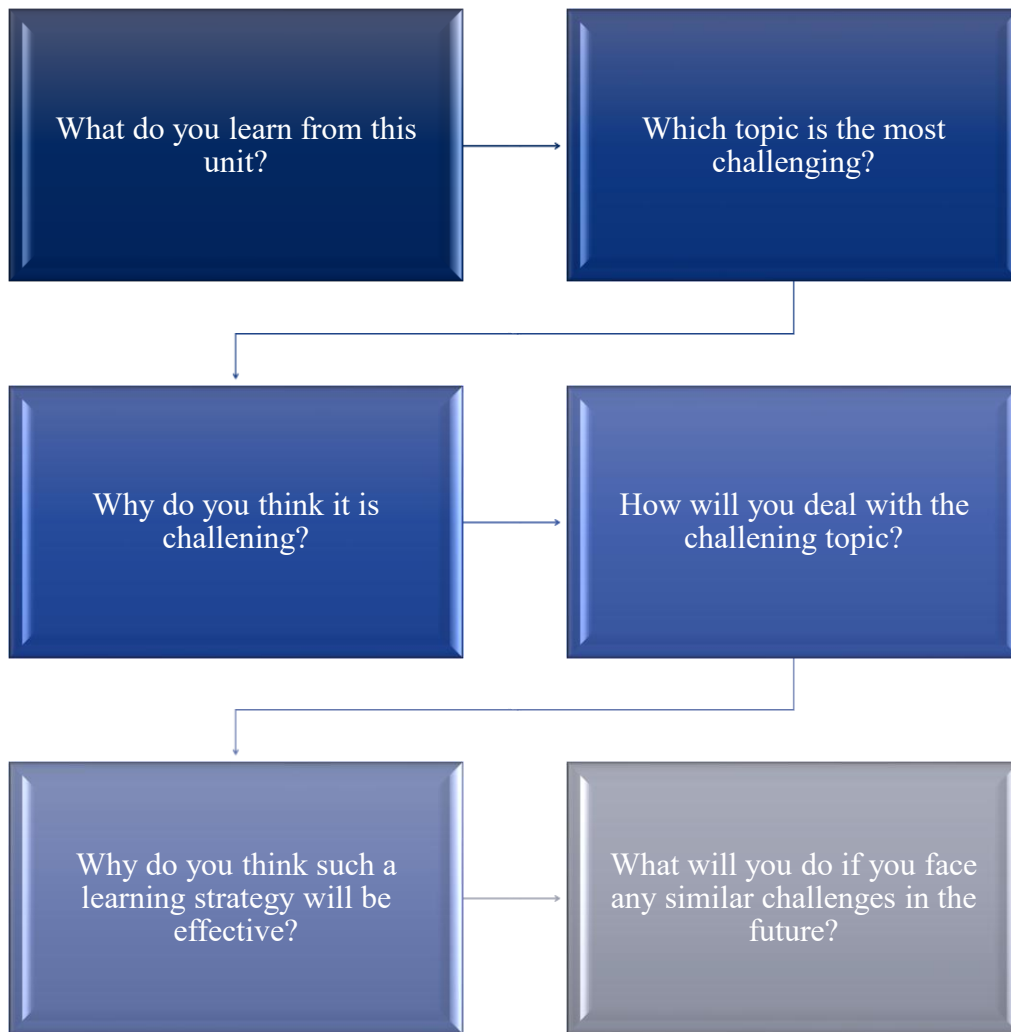
TAKEAWAYS: MASTERY SNAPSHOT

In this unit, *English clauses* are introduced and demonstrated. Through explicit instruction and various examples, EFL students can see the markedly different structures between English phrases and English clauses. That is, English clauses contain *a subject-verb component* whereas English phrases do not. Apart from that, *two categories of English clauses: independent or main clauses* and *dependent or subordinate clauses* are described. The former can stand alone as it expresses a complete thought, so they can be called *sentences*. On the other hand, the latter cannot; otherwise, sentence fragments occur. In order to avoid such a grammatical error, dependent clauses must be used with independent clauses based on their *three functions: noun clauses, adjective clauses, and adverb clauses*.

CONCEPT MAP



MASTERY REFLECTION



Learning Lens:

WRITE IT RIGHT: SENTENCE MASTERY ZONES

The Starter Zone

Directions: Identify whether the underlined parts of each sentence are a phrase or a clause.

Write 'P' for a phrase and 'C' for a clause.

____, ____ 1. I believe that Jack is honest and kind.

____, ____ 2. When our new friend arrives, we will start the game.

____, ____ 3. Julia decided to join the dance club even though her boyfriend did not want to.

____, ____ 4. Our garden is really beautiful when we take care of it.

____, ____ 5. The security guard warned her for the first time, but she ignored him.

____, _____, ____ 6. The café that was opened yesterday was my new favorite place to spend time with my friends on weekends.

____, _____, ____ 7. Bob and I will study all night tonight as we want to pass the test.

____, _____, ____ 8. The flight was unexpectedly delayed because of bad weather, so we must wait very patiently for our grandfather's return.

____, ____ 9. Do you think that this project will work?

____, ____ 10. Listen carefully until the end of the meeting.

The Builder Zone

Directions: For each underlined clause, write 'IC' for an independent clause or 'DC' for a dependent clause. If the clause is dependent, state whether it is a noun, adjective, or adverb clause. Then rewrite the sentence by replacing only the same dependent clause type with your own idea.

____, ____ 1. Because Maria was extremely tired, she went to bed early.

____, ____ 2. It was not fair for both of them as they did nothing wrong.

____, ____ 3. Whatever they have been discussing, I don't care anymore.

____, ____ 4. Why don't you tell us that we are lost?

____, ____ 5. Although he is terribly scared, he never asks us to stay with him.

____, _____, ____ 6. Ask Sue who is always indecisive if she wants to join us.

____, ____ 7. I have never said that I have never seen that guy before.

____, ____ 8. She forgot to bring his card that he gave her yesterday.

_____, _____ 9. May I ask why you like her that much?

_____, _____ 10. Don't laugh at me, or you'll be in trouble!

The Sharper Zone

Directions: Find an online short story extract that includes all types of clauses. Write all the types of English clauses you can find in the space below.

Format:

Source/ Credit:

Last name, F. M./ Group name (Year, Month Date). *Title of page*. Site Name. URL

Title of page. (Year, Month Date). Site Name. Retrieved Month Date, Year, from URL

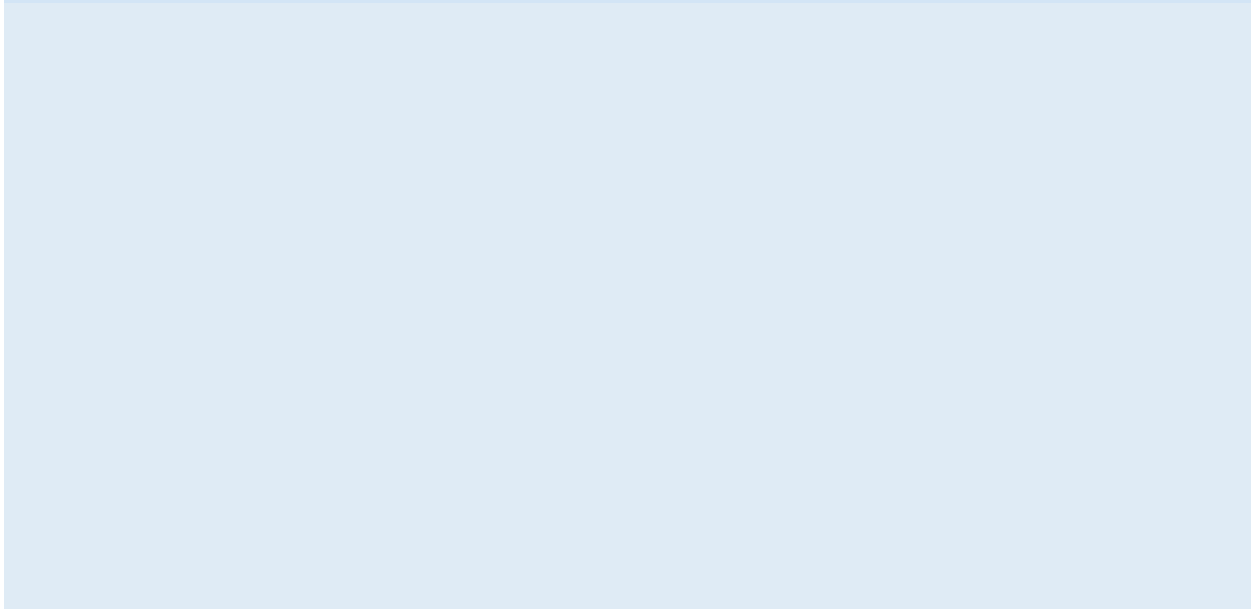
(Provide the reference for the online short story extract you chose in the APA 7th edition format.)

Source/ Credit:

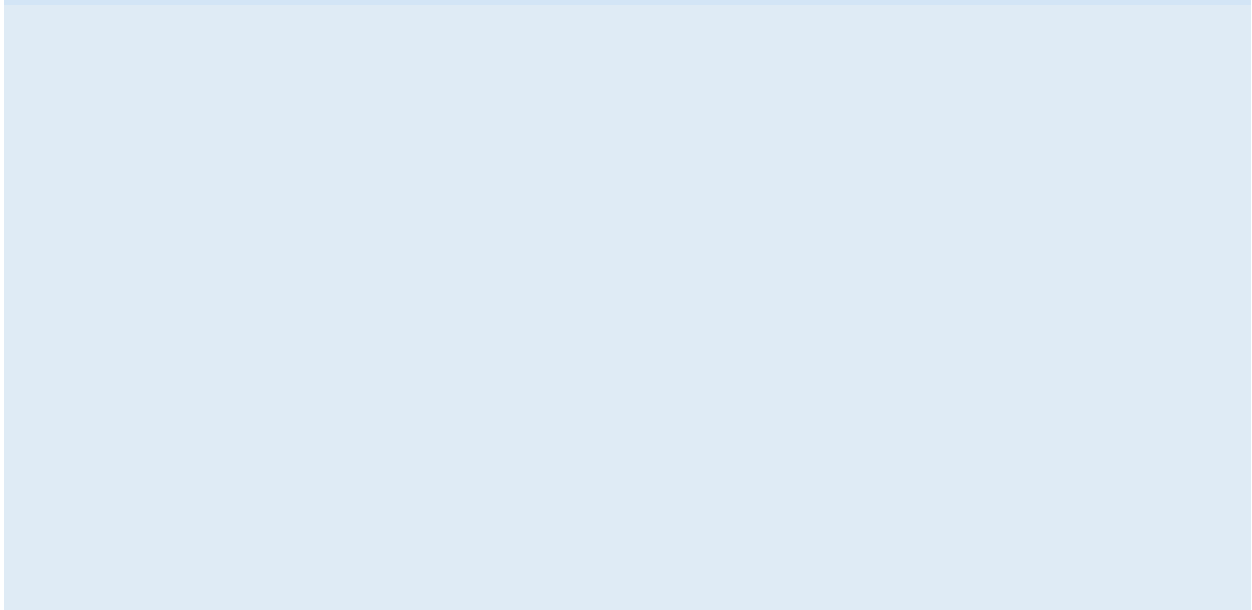
Independent Clauses

Dependent Clauses (Noun Clauses)

Dependent Clauses (Adjective Clauses)



Dependent Clauses (Adverb Clauses)



The Master Zone

Directions: Rewrite the short story extract by replacing all the same clause types in the previous exercise to create your own version.

INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH SENTENCE STRUCTURES

UNIT IV

Learning Objectives

At the end of this unit, the students will be able to ...

- define what a sentence is.
- identify different sentence structures and voices.
- describe and analyze different sentence structures and voices.
- write accurate and well-structured sentences, using different structures and voices.

UNIT IV

INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH SENTENCE STRUCTURES

INTRODUCTION

In this unit, a meaningful unit of the English language is introduced: a sentence structure. EFL students typically find English sentence structures challenging as they have distinguishing and complex characteristics, primarily different from other languages, especially their L1 sentence structures (Hung, 2023). This is also supported by Sundari et al. (2021). They point out that grammatical errors in English sentence structures are typically caused by cross-linguistic influence, especially students' native language in terms of culture, structure, and vocabulary overgeneralization apart from improper instructional approach and materials. To enhance their limited language proficiency, more specifically their English sentence writing skill, to mitigate the negative effects of their L1 interference, explicit instruction on various English sentence structures is delivered in this unit. Accordingly, EFL students can comprehend a concept of English sentence structures to apply in their English sentence writing accurately and properly for a more effective written communication.

ENGLISH SENTENCE STRUCTURES

Written language is different from spoken language. In writing, there is no interlocutor and context, so *writers need to explain everything in detail* (Corbett & Strong, 2016). This calls for “*sentences*”. *A sentence* illustrates *an action, an event, or a state of being* (Fabb, 2005). Students' concept of a sentence is their basic linguistic part of writing (Treiman & Kessler, 2014). This includes their grammatical knowledge of the five most common English sentence patterns: *Subject + Verb*, *Subject + Verb + Object*, *Subject + Verb + Complement*, *Subject + Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object*, and *Subject + Verb + Direct Object + Object Complement* (Demirezen, 2012).

THE SENTENCE AND ITS COMPONENTS

In English, *a sentence* typically consists of *a subject* and *a predicate (a verb)*; together we call *the sentence core*, expressing a complete thought (Young, 2009). To identify the subject, first locate the verb, then ask who or what performs it. *English sentences* can contain *multiple subjects* and *multiple verbs*.

SUBJECT

A subject, a noun, pronoun, or a group of related words with modifiers (a phrase and a noun clause), performs the verb. When more than one subject is joined together sharing the same verb(s) in the sentence, it is called *a compound subject* or “*a multiplied subject*” (Young, 2009, p. 18). Nevertheless, the one that is not stated but the reader still understands who performs the action in the sentence is called “*an implied subject*” normally found in *imperatives* or *commands*. (Young, 2009, p. 14).

EFL students’ interlingual interference has a great influence on constructing English sentence structures regarding this sentence component, particularly when the subjects can be omitted in their L1 sentences whereas this sentence component is considered as a core part in the rigid English sentence structures leading to grammatical errors in sentence writing. For instance, Thai EFL students frequently omit the subjects when writing English sentences as this can be done in composing sentences in their mother tongue. Thus, their awareness of such a linguistic difference should be raised to avoid such errors.

Types of Subjects

Subjects can be grouped into different types based on various criteria. Nevertheless, here are some common subject types typically employed in English sentence structures, so EFL student can grasp a basic idea how to formulate subjects in English sentence structures.

Names: Emily, Uncle Bob, Little Jack, Samsung, Mineré, iQIYI, Mercedes Benz, Amazon Café, Central Festival Hat Yai, Thaksin University, etc.

Personal Subject Pronouns: I, You, We, They, He, She, It

Indefinite Pronouns: someone, somebody, no one, nobody, anyone, everyone, everybody, etc.

Nouns: butter, life, time, butterflies, trees, happiness, confidence, love, etc.

Noun Phrases: an idea, my close friends, that beautiful garden, a smartphone in your hand, the project we talked about yesterday, etc.

Infinitive Phrases: to love yourself, to throw a surprise party, to study online, etc.

Gerund Phrases: reading more books, watching a series on Netflix, playing games overnight, etc.

Noun Clauses: what our team needs, whoever talks about this again, etc.

PREDICATE: VERB + COMPLEMENT

A **verb**, which *expresses an action, a feeling, or a state of being*, together with **any complement**, constitutes **the predicate**. **All verbs** have their **base forms** and **gerund forms** (Young, 2009), and they are *changed* based on **tenses** and **their subjects**. Unlike Thai sentence structures which rely on the contexts, English sentence structures underscore *inflection* and *fixed sentence structures* (Wiboolyasarin, 2025). Undoubtedly, *inflection* can be perceived as a pain point of EFL students, especially when this linguistic aspect cannot be found in their native language, like Thai, for example. This grammatical issue, nevertheless, requires extensive practice and probably takes some time for them to master. Like the subject, there is **a compound verb**, two or more main verbs joining together or sharing the same auxiliary verb.

Types of Verbs

Verbs are classified into **four types**: **linking**, **intransitive**, **transitive**, and **passive**. **Linking verbs** express *states of being* rather than action, thus having **no voice** distinction whereas **intransitive** and **transitive verbs** occur in **the active voice**, and **passive verbs** appear in **the passive voice**.

Linking or **state-of-being verbs** connect *the subject* to *its complement* that describes or identifies it. They include all forms of *the verb to be*, **sensory verbs** —such as look, feel, taste, smell, and sound, and verbs like *seem, become, and remain*.

Intransitive verbs express **action without direct objects**. The subject and verb together form a complete thought though the verb may be followed by **modifiers**. Examples include *sing, talk, rain, listen, cough, ring, live, cry, laugh, stand, wait, and smile*.

Transitive verbs express **actions** that require **objects** to complete their meanings. Examples include *hug, eat, push, have, borrow, pay, grab, teach, and squeeze*. **The objects** may be **a noun, pronoun, or a noun phrase or clause**. **Modifiers** are optional for additional information or clarification.

Passive verbs emphasize **the recipients** of the actions not the doers or agents. **Passive verb** forms are **the auxiliary verb to be** with **the past participle of the main verb** based on each tense as displayed in Table 3.

Table 3

Passive Verb Forms in Different Tenses and Tense Aspects

	Present	Past	Future
Completed Actions	is/ am/ are <i>past participle</i>	was/were <i>past participle</i>	will be <i>past participle</i>
Actions in Progress	is/ am/ are being <i>past participle</i>	was/ were being <i>past participle</i>	will be being <i>past participle</i> *
Perfect	has/have been <i>past participle</i>	had been <i>past participle</i>	will have been <i>past participle</i> *

Table 3 depicts various passive verb forms based on different tenses: present, past, and future and tense aspects: completed actions, actions in progress, and perfect. The ones with asterisks are less commonly found in sentence writing. The major problem of EFL students, especially Thai EFL students, is the difficulty of past participle recall besides failing to remember the passive verb form of each tense and tense aspect. To solve this problem, this students' linguistic weakness can be strengthened by learning activities and additional assignments about passive verb forms.

A complement can be a word or group of words that completes the meaning of the verb or describes the subject or object.

Types of Complements

Complements are generally classified into *four types: subject complements, object complements, direct objects, and indirect objects.*

Subject Complements are *words or phrases* that give *more information* about *the subject*. They can be *nouns, noun phrases, adjectives, or prepositional phrases*. They can be called *intensive complements* (Young, 2015).

Object complements are *words or phrases* that describe or rename *the object*. They can be *adjectives, past participles, nouns, or noun phrases*.

Direct objects are *words or phrases* indicating *the receiver of the action of a transitive verb*. They can also be called *transitive complements* (Young, 2015).

Indirect objects are *words or phrases* indicating *the person or thing that the transitive verb is performed for or directed to*.

VOICES AND ENGLISH SENTENCE STRUCTURES

Sentence voices refer to *the relationships* between *the subjects* and *the verbs* in the clauses and are typically categorized as either *active* or *passive*.

No Voice

Since voice is related to the relationship between the subject and the action of the verb, the English sentence structure that contains no voice consists of *Subject + Linking Verb + Subject Complement* as linking verbs exhibit no action. Linking verbs, especially the verb to be, are sometimes excluded in EFL students' sentence writing as this sentence structure does not align with that in their L1. Consequently, the students should be encouraged to check their sentence components based on the sentence structure.

Sentence Structure: S + LV + SC + MOD (Optional)

Subject + Linking Verb + Subject Complement + Modifier (Optional)

Examples:

Subject	NO VOICE		
	Linking Verb	Subject Complement	Modifier (Optional)
They	are	captains.	
No one	was	a spy.	
Your keys	were	on the sofa	this morning.
To follow your passion	is	the best advice.	
Trying to escape from this place	was	their goal.	
Love	is	a mystery.	
How they solved this problem	is	impressive.	
That mushroom soup	tastes	bad.	
Joe	remained	silent	for the rest of the meeting.
The Eiffel Tower, a symbol of Paris,	is	a popular tourist destination.	

Active Voice

Active voice presents *the subject* as **the performer of the action**, highlighting **the agent** or **the doer of an action** rather than the recipient. There are **four** basic English sentence structures in active voice.

Sentence Structure 1: S + IV + MOD (*Optional*)

Subject + Intransitive Verb + Modifier (Optional)

Examples:

Subject	ACTIVE VOICE	
	Intransitive Verb	Predicate Modifier (<i>Optional</i>)
Children	laughed.	
Heavy rain	falls	along the riverbank every evening.
Everyone at the party	cried.	
They, exhausted from traveling for hours in the pouring rain,	shouted	in excitement.
John	runs.	fast.
How the plan succeeds	varies	over time.
Traffic	moves	slowly during rush hour.

Sentence Structure 2: S + TV + DO + MOD (*Optional*)

Subject + Transitive Verb + Direct Object + Modifier (Optional)

Examples:

Subject	ACTIVE VOICE		
	Transitive Verb	Predicate Direct Object	Modifier (Optional)
Kids	love	toys.	
Tsunami waves from the Pacific Ocean	destroyed	the entire village	last year.
No one	enjoys	playing this game	with Alice.
Our neighbor who always makes noise in the middle of the night	receives	a noise complaint.	
Peter and his son	are building	a sandcastle	on the beach.
What Emma said	hurt	everyone.	accidentally.
Our playful kitten	chased	the clever mouse.	
The teacher	explained	how the experiment works.	
Studying late at night	affects	your concentration.	
To finish the project on time	needs	teamwork.	
Advice	guides	new employees	effectively.
Microsoft	released	a new software update.	

