



# ENGLISH STRUCTURE AND SENTENCE WRITING FOR ENGLISH MAJORS

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English Language Program  
Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences  
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## Preface

The textbook entitled “English Structure and Sentence Writing for English Majors” is specifically designed to teach first-year students who are majoring in English at Thaksin University, Songkhla. They are called EFL student writers who require intensive instruction based on theories and practices in English grammatical structures in order to compose sentences effectively.

In fact, this textbook is written with the basis of a required course “0115104 English Structure and Sentence Writing” for both English Majors and English for Communication and Careers Majors. The course description is detailed as follows: “mechanics of writing; structural differences among phrases, clauses, and sentences; functions of core parts and modifiers in sentential structures; use of sentential structures for effective written communication”. The author is responsible for teaching only English majors.

According to the course description, this textbook covers the contents regarding writing grammatical sentences in English, including writing mechanics, phrases, clauses, introductory sentences, voice, grammar moods, and various sentence types.

Therefore, the overall aim of this textbook is to help EFL student writers to compose sentences efficiently and communicatively by applying writing mechanics, forming phrases, constructing clauses, and analyzing sentence components to create a variety of sentences using voice, grammar moods, and complex structures, as well as to revising and editing sentences accurately.

There are six units. Each has particular contents. **Unit 1, “Mechanics of Writing,”** highlights the differences between British English and American English spelling systems, punctuation marks, and capitalization. **Unit 2, “English Phrases,”** focuses on noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, and prepositional phrases, requiring an analysis of their components and modifiers before forming phrases and integrating them into sentences. **Unit 3, “English Clauses,”** emphasizes noun clauses, adjective clauses, and adverb clauses, involving an analysis of their intricate components and modifiers. **Unit 4, “Introduction to English Sentence Structures,”** underlines components of sentences and voice, allowing students to practice writing subjects and predicates of sentences and to transform active voice sentences into passive voice. **Unit 5, “Grammar Moods,”** underscores the functional or communicative structure of sentences – declarative, imperative, interrogative, exclamative, and subjunctive – enabling students to practice writing using these moods. **Unit 6, “English Sentences for Effective Communication,”** enhances writing sentences grammatically and communicatively through four sentence types – simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex. It also covers common errors in sentence writing which are run-ons, fragments, and comma splices, which students will learn to revise and edit accurately. Overall, all the units may

appear challenging, with the instructor’s guidance and analytical practice, students will be able to write and edit sentences effectively.

The structure of this textbook consists of five parts – objectives and overview, warm-up activity, main contents, a unit summary, and unit tasks. The objectives and overview provide the specific aims and overall content introduced to students before they start learning how to write through this textbook. Next, the warm-up activity is used to motivate students to analyze language items or perform writing activities before they learn the major contents. The main contents are full of theoretical and practical aspects of grammatical structures and sentence writing. They concern detailed grammar features of how sentences can be constructed with phrases, clauses, and other key elements. The author provides several practical exercises at the end of the main contents. The author also uses related studies to illustrate problems in writing sentences, highlighting various issues caused by different factors. This allows students to ensure whether they face similar challenges and help them seek solutions. Furthermore, the unit summary is a crucial note that condenses what they have learned and practiced writing sentences. Moreover, the unit tasks are essential for students to further practice sentence writing. Students can employ both the practical exercises and the unit tasks to write sentences with a variety of grammatical constructions. Besides, they can check whether their sentence writing is correct by reading the possible answers provided in this textbook.

This textbook is useful for English majors who need to strengthen their grammar competence and performance, as well as their sentence-writing skills. Furthermore, it is advantageous for English minors who want to reinforce their grammar and writing competence. Moreover, it can be fruitful for many other EFL students at universities in Thailand and abroad. By using this textbook as a vital toolkit, students will find it worthwhile for enriching their mastery of grammatical structures and sentence composition in English. Additionally, this textbook is beneficial for EFL instructors who are starting to teach English grammar and sentence writing, as it helps them develop their students’ writing ability.

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## Unit 1: Mechanics of Writing

### 1.0 Objectives and Overview

English majors, specifically EFL student writers, need to be familiar with the mechanics of writing before they start writing sentences. Therefore, this unit aims to achieve the following objectives:

- (i) To identify the differences between British English (BE) and American English (AE) spelling.
- (ii) To understand how to use punctuation marks in sentence writing.
- (iii) To master how to use capitalization in writing sentences.
- (iv) To recognize problems in using the mechanics of writing in order to improve their sentence construction.

Many Thai students' interchangeable use of British English (BE) and American English (AE) spelling results in their inconsistent spelling of words used in their sentence writing. Hence, the author attempts to show such differences to help EFL student writers improve their sentence writing. Next, the section on punctuation marks covers only question marks, periods, exclamation marks, colons, semicolons, and commas. Later, the section on capitalization includes pronoun 'I', days-months-holidays, the first word of a sentence, and titles. To help students understand the problems with using mechanics of writing, the author also illustrates certain common errors related to this topic taken from a number of previous studies. Overall, through these objectives and contents, EFL student writers will gain an understanding of key components that mechanically drive their sentence writing, which leads to more effective writing.

### 1.1 Warm-up Activity

**Directions: Read the following sentences and identify their errors in punctuation marks and capitalization as well as inconsistent spelling in British English or American English:**

(1) Mandy studies at university of hongkong

---

(2) she was born on saturday morning.

---

(3) Did you have breakfast

---

(4) Bob likes green color but his sister loves white colour.

---

(5) mr. Somsak Saengsri will visit Chiang Mai in December 2026

---

(6) What a beautiful house

---

(7) We have a lot of cars, we are rich.

---

(8) There are three favorite subjects of mine English, mathematics, and social studies

---

(9) Is your brother sick, isn't he

---

(10) I can't speak Chinese

---

## 1.2 Definition of Mechanics of Writing

Mechanics of writing can refer to particular technical elements or “the itty-bitty building blocks of sentences”, for example, punctuation, capitalization, spelling, among others (Priebe et al., n.d.). Moreover, they represent specific rules a writer needs to follow when he/she wants to achieve writing tasks. The mastery of the rules of grammar called ‘writing mechanics’, can lead to the credibility among readers. Mechanics of writing are definitely related to grammar rules. They can be capitalization, abbreviations, symbols, numbers, italics, and hyphens (Illinois State Board of Education, n.d.). Further, mechanics can be similar to style, especially regarding grammar styles of writing. However, mechanics have distinct meanings. They involve specific elements in which words, sentences, and paragraphs can be combined. Such elements are spelling, punctuation, and grammar, for instance. This definition of mechanics of writing is relevant to the rules of English usage (The World Bank Group, 2012). Mechanics of writing is important because of its goal that enables the writing to meet ‘precision’ and ‘grammatical correctness’ (Chandigarh Engineering College, n.d.). Consequently, we need to learn mechanics of writing before we can start to write phrases, clauses, and sentences. The elements and rules of English grammar for writing are necessary for use to start our sentence structure.

Mechanics of writing appear in various types and sub-types. According to Pence (2025), there are many types of writing mechanics essential for writers: punctuation marks, capitalization, italics, abbreviations, numbers, and spelling. Each type of writing

mechanics has various elements. However, in this textbook, we need to learn only three types of writing mechanics which are vital for sentence structure and writing – spelling, punctuation marks, and capitalization.

### 1.3 Spelling: British English and American English

It is crucial to start learning the mechanics of writing with spelling. It is an orthographic system of English for writers to consider when producing written works. British English and American English spelling systems are used in written English worldwide. Many Thai students seem to be familiar with the American English spelling system rather than the British one. However, some students may be confused with this by using both British English and American English spelling interchangeably in their writing. Indeed, they should choose only British English or American English spelling for the consistency of their writing (Universitat Oberta de Catalunya, n.d.). Look at the list of some British English and American English spellings.

- (1) The digraphs ‘ae’ and ‘oe’ are retained in British English spelling because they originated from French, Latin, and Greek while a bare e is used in American English spelling. For example:

British English	American English
amoeba	ameba
anaemia	anemia
oestrogen	estrogen
paediatrician	pediatrician

Nevertheless, some lexicons in American English can still be spelled with the digraph, even though the bare e spelling is acceptable. Look at the following instances: **aesthetics** (or **esthetics**) / **archaeology** (or **archeology**).