However, when *more than one object* is involved to express ideas in English sentences, the indirect object is placed after the transitive verb before the direct object as shown in the sentence structure below.

Sentence Structure 3.1: **S + TV + IO + DO + MOD** (*Optional*)
*Subject + Transitive Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object +
Modifier (Optional)*

Examples:

ACTIVE VOICE

Subject	Predicate			
	Transitive Verb	Indirect Object	Direct Object	Modifier (<i>Optional</i>)
Somebody	has sent	the teacher	an email with questions	recently.
Alice, who loved reading,	gave	her best friend	a rare book she had treasured for years	without hesitation.
The manager of the store	showed	the customers	the new collection.	
To write a novel	offers	aspiring writers	a creative challenge.	
Our parents	have bought	us	a condominium.	
Freedom	grants	citizens	the right to express themselves.	

The above English sentence structure, nevertheless, is different from that in the Thai sentence structure. In Thai, the indirect object always follows the direct object, and it is placed after the preposition. Fortunately, this Thai sentence structure corresponds with the following English sentence structure. Nonetheless, the use of preposition or its omission due to L1 interference should be taken into account to avoid such a grammatical error in this type of English sentence structure, particularly for Thai EFL students.

Sentence Structure 3.2: **S + TV + DO + PREP + IO + MOD (*Optional*)**
*Subject + Transitive Verb + Direct Object + Preposition + Indirect Object + Modifier (*Optional*)*

Examples:

ACTIVE VOICE

Subject	Predicate				
	Transitive Verb	Direct Object	Preposition	Indirect Object	Modifier (Optional)
Somebody	sent	an email with questions	to	the teacher	recently.
Alice, who loved reading,	gave	a rare book she had treasured for years	to	her best friend	without hesitation.
The manager of the store	showed	the new collection	to	the customers.	
To write a novel	offers	a creative challenge	to	aspiring writers.	
Our parents	have bought	a condominium	for	us.	
Freedom	grants	the right to express themselves	to	citizens.	

Note:

Regarding the aforementioned English sentence structure, EFL students should consult the dictionaries to see the word pattern for the use of preposition for each transitive verb to eliminate any grammatical error in such an issue.

Sentence Structure 4: S + TV + DO + OC + MOD (Optional)

Subject + Transitive Verb + Direct Object + Object Complement + Modifier (Optional)

ACTIVE VOICE

Subject	Predicate			
	Transitive Verb	Direct Object	Object Complement	Modifier (Optional)
What she did	makes	him	sad.	
They	painted	our house	blue	last month.
I	had	my hair	cut	yesterday.
Emily	named	her cat	Yummy.	
We	elected	Charles	our chairman.	
Hard work	keeps	students	motivated.	
The news	left	us	shocked	for a moment.
He	got	his watch	repaired.	
She	got	her nails	done	before dinner.

Passive Voice

Passive voice shifts **the focus** from the doer of the action to **the action itself** or **its recipient**. Passive voice ideas can be expressed through the English sentence structure below.

Sentence Structure: S + PV + MOD (Optional)

Subject + Passive Verb + Modifier (Optional)

Note:

EFL students are more familiar with this passive sentence structure: *Subject (The Recipient) + Passive Verb + by + The Doer/ Agent* which derives from the traditional instruction on passive voice in their earlier foreign language learning as they are usually required to transform the active voice sentences into the passive voice sentences in their passive voice exercises. This challenges the nature concept of passive voice since passive voice is used when the focus is on the action or the recipient. The doer or agent referred to in such a passive sentence structure calls into question the functional adequacy of passive voice. Therefore, passive sentence structures should be used in **the following situations**.

1. The focus is on *the action* or *its recipient* rather than on who performs it.

Examples:

PASSIVE VOICE			
Subject	Predicate		
	Passive Verb Phrase		Modifier (<i>Optional</i>)
	Verb to be	Past Participle	
It	was	done!	
The file	was	restored	last week.
The documents	are	signed	every morning.
The project report	is being	reviewed	at the moment.
The building	was being	renovated	when we arrived.
Several negative comments	have been	received	this week.
The email	had been	sent	before noon.
The final decision	will be	announced	tomorrow.
The assignment	will have been	completed	by Sunday.

2. You do *not know who performed* the action.

Examples:

Subject	PASSIVE VOICE		
	Predicate		
	Passive Verb Phrase		Modifier (<i>Optional</i>)
Verb to be	Past Participle		
This journal	is	published	annually.
Our dinner	was	made.	
The new law	is being	discussed.	
The policy	has been	updated	recently.
The package	had been	delivered	before I got home.
The application	will be	processed	within five business days.
The decision	will be	made	soon.
The project	will have been	finalized	by next month.

3. You do *not want to mention the doer* of the action.

Examples:

Subject	PASSIVE VOICE		
	Predicate		
	Passive Verb Phrase		Modifier (<i>Optional</i>)
Verb to be	Past Participle		
I	was	misinformed.	
Many issues	have been	ignored	for too long.
Mistakes	are	made	in every organization.
Important details	are being	overlooked.	
My concerns	have been	ignored.	
The rules	were being	bent	all along.
Your complaint	will be	reviewed.	
Changes	are going to be	made.	
Critical warnings	had been	dismissed	before the failure occurred.

4. You want to *sound objective*, focusing on *presenting information rather than expressing personal opinions*. However, this requires a specific passive voice sentence structure as follows.

Sentence Structure:	S + PV + NC
	<i>Subject + Passive Verb + Noun Clause</i>

Examples:

PASSIVE VOICE			
Subject	Predicate		
	Passive Verb Phrase		Noun Clause
	Verb to be	Past Participle	
It	is	believed	that the victims are escaping.
It	is	acknowledged	that our project has been rejected.
It	was	presumed	that the patients responded positively to the treatment.
It	was	considered	that the sample size was insufficient for conclusive results.
It	is	estimated	that over 10,000 homes were damaged in the flood.
It	can be	assumed	that thousands of people on the coast were affected by the disaster.

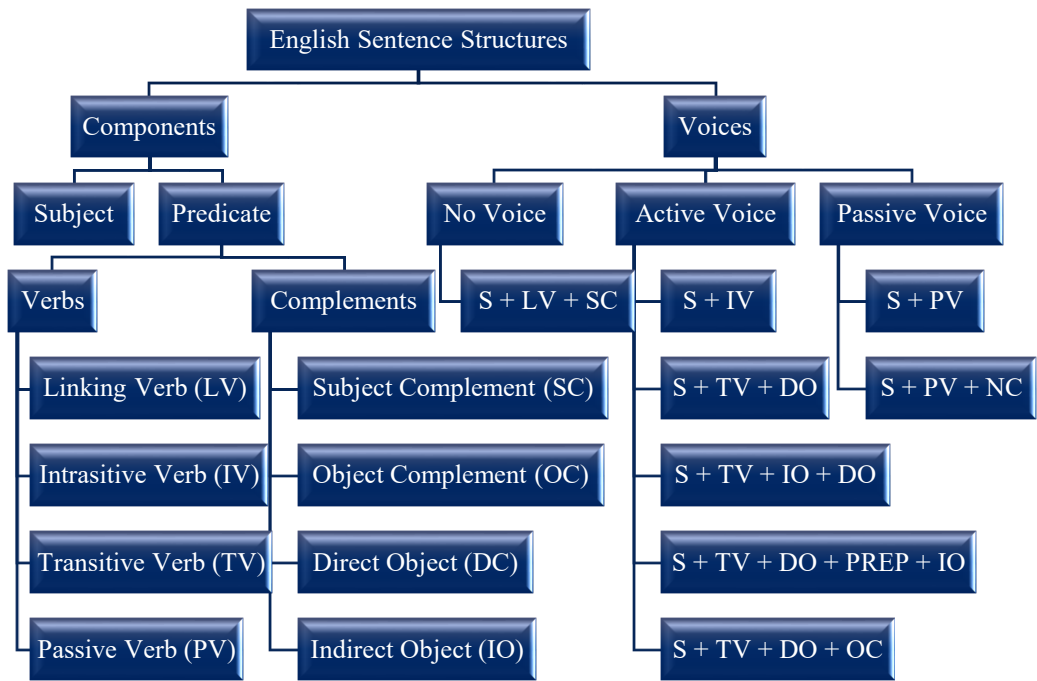
As a final point, EFL students' and instructors' awareness of the students' L1 can foster acquisition of English passive voice sentence structures as similar and different aspects of passive sentence

structures can be examined through comparative sentence structures between the two languages, reducing their L1 interference in English sentence writing in passive voice (Ursic & Zoghbor, 2020).

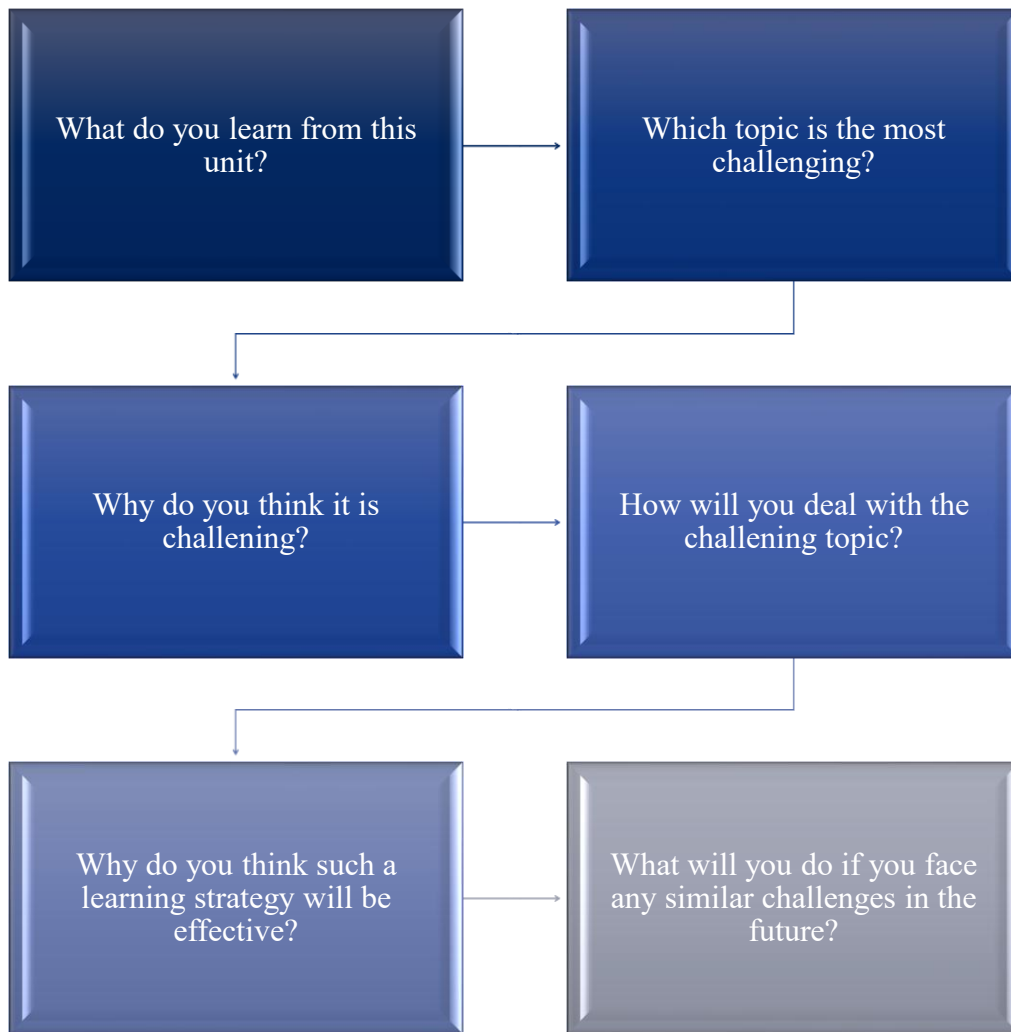
TAKEAWAYS: MASTERY SNAPSHOT

As can be observed, English sentence structures are challenging for EFL students, especially when their L1 lacks the same sentence structures. Accordingly, L1 interference is regarded as a major factor contributing to grammatical sentence errors in EFL students' writing. To address this problematic linguistic issue, explicit instruction on English sentence structures should be delivered. Furthermore, an emphasis on comparative analysis on both language sentence structures should be placed to point out any differences to avoid such grammatical errors. This unit, hence, presents basic English sentence structures based on voices: no voice, active voice, and passive voice. That is, the sentence structure: *Subject + Linking Verb + Subject Complement + Modifiers (optional)* contains no voice. For active voice, the sentence structures can be as follows: *Subject + Intransitive Verb + Modifiers (optional)*, *Subject + Transitive Verb + Direct Object + Modifiers (optional)*, *Subject + Transitive Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object + Modifiers (optional)*, *Subject + Transitive Verb + Direct Object + Preposition + Indirect Object + Modifiers (optional)*, and *Subject + Transitive Verb + Direct Object + Object Complement + Modifiers (optional)*. Finally, the passive sentence structures: *Subject + Passive Verb + Modifiers (optional)* and *Subject + Passive Verb + Noun Clause* can be varied based on tenses and tense aspects, but the four main functions they share are *to focus on the action or the recipient rather than the doer*, *to omit the doer because you do not know who performed it*, *to intentionally omit the doer*, and *to sound objective*. Acquiring these fundamental English sentence structures, EFL students can express their ideas in the grammatically correct sentence structures for more effective written communication.

CONCEPT MAP



MASTERY REFLECTION



Learning Lens:

WRITE IT RIGHT: SENTENCE MASTERY ZONES

The Starter Zone

Directions: Read each sentence, identify its voice (write ‘A’ for active, ‘P’ for passive, or ‘N’ for no voice), and indicate its sentence structure.

Example: A Ken has never eaten such a strange dish before.

 S + TV + DO

_____ 1. The flowers in her backyard bloom unexpectedly.

_____ 2. Many scholars across the world exchanged ideas quietly in the conference room.

_____ 3. This environmental issue became controversial.

_____ 4. Christine sent her close friend the last message filled with their memories.

_____ 5. The committee considered his performance outstanding.

_____ 6. The new policy was approved by our new board.

_____ 7. My father is the head of the department.

_____ 8. That big brown box was delivered yesterday morning.

_____ 9. All the bridges in town were destroyed by the storm overnight.

_____ 10. Time flies.

The Builder Zone

Directions: Write each sentence to include the required component(s) and the given words in parentheses.

1. Subject + Predicate (in winter)

2. no voice: S + LV + SC (lucky)

3. active voice: S + IV (that spider)

4. active voice: S + TV + DO (important)

5. active voice: S + TV + IO + DO (two dollars)

6. active voice: S + TV + DO + OC (his neighbor)

7. passive voice (in the afternoon)

8. passive voice: when you do not know who performed the action (in 1982)

9. passive voice: when you do not want to mention the doer of the action (the file)

10. passive voice: when you want to sound objective (two kids)

The Sharper Zone

Directions: Write down your favorite song lines that match the given sentence structures.

Format:

Source/ Credit:

Lastname, F. M. (Year). *Title of song* [Song lyrics]. Site Name. URL

(Provide the reference for your favorite online lyrics in the APA 7th edition format.)

Original lyrics:

My lyrics:

1. no voice: S + LV + SC

Source/ Credit:

Original lyrics:

My lyrics:

2. active voice: S + IV

Source/ Credit:

Original lyrics:

My lyrics:

3. active voice: S + TV + DO

Source/ Credit:

Original lyrics:

My lyrics:

4. active voice: S + TV + IO + DO

Source/ Credit:

Original lyrics:

My lyrics:

5. active voice: S + TV + DO + PREP + IO

Source/ Credit:

Original lyrics:

My lyrics:

6. active voice: S + TV + DO + OC

Source/ Credit:

Original lyrics:

My lyrics:

7. passive voice

Source/ Credit:

Original lyrics:

My lyrics:

8. passive voice: when you do not know who performed the action

Source/ Credit:

Original lyrics:

My lyrics:

9. passive voice: when you do not want to mention the doer of the action

Source/ Credit:

Original lyrics:

My lyrics:

10. passive voice: when you want to sound objective

Source/ Credit:

Original lyrics:

My lyrics:

The Master Zone

Directions: Pick a song you like, identify the sentence structures in the lyrics, and then create a new version by changing the words but keeping the same structures.

Format:

Source/ Credit:

Last name, F. M. (Year). *Title of song* [Song lyrics]. Site Name. URL

(Provide the reference for your favorite online lyrics in the APA 7th edition format.)

Source/ Credit:

Original lyrics:

GRAMMATICAL MOODS

UNIT V

Learning Objectives

At the end of this unit, the students will be able to ...

- identify different types of grammatical moods used in sentences.
 - describe and analyze different sentence structures in different grammatical moods.
 - apply appropriate grammatical moods in sentence writing.
-

UNIT V

GRAMMATICAL MOODS

INTRODUCTION

English sentences can be learned through diverse approaches. Studying their structures or forms along with their functions is one effective approach suggested by Halliday (Warouw, 2018). According to Dalamu (2019), Halliday's mood system helps foster non-native speakers understand English sentence structures more quickly and completely through their functions. In so doing, both English language forms and functions can be learned to properly apply in various meaningful communicative contexts. Thus, this unit demonstrates distinguishing characteristics of different English grammatical moods together with their specific English sentence structures as another effective practical instructional approach for EFL students to learn how to construct English sentences in purposeful written communication.

GRAMMATICAL MOODS

Every English sentence must have *a subject* and *a tensed verb* that agree in form and *express a particular mood* (Gelderen, 2013). The mood shows *the writer's attitude* (Young, 2015) whether *stating a fact, giving an opinion, issuing a command, making a suggestion or request, expressing a wish or hypothetical idea, etc.* English has *three main moods: indicative, interrogative, and imperative* and *two minor ones: exclamatory and subjunctive*, which serve different functions such as *making statements, asking questions, giving commands, showing emotion, or expressing hypothetical situations*. Like Thai, various English moods are delivered in different sentence structures. Accordingly, this is the easiest concept of English sentence structures EFL students can acquire. However, as English involves rigid sentence structures to express ideas and moods, it is significant and quite challenging for EFL students to recognize diverse English sentence structures based on their varied moods.

INDICATIVE MOOD

Indicative mood is expressed through *statements or declarative sentences*, which contain *a subject* and *a predicate* (Swick, 2018). Its dominant function is to give information (Warouw, 2018). In this sentence structure, *the verb* is *conjugated* to match *the subject* and *the specific tense*. Understanding *verb tenses* is essential as they distinguish between *actions* that are *incomplete, ongoing, completed, or habitual*. This is recognized as one of the most challenging and complex aspects of English writing, especially for EFL students as they usually fail to apply the time of the actions they are describing (Haryanti & Setyandari, 2018; Stoian, 2025). This probably happens due to their L1 negative transfer. For this reason, this linguistic aspect is raised in order to strengthen their basic yet essential writing skill for English sentence composition.

Incomplete Actions/ Actions in Progress

These refer to *activities* that *have started* but are *not yet finished*. In English, such actions are typically expressed using *progressive (continuous) verb forms*, which highlight that *the action* is *ongoing at a particular time*.

Examples:

CONTINUOUS TENSES	SENTENCES
Present Tense	I <i>am writing</i> an email right now.
<i>Present Continuous Tense</i>	They <i>are eating</i> breakfast. Technology <i>is changing</i> rapidly.
Past Tense	He <i>was talking</i> on the phone when it <i>started</i> raining.
<i>Past Continuous Tense</i>	Laura and her friends <i>were dancing</i> in the rain when Peter <i>found</i> them. The sun <i>was going</i> down while the children <i>were playing</i> in the playground.

CONTINUOUS TENSES	SENTENCES
Future Tense	She <i>will be working</i> late tonight.
<i>Future Continuous Tense</i>	David and I <i>will be watching the game at home</i> . The sun <i>will be setting</i> around 6 p.m.
Perfect Tense	That little cat <i>has been waiting</i> for you since noon.
<i>Present Perfect Continuous Tense</i>	Sarah, her close friend, and I <i>have been doing</i> homework
<i>Past Perfect Continuous Tense</i>	for two hours.
<i>Future Perfect Continuous Tense</i>	The machine <i>had been running</i> smoothly until it <i>broke</i> down. They <i>had been walking</i> for hours before reaching the village. We <i>will have been doing</i> this project for eight more hours. The scientists <i>will have been researching</i> this topic for decades.

Completed/ Habitual Actions

These *actions* describe *events* that *have already happened, are finished, or are* regularly *repeated* over time. *Completed* and *habitual actions* are expressed using *simple* and *perfect tenses* to show *completion* or *routine*.

Examples:

SIMPLE TENSES	SENTENCES
Present Tense	We <i>play</i> basketball every Saturday.
<i>Present Simple Tense</i>	Amazon <i>ships</i> millions of packages daily. Happiness <i>depends</i> on perspective.
Past Tense	The Nile <i>flooded</i> the fields last spring.
<i>Past Simple Tense</i>	The storm <i>caused</i> widespread damage last week. Children <i>built</i> a sandcastle yesterday.
Future Tense	No one <i>will attend</i> the training tomorrow.
<i>Future Simple Tense</i>	Uncle Jack <i>will perform</i> at the festival. Anna and her brother <i>will start</i> their project next week.
Perfect Tense	Honda <i>has just released</i> a new model.
<i>Present Perfect Tense</i>	We <i>have stayed</i> at this hotel since we <i>arrived</i> .
<i>Past Perfect Tense</i>	Kathy's boyfriend <i>had never acted</i> like this before.
<i>Future Perfect Tense</i>	Lucas and Mia <i>had completed</i> their assignment before the teacher <i>collected</i> it. Jane <i>will have finished</i> her dinner by the time we <i>get</i> there. The construction team <i>will have built</i> the new road by December.

Using Negatives

The indicative or declarative mood can express **negative statements** as well as *positive ones* (Swick, 2018). This can be done by using *negation words* such as ***not, never, no, nowhere, none, nothing, nobody***, or ***no one***.

Examples:

NEGATIVE WORDS	SENTENCES
<i>not</i>	Our brother does <i>not</i> like hot chocolate. We do <i>not</i> need to join that program. The research team is <i>not</i> confident that the experiment will yield consistent results without further testing. The employees are <i>not</i> allowed to access the confidential files. I was <i>not</i> aware of the deadline until yesterday. They were <i>not</i> at the office when the manager called.
<i>never</i>	He <i>never</i> wants her back. I have <i>never</i> experienced a storm as powerful and destructive as the one last summer.
<i>no</i>	You have <i>no</i> time to make a decision. They showed <i>no</i> interest in attending the lecture even though it was mandatory. <i>No</i> company has ever offered a better deal. <i>No</i> student in the entire class was able to answer the professor's most difficult question correctly.

NEGATIVE WORDS**SENTENCES*****nowhere***

They have ***nowhere*** to go.

The evidence was located ***nowhere*** in the files.

none

I looked everywhere, but the keys were ***nowhere*** to be found.
None of my friends agrees with my idea.

None of the witnesses was able to identify the suspect.

I found ***none*** of the documents relevant to the investigation.

He could see ***none*** of the reasons for changing the plan.

nothing

I have ***nothing*** to lose.

We saw ***nothing*** unusual during the meeting.

Nothing is more important than honesty.

Nothing in the instructions explained how to fix the software error.

nobody

Nobody knows he lives with his aunt.

They blamed ***nobody*** for the failure of the project.

She believed that ***nobody*** in the department was capable of handling the situation.

no one

No one agrees with our opinion.

No one at the company had anticipated the sudden changes in government regulations.

I told ***no one*** about the confidential decision.

Sam realized that ***no one*** on the team had completed their assignments on time.

Negative statements are limited to the use of the only negation word: **not** for EFL students. Hence, the above examples are aimed at broadening their negative sentence structure knowledge with a variety of negation word choices, so they are able to formulate negative statements in more varied syntactic structures.

INTERROGATIVE MOOD

To reflect *interrogative mood*, two types of *interrogative sentences/ questions* are used *to ask questions* (Swick, 2018). The main function is asking for or demanding information (Warouw, 2018).

Regarding the English sentence structures in interrogative mood, the inverted sentence structure of yes/no questions and questions using interrogative words in different tenses and tense aspects is an only language barrier for EFL students. To ease their comprehension and facilitate their recall, the English sentence structures for both types of questions are introduced with some examples as follows.

Yes-No Questions

A *yes-no question* or what Warouw (2018) calls *a polar question* requires the answer that begins with the affirmative word “**yes**” or the negative word “**no**”. Here are the sentence structures together with some examples.

Sentence Structure 1: **V. TO BE + S + SC?**

Verb to Be + Subject + Subject Complement?

Examples: **Am** I your girlfriend?

Are you nervous?

Was the book on the sofa this morning?

Is this movie boring?

Were the findings from the research reliable?

Sentence Structure 2: AUX/ MO + S + MV...?

Auxiliary Verb/ Modal Verb + Subject + Main Verb...?

Examples:

Do you *like* that T-shirt?

Does it *matter* if you really want it?

Did he *come* home late last night?

Are you *joking*?

Were you *sleeping* when I called?

Was he *working* on the project when it started to rain?

Have you ever *noticed* that?

Has he *been* here for a while?

Had the team *solved* the problem before the supervisor arrived?

Will you *marry* me?

Shall we *dance*?

Can you *dive*?

Should we *talk* about this?

Questions Using Interrogative Words

This type of question begins with *an interrogative word*: *who, what, why, whose, when, which, where, or how*. Over the past few decades, there has been the growing use of the questions with the interrogative words like *why, how, and what*, compared to those of *where, when, and who* (Pilpel, 2022).

Sentence Structure 1: WH/H + AUX/ MO + S + MV...?

Interrogative Word + Auxiliary Verb/ Modal Verb + Subject + Main Verb...?

(What/ Where/ When/ Why/ Whom/ How)

Examples:

What are our kids doing in the living room?

What did our boss say about the meeting?

What will they do if the plan fails?

Where are Oliver and Lucas going this afternoon?

Where does Emily live now?

Where have you been?

Where did Mia and you find this information?

Where will they hold the meeting?

When do they start their business?

When did our grandpa arrive at the airport?

When will they announce the results?

Why do you love him?

Why did Joe leave the party early?

Why will they cancel the event?

How can you make it right?

How did Emma and you *complete* the task so quickly?

How will they *manage* the workload?

Sentence Structure 2: **WH/H + V. TO BE + S...?**

Interrogative Word + Verb to be + Subject...?

(Who/ What/ Where/ When/ Why)

Examples:

Who are Emma's supporters?

Who is that next to Mark?

Who was the luckiest team?

What is your decision?

What are the results of this experiment?

What were his answers?

Where is the nearest supermarket?

Where are my kittens?

Where was Jack two hours ago?

When is your birthday?

When was your last meal?

When was the last time you came to see me?

Why are you late for class?

Why is your work so hard?

Why am I mad at you?

Sentence Structure 3: WH/H + V. TO BE/ MV...?

Interrogative Word + Verb to Be/ Main Verb...?

(Who/ What)

Examples:

Who *is* responsible for this big project?

Who *works* in the marketing department?

Who *called* you last night?

Who *will attend* the conference next week?

What *makes* you believe him?

What *took* you so long?

What *will happen* if I tell him?

Sentence Structure 4: WH/H + N + V. TO BE/ MV...?

Interrogative Word + Noun + Verb to Be/ Main Verb...?

(Whose/ Which/ What)

Examples:

Whose *cat is* this?

Whose *cap was left* on the table?

Whose *smartphone is ringing*?

Which *route saves* energy?

Which *team won* the championship last year?

Which *job takes* most of your time?

What *time is* it?

What *series is* on tonight?

What factors *contribute* to this failure?

Sentence Structure 5: WH/H + N + AUX/ MO + S + MV...?

Interrogative Word + Noun + Auxiliary Verb/ Modal Verb + Subject + Main Verb...?

(Whose/ Which/ What)

Examples:

Whose car *did* Alice *borrow* yesterday?

Whose idea *will* they *use* for the project?

Whose problem *are* you *discussing*?

Which book *do* you *want* to read?

Which route *will* we *take* to the city?

Which café *did* your friends *talk* about last night?

What song *are* they *playing*?

What kind of assignment *do* you *prefer*?

What award *did* Ellen *get* last week?

IMPERATIVE MOOD

Imperatives or commands are used to convey *imperative mood* in English. The function is to demand something (Warouw, 2018) or to demand someone to take action. Various English sentence structures can be used to deliver this mood, e.g. noun phrase imperatives, adjective phrase imperatives, adverbial phrase imperatives, emphatic imperatives, dummy imperatives, etc. (Moaddab & Hejrati, 2012). However, the most common imperatives or commands are *the direct imperative structures* addressed to *the second-person singular or plural (you)* although the pronoun is *not stated*.

Imperatives/ Commands and Their Punctuation

Imperatives/ commands can be punctuated with *a period* (.) or *an exclamation point* (!), but the latter is used to state with *great emphasis*.

Examples:

Imperatives with .	Imperatives with !
Shut up. <i>(milder but still casual and a bit gruff in tone)</i>	Shut up! <i>(emphatic, perhaps angry in tone)</i>
Be polite to your classmates. <i>(gentle guidance; a friendly tone)</i>	Be polite to your classmates! <i>(a stern reminder; mandatory respect)</i>
Don't shout. <i>(mild request; neutral, advisory)</i>	Don't shout! <i>(irritation, urgency, or strict authority)</i>
Slow down. <i>(gentle advice; neutral warning about speed)</i>	Slow down! <i>(forceful command for immediate danger or risk of accident)</i>

The following are the most frequently used imperative sentence structures proposed by Swick (2018) with some examples to delivery this mood in English.

Examples:

BASIC IMPERATIVES Verb + Complement	NEGATIVE IMPERATIVES Do not/ Don't + Verb + Complement
<i>Be</i> nice!	Do not <i>be</i> so aggressive!
<i>Be</i> calm during stressful situations.	Don't <i>ignore</i> the warning signs in the lab.
<i>Press</i> the green button.	Do not <i>touch</i> that box!
<i>Show</i> me where it is.	Do not <i>talk</i> to him like that!
<i>Make</i> yourself comfortable while I am preparing your drink.	Do not <i>respond</i> to suspicious emails asking for personal information.
<i>Purchase</i> one, and <i>get</i> one free.	Do not <i>enter</i> this room without permission.
<i>Be</i> careful, or you will be in trouble.	Don't <i>forget</i> to back up your files before updating the software.
<i>Turn off</i> your smartphone, so they cannot contact you.	Do not <i>open</i> this container unless you're wearing gloves.
<i>Prepare</i> the materials for the workshop before the participants arrive.	Do not <i>argue</i> , but <i>listen</i> carefully to what I'm saying.
<i>Check</i> the expiration dates on all supplies before using them.	Don't <i>skip</i> breakfast, or you'll feel tired later.

Imperatives/ Commands Using “Please”

Imperatives/ commands are usually said with a certain amount of *courtesy*. The inclusion of *please* softens the tone. *Its position* in a sentence and *the addition* or *lack of a comma* can significantly affect the meaning. Nonetheless, an imperative that *begins with please* has the same meaning as one that *ends with please*.

Imperatives/ Commands Using “Let’s” and “Let”

Imperatives/ Commands starting with *let’s* (let us) are followed by *an infinitive phrase without to*, indicating *the speaker will join in the action*. If *let* is used *without us*, it still forms an imperative, but *it asks someone to allow another person or thing to do something*.

Examples:

LET’S + INFINITIVE WITHOUT TO	LET + OBJECT + INFINITIVE WITHOUT TO
Let’s <i>have</i> some ice cream.	Let <i>her go</i> .
Let’s <i>meet</i> at 5 PM.	Let <i>them work</i> alone.
Let’s <i>go</i> to the nearest bar.	Let <i>me know</i> if you are interested in this project.
Let’s <i>solve</i> this problem together.	Let <i>Ken cook</i> dinner for you.
Let’s <i>take</i> a short break.	Let <i>Tammy and Jamie do</i> that alone.
Let’s <i>practice</i> for the presentation.	Let <i>the children play</i> outside.

Imperatives/ Commands Using “How about”

Another type of *imperative/ command* appears in the form of *a question*. It begins with the phrase “*how about*” followed by *a gerund phrase*. This sentence structure sounds more like *a suggestion* than a command, and its question structure makes it feel *non-authoritative*.

Sentence Structure: How about + a gerund phrase?

Examples:

How about *eating* out for dinner?

How about *finishing* our project tonight?

How about *watching* a new series on Netflix?

How about *trying* a different approach to the problem?

How about *cleaning* the garage this weekend?

How about *practicing* writing English for 30 minutes?

How about *making* a playlist of your favorite songs on Spotify?

How about *visiting* the new café downtown?

Imperatives/ Commands Using “Why don’t you/ Why don’t we”

Another type of *imperative/ command* takes the form of *a question*. It begins with “*why don’t you*” or “*why don’t we*” followed by *an infinitive phrase without to*.

Sentence Structure: Why don’t you/ we + an infinitive phrase without to?

Examples:

Why don’t you *talk* to him about that?

Why don’t you *call* her and apologize?

Why don’t you *take* a walk to clear your mind?

Why don’t you *listen* to their advice?

Why don’t you *practice* your speech one more time?

Why don’t we *make* it easier?

Why don’t we *invite* Sarah to join us?

Why don’t we *start* with the easiest task?

Why don't we *try* this new recipe?

Why don't we *decorate* the classroom together?

Although there are various English sentence structures to express imperative mood, all of them require fixed sentence structures, and they are commonly used in daily life conversations. Therefore, it is easier for EFL students to master, compared to those more complicated sentence structures in interrogative mood.

EXCLAMATORY MOOD

Exclamatory mood is expressed through *exclamatory sentences* to show *strong emotion, emphasis, urgency, or surprise* (Kaufman & Straus, 2021). These sentences end with *an exclamation point (!)* instead of a period. They can be formed in *three* types of sentence structures as follows.

1. *Positive or negative declarative statements* are punctuated with *an exclamation point*.

Examples:

I did it!

This is not true!

That is wonderful news!

I can't believe we won the match!

He never listens to me!

You have no idea what you've done!

2. Sentences beginning with *exclamatory pronouns* like “*what*” or “*how*” are used to emphasize a noun.

Examples:

WHAT...!

WHAT + A/AN + ADJ + N + S + V!

What an interesting project we are
working on!

What an incredible achievement it was!

What a brave little boy he is!

WHAT + A/AN + ADJ + N!

What an interesting project!

What an incredible achievement!

What a brave little boy!

WHAT + A/AN + N + S + V!

What a mess they made!

What a surprise it is!

What a game we play!

WHAT + A/AN + N!

What a mess!

What a surprise!

What a game!

HOW...!

HOW + ADJ/ ADV + S + V!

How amazing the view is!

How beautiful you are!

How quickly time flies!

How gracefully she dances!

HOW + ADJ/ ADV!

How amazing!

How beautiful!

How quickly!

How gracefully!

3. *Interjections with the sentences* are often set off by *a comma*.

Examples:

WITHOUT A COMMA	WITH A COMMA
Hooray! We won!	Hooray, we won!
Oops! I made a mistake!	Oops, I made a mistake!
Wow! That was an amazing performance!	Wow, that was an amazing performance!
Oh no! I forgot my keys!	Oh no, I forgot my keys!
Hurray! We finally finished!	Hurray, we finally finished!
Alas! We missed this opportunity!	Alas, we missed this opportunity!
Eww! What a disgusting menu!	Eww, what a disgusting menu!

Like imperatives or commands, exclamatory sentences contain rigid but simple sentence structures. Consequently, EFL students can express exclamatory mood through different exclamatory sentence structures when they can recall the sentence structures.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Subjunctive mood is used to express *suggestions, recommendations, demands, wishes, or imagined situations* through *subjunctive sentences* (Kaufman & Straus, 2021). *Subjunctive sentences* typically have *two clauses*—one containing *an indicative verb* and the other containing *a subjunctive verb*. EFL students find this mood is quite challenging for them as it involves specific inflection for each sentence structure apart from a variety of subcategories of this mood. Furthermore, their failure in English sentence composition in this mood derives from the fact that they cannot remember each distinctive sentence structure. For these reasons, only three basic

subcategories in subjunctive mood are demonstrated below to introduce a primary concept of subjunctive sentence structures these students can directly relate to their real-life communication.

Suggestions, Recommendations, or Demands

The base form of the verb (the infinitive without to) is used in a subjunctive sentence that conveys a *suggestion, recommendation, request, or proposal* (Swick, 2018). Examples of *common indicative verbs* that take this form include *suggest, recommend, request, demand, propose, and ask*. Note that the conjunction *that* is *optional* in such a sentence structure.

Sentence Structure

Subject + Indicative Verb + (that) + Subject + Subjunctive Verb (base form)

Examples:

His uncle *suggests* that he **find** another job.

They *suggested* that we **not leave** early.

I *recommend* that she **see** a doctor immediately.

Bob *recommended* that we **not ignore** the warning signs.

They *request* that the manager **be** present at the meeting.

The teacher *requested* that the students **not talk** during the exam.

The manager *demanded* that the report **be** finished today.

The captain *demands* that the staff **not enter** the restricted area.

The board *proposed* that the company **expand** internationally.

Joe *proposes* that the company **not reduce** the budget for research.

The host *asked* that everyone **turn off** their phones during the performance.

They *ask* that we **not interrupt** the presentation.

Wishes

The subjunctive mood indicates that *a wish* is *unreal, hypothetical, or desired*, rather than a statement of fact (Swick, 2018). English distinguishes *three types of wishes: present, past, and future* to express *desires* or *regrets about situations that are unreal or contrary to reality*.

Present-Tense Wishes

The past simple verb form is used in *a subjunctive sentence* to express *a desire about the present or something that is not true now*.

Sentence Structure

Subject + wish + Subject + Subjunctive Verb (past tense form)

Examples:

Bob *wishes* he **were*** taller.

I *wish* I **were*** a little wiser.

We *wish* Sam **were*** here with us today.

I *wish* she **knew** how to deal with it.

She *wishes* she **had** more free time to read.

We *wish* we **were* not** stuck in traffic right now.

Ken *wishes* he **did not** have so many responsibilities.

Past-Tense Wishes

The past perfect verb form is used in a subjunctive sentence to express *a desire about the past*, often expressing *regret* about *something that has already happened*.

Sentence Structure

Subject + wish + Subject + Subjunctive Verb (past perfect form)

- Examples:*
- I wish he **had made** a different decision.
 - I wish they **had fired** you from your job.
 - I wish I **had studied** harder for the exam.
 - They wish they **had finished** the project on time.
 - Barbara wishes she **had visited** her grandparents last year.
 - He wishes he **had not forgotten** her birthday.
 - I wish I **had not eaten** so much cake yesterday.

Future-Tense Wishes

“Would” + the base form of a verb (the infinitive without to) is used in a subjunctive sentence to express *a desire about the future*, something *the speaker hopes will or will not happen*.

Sentence Structure

Subject + wish + Subject + Subjunctive Verb (would + infinitive without to)

- Examples:*
- I wish we **would be** able to do it again.
 - I wish it **would stop** raining tomorrow.

He *wishes* his team **would win** the championship.

We *wish* we **would have** more time to relax.

Lucas *wishes* he **would finish** his book soon.

I *wish* Sarah **would not miss** this opportunity.

Emma *wishes* she **would not have** so much work next week.

Imagined Situations

Conditional sentences in the subjunctive mood express situations that are **highly improbable, doubtful, or contrary to fact**. They are considered as one of the most difficult sentence structures to master since they require the specific rules for the verb forms based on the conditions in the sentences (Stoian, 2025). In this case, there are **two main sentence structures**.

Present/ Future Unreal Conditions (2nd Conditional Sentences)

The past simple verb form is used in *subjunctive sentences* to express **unreal** or **improbable present** or **future conditions**.

Sentence Structure

If + Subject + Past Tense Verb, Subject + would + infinitive without to

Examples: *If you **were*** me, you *would do* what I did.*

*If Mia **knew** the truth, she *would do* something.*

*If our aunt **had** more time, she *would help* us.*

*If he **left** me, he *would not be* allowed to be alive.*

*If we **lived** closer to the beach, we *would go* there every weekend.*

*If I **were*** not tired, I would go out tonight.*

*If Joseph **did not know** the truth, he would believe her story.*

Past Unreal Conditions (3rd Conditional Sentences)

*The past perfect verb form is used in subjunctive sentences to express **past conditions** that **did not happen**, often conveying **regret**.*

Sentence Structure

If + Subject + Past Perfect Tense Verb, Subject + would + have + past participle

Examples:

*If Jack and I **had left** earlier, we would have caught the train.*

*If John **had been** more patient, he would have handled difficult customers better.*

*If Lucy **had booked** the tickets sooner, we would have got better seats.*

*If I **had listened** to Linda, I would not have made that mistake.*

*If we **had arrived** earlier, we would not have missed this chance.*

*If Mary and Jennifer **had not argued**, we would have enjoyed the party.*

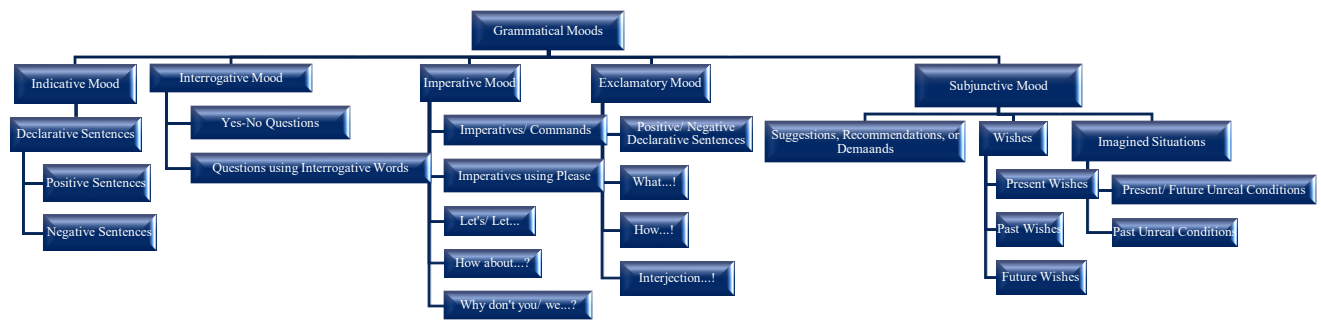
*If Elizabeth **had not lied**, Daniel would have trusted her*

TAKEAWAYS: MASTERY SNAPSHOT

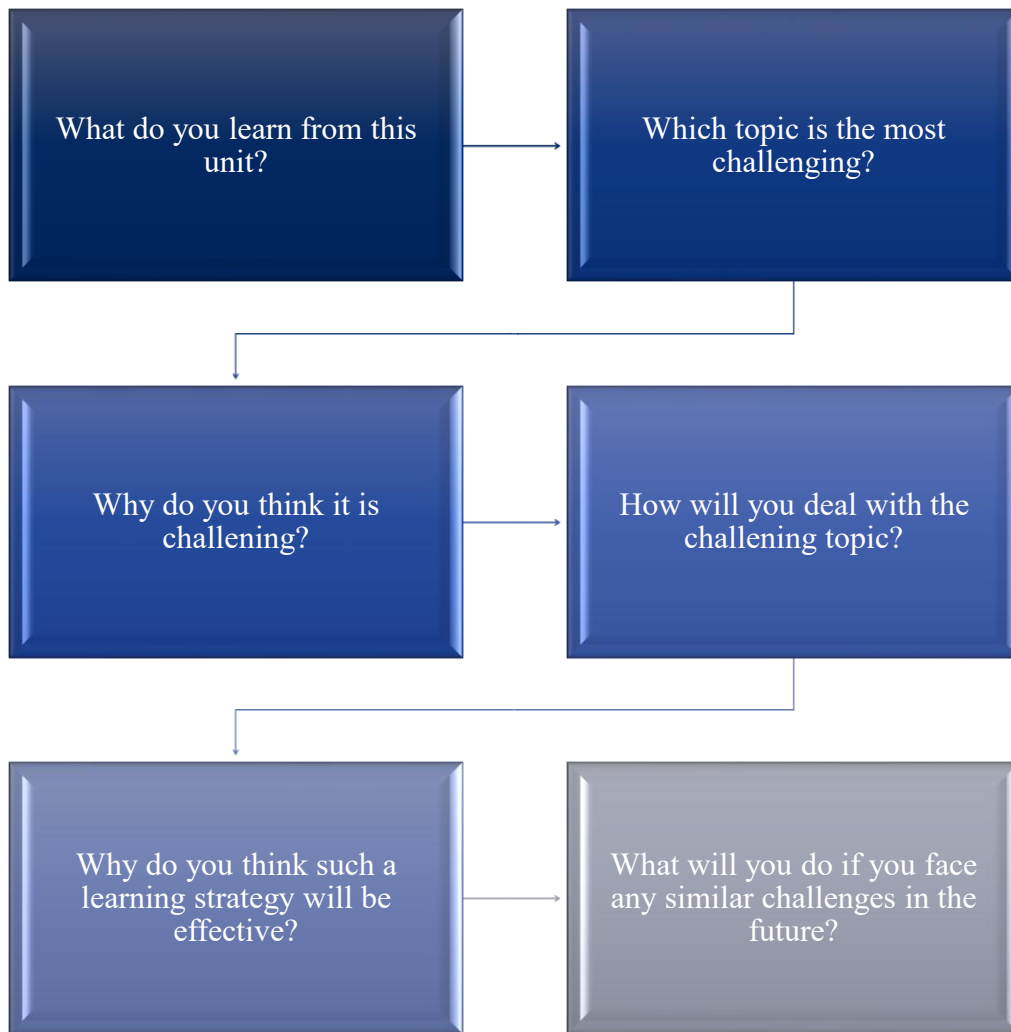
To assist EFL students' linguistic comprehension and functional implication of English sentence structures, English grammatical moods are illustrated in this unit. Initially, three major English grammatical moods: indicative, interrogative, and imperative moods are introduced and followed by two minor English grammatical moods: exclamatory and subjunctive moods. These five moods require specific sentence structures and exhibit different functions. That is, declarative sentence structures are used to convey indicative mood to give information. Questions are employed to ask

for information in interrogative mood. Imperative mood involves various imperative sentence structures to demand something or to ask someone to do something. Varied exclamatory sentence structures and subjunctive sentence structures can be utilized to express strong emotions in exclamatory mood and to express suggestions, recommendations, demands, wishes, or imagined situations in subjunctive mood respectively. Through this unit, EFL students can learn not only grammatical forms (sentence structures) but also their functions to adopt in their writing for more meaningful written communication.