Likewise, particular words in British English may have their spelling with either the digraph or the bare e, for example, **encyclopaedia** (or **encyclopedia**) and **mediaeval** (or **medieval**).

- (2) *-ce/-se*

- In British English, the spelling ‘-ce’ is used for nouns and ‘-se’ for verbs, for example, *a license (to license)* and *some practice (to practise)*.
- In American English, this distinction with some words is preserved, for instance, *some advice (to advise)*; however, the spelling ‘-se’ is used in some other cases: *defense, license, and offense*.

(3) **-e before suffixes**

- Different from American English, British English preserves the final silent **e** in particular words when the suffixes are added. The following examples illustrate this comparison:

<b>British English</b>	<b>American English</b>
acknowledgement	acknowledgment
ageing	aging
judgement	judgment
likeable	likable
sizeable	sizable

Nonetheless, both spellings for some words are accepted in both British English and American English. In this regard, American English seems to have more flexibility than British English such as **acknowledg(e)ment** and **judg(e)ment**. It is noted that in legal contexts, both British English and American English prefer the spelling of **'judgment'**, however.

(4) **-ise/-ize and -yse/-yze**

- British English usually prefers the use of an 's' for the spelling of 'ise' and 'yse' and their related suffixes, namely -isation and -ising. Meanwhile, American English points out the use of only 'z' for this spelling. The following instances illustrate this comparison:

<b>British English</b>	<b>American English</b>
analyse	analyze
maximise	maximize
organise	organize
paralyse	paralyze
synthesise	synthesize

It is noted that some words usually have their spelling form with an 's' in both British English and American English. This is because the spelling **'-ise'** is indeed part of a longer element of the word, for instance, **'-cise'**, **'-prise'**, and **'-vise'**, rather than its separate suffix by itself - **precise**, **exercise**, **concise**, **comprise**, **surprise**, **advise**, and **supervise** (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2026). Meanwhile, some certain words in both varieties of English must be spelled with only 'ize' - **capsize**, **prize**, **seize**, and **size** – according to the Oxford dictionary.

(5) -ll-/-l-

- In British English, the final 'l' is doubly used before the forms '-ed', '-ing', and '-er' are added in words in which a final syllable is unstressed. Nevertheless, this is not applied in American English. This is seen in the following example:

British English	American English
cancellation	cancelation (even though <i>cancellation</i> is also accepted)
labelled	labeled
modelling	modeling
traveller	traveler

- On the contrary, a single l is used in British English, especially in words formed from monosyllabic root words ended in 'll' and many derivatives while the double l is retained in American English. The following examples illustrate this comparison:

British English	American English
enrol	enroll
enrolment	enrollment
fulfil	fulfill
fulfilment	fulfillment
instalment	installment

(6) -ogue/-og :

- The ending '-ogue' is generally used in British English whereas the form '-og' is generally preferred in American English. The following instances illustrate this comparison:

British English	American English
catalogue	catalog (although <i>catalogue</i> is also accepted)
dialogue	dialog
monologue	monolog

(7) *-our/-or* :

- In British English, an unstressed **-our/-or** in which the vowel sound is reduced and pronounced **-er** at the end of words appears in the use of the letter ‘**u**’. However, this is not found in American English. This is evident in the following examples that can be compared:

<b>British English</b>	<b>American English</b>
behaviour	behavior
colour	color
favour	favor
neighbour	neighbor

In this regard, in American English, the vowel sound ‘**u**’ is not reduced when the pronunciation of the ending is ‘**-or**’. This is seen in the words – contour, paramour, and troubadour.

(8) *-re/-er*

- Particular words with the French, Latin, and Greek origins end in the consonant ‘**-re**’ according to the British English spelling. Nevertheless, they have the spelling of ‘**-er**’ in American English. This spelling seems to occur through the preceding consonant ‘**b**’ or ‘**t**’. Look at the following examples:

<b>British English</b>	<b>American English</b>
centre	center
fibre	fiber
litre	liter
theatre	theater

It is worth noting that the word spelled as ‘**metre**’ for the unit of length but ‘**meter**’ for the ‘measuring tool’ is used in British English. Similarly, the spelling form ‘**-re**’ is also retained in some American English words, especially through the preceding consonant ‘**c**’ or the retaining of the original French pronunciation. This is evident in some words - **acre**, **massacre**, **mediocre**, **genre**, **entendre**, but also **macabre**, **timbre**.

(9) *-t/-ed* in past tenses

- The past forms of particular verbs may have the spelling of ‘**-t**’ or ‘**-ed**’ in British English, but they almost exclusively end with the spelling ‘**-ed**’ in American English. The following examples illustrate this comparison:

British English	American English
burnt/burned	burned
dreamt/dreamed	dreamed
learnt/learned	learned

It is noted that the past participle of the verb ‘to get’ is differently used in British English and American English. The forms ‘**get-got-got**’ are generally used in British English, except in the following phrase: ‘ill-gotten gains’. In contrast, the forms ‘**get-got-gotten**’ are used in American English, except with the possessive **have got** (e.g. **I've got three motorcycles**). This is evident in the following examples:

British English: Lily has got the information from the website.

American English: Lily has gotten the information from the website.

(10) *-wards/-ward*

- Although the spelling ‘**-wards**’ is preferred in British English, the spelling ‘**-ward**’ is found in American English. This is illustrated below.

British English	American English
backwards	backward
forwards	forward
towards	toward

In this regard, it is noted that the suffix ‘ward’ seems to be used in both varieties of English, especially through the phrasal verbs such as “**a backward glance, an untoward remark, and to look forward to**”.

(11) Other parts of spelling differences between the two varieties of English are found in the following examples which are not part of the above items (from 1-10):

British English	American English
aluminium	aluminum
cheque ( <i>n.</i> )	check ( <i>n.</i> )
grey	gray
jewellery	jewelry
mould	mold

British English	American English
per cent	percent
plough	plow
programme ( <i>except in computing</i> )	program
sceptical	skeptical
tyre ( <i>n.</i> )	tire ( <i>n.</i> )

Lastly, the words ‘**while**’ and ‘**among**’ can also be written as **whilst** and **amongst**. In fact, the spelling ‘-st’ is commonly used in British English rather than in American English, but both spelling variations are accepted.

**Practice: The following sentences have inconsistent spelling in British English or American English. Please identify and rewrite them correctly.**

Ex. I like this organization because the chair realises the importance of the social benefits of staff members.

Answers: I like this organization because the chair realises the importance of the social benefits of staff members.

I like this organisation because the chair realises the importance of the social benefits of staff members. (British English)

I like this organization because the chair realizes the importance of the social benefits of staff members. (American English)

(1) There are many travellers to Thailand who come to buy jewelry.

\_\_\_\_\_

(2) Chitchai has learnt that his house was burned because of his carelessness.

\_\_\_\_\_

(3) My favorite fruit is watermelon because of its sweet and juicy flavour.

\_\_\_\_\_

## 1.4 Punctuation Marks

Punctuation marks, or punctuation, refer to the system of the use of certain marks or symbols in writing, where different elements in sentences can be separated from each other so that the writing can be clearer (Thesaurus, 2022b). Punctuation

marks seem to embody various elements. With regard to University of the People (2025), there appear to be 14 punctuation marks used in English writing. They are “the period, question mark, exclamation point, comma, colon, semicolon, dash, hyphen, brackets, braces, parentheses, apostrophe, quotation mark, and ellipsis”. According to Thesaurus (2022b), there are 26 types of punctuation marks and typographical symbols which are currently used in English when a writer is writing on a computer. They are *period, question mark, exclamation point, comma, colon, semicolon, hyphen, En dash, Em dash, parentheses, square brackets, curly brackets, angle brackets, quotation marks, apostrophe, slashes, ellipsis, asterisk, ampersand, bullet point, pound symbol, tilde, backslash, at symbol, caret symbol, and pipe symbol*. It could be said that punctuation marks are plentiful. In this textbook, however, we focus on only six sub-types of punctuation marks – the *period, question mark, exclamation mark, colon, semicolon, and comma*.