CONCEPT MAP



MASTERY REFLECTION



Learning Lens:

WRITE IT RIGHT: SENTENCE MASTERY ZONES

The Starter Zone

Directions: Identify the mood of each sentence.

1. Tell me why you did that if you want to get the second chance.

2. If I were him, I would quit that job.

3. You know that you deserve better than that.

4. Don't tell me you were the person who broke her heart!

5. Isn't that clear enough?

6. I just can't believe you said that.

7. I wish he would come back and live with us.

8. I won't believe you anymore!

9. Let's talk about that problem together.

10. My mom suggested that we stay away from him.

11. Please be nice to her.

12. What a crazy man he is!

13. Why do we have to go there together?

14. Why don't we share this good news with him?

15. How fantastic!

16. How about taking a nap?

17. If Joe had told me about his girlfriend's accident, I would have helped him.

18. Oh, she is not a person you can trust!

19. Time is running out, so we can't wait any longer.

20. No one wants to join our team.

The Builder Zone

Directions: Write a sentence that reflects the related mood in your self-selected situation.

Situation A: At a family dinner, two relatives suddenly start arguing loudly about politics, making everyone else uncomfortable.

Situation B: During lunch, a usually cheerful friend is silent and pushes his/ her food around without eating.

Situation C: You notice your girlfriend/ boyfriend hasn't left the room all weekend and avoids eye contact when you try to talk.

1. Indicative mood: a positive declarative sentence/ statement

2. Indicative mood: a negative declarative sentence/ statement

3. Interrogative mood: a yes/no question

4. Interrogative mood: a question with an interrogative word

5. Imperative mood

6. Imperative mood: a negative command

7. Imperative mood: please

8. Imperative mood: let's

9. Imperative mood: let

10. Imperative mood: how about

11. Imperative mood: why don't you

12. Imperative mood: why don't we

13. Exclamatory mood: a positive statement

14. Exclamatory mood: a negative statement

15. Exclamatory mood: an exclamatory pronoun: what

16. Exclamatory mood: an exclamatory pronoun: how

17. Exclamatory mood: an interjection with a comma and the sentence

18. Exclamatory mood: an interjection with the sentence *without* a comma

19. Subjunctive mood: a suggestion, recommendation, or demand

20. Subjunctive mood: a present wish

21. Subjunctive mood: a past wish

22. Subjunctive mood: a future wish

23. Subjunctive mood: a present unreal condition

24. Subjunctive mood: a past unreal condition

25. Subjunctive mood: a future unreal condition

The Sharper Zone

Directions:

1. Find a text in real life that reflects a particular mood.
2. Identify the mood that dominates this genre of writing.
3. Analyze why the author uses such a dominant mood in such genre of writing.
4. Compare it when the author uses any other different dominant mood in such genre of writing.

ENGLISH SENTENCES FOR EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

UNIT VI

Learning Objectives

At the end of this unit, the students will be able to ...

- define each sentence type.
- identify different sentence types.
- describe and analyze each sentence type.
- apply knowledge of sentence types to construct varied and meaningful sentences.

UNIT VI

ENGLISH SENTENCES FOR EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

INTRODUCTION

The last unit entails the *four basic types* of *English sentences: simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences* which are demanding of skill for EFL students due to their variety and complexity. However, their understanding of these syntactic structures can promote their overall understanding of English sentences (Fitri, 2017). Unfortunately, grammatical errors are typically found in even simple sentences in EFL students' writing (Sundari et al., 2021). This research finding contrasts with the results of Juliansyah and Harun's study (2021). That is, most students can produce grammatically correct simple sentences in their writing, but they have difficulty in writing complex sentences as misplaced complementary clauses, together with conjunction usage, are their frequent errors in their complex sentence writing. Additionally, word form and incomplete sentence structures are the two common errors found in both of their sentence types whereas verb form is still a problematic grammatical issue in their simple sentence writing. On the other hand, compound-complex sentences are the most difficult sentence type due to the sentence structure complexity for EFL students in the study of Hendrawati (2018). As indicated, EFL students confront different challenges of writing different types of English sentences as a consequence from different factors. This can be instructional practice, pedagogical approaches, learning styles, learning strategies, learning activities, and so on. To equip these students with the fundamental knowledge and writing skill of four basic English sentence types, each sentence type structure is explicitly presented for them to easily acquire and master for practical application in written communication.

ENGLISH SENTENCES FOR EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

A sentence is the basic unit of written communication used to express *a complete thought*. In English, sentences can be classified into *four* types as *simple sentences, compound sentences, complex sentences, and compound-complex sentences*. Along with sentence types, *modifiers*

such as adjectives, adverbs, phrases, and clauses play an important role in *adding detail, clarity*, and *precision* to sentences.

SIMPLE SENTENCE

A *simple sentence* is the most frequent and basic type of English sentences that can be found in students' writing with a variety of its sentence structures (Shalevska, 2025). This smallest sentence unit in writing is made up of *one independent/ main clause* although its length may differ according to its modifiers (Demirezen, 2012) as illustrated by the examples below.

Sentence Structure:	Independent Clause
	Subject + Predicate

Examples:

That Pomeranian *barked.*

That curious Pomeranian *barked.*

That curious Pomeranian *barked all day.*

That curious little Pomeranian *barked all day.*

That curious little Pomeranian *barked at the snail all day.*

That curious little Pomeranian *barked at the snail on the ground all day.*

That curious little Pomeranian with its navy-blue collar *barked at the snail on the ground all day.*

There are *six common sentence structures* of *simple sentences*. However, it is important to note that if any sentence structure requires more than one verb, all the verbs in the sentence must be consistent in terms of tenses as this is a common grammatical error in EFL students' simple sentence writing.

Sentence Structure 1: S-V

This simple sentence structure is the easiest sentence structure because it consists of only *one subject* and only *one verb*. All of the seven simple sentence examples with their various lengths aforementioned exhibit this sentence structure. More examples are provided below.

More Examples:

We see the colorful parade along the street.

The tired woman rested quietly on the wooden bench under the large oak tree yesterday.

The chocolate cake in the fridge had gone bad.

Sentence Structure 2: S-VV

Only *one subject* but *two verbs* are included in this simple sentence structure. That means, the subject performs both actions.

Examples:

That curious Pomeranian barked and ran all day.

The tall man standing there a few hours ago lifted and carried the heavy boxes up the narrow staircase.

They never ask or tell us anything.

Sentence Structure 3: S-VVV

In this simple sentence structure, there is only *one subject* but *three verbs*. Thus, the subject performs all of the three actions.

Examples:

That curious Pomeranian wagged its tail, barked, and ran all day.

The red-haired boy, our naughty neighbor, ran, laughed, and played with his friends on the sandy beach this morning.

I will call him, tell him the truth, and ask for his help.

Sentence Structure 4: SS-V

This simple sentence structure requires **two subjects** but only **one verb**, so both subjects perform the same action.

Examples:

That curious Pomeranian and that cute Shih Tzu barked all day.

Our children and their friends have slept peacefully in the warm corner of the living room for a couple of hours now.

Mia and I rarely chat online.

Sentence Structure 5: SS-VV

Two subjects and **two verbs** are employed to form this simple sentence structure. In so doing, both subjects perform both actions.

Examples:

That curious Pomeranian and that cute Shih Tzu barked and ran all day.

My mother and I always cook and clean the kitchen together.

Julia and her friend from New York have never been to India and tried local food there.

Sentence Structure 6: SSS-V

The final simple sentence structure comprises *three subjects* but only *one verb*; that is, all the three agents perform the same action.

Examples:

That curious Pomeranian, that cute Shih Tzu, and that little Chihuahua *barked all day.*

The old man, his neighbors, and all the children in the village *enjoyed watching the colorful parade along the crowded street.*

Mary, her husband, and their sons *are having their special dinner at the Japanese restaurant in town.*

Simple sentences are used to express *a clear single idea*, give *instructions* or *commands*, share *facts*, and create *impact* or *emphasis*. *Short simple sentences, including imperatives*, are generally used to emphasize the main point and to intensify the actions to maintain a fast-paced sequence (Lukeman, 2011).

Examples:

You *are stupid!*

The door *creaked.*

Silence *fell.*

It *was gone.*

No one *moved.*

She *screamed.*

Close the door!

Don't touch that!

COMPOUND SENTENCE

A *compound sentence* is made up of *two or more independent clauses* of *almost equal* weight. *Compound sentences* are used for *flow*. There are *five sentence structures* of compound sentences (Corbett & Strong, 2016).

1. A *compound sentence* consists of *two or more independent clauses* joined by a *coordinating conjunction*—*and, but, or, nor, for, so, or yet* (FANBOYS) and separated by a *comma* (Swick, 2018).

Sentence Structure:		
Independent Clause,	Coordinating Conjunction	Independent Clause
Subject + Predicate,	FANBOYS	Subject + Predicate

Examples:

Coordinating Conjunction	Relationship between Clauses	Compound Sentence
for	<i>reason</i>	I don't like George, for he is selfish. Matthew was nervous, for he had never given a public speech before.
and	<i>addition</i>	Mary sang, and I danced at the party. Noah is rich, and he is handsome.
nor	<i>negative addition</i>	His friend doesn't speak Spanish, nor does he speak French. I don't care about him, nor do I want to break up with him.

Coordinating Conjunction	Relationship between Clauses	Compound Sentence
but	<i>contrast</i>	She never cares, but he does.
		Our grandma left her house, but she didn't know where to go.
or	<i>choice</i>	We can join this activity, or we can stay home.
		You must tell the truth, or you will be in trouble.
yet	<i>contrast with</i>	He was lazy, yet he passed the examination.
	<i>unexpected result</i>	Its decoration is simple, yet it is attractive.
so	<i>result</i>	It is raining heavily, so we can't leave the hotel.
		The store was closed, so Susan went to a different one.

2. A *compound sentence* can consist of *two independent clauses* joined by a *correlative conjunction*. *Correlative conjunctions* are *pairs of words* that must be used together to convey the intended meaning (Swick, 2018). Common pairs include *either...or*, *neither...nor*, and *not only...but also*.

Either...or

Either...or is used to present *two choices* where *only one of them can happen*.

Sentence Structure:

Either	Independent Clause, or	Independent Clause
Either	Subject + Predicate, or	Subject + Predicate

Examples: **Either Mark make a decision, or I will deal with it.**

Either you apologize to him, or you will lose his trust forever.

Either the teacher is late, or we are in the wrong classroom.

Either you tell the truth, or I will find out on my own.

Neither...nor

Neither...nor is used to connect *two negative ideas*, showing that *both are not true* or *do not happen*.

Sentence Structure:

Neither	Inverted Independent Clause, nor	Inverted Independent Clause
Neither	<i>Auxiliary/ Modal Verb + Subject + Main Verb, nor</i>	<i>Auxiliary/ Modal Verb + Subject + Main Verb</i>

Examples: **Neither do you pay attention to the project, nor do you deal with it.**

Neither did that dog bark, nor did that cat make a sound.

Neither does Emma like his attitude, nor does she respect his actions.

Neither is Richard tall, nor is he handsome.

Note:

In English, the subject comes before the verb in the sentence. On the contrary, when *the verb comes before the subject*, it is known as *inversion* or *inverted sentences* (Gupta, 2018). This sentence structure is usually mastered by advanced EFL students whereas most of them with limited L2 proficiency always struggle with it. The explicated stated inverted sentence structure is expected to facilitate this sentence structure composition if they can remember.

Not only...but also

Not only...but also emphasizes that *two positive ideas* or *actions are true*, often adding *extra emphasis to the second clause*.

Sentence Structure:

Not only	Inverted Independent Clause, but also	Independent Clause
-----------------	----------------------------------------------	---------------------------

Not only	<i>Auxiliary/ Modal Verb + Subject + Main Verb, but also</i>	Subject + Predicate
-----------------	--------------------------------------------------------------	----------------------------

Examples: **Not only** does **Jack** leave Jane alone, **but he also** lets her face all difficulties on her own.

Not only did **Karen** win the award, **but she also** inspired everyone with her success.

Not only are **our friends** doing the project, **but they are also** helping others complete theirs.

Not only do **they** cancel the meeting, **but they also** postpone the entire event.

3. A *compound sentence* can consist of *two independent clauses* joined by *a conjunctive adverb*, also called *adverbial conjunctions* or *transition words* (Young, 2009). *Conjunctive adverbs* are *adverbial expressions* that function like *conjunctions*, linking two clauses (Swick, 2018). Unlike other conjunctions, they require different punctuation: *a semicolon* precedes the conjunctive adverb, and *a comma* follows it.

Sentence Structure:

Independent Clause;	Conjunctive Adverb,	Independent Clause
----------------------------	----------------------------	---------------------------

Subject + Predicate;	Conjunctive Adverb,	Subject + Predicate
-----------------------------	----------------------------	----------------------------

Examples:

Conjunctive Adverb	Relationship between Two Clauses	Compound Sentence
however	<i>Contrast/</i>	Her son is quite shy; however, he is a good actor.
nonetheless	<i>Opposition</i>	
on the contrary		Their plan seemed risky; nonetheless, they decided to proceed without hesitation.
on the other hand		
nevertheless		
in contrast		We expected the market to decline; on the contrary, it grew steadily.
conversely		
		Online classes are convenient; on the other hand, they lack personal interaction.
		It was raining heavily; nevertheless, the concert continued.
		The first scientific experiment failed; in contrast, the second one was successful.
		Hard work leads to success; conversely, laziness often results in failure.
moreover	<i>Addition/</i>	My boyfriend kissed me; moreover, he hugged me
also	<i>Reinforcement</i>	tightly.
besides		
in addition		The store sells fruits; also, it offers fresh vegetables.
furthermore		
additionally		He is too young; besides, he lacks experience.

Conjunctive Adverb	Relationship between Two Clauses	Compound Sentence
--------------------	----------------------------------	-------------------

The hotel *provides free Wi-Fi*; **in addition**, it *offers shuttle service to the airport*.

This project *is innovative*; **furthermore**, it *is environmentally friendly*.

The course *presents theory*; **additionally**, it *provides practical training*.

as a result

Cause and

The road *was icy*; **as a result**, several accidents *occurred*.

consequently

Effect

William *ignored all the signs*; **consequently**, he *got lost*.

as a consequence

The team *failed to communicate*; **as a consequence**, the project *was delayed*.

accordingly

The company *met its annual targets*; **accordingly**, the employees *received bonuses*.

hence

Rebecca *is the eldest in the family*; **hence**, she *takes more responsibility*.

thus

Our budget *was tight*; **thus**, we *had to cut some unnecessary expenses*.

therefore

He *did not care about me*; **therefore**, we *broke up*.

Conjunctive Adverb	Relationship between Two Clauses	Compound Sentence
in other words that is	<i>Restatement/ Clarification</i>	<p>George is an introvert; in other words, he prefers spending time alone.</p> <p>Carol failed the test; in other words, she did not pass.</p> <p>Our teacher is bilingual; that is, she speaks two languages fluently.</p> <p>The instructions were vague; that is, they were hard to understand.</p>
similarly likewise	<i>Comparison/ Similarity</i>	<p>The first experiment failed; similarly, the second one did not produce the expected results.</p> <p>Our team worked hard this year; similarly, the other team dedicated a lot of effort.</p> <p>Helen offered to help her classmates; likewise, her friends volunteered to assist.</p> <p>Brian studied the course material thoroughly; likewise, Jessica reviewed every chapter before the exam.</p>

Conjunctive Adverb	Relationship between Two Clauses	Compound Sentence
in fact indeed	<i>Emphasis</i>	<p>This movie <i>is funny</i>; in fact, it <i>is considered a classic comedy.</i></p> <p>Our first plan <i>was risky</i>; indeed, it <i>could have failed at any moment.</i></p>
for example for instance	<i>Illustration</i>	<p>My best friend <i>is so nice to me</i>; for example, she <i>never leaves me to face difficulties alone.</i></p> <p>There are several ways to improve your writing; for instance, reading more books <i>can help.</i></p>
otherwise	<i>Condition</i>	<p>You must do something; otherwise, the same mistake <i>will happen twice.</i></p> <p>Keep your password secure; otherwise, your account <i>might be hacked.</i></p>
alternatively	<i>Alternative</i>	<p>Customers can shop online; alternatively, they can <i>go to our downtown shopping mall.</i></p> <p>You can submit your new assignment online; alternatively, you can <i>hand it in personally.</i></p>

4. A compound sentence can be made up of *two related independent clauses* linked together by a *semicolon (;)*.

Sentence Structure:	Independent Clause; Independent Clause
	Subject + Predicate; Subject + Predicate

Examples:

Dad *didn't say a word*; **he** *just walked away*.

This English test *was difficult*; **many students** *failed*.

I *love traveling*; **I** *have visited over ten countries so far*.

Charles *bought a new laptop*; **his old one** *had stopped working*.

Christopher *has two younger sisters*; **they** *both have been in jail for three months*.

Yesterday **Thomas** *took Alice to one of the Michelin star restaurants in NYC*; **it** *was their first wedding anniversary*.

5. A *compound sentence* can consist of *two related independent clauses* joined by a *colon (:)*, with *the second clause illustrating the first*. Capitalization of the clause following the colon is *optional*.

Sentence Structure:	Independent Clause: Independent Clause
	Subject + Predicate: Subject + Predicate

Examples:

My sister *had only one goal*: **she** *wanted to win*.

It *hit me suddenly*: **I** *had forgotten mom's birthday*.

Lisa forgot to tell Joe something: his research proposal was rejected.

Finally, I understood the problem: the instructions were misleading from the start.

David faced a tough decision: he could either stay in his current job or accept the new offer.

Lipe Island has the most beautiful view: the island is surrounded by breathtaking beaches, picturesque cliffs, and crystal turquoise seawater.

Note:

EFL students usually mix the last two sentence structures of compound sentences up. As a result, this issue should be addressed by an emphasis on a functional difference between these two punctuation marks and an analysis of the sentence meanings to clearly distinguish their usage.

COMPLEX SENTENCE

A complex sentence contains one independent clause and one or more dependent (subordinate) clauses that add extra information. Dependent (subordinate) clauses start with **subordinating conjunctions (subordinators)** (Fabb, 2005) and can appear at the *beginning, middle, or end* of a sentence. *Subordinating conjunctions* can be words or short phrases (Young, 2009). Some of the most commonly used *subordinating conjunctions* are listed below:

before	although	if	so that
after	though	until/ till	in order that
while	even though	as long as	who
as	even if	as soon as	why

since	as if	because	how
when/ whenever	as though	where/ wherever	that

The complex sentence structures can be varied based on the number of dependent clauses embedded in the sentences. The following are some sentence structure examples of complex sentences to exhibit how this sentence type can be formulated. When *a dependent clause* comes first, it is followed by *a comma*; if it comes *after the main clause*, *no comma* is needed (Swick, 2018). *Complex sentences* are used to provide *additional details*, *reasoning*, or *explanation*, and the clause that appears first is usually *emphasized*.