#### 1.4.1 Periods

According to Ellis (2022b), a period (American English) is called a full stop (British English). It appears as a tiny circle or dot *./.* This type of a punctuation mark is used at the end of a sentence and abbreviations. This punctuation mark is very common as it is used to conclude when you write a sentence. It seems to be easy to use the period, but we need to know that it has rules. Generally, it appears at the bottom of a written line in which the final letter is dotted without a space. For English grammar, it has two major functions – “ending a sentence and indicating an omission”. Firstly, it is to signal when a sentence ends. However, not every sentence can be dotted by a period. Declarative sentences or statements and imperative sentences or commands must be ended with periods. For example:

- Thaksin University is located in Songkhla and Phatthalung.
- Close the window.

Secondly, periods are used for indicating an omission. That is, they are used in abbreviations, for instance, *etc.* and *et al.* This is seen in the following sentences:

- There are many tourist places in Songkhla province: Samila beach, Tongga Chang waterfall, and Koh Yo, *etc.*
- Aldayel et al. (2026) state that English writing is difficult for EFL students.

For other rules, periods cannot be used for interrogative sentences (direct questions) – “Do you have any question?” – because the question mark is used instead. However, periods can be used in indirect questions in the form of declarative sentences. This is seen in the following sentences:

- I want to learn *why English is crucial for everyone*.
- Supida really needs to know what time it is now.

For abbreviations and initials, periods can also be used with titles – Mr., Ms., Dr.

For example:

- *Mr.* Kenny Williams is working at Prince of Songkhla University, Hatyai.
- Ms. Sandy Brown becomes a new instructor at an international school in Phuket.
- Dr. Larry Green is currently an associate professor at a university in the UK.

Additionally, periods in abbreviations are used in time periods – a.m. and p.m. (“ante meridiem”) and *p.m.* (“post meridiem”). However, many people seem to use them as *am* or *pm* without periods.

### 1.4.2 Question marks

A question mark is used to indicate the interrogative form of a sentence. A *wh*-word – *what*, *who*, *where*, *when*, *why*, *which* – are employed to start direct questions (Grammarly, 2024b). For example:

- What did you do last summer?                      Who is your favorite teacher?
- Where is your hometown?                              When was TSU established?
- Why does he want to study Engineering?      Which bus will you take to the mall?

A question mark can also be ended for other interrogative sentences beyond ‘a *wh*-question’. That is, other questions can start with *how*, *verb-be*, *verb-have*, *verb-do*, and other auxiliaries (*will*, *would*, *shall*, *should*, *may*, ...). Look at the following instances:

- How do you do?    Is there anyone living here?
- Have you ever been to Tak?                              Does your mother work here?
- Will you read books?                                      May I help you?

When we have a conversation or talk, the use of a question mark is not shown. In writing, a question mark is shown to signal readers a question form, however (Grammarly, 2024b).

Moreover, a question mark is still used with a direct quotation when it is to repeat the speaker’s exact words (University of Sussex, 2025b). For example:

- “Do you have an eraser I can borrow?” he asked.
- “How many of you can ride motorcycles?” inquired the instructor.

However, an indirect question is not ended with a question mark because the speaker’s exact words are not repeated. For example:

- He asked if I had an eraser he could borrow.
- The instructor asked how many of us could ride motorcycles.

It is noted that these two indirect questions become statements or declarative sentences which require the use of periods, not question marks. Besides, the question mark can also be inserted into the middle of expressions in *parentheses* in order to display the uncertainty of something (University of Sussex, 2025b). Look at the following examples:

- The famous allegorical poem *Piers Plowman* is attributed to William Langland (?1332?1400).
- The Lerga inscription fascinatingly contains the personal name *Vmme Sahar* (?), which looks like perfect Basque.

In the first sentence, the question mark is used to indicate that the dates of the birth and death of the poet are not certain. Likewise, the second sentence is ended with the question mark because it is possible that the reading of the name is doubtful.

### 1.4.3 Exclamation marks

The **exclamation mark** (!) can also be known informally as a *bang* or a *shriek*. It can also be called an exclamation point. It is placed at the end of a sentence or a short phrase with exclamation or interjection which conveys a speaker's strong feelings or emotion or shouting or high volume (Ginger Software, 2025; University of Sussex, 2025a). Look at the following instances:

- What a lovely cat it is!
- That's terrible!
- George, don't touch that!
- Help!
- Aaarrrgh!

These examples seem to be normally written as ordinary speeches or expressions in novels. However, exclamation marks are usually found in informal writing.

Exclamation points are used at the end of a strong command, interjection or emphatic declaration. For example:

- "Stop!" he yelled. "You've got two flat tires!"
- "I've had it with your lies!"
- "Shut your mouth up!"

Moreover, an exclamation mark appears in questions with an exclamation or extreme emotion, especially starting with 'what' or 'how'. For example:

- What a genius my son is!
- How terrible this situation is!
- What is wrong with you! Stop writing on the walls!

- These sentences are only exclamative, not declarative sentences –
- My son is a genius.
  - This situation is terrible.

Furthermore, an exclamation can also be used to indicate the surprise of a statement. For example:

- Nadet does not really like to read books for exam, but he got A !

Writing sentences with exclamation marks seems to be fun because you can express emotions and use the punctuation mark. However, this punctuation mark is rarely used in academic writing since it is often used in journalistic writing.

#### 1.4.4 Colons

With regard to O'Reilly (2023), a colon *:/* is used to introduce an element or series of elements that exemplifies the information that precedes the colon. When a colon is written in a sentence, it normally appears through the patterns – as follows, which is/are, or thus. For examples:

- Write five sentences using the words given **as follows**:
- There are two main components of sentence structure **which are**: subjects and predicates.

A colon has particular functions. It links sentences, emphasizes a word or a phrase, and introduces a quote or explanation. Moreover, it can be used to divide two independent clauses (sentences) when the second one is directly relevant to the first one, or when the emphasis is on the second one. This shows that the colon is used with lists. For instances:

- The Bachelor of Arts degree in English at Thaksin University, Songkhla, consists of two majors: *English* and *English for Communication and Careers*.
- This sentence can also be explained as follows:
- There are three major types of English clauses: *noun clauses*, *adjective clauses*, and *adverb clauses*.

In addition, a colon can be used to signal further clarification of an idea in a sentence.

For example:

- You have only two choices now: continuing this course and studying hard, or withdrawing from the course.

This sentence can be explained as “You have only two choices (and they are as follows:) continuing this course and studying hard, or withdrawing from the course.”

Aside from this, a colon can be used prior to a noun or a noun phrase. Look at the following example:

- The book I have read provides *what I want*: knowledge and entertainment.

Furthermore, a colon can also introduce a quotation. Look at the following instance:

- My English teacher starts the class with the simple *question*: “How have you been doing?”

Next, a colon is also employed to show an example in a sentence.

- There is one reason why Songkhla is geographically different from other provinces in *southern Thailand*: its location on the Songkhla Lake and the Thai Gulf.

Later, colons can be used to separate units of time and ratios. For example:

- 10: 40 p.m.
- 2: 30 a.m.

Moreover, a colon can be used to give titles and subtitles for movies, books, or research topics, etc. For example:

- *English in Thailand: A Reflection of Tenglish*
- *Speed 2: Cruise Control*
- *Highlander II: The Quickening*

Nevertheless, a colon should not be used after the following forms: including and especially.

- I would like to visit many beaches in Phuket, especially Patong, Kata, and Bangtao.

Here you cannot use the colon instead of a comma. If you want to use a colon, the word ‘especially’ must not be written.

- I would like to visit many beaches in Phuket: Patong, Kata, and Bangtao.

### 1.4.5 Semicolons

According to Grammarly (2024c), a semicolon is used to link two related independent clauses in an individual sentence when two different or similar topics or ideas are formed. The two independent clauses are connected without a coordinating conjunction such as ‘and’ or ‘but’, but they are linked with the semicolon /;/. For example:

- I have a quiz tomorrow; I really need to read books now.
- Nina never studies Chemistry; she is a student of Arts stream.

A semicolon can also be used in compound sentences. That is, it is used before conjunctive adverbs which are *moreover*, *therefore*, *furthermore*, *nevertheless*, etc.