Sentence Structure Example 1:	
Independent Clause	Dependent Clause
Subject + <i>Predicate</i>	Subordinating Conjunction + Subject + <i>Predicate</i>

- Examples:*
- She** gave him a quick glance and smiled **as she** was dancing.
 - Our team** will finish the project **even if we** have to stay up all night.
 - She** treats me **as if I** were a child.
 - Ellen and Mike** spoke **as though nothing** had happened.
 - Our boss** always stays at the office **until everyone** leaves.
 - I** can remember the café **where we** first met and had our first date.
 - Bring a camera **wherever you** travel with me.
 - Patricia** lowered her voice **so that the baby** would not wake up.
 - The police officer** explained the rules slowly **in order that everyone** could understand them.
 - I** wonder **why my younger brother** did not answer the phone.

The bride *said that he was meaningful to her.*

Sentence Structure Example 2:

Dependent Clause,

Independent Clause

Subordinating Conjunction + Subject + Predicate,

Subject + Predicate

Examples:

Before we have some ice cream, let's finish our homework.

After her boyfriend left her alone, she started crying.

As their secretary was late, they left without her.

As Bob is waiting for the bus at the bus stop, he is reading a comic.

Since they met in college, they have been friends.

Whenever you need help, call me.

Though the movie was quite long, I enjoyed watching it.

Because he didn't care about his girlfriend anymore, she left him.

If you need me, I will be right beside you.

As long as you do not download anything, you can use my laptop.

Although his boss never asks, he is willing to do it for her.

Even though we argue, we are still friends.

As soon as all of my friends knew the news, they hurried to see me.

Sentence Structure Example 3:

Independent (,) Dependent Clause (,) Clause

Subject + Predicate¹(,) Subordinating Conjunction + Subject + Predicate²(,) Predicate¹ (Cont.)

Examples: **That young man who is standing next to Pete is my youngest cousin.**

The chocolate cake that her sister baked yesterday was delicious.

The French café where we met for the first time has been renovated.

Sentence Structure Example 4:

Dependent Clause,	Independent Clause	Dependent Clause
Subordinating Conjunction + Subject + Predicate,	Subject + Predicate	Subordinating Conjunction + Subject + Predicate

Examples: **While Noah was leaving, he told me that Peter was coming.**

Since Donald never cares, he always does what he wants.

Because my little kitten is sleeping, I can finish my task which is quite difficult to deal with.

Sentence Structure Example 5:

Independent Clause	Dependent Clause	Dependent Clause
Subject + Predicate	Subordinating Conjunction + Subject + Predicate	Subordinating Conjunction + Subject + Predicate

Examples: **Auntie Margaret decided to move to another city when she quit her job that she did not like.**

Kevin remembered how his parents taught him to ride a bike when he was twelve.

That project is not interesting even though Emma gives a long presentation which is quite boring.

COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCE

A compound-complex sentence has at least two independent clauses and one or more dependent (subordinate) clauses. This sentence type is rarely used in students' writing (Shalevska, 2025). It is the most challenging for EFL students, for most grammatical sentence errors can be frequently found in this sentence type owing to its complicated sentence structure (Hendrawati, 2018) as various sentence structures can be formed. Here are some example sentence structures.

Sentence Structure Example 1:

Dependent Clause + Independent Clause + Dependent Clause + Independent Clause

Example: **Because he loved her, he did everything that she wanted, yet she declined his marriage proposal.**

Sentence Structure Example 2:

Independent Clause + Dependent Clause + Independent Clause + Dependent Clause

Example: **I am not sure why he talked to me like that, but I am sure that he will have no such chance to do it twice.**

Sentence Structure Example 3:

Independent + Dependent Clause + Clause + Independent Clause

Example: **That young man who is standing next to Ellen is actually my oldest cousin, and I have never talked with him.**

Sentence Structure Example 4:

Independent Clause + Dependent Clause + Dependent Clause + Dependent Clause + Independent Clause + Dependent Clause + Dependent Clause

Example: **Mike decided to join that club although he did not want to as he knew that he could meet Jane there; however, he changed his mind when he found out that she did not like him.**

Sentence Structure Example 5:

Dependent Clause + Independent Clause + + Dependent Clause + Dependent Clause + Dependent Clause + Independent Clause + Dependent Clause + Dependent Clause

Example: **Although the restaurant was crowded and we had to wait for a table, we decided to stay since we knew that the food was excellent and the atmosphere was perfect for a special evening, and even though we were both very tired from our long day of sightseeing, we figured that we could enjoy our meal and relax before heading back to the hotel as we would not have another chance to visit such a popular place anytime soon.**

COMMON GRAMMATICAL ERRORS IN SENTENCE WRITING

COMMA SPLICES

A *comma splice* can happen when **two independent clauses** are joined with **a comma**. This usually happens when the sentence that follows has the same topic as the preceding one, (Treiman & Kessler, 2014) particularly with novice writers (Kaufman & Straus, 2021).

RUN-ONS

A *run-on sentence* occurs when there is **not appropriate punctuation** or **conjunction** between **two independent clauses**.

Here are the comparative examples of comma splices and run-ons to highlight a difference between these two grammatical error issues.

Examples:

COMMA SPLICES

Charles is selfish, no one wants to be his friend.

The sun was setting, the sky was turning orange.

We need to do something, the deadline is coming.

Everyone knows him, they choose to keep quiet.

RUN-ONS

Charles is selfish no one wants to be his friend.

The sun was setting the sky was turning orange.

We need to do something the deadline is coming.

Everyone knows him they choose to keep quiet.

To correct these two cases of common grammatical errors, **divide it into two sentences** (two independent clauses), or **use a comma with a coordinator** (FANBOYS), **a conjunctive adverb**, or **a subordinator**.

Examples:

Charles is selfish. No one wants to be his friend.

Charles is selfish, so no one wants to be his friend.

Charles is selfish; therefore, no one wants to be his friend.

Because Charles is selfish, no one wants to be his friend.

The sun was setting. The sky was turning orange.

The sun was setting, and the sky was turning orange.

The sun was setting; moreover, the sky was turning orange.

While the sun was setting, the sky was turning orange.

We need to do something. The deadline is coming.

We need to do something, for the deadline is coming.

The deadline is coming; thus, we need to do something

We need to do something since the deadline is coming.

Everyone knows him. They choose to keep quiet.

Everyone knows him, but they choose to keep quiet.

Everyone knows him; however, they choose to keep quiet.

Although everyone knows him, they choose to keep quiet.

SENTENCE FRAGMENTS/ FRAGMENTS

A phrase or dependent (subordinate) clause standing alone or punctuated to look like a complete sentence (Young, 2009) without an independent clause is a common grammatical error known

as *a sentence fragment*. This is another common grammatical error for EFL students, especially when their L2 sentence composition skill is in the process of development. To correct this type of *sentence error*, **add what is missing**, or **rewrite** it.

Here are some examples of *phrases punctuated to look like sentences*, but they are actually incomplete thoughts and *some recommended revisions*.

Examples:

SENTENCE FRAGMENT	SENTENCE
In the middle of the night.	In the middle of the night, the moon is shining brightly in the sky.
The most beautiful woman I have ever seen in my life.	Katherine is the most beautiful woman I have ever seen in my life.
Walked as fast as she could.	She walked as fast as she could.
My favorite dessert, the one that I always have after every meal.	My favorite dessert, the one that I always have after every meal, is strawberry short cake.
That she refused to go with him.	We were told that she refused to go with him.
Knowing that it was wrong.	Elizabeth knew that it was wrong.

In addition, some examples of *dependent (subordinate) clauses punctuated to look like sentences*, but they express incomplete thoughts and *some recommended revisions* are demonstrated below.

Examples:

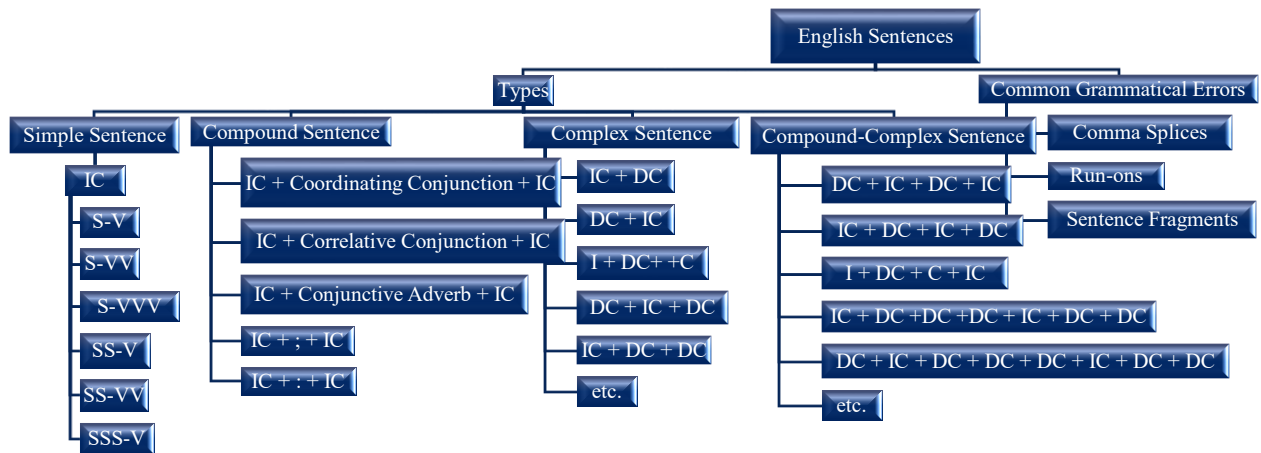
SENTENCE FRAGMENT	SENTENCE
Although he is rich.	Although he is rich, I don't like him.
Because you are selfish.	I don't want to be your friend because you are selfish.
What he is thinking.	I have no idea what he is thinking.
Who is a lawyer.	My neighbor who is a lawyer helped me with the contract.
If she wants to.	Sarah can join our team if she wants to.
When I was young.	I loved playing outside when I was young.
After Ken knew the truth.	Ken apologized to everyone after he knew the truth.
Until all the cookies are golden brown.	Keep checking the oven until all the cookies are golden brown.

KEY TAKEAWAYS: MASTERY SNAPSHOT

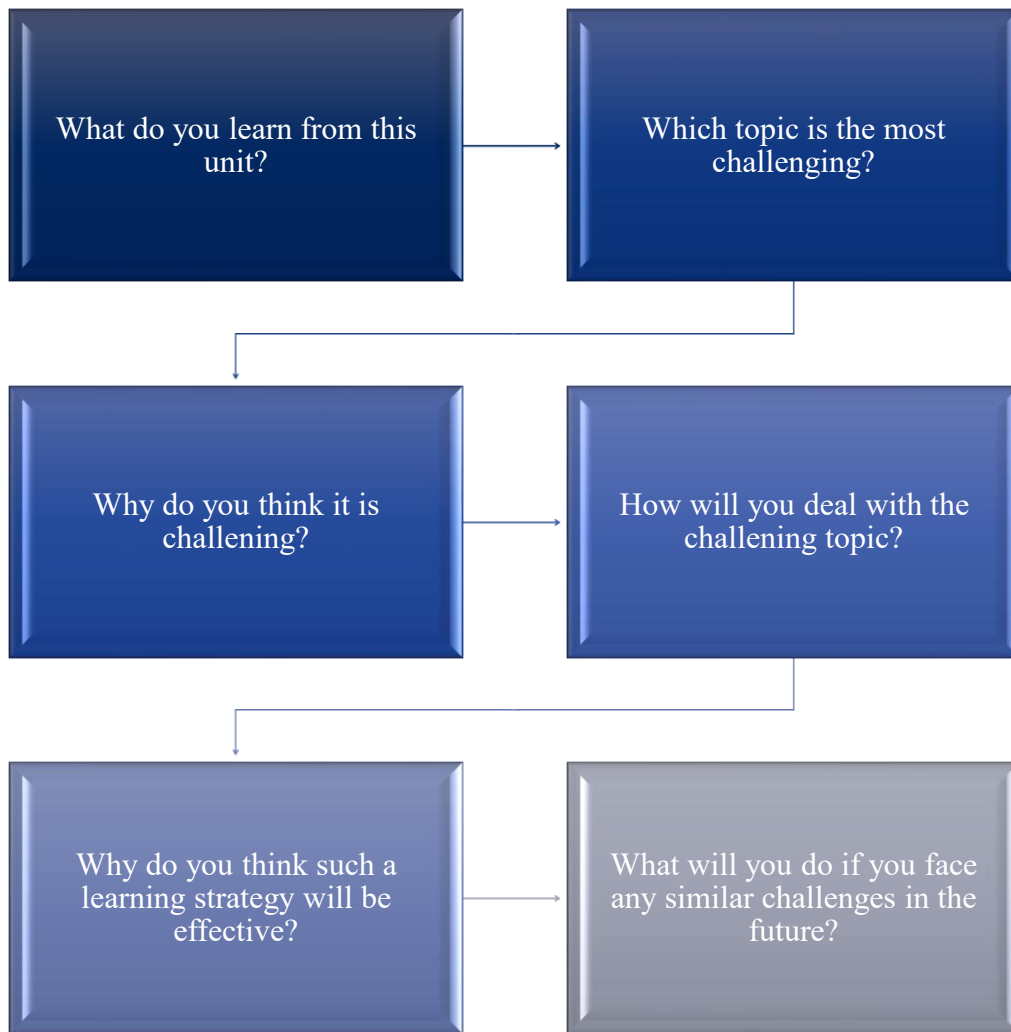
The last unit highlights the most significant aspect of English sentences: their types and modifiers. More precisely, four main types of English sentences: simple sentences, compound sentences, complex sentences, and compound-complex sentences are introduced, so EFL students are able to learn the basic concept of various English sentence types and construct different English sentence

structures based on each type. Primarily, simple sentences are illustrated to reveal their varied sentence structures apart from S + V in English. In so doing, EFL students can develop English simple sentences in diverse sentence structures to serve different purposes in written communication. To express more complicated ideas, another independent clauses or dependent (subordinate) clauses can be used to add or modify the main clauses to construct compound sentences, complex sentences, and compound-complex sentences. The use of diverse sentence types in writing can help facilitate the flow of ideas and the reader’s comprehension. Last but not least, common grammatical errors, such as comma splices, run-ons, and sentence fragments frequently found in EFL students’ writing are demonstrated to raise their awareness of these grammatical issues. Accordingly, they can produce more effective written communication without such errors.

CONCEPT MAP



MASTERY REFLECTION



Learning Lens:

WRITE IT RIGHT: SENTENCE MASTERY ZONES

The Starter Zone

Directions: Read each sentence, identify it as S (a simple sentence), CD (a compound sentence), CX (a complex sentence), or CD-CX (a compound-complex sentence), and write its structure using IC for an independent clause and DC for a dependent clause.

Example:

CX She was a representative of our group because no one wanted to.

IC + DC

_____ 1. My father is a singer, but he cannot dance.

_____ 2. Jonathan is the youngest child in our family.

_____ 3. When Bob told her, she was quite shocked, but she did not ask why he did that.

_____ 4. That scary movie was the reason why I woke up in the middle of the night.

_____ 5. Jim is Italian although his parents are Russian.

_____ 6. Samatha and I will have a quick look at it before submission.

_____ 7. His mother asked me if I was fine, and I said yes.

_____ 8. Within a blink of an eye, he disappeared.

_____ 9. Laura never tells her husband about her problem; thus, he never knows what she has been through.

_____ 10. Vicky and her friends must join our club; otherwise, we do not have enough members to run the big project.

_____ 11. Either you talk to her, or you completely ignore her.

_____ 12. She talked as if she were in such a situation.

_____ 13. I want to buy a new smartphone; I don't have enough money.

_____ 14. While that dog was barking, she was trying to escape from there though it seemed hopeless during that time.

_____ 15. Our budget is so tight that it is impossible to pay for maintenance.

_____ 16. Our team was discussing the same issue someone raised in the meeting last week over and over again until lunch.

_____ 17. As I told you, they didn't care.

_____ 18. Don't ask me why I am here, but you should ask him why he is not.

_____ 19. Before sunset, they hurried back to the pier.

_____ 20. Joe gave me a simple answer: he said no without hesitation.

The Builder Zone

Directions: Write each sentence based on the required sentence type and the given words in parentheses.

1. a simple sentence (S-V) (the busy street)

2. a simple sentence (S-VV) (tonight)

3. a simple sentence (S-VVV) (outside)

4. a simple sentence (SS-V) (pretty well)

5. a simple sentence (SS-VV) (behind the closed door)

6. a simple sentence (SSS-V) (quite smoothly)

7. a compound sentence with a coordinating conjunction: for (his familiar face)

8. a compound sentence with a coordinating conjunction: and (after the movie)

9. a compound sentence with a coordinating conjunction: nor (for hours)

10. a compound sentence with a coordinating conjunction: but (quite handsome)

11. a compound sentence with a coordinating conjunction: or (fresh bread)

12. a compound sentence with a coordinating conjunction: yet (Instagram)

13. a compound sentence with a coordinating conjunction: so (without any hesitation)

14. a compound sentence with a correlative conjunction: Either...or (inside the dark room)

15. a compound sentence with a correlative conjunction: Neither...nor (this morning)

16. a compound sentence with a correlative conjunction: Not only...but also (nobody)

17. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show contrast/ opposition (Christmas)

18. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show addition/ reinforcement (with me)

19. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show cause and effect (too difficult)

20. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show restatement/ clarification (on time)

21. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show comparison/ similarity (mistakes)

22. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show emphasis (energy)

23. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show illustration (at night)

24. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show condition (too hot)

25. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show alternative (in July)

26. a compound sentence with a semicolon (everyone)

27. a compound sentence with a colon (almost impossible)

28. a complex sentence (enough)



ANSWER KEY

Answer Key

WRITE IT RIGHT: SENTENCE MASTERY ZONES

UNIT I

The Starter Zone

1. The marketing manager said, “I hope shopping behavior improves after the online catalogue is updated.”

American: The marketing manager said, “I hope shopping behavior improves after the online catalog is updated.”

British: The marketing manager said, “I hope shopping behaviour improves after the online catalogue is updated.”

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The spelling is inconsistent: “behavior” (American) is mixed with “catalogue” (British). Use one spelling convention. The word “catalogue” is the British spelling. In American English, it should be spelled “catalog.” The word “behavior” is the American spelling. In British English, it should be spelled “behaviour.”

2. Although the flavor was strong, the percent of sugar remained low.

3. During hindu purification rituals in September, the scientist realized the water metre rose quickly.

American: During Hindu purification rituals in September, the scientist realized the water meter rose quickly.

British: During Hindu purification rituals in September, the scientist realised the water metre rose quickly.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- Religion always starts with a capital letter, so the word “hindo” must be capitalized as “Hindu.”
- The spelling is inconsistent: “realized” (American) is mixed with “metre” (British). Use one spelling convention. The word “realized” is the American spelling. In British English, it should be spelled “realised.” The word “metre” is the British spelling. In American English, it should be spelled “meter.”

4. The organizers prepared extra seating for thanksgiving, otherwise many guests would have had to stand.

American: The organizers prepared extra seating for Thanksgiving; otherwise, many guests would have had to stand.

British: The organisers prepared extra seating for Thanksgiving; otherwise, many guests would have had to stand.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- A holiday always starts with a capital letter, so the word “thanksgiving” must be capitalized as “Thanksgiving.”
- To use a conjunctive adverb “otherwise” to form a compound sentence, a semicolon precedes the conjunctive adverb, and a comma follows it.
- You may use either British or American spelling according to your preference. Use “organizers” for the American spelling and “organisers” for the British spelling.

5. While Chef Lee demonstrated breakfast recipes, he cooked an omelet and sprinkled some chili on top.

6. For the international conference speakers will come from Tokyo, Japan, Berlin, Germany, Paris, France, and New York, USA.

For the international conference, speakers will come from Tokyo, Japan; Berlin, Germany; Paris, France; and New York, USA.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- An introductory comma is required to separate the introductory phrase “For the international conference” from the main part of the sentence to avoid confusion.
- A semicolon is used to separate items in a complex list, especially when those items already include commas.

7. The director, of course, approved the bonus despite the tight budget.

8. Kathy settled into the office chair, the cheque and licence lay ready for signing.

American: Kathy settled into the office chair; the check and license lay ready for signing.

British: Kathy settled into the office chair; the cheque and licence lay ready for signing.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- A semicolon is used to join two closely related complete thoughts, not a comma.
- Although the spelling is already consistent because both “cheque” and “licence” are the British spellings, you may change these words to “check” and “license” for the American spellings according to your preference.

9. Alex, which of these sports do you enjoy playing the most?

10. The employee joined the video call in pajamas on Friday, yet the manager could still recognize her ideas and professionalism.

The Builder Zone

1. the traveller checked his tyre pressure before going on a trip and he said “I hope we reach the center safely”

American: The traveler checked his tire pressure before going on a trip, and he said, “I hope we reach the center safely.”

British: The traveller checked his tyre pressure before going on a trip, and he said, “I hope we reach the centre safely.”

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The first word of a sentence must be capitalized to signal the sentence beginning.
- A joining comma is used to separate two independent clauses when they are joined by coordinating conjunction “and” and another comma is required after the reporting verb to introduce a direct quotation.
- The spelling is inconsistent: “traveller” and “tyre” (British) are mixed with “center” (American). Use one spelling convention. The word “center” is the American spelling. In British English, it should be spelled “centre.” The word “traveller” and “tyre” are the British spellings. In American English, they should be spelled “traveler” and “tire.”
- A period or full stop is used to set a boundary of a complete thought or a sentence within the quotation marks.