- Henry is quite lazy to do assignments; *however*, he enjoys playing online games.
- Yoshiko finished watering trees in the garden; *moreover*, she went to the kitchen to help her mother's cooking.
- Wichai dislikes working as a teacher; *therefore*, he does not enroll at the Faculty of Education.

Here, semicolons are used before the conjunctive adverbs and commas. They link two independent clauses to make the complete sentences.

Indeed, a semicolon can also be used to divide items within lists if they are long or consist of internal punctuation. For example:

Attaining effective English is not that hard if you do the following activities: (i) you should read English books like short stories and novels; (ii) you can write diaries in English as much as you can; (iii) you try to listen to a variety of English media through Youtube or Tik-tok platforms; and (iv) you should speak English with your foreign friends.

From this short writing, the semicolon is used to connect similar ideas logically. It is a softer transition than a period because it links the clauses to make the long complete sentence. Such ideas are formed in list of independent clauses, and they are the examples that support the clause "Attaining effective English is not that hard if you do the following activities".

You cannot replace a semicolon with a comma in those sentences. If you do that, this will result in a comma splice that should be avoided.

In fact, the use of a semicolon for a serial list can be done through long sentences with internal punctuation. This can help readers keep tracking the divisions between items. For example:

In November, Elisa is a cabin crew who has a schedule to fly to the following destinations: Bangkok, Thailand; Dubai, United Arab Emirates; London, England; Tokyo, Japan; Seoul, South Korea; Paris, France; and Muscat, Oman.

Hence, using a semicolon can help you connect one idea with another. If you do not do that, you have to rely on the use of transition words. For example:

- Sarah has been working part-time *because* she wants to make some money.

(Sarah has been working part-time; she wants to make some money.)

- Anda wants to be a doctor, so she studies at Faculty of Medicine.  
(Anda wants to be a doctor; she studies at Faculty of Medicine.)

From these examples, you can use commas instead of transition words. However, do not use both commas and transition words. For example, the sentence “**Anda wants to be a doctor; so she studies at Faculty of Medicine**” is ungrammatical.

Many students seem to use colons and semicolons interchangeably. Indeed, they are different. A colon introduces a list, a quotation or an example, and it separates two clauses when the second clause explains the first one. However, a semicolon links two related or different clauses. Look at the following examples:

- In this new semester, I have to enroll in three courses as follows: English Structure and Sentence Writing, English Phonetics for Oral Communication, and English Reading Development.
- In this new semester, I have to enroll in English Structure and Sentence Writing, English Phonetics for Oral Communication, and English Reading Development; these courses provide me with important skills to enhance my English proficiency.

#### 1.4.6 Commas

Commas are the punctuation mark that indicates a smaller break in a sentence. Moreover, many writers think of commas because they offer soft pauses in which words, clauses, or ideas can be separated within sentences (Grammarly, 2023a). In this regard, Immel and Sacks (2008) state that there are 10 rules for using commas in sentences. They are described with examples below.

- (1) Use a comma between two main clauses linked by a coordinating connective (and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet).
  - Sunan is really slim, but his father is quite fat.
  - Jiraporn is very ill today, so she does not go to school.
- (2) Use a comma to divide three or more items in a series.
  - Adam enjoys eating mangos, bananas, apples, oranges, and pineapples. (words)
  - Farah drives a car to university, lectures an English course, and goes back to her apartment. (phrases)
  - Samarn goes to the rubber plantation, his son gets into the orchard, and his wife walks to the canal. (clauses)
- (3) Use a comma after introductory words and phrases have been written.
  - To obtain good grades, Kim reads books and notes every day for exams.
  - By the end of next month, Amintra will finish her tutorial classes.
  - After dinner, we are going to walk along the beach.

- (4) Use a comma after introductory subordinate clauses have been written.  
For example:
- When you have any problem, you can call me immediately.
  - If Andy is very stressed, he will relax by gardening.
- (5) Use commas to divide two or more adjective before a noun. For example:
- (5.1) Use a comma if “and” or “but” can be inserted between the adjectives (Immel & Sacks, 2008, p. 230).
- (5.2) Use a comma if you can reverse the order of the adjectives (p. 230).
- Haris is the most diligent, skillful worker in this factory.  
(Haris is the most diligent and skillful worker in this factory.)
  - Haris is the most skillful, diligent worker in this factory.  
(Haris is the most skillful and diligent worker in this factory.)
- (6) Use commas to insert words that interrupt. For example:
- University lecturers, by the way, are busy academicians.
  - The students, it seems, enjoy a farewell party.
- (7) Use commas to set off words in direct address through the names and titles of the people spoken. For example:
- “Chai, could you please lend me your pencil?” Pim said.
  - “I would like to advise you, Dr. Bobby, for an idea of our company’s project,” said Lucy.
  - “How often should Kate go jogging, Doctor?” asked Noon.
- (8) Use commas to set off unnecessary words, phrases, and clauses. For example:
- Thaksin University, a higher education institute in Southern Thailand, is my working place.
  - Macbeth, a drama by William Shakespeare, was adapted into the film in 2021.
- (9) Use commas to reinforce direct quotations. For example:
- “I really love this resort,” Win said.
  - She shouted, “Is anyone in here?”
- (10) Use a comma after each item in dates, geographical names, and addresses. For example:
- I started working at Thaksin University on Wednesday, June 8, 2005.
  - James was born in Phuket, Thailand.
  - Thaksin University’s address is 140 Kanjanawanit Road, Khao Rup Chang, Mueang Songkhla District, Songkhla 90000.

**Practice: The following sentences contain errors in punctuation marks. Please identify and rewrite them correctly.**

Ex. After graduation nobody wants to be unemployed it means he or she has neither a job nor money

Answer: After graduation √ nobody wants to be unemployed ^it means he or she has neither a job nor money √  
After graduation, nobody wants to be unemployed; it means he or she has neither a job nor money.

(1) There are many menus of Thai foods offered at this restaurant I really like Tom Yam Pad Thai Green Curry and Pad Kra Prow.

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

(2) Ball asked me “Can you go to Bangkok with me”.

\_\_\_\_\_

(3) Aranya missed the flight to Phuket; so she needs to take a bus instead.

\_\_\_\_\_

## 1.5 Capitalization

Capitalization is the way uppercase or capital letters are used in writing. This indicates the starting of a sentence, and it can underscore certain words or types of words within a sentence. In English, capitalization is found in place names, family names, proper nouns and days of the week, etc (Homann, 2014; Scribbr, n.d).

For example:

- **Surin Ritdee** is working for **CP** company in **Songkhla**. He does not go to his office on **Sunday** because it is his day off.
- I took a **BTS** from **Siam** to **Nana** to attend an **ELT** conference at **Ambassador Hotel Bangkok** located on **Sukhumvit 11 Road**.

In this textbook, the capitalization will be explained through only five aspects – pronoun (I), proper nouns, days-months-holidays, the first word of a sentence, and titles.

### 1.5.1 Pronoun ‘I’

Among English pronouns, only the pronoun ‘I’ is usually capitalized whenever it is written in a sentence, namely all locations. Meanwhile, other pronouns – *he, she, it, they, we, you* – are to be capitalized when they appear at the beginning of a sentence. These pronouns are different from the pronoun ‘I’ in that they can be written with small letters when they are used as the starting word of a sentence (British Council, 2025).

For example:

- **I** will not drink coffee.
- She and **I** will not drink coffee.
- What she and **I** will not drink is coffee.
- Where should **I** take a trip to this summer?
- **She** will not drink coffee.

However, the pronoun ‘I’ has possessive pronouns – *me, my, mine, and myself* – which are not capitalized. They will be capitalized in case of their occurrence at the beginning of a sentence only (Swick, 2013). Look at the following instances:

- **My** friends and **I** play basketball.
- **I** would like to have **my** own car.
- Would you like to talk to me?
- “**Mine** is fried rice. What about you?”, asked **I**.
- This fried rice is **mine**.
- **My** hometown is in Ranong. I live there with **my** parents.
- **I** want to cook Pad Thai by **myself**.

### 1.5.2 Proper nouns

According to Homann (2014), proper nouns refer to particular nouns of people and places’ names. They are capitalized in sentences. Look at the following examples:

- **Suda**’s best friend is **Kanya**.
- **Alan Scott** is a lawyer here.
- Last week, we took a vacation to **Singapore**.
- **Bangkok** is the capital of **Thailand**.
- **Hat Yai** is full of **Malaysian** tourists.

Moreover, Caulfield (2022) states that proper nouns can be used for “names of companies and organizations, and the titles of books, films, songs, and other media”. They must be capitalized in writing. This is seen in the examples below.

- There are many patients at Songklanagarind Hospital, Hat Yai.
- A student of English-Chinese major at Thaksin University is an intern at Pacific Fish Processing (Limited) Company (Songkhla Headquarters).
- The book ‘English Linguistics for Beginners’ was sold at Chulalongkorn University Book Center.
- The movie titled ‘Zootopia 2’ is an animation.
- Mark Wiens is a food blogger of Migrationology.com.
- The best school in Thailand is Triam Udom Suksa School.

### 1.5.3 Days-Months-Holidays

Days, months, and holidays are certain proper names. Thus, they must be capitalized (Thesaurus, 2022a). For example:

- Days of the week: Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday, Sunday
- Months of the year: January, February, March, April, May, June, July, August, September, October, November, December
- Holidays: Mother’s Day, Father’s Day, Labor Day, Thailand’s Constitution Day, National Day

In this regard, a season should also be capitalized when it is used as part of a proper noun, for example, Winter Olympics, Asean Games, SEA Games, etc. However, general seasons like winter, summer, and fall when they are not proper nouns, for example, “In this winter, Pim will go to Japan”.

#### 1.5.4 The first word of the sentence

It is common that the first word of the sentence must be capitalized (Homann, 2014). This is a convention in written English. Look at the following examples:

- It is not difficult to speak English.
- When you are sick, you may go to see a doctor or take a medicine at home.
- Prince of Songkla University has five campuses.
- There is a variety of fruits grown in Northern Thailand.

#### 1.5.5 Titles

Titles can be names of books or painting or magazines, for example, “English Structure by Panatip Pinijsakkul”. They can also be “a word in front of a person’s name to show their rank or profession, whether or not they are married” (Oxford Learners’ Dictionaries, 2026), for example, “Professor Dr. Kingsley Bolton”, “Miss Alicia Taylor”, “Mrs. Nangnoi Somsaksri”, and “Mr. Bernard Rogers”. These examples show that titles are capitalized.

It is noted that the titles must capitalized whenever they appear in any location of the sentence (Homann, 2014). Look at the following examples:

- I missed Professor Larry’s lectures. “Professor” is capitalized because it is a part of Larry’s title.
- Professor, why didn’t I get A from your course? “Professor” is capitalized because it is being addressed directly.
- Magaret, a professor at Boston University, published many papers. “Professor” is not capitalized because it describes Magaret and is written after her name.

**Practice: The following sentences contain errors in capitalization. Please identify and rewrite them correctly.**

Ex. saranya was one of my students at the faculty of education.

Answer: saranya was one of my students at the faculty of education.

Saranya was one of my students at the Faculty of Education.

(1) istanbul, turkey is the most beautiful city i have ever visited.

---

(2) monday mornings and friday evenings have heavy traffic in many cities.

---

(3) the interviewer of the new applicants is miss Qiara Taylor.

---

## 1.6 Problems in Mechanics of Writing

This section attempts to reveal three aspects of problems in mechanics of writing – British English and American English spelling, punctuation marks, and capitalization.

### 1.6.1 Problems in British English and American English spelling

According to Thompson (2021), Thailand and many other countries where English is used as a foreign language, a set standard of style of English writing system is not fixed. Many Thai students may face problems in choosing a certain variety of English spelling in the writing, so they may be confused with them. Some Thai students are required to use American English in a course with a teacher. For the next class, they have to use British English taught by another teacher. This leads to their confusion in writing. For example, some teachers require students to write the word ‘colour’ instead of ‘color’ to serve British English spelling. This does not bring about the problem in the goal of teaching English to non-native speakers. However, this may cause the students to encounter the problem of varieties of English according to their preference. Thus, they should be allowed to learn both British English and American English in their spelling difference.

If Thai students are not aware of differences between British English and American English spelling systems, they will face the problem in consistency in their writing. Look at the following examples of sentences with their inconsistent spelling:

(i) The colour of my car is white because it is my favorite colour.

The consistent ones should be:

British English: The **colour** of my car is white because it is my **favourite colour**.

American English: The **color** of my car is white because it is my **favorite color**.

(ii) Charles realizes that he is going to organise a talk show.

The consistent ones should be:

British English: Charles **realises** that he is going to **organise** a talk show.

American English: Charles **realizes** that he is going to **organize** a talk show.

- (iii) Sofia is working at the Language Centre of this university while her friend, Laura, is an officer at the National Theater.

The consistent ones should be:

British English: Sofia is working at the Language **Centre** of this university while her friend, Laura, is an officer at the National **Theatre**.

American English: Sofia is working at the Language **Center** of this university while her friend, Laura, is an officer at the National **Theater**.

It could be said that consistency in spelling is crucial in writing, especially academic writing. This is because academic writing needs to have clarity, precision, and credibility. It must provide readers with a coherent set of language conventions. If a writer uses different varieties of English in spelling, there will be some problems as follows (Tetzner, 2025a):

- (i) Carelessness: Inconsistent spelling indicates a certain piece of writing has not been carefully proofread, leading to its bad impression.
- (ii) Distraction: If a writer frequently switches from British English to American English in his/her spelling, for example between ‘behaviour’ and ‘behavior’ as well as ‘travelling’ and ‘traveling’, this will distract readers and increase the uneven feeling of the text.

With these two problems, written works will not meet effective communication and grammatical correctness.

### 1.6.2 Common errors in punctuation marks

Scott (2014) found out some mistakes in using punctuation marks in writing.

#### (1) Missing commas

The problem: If there are no commas, sentences can be ‘run-on’ without any breaks.  
Example: Sunai went to Songkhla Zoo and he could see many wild animals there so he was very happy.

The edited sentence: *Sunai went to Songkhla Zoo, and he could see many wild animals there, so he was very happy.*

#### (2) Too many commas

The problem: In one sentence, it is possible that there are many commas used.  
Example: Smantha finished shopping at Jungceylon Shopping Center, and she got into her car, and then went back home.

The edited sentence: *Smantha finished shopping at Jungceylon Shopping Center, and she got into her car. Then, she went back home.*

#### (3) Excess exclamation

The problem: There are too many exclamation points used, so this overwhelms the reader and devalues an individual exclamation point.

Example: Our curriculum is the best! It is really great! All graduates get good jobs!

The edited sentence: *Our curriculum is the best. It is really great. All graduates get good jobs!*

(4) Semi-colons vs Colons

The problem: In a sentence, a semi-colon is misused, especially where a colon should be used.

Example: When going into the exam room, I brought three stationeries; pencils, an eraser, and a ruler.

The edited sentence: *When going into the exam room, I brought three stationeries: pencils, an eraser, and a ruler.*

(5) Quotation mark placement

The problem: Sometimes quotation marks are more written outside than inside.

Example: “I feel really bored with this course today”!

The edited sentence: “I feel really bored with this course today!”

### 1.6.3 Common capitalization errors

Many Thai EFL university students made errors in sentence writing. One of the errors is capitalization. In this regard, Sermsook et al. (2017) found that 26 second-year students of English majors at a university in Thailand showed mistakes in capitalization in their writing, accounting for 8.12 %. Some examples are provided below.

- (i) on saturday  
(the correct one should be *on Saturday*)
- (ii) the house is large.  
(the correct one should be *The house is large.*)

This error is caused by L1 interference of these Thai EFL students. That is, there is no use of capitalization in the Thai language. These students had insufficient knowledge of the English grammar principles in which “the first letter of specific nouns and the first letter of a sentence must be capitalized” (p.107).