2. last week dr smith emphasized the importance of analysing data accurately

American: Last week, Dr. Smith emphasized the importance of analyzing data accurately.

British: Last week, Dr Smith emphasised the importance of analysing data accurately.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The first word of a sentence must be capitalized to signal the sentence beginning.
- An introductory comma is required to separate the introductory phrase “Last week” from the main part of the sentence to avoid confusion.
- The title before the name and the name itself as a proper noun are capitalized.

- The spelling is inconsistent: “emphasized” (American) is mixed with “analysing” (British). Use one spelling convention. The word “emphasized” is the American spelling. In British English, it should be spelled “emphasised.” The word “analysing” is the British spelling. In American English, it should be spelled “analyzing.”
- In American English, the abbreviations for the titles must have a period or full stop, but the period or full stop is left out in British English.
- A period or full stop is used to set a boundary of a complete thought or a sentence.

3. despite the heavy rainfall the festival continued the performers however were soaked

Despite the heavy rainfall, the festival continued; the performers, however, were soaked.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The first word of a sentence must be capitalized to signal the sentence beginning.
- An introductory comma is required to separate the introductory phrase “Despite the heavy rainfall” from the main part of the sentence to avoid confusion.
- A semicolon is used to join two closely related complete thoughts.
- The interrupter commas are used before and after the conjunctive adverb, signaling an interruption that breaks the flow of a sentence.
- A period or full stop is used to set a boundary of a complete thought or a sentence.

4. the company plans to organise a workshop on industrialization trends in asia

American: The company plans to organize a workshop on industrialization trends in Asia.

British: The company plans to organise a workshop on industrialisation trends in Asia.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The first word of a sentence must be capitalized to signal the sentence beginning.
- The spelling is inconsistent: “organise” (British) is mixed with “industrialization” (American). Use one spelling convention. The word “organise” is the British spelling. In American English, it should be spelled “organize.” The word “industrialization” is the American spelling. In British English, it should be spelled “industrialisation.”

- A specific place (a continent) always starts with a capital letter, so the word “asia” must be capitalized as “Asia.”
- A period or full stop is used to set a boundary of a complete thought or a sentence.

5. Lina, which languages are most commonly spoken in your region?

Lina, which languages are most commonly spoken in your region?

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The first word of a sentence must be capitalized to signal the sentence beginning.
- A direct address comma is required to set off the name when directly addressing someone at the beginning of the sentence.
- A question mark is used to end a direct question.

6. The manager said “all employees must submit their reports by Friday otherwise they will face unexpected consequences”

The manager said, “All employees must submit their reports by Friday; otherwise, they will face unexpected consequences.”

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The first word of a sentence and a direct quotation must be capitalized to signal the sentence beginning.
- A comma is used after the reporting verb to introduce a direct quotation.
- To use a conjunctive adverb “otherwise” to form a compound sentence, a semicolon precedes the conjunctive adverb, and a comma follows it.
- A period or full stop is used to set a boundary of a complete thought or a sentence within the quotation marks.

7. at the workshop the participants included dr lee a chemist professor anna a physicist dr sam a biologist and mr robert a mathematician

American: At the workshop, the participants included Dr. Lee, a chemist; Professor Anna, a physicist; Dr. Sam, a biologist; and Mr. Robert, a mathematician.

British: At the workshop, the participants included Dr Lee, a chemist; Professor Anna, a physicist; Dr Sam, a biologist; and Mr Robert, a mathematician.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The first word of a sentence must be capitalized to signal the sentence beginning.
- An introductory comma is required to separate the introductory phrase “At the workshop” from the main part of the sentence to avoid confusion.
- The titles before the names and the names themselves as the proper nouns are capitalized.
- In American English, the abbreviations for the titles must have a period or full stop, but the period or full stop is left out in British English.
- A semicolon is used to separate items in a complex list, especially when those items already include commas.
- A period or full stop is used to set a boundary of a complete thought or a sentence.

8. on monday our italian professor will lecture on christianity buddhism and islam in modern societies

On Monday, our Italian professor will lecture on Christianity, Buddhism, and Islam in modern societies.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The first word of a sentence must be capitalized to signal the sentence beginning.
- An introductory comma is required to separate the introductory phrase “On Monday” from the main part of the sentence to avoid confusion.
- A day of the week, nationality, and religions always start with the capital letters.
- The listing commas are used to separate items in a series.
- A period or full stop is used to set a boundary of a complete thought or a sentence.

9. the theatre on oxford street has a new program for children and the actors rehearsed every day

American: The theater on Oxford Street has a new program for children, and the actors rehearsed every day.

British: The theatre on Oxford Street has a new programme for children, and the actors rehearsed every day.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The first word of a sentence must be capitalized to signal the sentence beginning.
- The specific name of a place (a street) always starts with a capital letter, so the word “oxford street” must be capitalized as “Oxford Street.”
- The spelling is inconsistent: “theatre” (British) is mixed with “program” (American). Use one spelling convention. The word “theatre” is the British spelling. In American English, it should be spelled “theater.” The word “program” is the American spelling. In British English, it should be spelled “programme.”
- A joining comma is used to separate two independent clauses when they are joined by coordinating conjunction “and.”
- A period or full stop is used to set a boundary of a complete thought or a sentence.

10. i love the colour of this fiber scarf it is beautiful and comfortable

American: I love the color of this fiber scarf; it is beautiful and comfortable.

British: I love the colour of this fibre scarf; it is beautiful and comfortable.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The first word of a sentence must be capitalized to signal the sentence beginning.
- The spelling is inconsistent: “colour” (British) is mixed with “fiber” (American). Use one spelling convention. The word “colour” is the British spelling. In American English, it should be spelled “color.” The word “fiber” is the American spelling. In British English, it should be spelled “fibre.”
- A semicolon is used to join two closely related complete thoughts.
- A period or full stop is used to set a boundary of a complete thought or a sentence.

The Sharper Zone

The answers may vary.

Sample Answer:

Source/ Credit: Suomieyefa Gift Arefegha's comment

Sadcasm. (2026, May 22). *Before you rent a house, be sure the landlord has another source of income* [Facebook Post]. Facebook. <https://www.facebook.com/share/p/18eNMA1Ymv/>

Rewrite:

How am I supposed to ask my landlord if he has another job?

Note: Variations that follow the directions and maintain grammatical accuracy are considered correct.

The Master Zone

Last year, Ava left an office job to follow her dream: opening a home bakery. Every day, she woke up before sunrise. While all streets were still sleeping, she began kneading dough. The rhythm of her hands against the dough always matches the beat of the music playing in the background. At first, the shop was empty, but she kept creating new items for the display to attract customers, such as chili chocolate cookies, miso caramel brownies, Cola and popcorn cake, Thai tea crème brûlée cups, and basil strawberry tarts. One winter night, a kid stopped by. He asked for a chili chocolate cookie, the cheapest menu item in the shop, as it costs only one dollar. After he got the cookie, she said, "One dollar, please." He stood still. At that moment, she just realized he was not her customer. He was skinny and looked tired. She smiled and said excitedly, "Well, tonight is the magic night. You can have two new items and a drink from our shop for free if you can wink and smile." Then his eyes widened with surprise and sparkled with delight. Immediately, he winked and smiled at her. "What would you like for the second one?"

she asked with a big grin. “A miso caramel brownie,” he replied with a wider smile. “And what about your drink?” she asked softly. “A hot chocolate. Can I have a hot chocolate, please?” he replied with a big smile spreading across his face.

Explanation for *Self-Directed Learning*:

- The first word of every sentence and direct quotation must be capitalized to signal the sentence or response beginning.
- An introductory comma is required to separate each introductory word “Well” and “Immediately” from the main part of the sentence to avoid confusion.
- An introductory comma is required to separate each introductory phrase “Last year,” “Every day,” “At first,” “One winter night,” “One dollar,” and “At that moment” from the main part of the sentence to avoid confusion.
- An introductory comma is required to separate each introductory clause “While all streets were still sleeping” and “After he got the cookie” from the main part of the sentence or the independent clause.
- The specific names of a person (Ava), a thing (Cola), and a nationality (Thai) always start with a capital letter.
- A colon is used to introduce an explanation of what her dream is.
- A joining comma is used to separate two independent clauses when they are joined by coordinating conjunction “but.”
- The listing commas are used to separate items in a series of desserts “such as chili chocolate cookies, miso caramel brownies, Cola and popcorn cake, Thai tea crème brûlée cups, and basil strawberry tarts.”
- The interrupter commas are used before and after a noun phrase “, the cheapest menu item in the shop,” breaking the flow of a sentence to add more information.
- A comma is used after the reporting verb “she said,” and “She smiled and said excitedly,” to introduce a direct quotation and to separate a direct quotation from the rest of the sentence “A miso caramel brownie,”.
- A comma is used before the word “such as.”
- A comma is used before the word “please” when the sentence ends with “please”.

- The personal subject pronoun “I” is always capitalized regardless of its position in the sentence.
- A period or full stop is used to set a boundary of each complete thought, sentence, or statement.
- A question mark is used to end a direct question.

UNIT II

The Starter Zone

PP 1. before falling in love

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The prepositional phrase begins with the preposition “before” as its head followed by the gerund phrase “falling in love” as its prepositional object.

ADVP 2. perfectly happily

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The adverb phrase consists of double adverbs: the first one “perfectly” is its modifier whereas the second one “happily” is its head.

ADJP 3. slightly sleepy

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The adjective phrase consists of the adverb “slightly” as its modifier and the adjective “sleepy” as its head.

VP 4. can stay up

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The verb phrase consists of the modal verb “can” and the main verb “stay up” as its head.

ADVP 5. terribly badly

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The adverb phrase consists of double adverbs: the first one “terribly” is its modifier whereas the second one “badly” is its head.

NP 6. a collection of new arrivals

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The noun phrase consists of the article “a” as its pre-nominal modifier, the noun “collection” as its head, and the prepositional phrase “of new arrivals” as its post-nominal modifier.

PP 7. during the lecture

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The prepositional phrase begins with the preposition “during” as its head followed by the noun phrase “the lecture” as its prepositional object.

NP 8. that young man standing among the crowd

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The noun phrase consists of the demonstrative adjective “that” and the adjective “young” as its pre-nominal modifiers, the noun “man” as its head, and the present participial phrase “standing among the crowd” as its post-nominal modifier.

ADJP 9. apparently haunted

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The adjective phrase consists of the adverb “apparently” as its modifier and the adjective “haunted” as its head.

NP 10. the 18th century

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The noun phrase consists of the article “the” and the ordinal number “18th” as its pre-nominal modifiers and the noun “century” as its head.

VP 11. was struck

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The verb phrase consists of the auxiliary verb “was” and the main verb “struck” as its head.

PP 12. without you

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The prepositional phrase begins with the preposition “without” as its head followed by the pronoun “you” as its prepositional object.

ADJP 13. quite worried

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The adjective phrase consists of the adverb “quite” as its modifier and the adjective “worried” as its head.

PP 14. because of the storm

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The prepositional phrase begins with the preposition “because of” as its head followed by the noun phrase “the storm” as its prepositional object.

ADVP 15. completely differently

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The adverb phrase consists of double adverbs: the first one “completely” is its modifier whereas the second one “differently” is its head.

NP 16. my notebook on the glass table

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The noun phrase consists of the possessive adjective “my” as its pre-nominal modifier, the noun “notebook” as its head, and the prepositional phrase “on the glass table” as its post-nominal modifier.

ADJP 17. extremely tired

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The adjective phrase consists of the adverb “extremely” as its modifier and the adjective “tired” as its head.

NP 18. last night

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The noun phrase consists of the determiner “last” as its pre-nominal modifier and the noun “night” as its head.

VP 19. has been waiting

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The verb phrase consists of the auxiliary verb “has been” and the main verb “waiting” as its head.

ADJP 20. incredibly fast

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The adjective phrase consists of the adverb “incredibly” as its modifier and the adjective “fast” as its head.

The Builder Zone

The answers may vary.

Sample Answers:

1. a noun phrase (old)

an old garage

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The noun phrase consists of the article “an” and the adjective “old” as its pre-nominal modifiers and the noun “garage” as its head.

2. a noun phrase with a pre-nominal modifier (balloons)

blue balloons

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The noun phrase consists of the adjective “blue” as its pre-nominal modifier and the noun “balloon” as its head.

3. a noun phrase with a post-nominal modifier (butter)

butter on my toast

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The noun phrase consists of the noun “butter” as its head and the prepositional phrase “on my toast” as its post-nominal modifier.

4. a noun phrase with a pre-nominal modifier and a post-nominal modifier (culture)

the culture that I like most

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The noun phrase consists of the article “the” as its pre-nominal modifier, the noun “culture” as its head, and the adjective clause “that I like most” as its post-nominal modifier.

5. a verb phrase (can)

can sing

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The verb phrase consists of the modal verb “can” and the main verb “sing” as its head.

6. a verb phrase with a pre-verbal modifier (talk)

angrily talk

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The verb phrase consists of the adverb “angrily” as its pre-verbal modifier and the main verb “talk” as its head.

7. a verb phrase with a post-verbal modifier (drink)

drink at the party

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The verb phrase consists of the main verb “drink” as its head and the prepositional phrase “at the party” as its post-verbal modifier.

8. a prepositional phrase (near)

near our university

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The prepositional phrase consists of the preposition “near” as its head and the noun phrase “our university” as its prepositional object.

9. an adjective phrase (fat)

quite fat

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The adjective phrase consists of the adverb “quite” as its modifier and the adjective “fat” as its head.

10. an adverb phrase (frequently)

extremely frequently

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The adverb phrase consists of the adverb “extremely” as its modifier and the adverb “frequently” as its head.

Note: Variations that follow the directions and maintain grammatical accuracy are considered correct.

The Sharper Zone

The answers may vary.

Sample Answers:

Source/ Credit:

Aed, A. (n.d.). Why you should add Burano to your bucket list. *Wandering Everywhere*.

<https://wandering-everywhere.com/why-you-should-add-burano-to-your/>

Noun Phrases

the Venetian lagoon

Verb Phrases

should add

Prepositional Phrases

to your bucket list

Adjective Phrases

brightly coloured

Adverb Phrases

pretty dramatically

Note: Variations that follow the directions and maintain grammatical accuracy are considered correct.

The Master Zone

The answers may vary.

Sample Answer:

Why You Should Visit Samila Beach in Songkhla

Located in Mueang District, the beautiful beach of Songkhla attracts hundreds of tourists across the country.

...

Note: Variations that follow the directions and maintain grammatical accuracy are considered correct.

UNIT III

The Starter Zone

C, C 1. I believe that Jack is honest and kind.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “I believe” is a clause (an independent clause) as it has the subject “I” and the verb “believe.”
- “that Jack is honest and kind” is a clause (a dependent clause) as it has the subordinating conjunction “that,” the subject “Jack,” and the verb “is.”

P, P 2. When our new friend arrives, we will start the game.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “our new friend” is a phrase (a noun phrase) as it consists of the possessive adjective “our” and the adjective “new” as its pre-nominal modifiers and the noun “friend” as its head.
- “will start” is a phrase (a verb phrase) as it consists of the modal auxiliary verb “will” and the main verb “start” as its head.

C, P 3. Julia decided to join the dance club even though her boyfriend did not want to.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Julia decided to join the dance club” is a clause (an independent clause) as it has the subject “Julia” and the verb “decided.”
- “did not want” is a phrase (a verb phrase) as it consists of the auxiliary verb “did,” the negation word “not,” and the main verb “want” as its head.

P, C 4. Our garden is really beautiful when we take care of it.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “really beautiful” is a phrase (an adjective phrase) as it consists of the adverb “really” as its modifier and the adjective “beautiful” as its head.
- “when we take care of it” is a clause (a dependent clause) as it has the subordinating conjunction “when,” the subject “we,” and the verb “take care.”

P, C 5. The security guard warned her for the first time, but she ignored him.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “for the first time” is a phrase (a prepositional phrase) as it begins with the preposition “for” as its head followed by the noun phrase “the first time” as the prepositional object.
- “she ignored him” is a clause (an independent clause) as it has the subject “she” and the verb “ignored.”

C, P, P 6. The café that was opened yesterday was my new favorite place to spend time with my friends on weekends.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “that was opened yesterday” is a clause (a dependent clause) as it has the subordinating conjunction “that,” the relative pronoun functioning as the subject, and the verb phrase “was opened.”
- “my new favorite place” is a phrase (a noun phrase) as it consists of the possessive adjective “my” and the adjectives “new” and “favorite” as its pre-nominal modifiers and the noun “place” as its head.
- “on weekends” is a phrase (a prepositional phrase) as it begins with the preposition “on” as its head followed by the noun “weekends” as the prepositional object.

P, P, C 7. Bob and I will study all night tonight as we want to pass the test.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “will study” is a phrase (a verb phrase) as it consists of the modal auxiliary verb “will” and the main verb “study” as its head.
- “all night” is a phrase (a noun phrase) as it consists of the determiner “all” as its pre-nominal modifier and the noun “night” as its head.
- “as we want to pass the test” is a clause (a dependent clause) as it has the subordinating conjunction “as,” the subject “we,” and the verb “want.”

P, P, P 8. The flight was unexpectedly delayed because of bad weather, so we must wait very patiently for our grandfather’s return.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “because of bad weather” is a phrase (a prepositional phrase) as it begins with the preposition “because of” as its head followed by the noun phrase “bad weather” as the prepositional object.
- “very patiently” is a phrase (an adverb phrase) as it consists of double adverbs: the first one “very” is its modifier whereas the second one “patiently” is its head.
- “our grandfather’s return” is a phrase (a noun phrase) as it consists of the possessive adjective “our” and the possessive of name “grandfather’s” as its pre-nominal modifiers and the noun “return” as its head.

C, C 9. Do you think that this project will work?

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Do you think” is a clause (an independent clause) as it has the subject “you” and the verb “think.”
- “that this project will work” is a clause (a dependent clause) as it has the subordinating conjunction “that,” the subject “this project,” and the verb phrase “will work.”

C, P 10. Listen carefully until the end of the meeting.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Listen carefully” is a clause (an independent clause) as it has the implied subject “you” and the verb “listen.”
- “until the end of the meeting” is a phrase (a prepositional phrase) as it begins with the preposition “until” as its head followed by the noun phrase “the end of the meeting” as the prepositional object.

The Builder Zone

DC, IC 1. Because Maria was extremely tired, she went to bed early.

- Adverb clause

Sample Answer:

- As Carol was sleepy

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Because Maria was extremely tired” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “Because,” the subject “Maria,” and the verb “was.”
- “Because Maria was extremely tired” functions as an adverb clause because it modifies the verb “went” in the independent clause.
- “she went to bed early” is an independent clause as it has the subject “she” and the verb “went.”
- “As Carol was sleepy” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “as,” a subject “Carol,” and the verb “was.”
- “As Carol was sleepy” functions as an adverb clause because it modifies the verb “went” in the independent clause.

IC, DC2. It was not fair for both of them as they did nothing wrong.

- Adverb clause

Sample Answer:

- because no one told them

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “It was not fair for both of them” is an independent clause as it has the subject “It” and the verb “was.”
- “as they did nothing wrong” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “as,” the subject “they,” and the verb “did.”
- “as they did nothing wrong” functions as an adverb clause because it modifies the adjective with the negation word “not fair” in the independent clause.
- “because no one told them” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “because,” the subject “no one,” and the verb “told.”
- “because no one told them” functions as an adverb clause because it modifies the adjective with the negation word “not fair” in the independent clause.

DC, IC3. Whatever they have been discussing, I don’t care anymore.

- Adverb clause

Sample Answer:

- Wherever they go

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Whatever they have been discussing” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “Whatever,” the subject “they,” and the verb phrase “have been discussing.”
- “Whatever they have been discussing” functions as an adverb clause because it modifies the verb phrase with the negation word “don’t care” in the independent clause.

- “I don’t care anymore” is an independent clause as it has the subject “I” and the verb phrase with a negation word “don’t care.”
- “Wherever they go” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “Wherever,” the subject “they,” and the verb “go.”
- “Wherever they go” functions as an adverb clause because it modifies the verb phrase with the negation word “don’t care” in the independent clause.

IC, DC4. Why don’t you tell us that we are lost?

- Noun clause

Sample Answer:

- that they are ready to join us

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Why don’t you tell us” is an independent clause as it has the subject “you” and the verb phrase with the negation word “don’t ... tell.”
- “that we are lost” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “that,” the subject “we,” and the verb phrase “are lost.”
- “that we are lost” functions as a noun clause because it is the direct object of the transitive verb phrase with the negation word “don’t...tell” in the independent clause.
- “that they are ready to join us” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “that,” the subject “they,” and the verb “are.”
- “that they are ready to join us” functions as a noun clause because it is the direct object of the transitive verb phrase with the negation word “don’t...tell” in the independent clause.

DC, IC5. Although he is terribly scared, he never asks us to stay with him.

- Adverb clause

Sample Answer:

- Though Danial lives there alone

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Although he is terribly scared” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “Although,” the subject “he,” and the verb “is.”
- “Although he is terribly scared” functions as an adverb clause because it modifies the verb phrase with the negation word “never asks” in the independent clause.
- “he never asks us to stay with him” is an independent clause as it has the subject “he” and the verb phrase with the negation word “never asks.”
- “Though Danial lives there alone” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “Though,” the subject “Danial,” and the verb “lives.”
- “Though Danial lives there alone” functions as an adverb clause because it modifies the verb phrase with the negation word “never asks” in the independent clause.