Similarly, Chuanpipatpong (2025) also revealed that that 70 Thai EFL students from different faculties of Bangkok University made errors in capitalization, accounting for 12.20 percent, in their writing. They did not capitalize proper nouns, sentence openings, and the pronoun “I”. This is evident in the following examples:

- (i) “I like hiphop music, so my favorite rapper is travis scott,” (p.321)  
(The correct one should be “I like Hip-hop music, so my favorite rapper is Travis Scott”.)
- (ii) “i’m 20 years old.” (p.321)  
(The correct one should “I’m 20 years old.”)

These errors are caused by interlingual interference (the Thai language interference in English sentence writing) and intralingual interference (e.g. rule overgeneralization and misunderstandings of grammar).

## 1.7 The Unit Summary

This first unit is necessary for English majors or EFL student writers. Mechanics of writing are similar to lubricants for driving sentence writing grammatically. If they are aware of writing mechanics, they will get ready to encounter a variety of grammar rules and sentence structures in English. Thus, this unit has provided them with detailed information and illustrations of sentences in which key components of writing mechanics are grounded in. Among the three elements, punctuation marks seem to be mostly used in sentence writing. However, the two others, spelling and capitalization, are also crucial in that they can support the grammatical correctness of their sentence composition.

### Unit Tasks

**Directions: Read the following sentences, identify their errors in punctuation marks and capitalization as well as inconsistent spelling in British English or American English, and rewrite the correct sentences:**

- (1) professor Mintra wrote a book titled ‘linguistics and applied linguistics for english majors’ and she distributed it to many bookshops in bangkok.

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---

- (2) My brother and i do not go to school because today is sunday

---

---

- (3) “Have you ever been to Betong” asked Kai

---

---

- (4) There are four names of thai desserts sold in this shop thongyib thongyord khanomchan and bualoi.

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- (5) George does not like to study literary courses he is not good at analysing literary texts. He prefers to learn english skills he does not need to analyze prose and poetry.

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---

(6) how lazy he is

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(7) Chanchai is considered the best active managerial salesperson of diana department store

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(8) In 2016, “captain America civil war” became The Highest-Grossing Film in Thailand.

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(9) dr. sanders asked his students whether they have finished The Report?

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(10) nobody in keng’s family can speak italian.

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(11) antalya is such a marvellous city in Turkey as it offers travelers a variety of interesting attractions beaches historical places and shopping.

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(12) Edward asked his students a question “why do you choose to study this course?”.

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## Unit 2: English Phrases

### 2.0 Objectives and Overview

This unit intends to provide the foundation of English phrases necessary for forming sentences. It encompasses the following objectives for EFL student writers:

- (i) To understand the structure of English phrases.
- (ii) To analyze the components and modifiers of phrases.
- (iii) To form phrases.
- (iv) To transform phrases into sentences.
- (v) To recognize common errors in phrase structure.

There are several types of English phrases. The author attempts to highlight only the five common types which are noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, and prepositional phrases. It is necessary for students to understand their components and modifiers through analysis before they are encouraged to practice forming phrases and transferring them into sentences. This unit may seem difficult, but it is essential because the students need to be familiar with the grammatical elements of phrases essential for forming sentences. With the guidance of the instructor through the analysis, students will be able to write sentences with particular phrases. Moreover, errors in phrase structure in writing are underscored with empirical studies. This will help them realize particular problems in writing phrases. Through these learning objectives and contents, they can delve into the grammatical structure of phrases in order to practice writing phrases themselves and creating sentences with these types of phrases.

### 2.1 Warm-up Activity

**A. Directions: Read the following phrases and identify their types in the space provided:**

- (1) Have lunch at TSU canteen

\_\_\_\_\_

- (2) My best friends at the secondary school

\_\_\_\_\_

- (3) Very carelessly

\_\_\_\_\_

(4) Cold today

---

(5) In a lush campus

---

**B. Directions: Underline parts of the following phrases in the parentheses and identify them:**

(1) Many students at TSU major in English. (Noun Phrase and Verb Phrase)

---

(2) You don't really know me. (Verb Phrase and Adverb Phrase)

---

(3) Percian cats are cute and naughty. (Noun Phrase and Adjective Phrase)

---

(4) We will stay at a hotel near the lake. (Verb phrase and Prepositional Phrase)

---

(5) Pharanee shops at the street market very happily. (Prepositional Phrase and Adverb Phrase)

---

## 2.2 Definition of Phrases

According to University of Illinois, Springfield, the Learning Hub, Writing Resources (2025), phrases are used in academic language and are important for writing. They are “small groupings of words that function as a part of a sentence, like a verb, adjective, or noun. Even though a phrase might contain a subject and a verb, in relation to the other words in the sentence, that particular group of words may be modifying or describing another word in the main sentence”. This is illustrated in the following example of a sentence:

Sentence: To achieve diet goals, Vivian eats vegetables.

Phrase: To achieve diet goals

Subject: Vivian

Verb: eats

From the above instance, the phrase consists of a verb and a noun, but it cannot stand individually because it has no subject. This phrase means to add more details to the subject. Thus, the whole phrase functions as an adjective.

With regard to Central Texas College (n.d.), “phrases do not contain subjects and verbs. A phrase is incomplete in thought. Phrases (and parts of phrases) can be labeled, as well”. Some examples of phrases are:

- Driving a car
- Written by Shakespeare
- Through the door around the corner
- To finish a report within 24 hours

According to Lumen (n.d.), a phrase refers to “a group of words that may have a partial subject or verb but not both, or it may have neither a subject nor a verb. Phrases never have a subject doing the action of a verb”, for example, “Sandra and Marquis, After dinner, Growing up, Because of love”, etc. Moreover, they “can be any combination of words that do not combine a subject and a verb”. This can be illustrated into different types of phrases below.

- **Noun phrases:** *the old car, my torn T-shirt, school of fish*
- **Verb(al) phrases:** *exercising to lose weight, have been living here*
- **Adjective phrases:** *interested in playing badminton, aware of Mathematic formulas*
- **Adverb phrases:** *really sorry, quite lazy*
- **Prepositional phrases:** *which follow a preposition (under the tree, to the rest of your life, along the road*

## 2.3 Phrases: Types, Components, and Writing

To understand the construction of phrases, one needs to learn their types and components through a variety of examples. This can assist them to write phrases and sentences in which phrases are formed.

### 2.3.1 Types of phrases

Merrison et al. (2013) state that in English grammar there are five main types or kinds of English phrases – noun phrases (NP), verb phrases (VP), adjective phrase (AP), adverb phrase (AdvP), and prepositional phrase (PP). “All phrases must have one obligatory element and it is that element which controls the phrase” (p.135).

NP, AP, and AdvP are similar in that their structure is based on ‘head word’ and ‘modifier’ which are ‘obligatory elements’ as in the following patterns:

- Noun is the head word of NP. (green **tea**, white **roses**,.....)
- Adjective is the head word of AP. (**bored** with, **glad** to...)
- Adverb is the head word of AdvP. (**terribly** crazy.....,**fairly** well....)

Their head words can be modified in the pattern: “pre-modifiers come before the headword and post modifiers come after the headword” (p.135).

PP is distinctive in that its obligatory element is ‘preposition’ and its structure is ‘preposition +noun phrase’ (e.g. In the classroom, on the surface level...).

VP is outstanding in that its obligatory element is ‘verb’ (e.g. **smile** to me, **showed** it you,....

Overall, the following is a summary of each type of English phrases and **its** examples (Lancaster University, n.d.):

- (1) Noun phrase (NP) refers to a group of words in which a noun is a head or the foremost word and functions together as a noun. Look at the following examples:
  - An athlete
  - The diligent athlete
  - That diligent athlete who becomes a champ.
- (2) Verb phrase (VP) involves a group of words in which a verb is a head and functions together as a verb. Look at the following examples:
  - Walked
  - Had walked
  - Had been walking
  - Might have been walking
- (3) Adjective phrase (AP) concerns a group of words in which an adjective is working as a head and functions together as an adjective. Look at the following instances:
  - Admirable
  - Absolutely admirable
  - As admirable as possible
- (4) Adverb phrase (AdvP) means a group of words that possesses an adverb as its head and works together as an adverb. Look at the following instances:
  - Painfully
  - Too painfully
  - Much too painfully
- (5) Prepositional phrase (PP) is a group of words that comprises a preposition followed by a noun phrase. See the following examples:
  - In the classroom
  - Under the big tree
  - On a table

### 2.3.2 Components: Structure, analysis, and writing

Each type of phrase has its specific components or elements. Thus, you need to analyze them to understand their internal structure. This will help you create phrases correctly.

#### (1) Noun phrases

Elements/components in the noun phrase are shown below.

According to Lund University (n.d.), noun phrases comprise the following four kinds of elements:

Determiners	Premodifiers	Head/ Head noun	Postmodifiers/Complements
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Look at the following examples with their components:

- A lovely cat sleeping on the sofa  
 Det Premodifier Head Postmodifier  
 (article) (adj) (noun) (present participle phrase)
- The old hotel near Patong Beach  
 .....  
 .....

**A. Determiners** refer to “a word that appears before a noun, providing clarifying context about the number, definiteness, or ownership of the noun”, for example, “**The** car in front of **my** house belongs to **my** uncle. There are seven types of determiners (Grammarly, 2023c) below.

(i) **Articles** concern determiners which come before nouns or noun phrases and identify them as either specific or nonspecific. The specific one is called ‘definite article’ which is ‘the’. Nevertheless, the non-specific one is called ‘indefinite article’ which consists of ‘a’ and ‘an’. An article can individually precede the noun it modifies or appear in its combination with one or more descriptive adjectives. Look at the following examples:

- **A** new dormitory is being built in TSU, Songkhla campus.
- **An** elephant is walking in **the** forest.
- **The** market is quite far from Ton-Nga-Chang waterfall.

(ii) **Demonstrative determiners** are also called demonstrative adjectives. They convey the placement of a noun in space or time. They contain “this, that, these, and those”. Look at the following instances:

- **This** café is just open in the campus.
- I would like to buy **that shirt**.
- **These** dishes are not clean.
- **Those** buildings are abandoned.

However, demonstrative pronouns differ from demonstrative determiners in that they are not placed before nouns. You use them because you do not want to repeat them (Ellis, 2023b). This is illustrated below.

- Look at this house. **This** is mine.
- Come to see the shoes. **These** are expensive.
- We are bored with that course. **That** is a boring subject.
- There are many students skipping classes. **Those** will be punished by the principal.

(iii) **Distributive determiners** can be pronouns or determiners. They are words that go before nouns to clarify what the noun is referring to. There are 9 distributive determiners: *all, any, both, each, either, every, half, neither, and none* (Ellis, 2022a). This is illustrated as follows:

- **All** of the cabin crews at Qatar Airways are based in Doha.
- Do you have **any** problem?
- **Both** of us feel exhausted now.
- **Each** book is valuable.
- I'm bored with **either** option.
- **Every** course is taught online.
- **Half** of the cabin crews here can speak the third languages.
- **Neither food** is poisonous.
- **None** of those motorcycles are mine.

(iv) **Interrogative determiners** are to modify nouns or pronouns in direct or indirect questions. They consist of **what, which, and whose** (Ryan, 2023). This is evident in the following examples:

- **What height** is Siam Paragon?
- I wonder **which hand** she hurt.
- **Whose car** is parked in front of Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences?

(v) **Possessive determiners** are used to describe ownership or possession. There are “my, yours, his, her, its, our, and their” (Ryan, 2023). Look at the following instances:

- **My family** lives in Satun. What about yours? (your family)
- **His leg** is wounded, but **her leg** is not.

- This cat is cute. **Its tail** is not long.
- **Our country** is threatened by a neighboring country.
- I got many friends. **Their hometown** is mostly in Trang.

(vi) **Quantifying determiners** and numbers are used to indicate the quantity of a noun.

Quantifiers cover **all, any, few, less, little, many, much, no, several, more,** and **some** (Ryan, 2023). Look at the following examples:

- **Many new graduates** in 2026 are unemployed.
- **Several passengers** are waiting for boarding.
- I would like to buy **some food**.
- I need **more** time to relax.
- He does not have **much money** to buy an iPhone.
- **A few politicians** do not corrupt.
- There will be **few days** for us to study here.
- **Little time** is left before boarding.
- You can take **a little time** to meet your classmates.
- Sorry, I have **no time** for you.

Thus, three types of quantifiers can be visualized in the following table:

<b>Quantifiers which work with count nouns:</b>	<b>Quantifiers which work with non-count nouns:</b>	<b>Quantifiers which work with both count and non-count nouns:</b>
many books a few books several books a couple of books a number of books a majority of books	not much dancing (a) little dancing a bit of dancing a good deal of dancing a great deal of dancing no dancing a large amount of	all of the books/dancing none of some books/dancing most of the books/dancing enough books/dancing a lot of books/dancing lots of books/dancing plenty of books/dancing a lack of books/dancing

(Source: SIUC Writing Center, n.d.)

Numbers refer to both cardinal and ordinal ones. Cardinal numbers are one, two, three, ... , and ordinal numbers are first, second, third.... They can be used as determiners before nouns in noun phrases (Ryan, 2023).

**Cardinal numbers** indicate the quantity of people or things. For examples:

- My two friends/ three motorcycles of mine
- Your five children/ His six pets

**Ordinal numbers** specify the order of nouns in a series. For example:

- Your first time in Lampang / His last chance
- My second attempt to take a CU-TEP.

Relative determiners are used to specify something regarding nouns in noun phrases in which relative dependent clauses are introduced. They are “what, whatever, which, and whichever”. They are related to relative pronouns (Grammarly, 2023). For example:

- Please choose **whichever food** you want to eat.
- Philip will tell you **what day** he will visit you.

Therefore, from those examples in sentences, all these determiners are key elements placed prior to noun phrases.

## B. Premodifiers

According to Nelson (2011), premodifiers in noun phrases take place before the noun and after any determiners which may be present. Typically, the premodifiers in noun phrase are ‘adjectives’. Look at the following examples:

- **blue** eyes / **an old** man / some **exciting** stories

They can co-occur; more than one adjective can pre-modify the same noun. Look at the following instances:

- **beautiful blue** eyes / **a homeless old** man / some **incredible exciting** stories

Not only adjectives, but also other words – nouns and genitive nouns – can function as adjectives premodifiers. Look at the following examples:

### (i) Nouns

- computer lab : This **computer lab** is renovated.
- the Art Gallery: There are many paints displayed at the **Art Gallery**.
- store manager : I have been working as a **store manager**.

### (2) Genitive nouns

- Gregery’s hometown : **Gregery’s hometown** is in Michigan.
- the company’s profile : The **company’s profile** must appear in the website.
- our daughter’s health: We are worried about our **daughter’s health**.



Additionally, there are restrictive and non-restrictive post-modifiers that can be used in noun phrases.

- (i) Restrictive post-modifiers are used to precisely define noun phrases without the use of commas. They are thus necessary details for noun phrases. For example:

- The sale assistant **who got a car accident** was dead.

- (ii) Non-restrictive post-modifiers do not define noun phrases precisely with the use of commas. Thus, they are merely additional information, not a must for noun phrases. For example:

- The sale assistant, **who lived in Phang-nga**, was dead.

- Postmodifiers and complements

Complements refer to a type of noun-phrase postmodifiers, but they are more related to the noun than ordinary postmodifiers. The following examples can illustrate this comparison:

- (i) Postmodifier:  
The story that **the teacher talked today** was taken from Tik-Tok.  
This postmodifier does not define the story.
- (ii) Complement:  
The story that the **teacher talked about Thailand-Cambodia border today** was taken from Tik-Tok.

This complement has a defining role of what the story is exactly about.

It is noted that in the postmodifier ‘that’ can replace ‘which’. However, in complements, ‘that’ cannot be replaced by ‘which’.

Besides, complements seem to have abstract reference, for example,

- the concept *that linguistics is an academic discipline of language studies*
- the realization *that life is philosophical*
- the fact *that nobody is present*
- the idea *that the happiness of life appears*

**Practice writing noun phrases: Create your own phrases with the given head nouns.**

Ex. Teacher: **The *very tough*** teacher ***at this school***  
 (det) + (prem.) + (head n.) + (postm)

Determiners	Premodifiers	Head/ Head noun	Postmodifiers/Complements
		nurse	
		banana	
		elephant	
		canal	

**Practice writing noun phrases in sentences: Put the above noun phrases you create into complete sentences.**

Ex. I don't like **the *very tough* teacher *at this school***. (This NP is an object of the sentence.)