IC, DC, DC 6. Ask Sue who is always indecisive if she wants to join us.

- Adjective clause/ Noun clause

Sample Answer:

- whose life is a mess/ why she never calls us

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Ask Sue” is an independent clause as it has the implied subject “you” and the verb “ask.”
- “who is always indecisive” is a dependent clause as it consists of the relative pronoun “who” as the subordinating conjunction and the subject and the verb “is.”
- “who is always indecisive” functions as an adjective clause because it modifies Sue, the noun, in the independent clause.
- “if she wants to join us” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “if,” the subject “she,” and the verb “wants.”
- “if she wants to join us” functions as a noun clause because it is the direct object of the transitive verb “ask” in the independent clause.
- “whose life is a mess” is a dependent clause as it consists of the relative pronoun “whose” as the subordinating conjunction and the subject and the verb “is.”

- “whose life is a mess” functions as an adjective clause because it modifies Sue, the noun, in the independent clause.
- “why she never calls us” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “why,” the subject “she,” and the verb phrase with the negation word “never calls.”
- “why she never calls us” functions as a noun clause because it is the direct object of the transitive verb “ask” in the independent clause.

IC, DC7. I have never said that I have never seen that guy before.

- Noun clause

Sample Answer:

- that you are wrong

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “I have never said” is an independent clause as it has the subject “I” and the verb phrase with the negation word “have never said.”
- “that I have never seen that guy before” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “that,” the subject “I,” and the verb phrase with the negation word “have never seen.”
- “that I have never seen that guy before” functions as a noun clause because it is the direct object of the transitive verb “said” in the independent clause.
- “that you are wrong” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “that,” the subject “you,” and the verb “are.”
- “that you are wrong” functions as a noun clause because it is the direct object of the transitive verb “said” in the independent clause.

IC, DC 8. She forgot to bring his card that he gave her yesterday.

- Adjective clause

Sample Answer:

- that he left on the sofa last night

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “She forgot to bring his card” is an independent clause as it has the subject “She” and the verb “forgot.”
- “that he gave her yesterday” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “that,” the subject “he,” and the verb “gave.”
- “that he gave her yesterday” functions as an adjective clause because it modifies the noun phrase “his card” in the independent clause.
- “that he left on the sofa last night” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “that,” the subject “he,” and the verb “left.”
- “that he left on the sofa last night” functions as an adjective clause because it modifies the noun phrase “his card” in the independent clause.

IC, DC 9. May I ask why you like her that much?

- Noun clause

Sample Answer:

- when you made this soup

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “May I ask” is an independent clause as it has the subject “I” and the verb “ask.”
- “why you like her that much” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “why,” the subject “you,” and the verb “like.”
- “why you like her that much” functions as a noun clause because it is the direct object of the transitive verb “ask” in the independent clause.

- “when you made this soup” is a dependent clause as it consists of the subordinating conjunction “when,” the subject “you,” and the verb “made.”
- “when you made this soup” functions as a noun clause because it is the direct object of the transitive verb “ask” in the independent clause.

IC, IC 10. Don’t laugh at me, or you’ll be in trouble!

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Don’t laugh at me” is an independent clause as it has the implied subject “you” and the verb phrase with the negation word “don’t laugh.”
- “you’ll be in trouble” is an independent clause as it has the subject “you” and the verb phrase “’ll be.”

The Sharper Zone

The answers may vary.

Sample Answers:

Source/ Credit:

Wright, W. (2026, May 16). *Roundtrip*. Reedsyprompts. <https://reedsy.com/short-story/xfxa2a/>

Independent Clauses

Santo had forgotten for a second

Taxis pulled in and out of the lot

It was still cold.

The sun had that robust mid-winter glare.

For the first time in years, he could understand

They stared back at Santo,

Dependent Clauses (Noun Clauses)

that he could breathe the air outside.

what the people said next to him.

Dependent Clauses (Adjective Clauses)

who suddenly had a cough.

Dependent Clauses (Adverb Clauses)

as people loaded their suitcases.

Note: Variations that follow the directions and maintain grammatical accuracy are considered correct.

The Master Zone

The answers may vary.

Sample Answer:

Jonathan remembered all of a sudden that he left his Shih Tzu, Minnie, at the café. He started running back there as the rain was heavily pouring. The wind was howling along the way. The thunder shook the trees along the streets. For the first time in his life, he could see what it was like to be forgotten. He darted forward and scooped her, whose body was shaking in fear, into his arms. ...

Note: Variations that follow the directions and maintain grammatical accuracy are considered correct.

UNIT IV

The Starter Zone

A 1. The flowers in her backyard bloom unexpectedly.

S + IV + MOD

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence is in active voice because the subject “The flowers in her backyard” performs the action verb “bloom.”
- S (The flowers in her backyard) + IV (bloom) + MOD (unexpectedly)

A 2. Many scholars across the world exchanged ideas quietly in the conference room.

S + TV + DO + MOD

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence is in active voice because the subject “Many scholars across the world” performs the action verb “exchanged.”
- S (Many scholars across the world) + TV (exchanged) + DO (ideas) + MOD (quietly in the conference room)

N 3. This environmental issue became controversial.

S + LV + SC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence has no voice because the stative verb “became” describes a state or condition rather than an action of the subject “This environmental issue.”
- S (This environmental issue) + LV (became) + SC (controversial)

A 4. Christine sent her close friend the last message filled with their memories.

S + TV + IO +DO

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence is in active voice because the subject “Christine” performs the action verb “sent.”
- S (Christine) + TV (sent) + IO (her close friend) + DO (the last message filled with their memories)

A 5. The committee considered his performance outstanding.

S + TV + DO +OC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence is in active voice because the subject “The committee” performs the action verb “considered.”
- S (The committee) + TV (considered) + DO (his performance) + OC (outstanding)

P 6. The new policy was approved by our new board.

S + PV + AGENT

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence is in passive voice because the subject “The new policy” receives the action verb “was approved.”
- S (The new policy) + PV (was approved) + AGENT (by our new board)

N 7. My father is the head of the department.

S + LV + SC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence has no voice because the stative verb “is” describes a state or condition rather than an action of the subject “My father.”
- S (My father) + LV (is) + SC (the head of the department)

P 8. That big brown box was delivered yesterday morning.

S + PV + MOD

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence is in passive voice because the subject “That big brown box” receives the action verb “was delivered.”
- S (That big brown box) + PV (was delivered) + MOD (yesterday morning)

P 9. All the bridges in town were destroyed by the storm overnight.

S + PV + AGENT + MOD

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence is in passive voice because the subject “All the bridges in town” receives the action verb “were destroyed.”
- S (All the bridges in town) + PV (were destroyed) + AGENT (by the storm) + MOD (overnight)

A 10. Time flies.

S + IV

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence is in active voice because the subject “Time” performs the action verb “flies.”
- S (Time) + IV (flies)

The Builder Zone

The answers may vary.

Sample Answers:

1. Subject + Predicate (in winter)

It snows in winter.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence includes all components: the subject “It” and the predicate with the given prepositional phrase “snows in winter.”

2. no voice: S + LV + SC (lucky)

I am lucky.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence has no voice and includes all components: the subject “I,” the linking verb “am,” and the given adjective “lucky” as the subject complement.

3. active voice: S + IV (that spider)

That spider is climbing up the wall.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence is in active voice and includes all components: the given noun phrase “That spider” as the subject and the intransitive verb “is climbing” with the prepositional phrase “up the wall” as the modifier.

4. active voice: S + TV + DO (important)

The research team collected important data.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence is in active voice and includes all components: the subject “The research team,” the transitive verb “collected,” and the given adjective in the noun phrase “important data” as the direct object.

5. active voice: S + TV + IO + DO (two dollars)

My father gave me two dollars.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence is in active voice and includes all components: the subject “My father,” the transitive verb “gave,” the indirect object “me,” and the given noun phrase “two dollars” as the direct object.

6. active voice: S + TV + DO + OC (his neighbor)

He considers his neighbor a brave hero.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence is in active voice and includes all components: the subject “He,” the transitive verb “considers,” the given noun phrase “his neighbor” as the direct object, and the object complement “a brave hero.”

7. passive voice (in the afternoon)

Our special dish will be served in the afternoon.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence is in passive voice and includes all components: the subject “Our special dish,” the passive verb “will be served,” and the given prepositional phrase “in the afternoon” as the modifier.

8. passive voice: when you do not know who performed the action (in 1982)

This policy was introduced in 1982.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence is in passive voice when the performer is unknown, and it includes all components: the subject “This policy,” the passive verb “was introduced,” and the given prepositional phrase “in 1982” as the modifier.

9. passive voice: when you do not want to mention the doer of the action (the file)

The confidential document file was shared with our business rivals.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence is in passive voice when the doer is not mentioned, and it includes all components: the given noun phrase “the file” in the subject “The confidential document file,” the passive verb “was shared,” and the prepositional phrase “with our business rivals” as the modifier.

10. passive voice: when you want to sound objective (two kids)

It is believed that two kids were kidnapped three months ago.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence is in passive voice to sound objective, and it includes all components: the subject “It,” the passive verb “is believed,” and the given noun phrase “two kids” in the noun clause “that two kids were kidnapped three months ago.”

Note: Variations that follow the directions and maintain grammatical accuracy are considered correct.

The Sharper Zone

The answers may vary.

Sample Answer:

S + TV + IO + DO

Source/ Credit:

Cyrus, M. (2023). *Flowers* [Song lyrics]. Genius. <https://genius.com/Miley-cyrus-flowers-lyrics>

Original lyrics: I can buy myself flowers.

My lyrics: I will give my cat towers.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence in the original lyrics has the required sentence structure: the subject “I,” the transitive verb “can buy,” the indirect object “myself,” and the direct object “flowers.”
- My lyrics also has the same sentence structure: the subject “I,” the transitive verb “will give,” the indirect object “my cat,” and the direct object “towers.”

Note: Variations that follow the directions and maintain grammatical accuracy are considered correct.

The Master Zone

The answers may vary.

Sample Answers:

Source/ Credit:

Graham, L. (2015). *7 years* [Song lyrics]. Genius. <https://genius.com/Lukas-graham-7-years-lyrics>

Original Lyrics:

[Chorus]

Lines 1-4: S + LV + SC

S + TV + IO + DO

Line 5: S + LV + SC

[Verse 1]

Lines 6-7: S + LV + SC

S + TV + DO

...

Explanation for *Self-Directed Learning*:

- The original lyrics have the following sentence structures:

- Lines 1-4:

S + LV + SC

The subject: I

The linking verb: was

The subject complement: seven years old

S + TV + IO + DO

The subject: my mama

The transitive verb: told

The indirect object: me

The direct object: "Go make yourself some friends or you'll be lonely"

- Line 5:

S + LV + SC

The subject: I

The linking verb: was

The subject complement: seven years old

- Lines 6-7:
 - S + LV + SC
 - The subject: It
 - The linking verb: was
 - The subject complement: a big, big world
 - S + TV + DO
 - The subject: we
 - The transitive verb: thought
 - The direct object: we were bigger (*a noun clause: that we were bigger*)
 - ...

Your Version:

In High School

[Chorus]

Lines 1-4: Once, I was in high school, my teacher
 asked me
 “Why don’t you pay attention, or do you want to get a detention?”

Line 5: Once, I was in high school

[Verse 1]

Lines 6-7: It was such a boring place, and we thought we
 would escape

...

Explanation for *Self-Directed Learning*:

- My version has the following sentence structures:
 - Lines 1-4:

S + LV + SC

The subject: I

The linking verb: was

The subject complement: in high school

S + TV + IO + DO

The subject: my teacher

The transitive verb: asked

The indirect object: me

The direct object: “Why don’t you pay attention, or do you want to get a detention?”

- Line 5:

S + LV + SC

The subject: I

The linking verb: was

The subject complement: in high school

- Lines 6-7:

S + LV + SC

The subject: It

The linking verb: was

The subject complement: such a boring place

S + TV + DO

The subject: we

The transitive verb: thought

The direct object: we would escape (*a noun clause: that we would escape*)

...

Note: Variations that follow the directions and maintain grammatical accuracy are considered correct.

UNIT V

The Starter Zone

1. Tell me why you did that if you want to get the second chance.

Imperative mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence gives a command to ask a person to do something, starting with the verb “Tell” and the implied subject “you.”

2. If I were him, I would quit that job.

Subjunctive mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence expresses a present unreal condition, starting with “If” to respond to the current situation by imagining a different one.

3. You know that you deserve better than that.

Indicative mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence gives information or states the fact through the positive declarative sentence or statement.

4. Don't tell me you were the person who broke her heart!

Imperative mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence gives a command to tell a person not to do something, starting with the negative form of the verb "Don't tell" and the implied subject "you."

5. Isn't that clear enough?

Interrogative mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence asks a question in the form of a yes-no question because it expects an answer of yes or no, starting with the auxiliary verb "Is" and ending with the question mark.

6. I just can't believe you said that.

Indicative mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence gives information or states the fact through the negative declarative sentence or statement.

7. I wish he would come back and live with us.

Subjunctive mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence expresses a future wish, responding to the situation by showing a desire for what might happen.

8. I won't believe you anymore!

Exclamatory mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence expresses a strong feeling in the negative declarative sentence or statement ending with the exclamation point.

9. Let's talk about that problem together.

Imperative mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence gives an inclusive command starting with "Let's" followed by the infinitive phrase without to, responding to the situation by asking others to do something together.

10. My mom suggested that we stay away from him.

Subjunctive mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence expresses a suggestion with the indicative verb “suggested” in one clause and the subjunctive verb “stay” in the other clause, responding to the situation by guiding a person to do something.

11. Please be nice to her.

Imperative mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence gives a polite request as it starts with “Please” followed by the verb “be” and the implied subject “you.”

12. What a crazy man he is!

Exclamatory mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence expresses a strong feeling, starting with the exclamatory pronoun “What” and ending with the exclamation point.

13. Why do we have to go there together?

Interrogative mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence asks a question for information, starting with the interrogative word “Why” and ending with the question mark.

14. Why don't we share this good news with him?

Imperative mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence gives a suggestion of a shared action in the question form, starting with “Why don't we” followed by the infinitive phrase without to, responding to the situation by encouraging collaboration to do something.

15. How fantastic!

Exclamatory mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence expresses a strong feeling, starting with the exclamatory pronoun “How” and ending with the exclamation point.

16. How about taking a nap?

Imperative mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence gives a suggestion in the question form, starting with “How about” followed by the gerund phrase, responding to the situation by asking another person to consider an alternative action.

17. If Joe had told me about his girlfriend’s accident, I would have helped him.

Subjunctive mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence expresses a past unreal condition starting with “If,” responding to the situation by imagining a different past.

18. Oh, she is not a person you can trust!

Exclamatory mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence expresses a strong feeling, starting with the interjection “Oh” followed by the negative declarative sentence or statement and ending with the exclamation point, responding to the negative situation by showing a person’s disapproval.

19. Time is running out, so we can't wait any longer.

Indicative mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence gives information or states the fact through the positive and negative declarative sentence or statement.

20. No one wants to join our team.

Indicative mood

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- The sentence gives information or states the fact through the negative declarative sentence or statement.

The Builder Zone

The answers may vary.

Sample Answers:

Situation B:

1. Indicative mood: a positive declarative sentence/ statement

You look sad.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- "You look sad" is in an indicative mood because it states a fact, and it is the positive declarative sentence/ statement because it affirms a person's mood, responding to the situation by expressing an observation.

2. Indicative mood: a negative declarative sentence/ statement

I don't like seeing you like this.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “I don't like seeing you like this” is in an indicative mood because it states a fact, and it is the negative declarative sentence/ statement because it expresses dislike, responding to the situation by showing a reaction.

3. Interrogative mood: a yes/no question

Are you OK?

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Are you OK?” is in an interrogative mood because it asks the yes/no question as it expects an answer of yes or no, responding to the situation by checking on a person's well-being.

4. Interrogative mood: a question with an interrogative word

What's wrong with you?

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “What's wrong with you?” is in an interrogative mood because it asks a question starting with the interrogative word “What,” responding to the situation by asking for information about a person's problem.

5. Imperative mood

Eat your lunch.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Eat your lunch” is in an imperative mood because it gives a command, responding to the situation by telling a person to do something.

6. Imperative mood: a negative command

Don't be sad.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Don't be sad” is in an imperative mood because it gives a negative command as it tells a person not to do something, responding to the situation by advising a person.

7. Imperative mood: please

Please tell me what happened.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Please tell me what happened” is in an imperative mood because it gives a polite request, starting with “Please” and responding to the situation by politely requesting someone to provide information.

8. Imperative mood: let's

Let's figure it out together.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Let's figure it out together” is in an imperative mood because it gives an inclusive command, responding to the situation by asking others to do something together.

9. Imperative mood: let

Let me tell you why you shouldn't care about it.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Let me tell you why you shouldn't care about it” is in an imperative mood because it is a request for permission to do something, responding to the situation by asking for another person's consent.

10. Imperative mood: how about

How about having lunch somewhere else?

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “How about having lunch somewhere else?” is in an imperative mood because it gives a suggestion, responding to the situation by asking another person to consider an alternative action.

11. Imperative mood: why don't you

Why don't you say anything?

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Why don't you say anything?” is in an imperative mood because it gives a suggestion, responding to the situation by encouraging another person to do something.

12. Imperative mood: why don't we

Why don't we go through it together?

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Why don't we go through it together?” is in an imperative mood because it gives a suggestion of a shared action, responding to the situation by encouraging collaboration to do something.

13. Exclamatory mood: a positive statement

I do care about you!

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “I do care about you!” is in an exclamatory mood because it expresses a strong emotion, responding to the situation by showing a person's strong feeling.

14. Exclamatory mood: a negative statement

You can't be like this for the whole lunch!

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “You can't be like this for the whole lunch!” is in an exclamatory mood because it expresses a strong emotion, responding to the negative situation by showing a person's disapproval.

15. Exclamatory mood: an exclamatory pronoun: what

What an awkward situation!

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “What an awkward situation!” is in an exclamatory mood because it expresses a strong emotion, starting with the exclamatory pronoun “What” to emphasize a person's discomfort in such a situation.

16. Exclamatory mood: an exclamatory pronoun: how

How sad!

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “How sad!” is in an exclamatory mood because it expresses a strong emotion, starting with the exclamatory pronoun “How” to emphasize a person's sorrow in such a situation.

17. Exclamatory mood: an interjection with the sentence with a comma

Uh-oh, I think I can guess now!

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Uh-oh, I think I can guess now!” is in an exclamatory mood because it expresses a strong emotion, starting with the interjection “Uh-oh” to emphasize a sudden realization.

18. Exclamatory mood: an interjection with the sentence *without* a comma

Oh! That’s so sad!

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “Oh! That’s so sad!” is in an exclamatory mood because it expresses a strong emotion, starting with the interjection “Oh!” to emphasize a sudden feeling in the situation.

19. Subjunctive mood: a suggestion, recommendation, or demand

I suggest you tell me everything.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “I suggest you tell me everything” is in a subjunctive mood because it expresses a recommendation, responding to the situation by guiding a person to do something.

20. Subjunctive mood: a present wish

I wish you were not sad like this.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “I wish you were not sad like this” is in a subjunctive mood because it expresses a present wish, responding to the situation by showing a desire for the present situation that cannot be changed.

21. Subjunctive mood: a past wish

I wish Jane had not told you to do that.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “I wish Jane had not told you to do that” is in a subjunctive mood because it expresses a past wish, responding to the situation by showing a desire to change what already happened.

22. Subjunctive mood: a future wish

I wish he would come back to you.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “I wish he would come back to you” is in a subjunctive mood because it expresses a future wish, responding to the situation by showing a desire for what might happen.

23. Subjunctive mood: a present unreal condition

If I were you, I would not do that.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “If I were you, I would not do that” is in a subjunctive mood because it expresses a present unreal condition, responding to the current situation by imagining a different one.

24. Subjunctive mood: a past unreal condition

If you had known it before, you would have not done that.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “If you had known it before, you would have not done that” is in a subjunctive mood because it expresses a past unreal condition, responding to the situation by imagining a different past.

25. Subjunctive mood: a future unreal condition

If he gave you a second chance, would you take it?

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- “If he gave you a second chance, would you take it?” is in a subjunctive mood because it expresses a future unreal condition, responding to the situation by imagining a possible condition.

Note: Variations that follow the directions and maintain grammatical accuracy are considered correct.

The Sharper Zone

The answers may vary.

Sample Answer:

Source/ Credit:

Kanell, J. (2021, April 1). *Lemon tart*. Preppy Kitchen. <https://preppykitchen.com/lemon-merengue-tarts/>

The text I chose is the recipe, a lemon tart recipe. This genre of writing mainly reflects the imperative mood as it uses imperatives or commands to instruct the readers to follow each step to make the lemon tart. The author uses this mood as a dominant mood in writing his recipe because he wants to give direct instructions to the readers, so they can understand what to do easily and follow him step by step. If the recipe is written in other moods, such as the indicative mood, it will be more like a lecture or report to give information to the readers. Therefore, the text may fail to give instructions to the readers.

Note: Variations that follow the directions and maintain grammatical accuracy are considered correct.

The Master Zone

The answers may vary.

Sample Answer:

On a video call

Ken: Hi, Betty, how are you doing? [Interrogative mood]

Betty: Oh, Ken, it's been a thousand years! [Exclamatory mood] Where have you been?
[Interrogative mood]

Ken: Sorry, I've just been really busy. [Indicative mood]

Betty: I wish you had spent more time with me. [Subjunctive mood]

Ken: I'm sorry. [Indicative mood] Why don't we start tonight then? [Imperative mood]

Note: Variations that follow the directions and maintain grammatical accuracy are considered correct.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

Ken: "Hi, Betty, how are you doing?" [Interrogative mood]

- The conversation starts with a short greeting before the character asks a question about his friend condition or feelings [Interrogative mood].

Betty: Oh, Ken, it's been a thousand years! [Exclamatory mood] Where have you been?
[Interrogative mood]

- The other character responds with a surprise [Exclamatory mood] before asking a question about her friend's whereabouts [Interrogative mood].

Ken: Sorry, I've just been really busy. [Indicative mood]

- The first character then gives information as a response [Indicative mood].

Betty: I wish you had spent more time with me. [Subjunctive mood]

- The second character reacts with a past tense wish to respond to the situation in the past both of them had been through [Subjunctive mood].

Ken: I'm sorry. [Indicative mood] Why don't we start tonight then? [Imperative mood]

- Finally, the first character expresses his feelings about the past that cannot be changed [Indicative mood] before asking his friend to start doing something together [Imperative mood].

UNIT VI

The Starter Zone

CD 1. My father is a singer, but he cannot dance.

IC + IC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “My father is a singer” and “he cannot dance” joined by a coordinating conjunction “but” and separated by a comma.

S 2. Jonathan is the youngest child in our family.

IC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a simple sentence consisting of one independent clause “Jonathan is the youngest child in our family” in the S-V sentence structure.

CD-CX 3. When Bob told her, she was quite shocked, but she did not ask why he did that.

DC + IC + IC + DC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound-complex sentence consisting of two independent clauses “she was quite shocked” and “she did not ask” and two dependent clauses “When Bob told her” and “why he did that” joined by a coordinating conjunction “but” and separated by a comma.

CX 4. That scary movie was the reason why I woke up in the middle of the night.

IC + DC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a complex sentence consisting of one independent clause “That scary movie was the reason” and one dependent clause “why I woke up in the middle of the night.”

CX 5. Jim is Italian although his parents are Russian.

IC + DC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a complex sentence consisting of one independent clause “Jim is Italian” and one dependent clause “although his parents are Russian.”

S 6. Samatha and I will have a quick look at it before submission.

IC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a simple sentence consisting of one independent clause “Samatha and I will have a quick look at it before submission” in the SS-V sentence structure.

CD-CX 7. His mother asked me if I was fine, and I said yes.

IC + DC + IC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound-complex sentence consisting of two independent clauses “His mother asked me” and “I said yes” and one dependent clause “if I was fine” joined by a coordinating conjunction “and” and separated by a comma.

S 8. Within a blink of an eye, he disappeared.

IC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a simple sentence consisting of one independent clause “Within a blink of an eye, he disappeared” in the S-V sentence structure.

CD-CX 9. Laura never tells her husband about her problem; thus, he never knows what she has been through.

IC + IC + DC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound-complex sentence consisting of two independent clauses: “Laura never tells her husband about her problem” and “he never knows” and one dependent clause: “what she has been through” joined by a conjunctive adverb “thus” with a semicolon preceding it and a comma following it.

CD 10. Vicky and her friends must join our club; otherwise, we do not have enough members to run the big project.

IC + IC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “Vicky and her friends must join our club” and “we do not have enough members to run the big project” joined by a conjunctive adverb “otherwise” with a semicolon preceding it and a comma following it.

CD 11. Either you talk to her, or you completely ignore her.

IC +IC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses: “you talk to her” and “you completely ignore her” joined by a correlative conjunction “Either...or” and separated by a comma.

CX 12. She talked as if she were in such a situation.

IC + DC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a complex sentence consisting of one independent clause “She talked” and one dependent clause “as if she were in such a situation.”

CD 13. I want to buy a new smartphone; I don't have enough money.

IC + IC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “I want to buy a new smartphone” and “I don't have enough money” joined by a semicolon.

CX 14. While that dog was barking, she was trying to escape from there though it seemed hopeless during that time.

DC + IC + DC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a complex sentence consisting of one independent clause “she was trying to escape from there” and two dependent clauses “While that dog was barking” and “though it seemed hopeless during that time.”

CX 15. Our budget is so tight that it is impossible to pay for maintenance.

IC + DC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a complex sentence consisting of one independent clause “Our budget is so tight” and one dependent clause “that it is impossible to pay for maintenance.”

CX 16. Our team was discussing the same issue someone raised in the meeting last week over and over again until lunch.

IC + DC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a complex sentence consisting of one independent clause “Our team was discussing the same issue over and over again until lunch” and one dependent clause “someone raised in the meeting last week.”

CX 17. As I told you, they didn’t care.

DC + IC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a complex sentence consisting of one independent clause “they didn’t care” and one dependent clause “As I told you.”

CD-CX18. Don’t ask me why I am here, but you should ask him why he is not.

IC + DC + IC + DC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound-complex sentence consisting of two independent clauses “Don’t ask me” and “you should ask him” and two dependent clauses “why I am here” and “why he is not” joined by a coordinating conjunction “but” and separated by a comma.

S 19. Before sunset, they hurried back to the pier.

IC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a simple sentence consisting of one independent clause “Before sunset, they hurried back to the pier” in the S-V sentence structure.

CD 20. Joe gave me a simple answer: he said no without hesitation.

IC + IC

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “Joe gave me a simple answer” and “he said no without hesitation” joined by a colon.

The Builder Zone

The answers may vary.

Sample Answers:

1. a simple sentence (S-V) (the busy street)

I walk on the busy street.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a simple sentence consisting of one independent clause “I walk on the busy street” in the S-V sentence structure with the given noun phrase “the busy street” as the prepositional object.
 - Subject: I

- Verb: walk

2. a simple sentence (S-VV) (tonight)

Mark will wake up and finish his assignment tonight.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a simple sentence consisting of one independent clause “Mark will wake up and finish his assignment tonight” in the S-VV sentence structure with the given adverb “tonight” as the modifier.
 - Subject: Mark
 - Verb: will wake up ... (will) finish

3. a simple sentence (S-VVV) (outside)

The kids are playing, singing, and dancing outside.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a simple sentence consisting of one independent clause “The kids are playing, singing, and dancing outside” in the S-VVV sentence structure with the given adverb “outside” as the modifier.
 - Subject: The kids
 - Verb: are playing, (are) singing, ...(are) dancing

4. a simple sentence (SS-V) (pretty well)

My friends and I did pretty well on the test.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a simple sentence consisting of one independent clause “My friends and I did pretty well on the test” in the SS-V sentence structure with the given adverb phrase “pretty well” as the modifier.
 - Subject: My friends...I
 - Verb: did

5. a simple sentence (SS-VV) (behind the closed door)

Our sons and their babysitter are talking and laughing behind the closed door.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a simple sentence consisting of one independent clause “Our sons and their babysitter are talking and laughing behind the closed door” in the SS-VV sentence structure with the given prepositional phrase “behind the closed door” as the modifier.
 - Subject: Our sons... their babysitter
 - Verb: are talking... (are) laughing

6. a simple sentence (SSS-V) (quite smoothly)

Anthony, Jack, and I joined the meeting online quite smoothly.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a simple sentence consisting of one independent clause “Anthony, Jack, and I joined the meeting online quite smoothly” in the SSS-V sentence structure with the given adverb phrase “quite smoothly” as the modifier.

- Subject: Anthony, Jack, ... I
- Verb: joined

7. a compound sentence with a coordinating conjunction: for (his familiar face)

I greet him, for I can recognize his familiar face.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “I greet him” and “I can recognize his familiar face” joined by a coordinating conjunction “for” and separated by a comma with the given noun phrase “his familiar face” as the direct object of the verb “recognize.”

8. a compound sentence with a coordinating conjunction: and (after the movie)

I went home after the movie, and I took a nap all afternoon.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “I went home after the movie” and “I took a nap all afternoon” joined by a coordinating conjunction “and” and separated by a comma with the given prepositional phrase “after the movie” as the modifier.

9. a compound sentence with a coordinating conjunction: nor (for hours)

I haven't chatted with him for hours, nor can I spot him online.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses "I haven't chatted with him for hours" and "can I spot him online" joined by a coordinating conjunction "nor" and separated by a comma with the given prepositional phrase "for hours" as the modifier.

10. a compound sentence with a coordinating conjunction: but (quite handsome)

Helen's son is quite handsome, but he is shy.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses "Helen's son is quite handsome" and "he is shy" joined by a coordinating conjunction "but" and separated by a comma with the given adjective phrase "quite handsome" as the subject complement.

11. a compound sentence with a coordinating conjunction: or (fresh bread)

I will have some fresh bread with peanut butter and jelly for breakfast, or I will skip it.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses "I will have some fresh bread with peanut butter and jelly for breakfast" and "I will skip it" joined by a coordinating conjunction "or" and separated by a comma with the given noun phrase "fresh bread" as the direct object of the verb phrase "will have."

12. a compound sentence with a coordinating conjunction: yet (Instagram)

I haven't posted anything on my Instagram account for years, yet the number of my followers is increasing.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses "I haven't posted anything on my Instagram account for years" and "the number of my followers is increasing" joined by a coordinating conjunction "yet" and separated by a comma with the given noun "Instagram" as the pre-nominal modifier of the noun "account."

13. a compound sentence with a coordinating conjunction: so (without any hesitation)

The offer was amazing, so he accepted it without any hesitation.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses "The offer was amazing" and "he accepted it without any hesitation" joined by a coordinating conjunction "so" and separated by a comma with the given prepositional phrase "without any hesitation" as the modifier.

14. a compound sentence with a correlative conjunction: Either...or (inside the dark room)

Either our cat is sleeping inside the dark room, or it is playing in the backyard.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses "our cat is sleeping inside the dark room" and "it is playing in the backyard" joined by a correlative conjunction "Either...or" and separated by a comma with the given prepositional phrase "inside the dark room" as the modifier.

15. a compound sentence with a correlative conjunction: Neither...nor (this morning)

Neither did Jennifer wake up this morning, nor did she go to work.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “did Jennifer wake up this morning” and “did she go to work” joined by a correlative conjunction “Neither...nor” and separated by a comma with the given noun phrase “this morning” as the modifier.

16. a compound sentence with a correlative conjunction: Not only...but also (nobody)

Not only did nobody say anything, but everyone also refused to take any action.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “did nobody say anything” and “everyone also refused to take any action” joined by a correlative conjunction “Not only...but also” and separated by a comma with the given pronoun “nobody” as the subject of the first independent clause.

17. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show contrast/ opposition (Christmas)

Christmas is my favorite holiday; however, some people don't like it.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “Christmas is my favorite holiday” and “some people don't like it” joined by a conjunctive adverb “however” with a semicolon preceding it and a comma following it and the given noun “Christmas” as the subject of the first independent clause.

18. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show addition/ reinforcement (with me)

My husband will go on a business trip with me next week; moreover, our honeymoon trip will be the week after.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “My husband will go on a business trip with me next week” and “our honeymoon trip will be the week after” joined by a conjunctive adverb “moreover” with a semicolon preceding it and a comma following it and the given prepositional phrase “with me” as the modifier.

19. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show cause and effect (too difficult)

The examination was too difficult; therefore, many students failed.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “The examination was too difficult” and “many students failed” joined by a conjunctive adverb “therefore” with a semicolon preceding it and a comma following it and the given adjective phrase “too difficult” as the subject complement.

20. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show restatement/ clarification (on time)

Joe is punctual; in other words, he always comes on time.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “Joe is punctual” and “he always comes on time” joined by a conjunctive adverb “in other words” with a semicolon preceding it and a comma following it and the given prepositional phrase “on time” as the modifier.

21. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show comparison/ similarity (mistakes)

Kathy made a lot of mistakes on the test; similarly, Sam messed up the answers.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “Kathy made a lot of mistakes on the test” and “Sam messed up the answers” joined by a conjunctive adverb “similarly” with a semicolon preceding it and a comma following it and the given noun “mistakes” as the head of the noun phrase “a lot of mistakes.”

22. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show emphasis (energy)

Sam seems to have low energy after his busy week; in fact, he feels drained.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “Sam seems to have low energy after his busy week” and “he feels drained” joined by a conjunctive adverb “in fact” with a semicolon preceding it and a comma following it and the given noun “energy” as the head of the noun phrase “low energy.”

23. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show illustration (at night)

I do several things at night; for example, I watch Chinese series.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “I do several things at night” and “I watch Chinese series” joined by a conjunctive adverb “for example” with a semicolon preceding it and a comma following it and the given prepositional phrase “at night” as the modifier.

24. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show condition (too hot)

The air conditioner should be on all the time; otherwise, it is too hot in that room.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “The air conditioner should be on all the time” and “it is too hot in that room” joined by a conjunctive adverb “otherwise” with a semicolon preceding it and a comma following it and the given adjective phrase “too hot” as the subject complement.

25. a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb to show alternative (in July)

I will go to see you there in July; alternatively, you will come to see me here in September.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “I will go to see you there in July” and “you will come to see me here in September” joined by a conjunctive adverb “alternatively” with a semicolon preceding it and a comma following it and the given prepositional phrase “in July” as the modifier.

26. a compound sentence with a semicolon (everyone)

Everyone enjoyed the show; it was really amazing.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “Everyone enjoyed the show” and “it was really amazing” joined by a semicolon with the given pronoun “everyone” as the subject of the first independent clause.

27. a compound sentence with a colon (almost impossible)

It is almost impossible: Dan won the first prize in the lottery.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound sentence consisting of two independent clauses “It is almost impossible” and “Dan won the first prize in the lottery” joined by a colon with the given adjective phrase “almost impossible” as the subject complement.

28. a complex sentence (enough)

I can't buy that house as I don't have enough money.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a complex sentence consisting of one independent clause “I can't buy that house” and one dependent clause “as I don't have enough money” joined by a subordinating conjunction “as” with the given determiner “enough” as the pre-nominal modifier of the noun “money.”

29. a compound-complex sentence (advanced technology)

Advanced technology makes our life easier, but we should use it carefully because it can be harmful if we do not use it properly.

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

- It is a compound-complex sentence consisting of two independent clauses “Advanced technology makes our life easier” and “we should use it carefully” and two dependent clauses “because it can be harmful” and “if we do not use it properly” joined by a coordinating conjunction “but” with the given noun phrase “advanced technology” as the subject of the first independent clause.

Note: Variations that follow the directions and maintain grammatical accuracy are considered correct.

The Sharper Zone

The answers may vary.

Sample Answer:

Julia is a quiet woman who lives in an old brick house which is the oldest bakery in the village. Every morning, she wakes up at 4:30 to prepare all the ingredients, and then she starts baking chocolate chip cookies, bread, and cake. When they are all ready, she arranges them on the trays in the display counter. As the bakery is open, an old man walks in, so she greets him warmly. He asks for a cup of hot coffee and a chocolate chip cookie. She tells him that it is 3 dollars, but he tells her that he has no money. She looks concerned when he smiles. Finally, she asks him to sit at the table, so he sits by the broken window. After that, she serves him a cup of hot coffee, a cookie, and a slice of vanilla cake with a strawberry on top; however, he asks her why. She says, “It is cold outside. One cookie is not enough to keep you warm on a cold day.”

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

From 3 Simple Sentences to 1 Complex Sentence in Sentence No. 1

Julia is a quiet woman. She lives in an old brick house. Her house is the oldest bakery in the village.

Sentence No. 1: Julia is a quiet woman who lives in an old brick house which is the oldest bakery in the village.

From 4 Simple Sentences to 1 Compound Sentence in Sentence No. 2

Every morning, she wakes up at 4:30 to prepare all the ingredients. She starts baking chocolate chip cookies. She bakes bread. She bakes the cake.

Sentence No. 2: Every morning, she wakes up at 4:30 to prepare all the ingredients, and then she starts baking chocolate chip cookies, bread, and cake.

From 2 Simple Sentences to 1 Complex Sentence in Sentence No. 3

They are all ready. She arranges them on the trays in the display counter.

Sentence No. 3: When they are all ready, she arranges them on the trays in the display counter.

From 3 Simple Sentences to 1 Compound-Complex Sentence in Sentence No. 4

The bakery is open. An old man walks in. She greets him warmly.

Sentence No. 4: As the bakery is open, an old man walks in, so she greets him warmly.

From 2 Simple Sentences to 1 Simple Sentence in Sentence No. 5

He asks for a cup of hot coffee. He asks for a chocolate chip cookie.

Sentence No. 5: He asks for a cup of hot coffee and a chocolate chip cookie.

From 4 Simple Sentences to 1 Compound-Complex Sentence in Sentence No. 6

She tells him. It is 3 dollars. He tells her. He has no money.

Sentence No. 6: She tells him that it is 3 dollars, but he tells her that he has no money.

From 2 Simple Sentences to 1 Complex Sentence in Sentence No. 7

She looks concerned. He smiles.

Sentence No. 7: She looks concerned when he smiles.

From 2 Simple Sentences to 1 Compound Sentence in Sentence No. 8

She asks him to sit at the table. He sits by the broken window.

Sentence No. 8: Finally, she asks him to sit at the table, so he sits by the broken window.

From 4 Simple Sentences to 1 Compound Sentence in Sentence No. 9

She serves him a cup of hot coffee. She serves him a cookie. She serves him a slice of vanilla cake with a strawberry on top. He asks her why.

Sentence No. 9: After that, she serves him a cup of hot coffee, a cookie, and a slice of vanilla cake with a strawberry on top; however, he asks her why.

From 3 Simple Sentences to 1 Simple Sentence with a Dialog in Sentence No. 10

She says. It is cold outside. One cookie is not enough to keep you warm on a cold day.

Sentence No. 10: She says, “It is cold outside. One cookie is not enough to keep you warm on a cold day.”

Note: Variations that follow the directions and maintain grammatical accuracy are considered correct.

The Master Zone

The answers may vary.

Sample Answer:

Dr. Silly & Her Crazy Drink

At Coco Bar in Penelope City at midnight, hundreds of teenagers were dancing to Taylor Swift’s Shake It Off. [Indicative mood/ Simple sentence]

The loud music forced everyone to yell to be heard. [Indicative mood/ Simple sentence]

In such a lively atmosphere, I sat angrily with Mojito stains that I got from someone who spilt it all down my brand-new crop top, but they didn't even care to say sorry. [Indicative mood/ Compound-complex sentence]

When Richard spotted me, he shouted at the top of his voice. [Indicative mood/ Complex sentence]

“You look gorgeous tonight!” [Exclamatory mood/ Simple sentence]

...

Explanation for Self-Directed Learning:

At Coco Bar in Penelope City at midnight, hundreds of teenagers were dancing to Taylor Swift's Shake It Off. [Indicative mood/ Simple sentence]

- This simple sentence has one independent clause to set the scene.

The loud music forced everyone to yell to be heard. [Indicative mood/ Simple sentence]

- This simple sentence has one independent clause to provide more information about the scene.

In such a lively atmosphere, I sat angrily with Mojito stains that I got from someone who spilt it all down my brand-new crop top, but they didn't even care to say sorry. [Indicative mood/ Compound-complex sentence]

- This compound-complex sentence has two independent clauses “I sat angrily with Mojito stains” and “they didn't even care to say sorry” and two dependent clauses “that I got from someone” and “who spilt it all down my brand-new crop top” functioning as adjective clauses to present the situation of the main character.

When Richard spotted me, he shouted at the top of his voice. [Indicative mood/ Complex sentence]

- This complex sentence has one dependent clause “When Richard spotted me” and one independent clause “he shouted at the top of his voice” to introduce the second character and his first interaction with the main character.

“You look gorgeous tonight!” [Exclamatory mood/ Simple sentence]

- This simple sentence in the dialogue expresses the strong feeling the second character has when first seeing the first character.

Note: Variations that follow the directions and maintain grammatical accuracy are considered correct.

Concluding Remarks

Overall, this textbook provides English structure and sentence writing tools to equip EFL students with not only fundamental grammatical and syntactic knowledge but also writing skills to produce correct and meaningful English sentences. Due to EFL student writers' limited language proficiency and the fact that writing is typically regarded as the most difficult language skill to master even for native speakers, English sentence structures are decoded to explicitly exhibit both the English sentences' core parts and modifiers in this textbook. By doing so, it eases their comprehension and construction of English sentence structures. Unlike other existing teaching and learning materials, this textbook is specifically designed to be both applicable and practical. That is, the content in each unit is a manageable size to make sure that it is not overwhelming for Generation Z EFL students; otherwise, it possibly ends up with the negative impact; that is, they will learn nothing if they are forced to learn everything. Furthermore, since English is not their mother tongue, an effective way for these students to learn and master the most difficult language skill of the other language sentence structures is to learn through comparative analysis between the two language sentence structures, especially when both language sentence structures are different as pointed out in this textbook and revealed in the study of Suthiwartnarueput (2015) that this instructional approach or learning strategy helps improve EFL students' writing ability. In so doing, the students' awareness of such syntactic differences can be raised in order that their L1 interference can be eliminated when writing in a foreign language. However, it is worth noting that their intralingual interference probably takes some time for them to reduce such grammatical errors in English sentence writing as it requires more exposure to the language itself and more practice to acquire such a skill. Hopefully, this teaching and learning material can be recognized as another effective tool, fostering Generation Z EFL students to master English sentence writing with the appropriate and accurate usage of English sentence structures for an effective written communication.

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English Structure and Sentence Writing is a textbook, specifically designed for Generation Z novice EFL English major student writers. Based on the communicative language teaching approach, the key attributes of English structure and sentence writing: mechanics of writing and structural differences of English phrases, clauses, and sentences, along with the core components and modifiers are highlighted. The content is delivered in a scaffolded format to facilitate their understanding and practical application. Remarkably, the inclusion of textual analysis of authentic input from multimedia and personalized communicative application, bridging theory and practice, helps enrich their language learning experience and support their sentence writing development beyond the scope of traditional instruction to better suit Generation Z learners.

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