- (1) \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) \_\_\_\_\_

**(2) Verb phrases**

A verb phrase consists of a main verb which may be preceded by one or more auxiliary verbs. Look at the following example that shows the verb phrase's components (Nelson, 2011):

<b>Auxiliary 1</b>	<b>Auxiliary 2</b>	<b>Auxiliary 3</b>	<b>Main Verb</b>
may	have	been	sent

The official letter **may have been sent** to the chair.

Nelson (2001, pp. 88-92) provides the following detailed structure of verb phrases:

**(i) The ordering of auxiliary verbs**

When two or more auxiliary verbs occur in a verb phrase, they observe the following relative order:   Modal – Perfective – Progressive – Passive

However, it is very unusual to find all four of the auxiliary verb type in the same verb phrase. Usually, a maximum of two or three auxiliaries will co-occur, as in the following examples:

**Modal – Passive:**

The window *can be* fixed.

**Progressive – Passive:**

The transaction *is being* processed.

**Perfective – Progressive:**

She *has been* collecting magazines for years.

**Perfective – Passive:**

The tax *has been* increased.

**Modal – Perfective – Passive:**

The lecture *should have been* cancelled.

**(ii) Tense**

English tenses are divided into the present tense and the past tense. In regular verbs, the **present tense** is identified with the -s form of the verb, when the subject is third-person singular.

**3rd-person singular:**   he *cries*     / she *cries*     it/Dan/the man *cries*

**For all other subjects, the base form of the verb is used.** For example:

1st-person singular: I *cry*

2nd-person singular: you *cry*

1st-person plural: we *cry*

2nd-person plural: you *cry*

3rd-person plural: they *cry*

On the verb forms, there appear to be the following:

The **past tense** requires an -ed verb ending, in any case of the subject. For example:

**1st-person singular:** I *cried*

**2nd-person singular:** you *cried*

**3rd-person singular:** he/she/it/David/the man *cried*

**1st-person plural:** we *cried*

**2nd-person plural:** you *cried*

**3rd-person plural:** they *cried*

In these examples, only a main verb is present; thus, this verb contains the tense marker. When an auxiliary verb is present, the tense is identified with the first (or only) auxiliary verb, and not by the main verb. For example:

**Present tense:** The staff *is* smiling.

**Past tense:** The staff *was* smiling.

**Present tense:** The staff *has* finished her work.

**Past tense:** The staff *had* finished her work.

**Present tense:** A business letter *is* being typed.

**Past tense:** A business letter *was* being typed.

### (iii) Expressing future time

The above examples show that the ending form ‘-s’ pinpoints a present tense while the ending form ‘-ed’ identifies a past tense. Nevertheless, the future tense has no its ending form. Indeed, the future time is usually indicated by the use of the verb form in present tense. This is evident in the following examples:

- Peter *arrives* next Friday.
- Your flight *leaves* in ten minutes.
- Monica *graduates* in September.

It is noted that to express future time in English, you can do it in other ways as follows:

- Modal auxiliary *will*

For example:

- Peter *will* arrive next Friday.
- Your flight *will* leave in ten minutes.
- David *will* graduate in September.

- The contracted form *'ll* is usually used informally. For example:
  - *'ll* see you later.
- Semi-auxiliary *be going to* (present tense). For example:
  - Peter *is going to* arrive next Friday.
  - Your flight *is going to* leave in ten minutes.
  - Monica *is going to* graduate in September.
- Progressive auxiliary *be* (present tense) + *-ing* verb. For example:
  - Peter *is arriving* next Friday.
  - Your flight *is leaving* in ten minutes.
  - Monica *is graduating* in September.

**(iv) Finite and non-finite verb phrases**

Verb phrases can be either finite or non-finite. **Finite verb phrases** are those that indicate past or present tenses, for example, “**Rit writes a letter./ Rit wrote a letter./ Rit has written a letter.**” It is worth noting that the occurrence of two or more verbs in a finite verb phrase, for instance, ‘has written’ and ‘has been writing’, only the first verb represents the tense. **Non-finite verb phrases** refer to those in which the base form is usually introduced, especially through the use of ‘to’, ‘-ed’, and ‘-ing’, for instance “to write, wrote, and writing”. Here, if a particular verb phrase has one of the following verb forms, namely the first or only verb, it is considered non-finite. For example:

- *To send an email* would be secretarial work.
- *Sending an email* can requires specific strategies.
- *Sent to the clients*, the secretary’s emails focused on business matters.
- *Having sent* an email to the clients, the secretary spent half an hour organizing the files.

Therefore, a non-finite verb phrase has a non-finite verb form.

**Practice writing verb phrases: Create your own phrases with the given main verbs.**

Ex. Study : **just** study **harder**  
(adv) +(main verb) (adv as postm)

(1) play:

\_\_\_\_\_

(2) learn: \_\_\_\_\_

(3) lose: \_\_\_\_\_

(4) apply: \_\_\_\_\_

(5) smile: \_\_\_\_\_

**Practice writing verb phrases in sentences: Put the above verb phrases you create into complete sentences.**

Ex. My mother told me to ***just study harder***. (The VP is an object of preposition / an indirect object of the sentence.)

- (1) \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) \_\_\_\_\_

**(3) Adjective phrases**

According to Sharma (2025), an adjective is a word that modifies a noun or a pronoun. However, an adjective phrase is a group of words that does the same thing: describes/modifies a noun or a pronoun. Look at the following examples to understand the components of adjective phrases:

- Khlong Hae Floating Market is **very touristic**.  
(adv) (adj)
  - The form ‘very touristic’ is an adjective phrase. The adverb ‘very’ is used to modify the head adjective ‘touristic’. This adjective phrase is the subject complement of this sentence.
- There are **various delicious** foods sold at Khong Hae Floating Market.
  - The form ‘various delicious’ is an adjective phrase. It is a coordinate adjective. This adjective phrase is to modify the noun phrase ‘foods’ which are the subject of the expletive construction ‘there are’.
- My friend Jeab is **really diligent**.
  - The adjective phrase *very diligent* describes the noun *friend*. It gives information about this noun. The head adjective is *diligent*, and its modifier is *very*. ‘Really diligent’ is the subject complement of the sentence.
- Jimmy looks **unbelievably healthy**.
  - The adjective phrase *unbelievably healthy* is describing the subject Jimmy. This provides more information about it. *Healthy* is the head adjective, and it is modified by the adverb *unbelievably*.
- Your sister is **not nice to me**.
  - The adjective phrase *nice to me* describes the subject (noun phrase) *your sister*. It tells us how your sister is. The adjective *nice* is the head adjective, and it is modified by the prepositional phrase *to me*.

- Frederick is feeding a **very cute** cat.
  - The adjective phrase ‘very cute’ is that the adjective ‘cute’ is modified by the adverb ‘very’. This adverb phrase is modifying the noun ‘cat’.
  
- Any person **taller than you** can become a flight attendant.
  - The adjective phrase *taller than you* is the post-modifier of the noun phrase ‘any person’. ‘Taller’ is the head adjective, and ‘than you’ modifies the adjective ‘tall’. Thus, ‘any person taller than you’ functions as the subject of the sentence.

According to Nelson (2001, p.95), adjective phrases have the following basic structure:

<b>Premodifier</b>	<b>Adjective</b>	<b>Postmodifier</b>
very	<i>pleased</i>	to come here
really	bad	for me

- (i) The premodifier in an adjective phrase is usually **an intensifier**, for example,
- |                    |                        |                             |
|--------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>very</i> useful | <i>extremely</i> spicy | <i>wonderfully</i> creative |
|--------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|

**Intensifiers** are adverbs or adverbial phrases that enrich the meaning of other expressions and indicate emphasis. Words which are commonly used as intensifiers cover *absolutely, completely, extremely, highly, rather, really, so, too, totally, utterly, very* and *at all*. For example:

- *Martin was **so** upset. I felt **extremely** sorry for him.*
- *Nina is a **very** strict nurse.*
- *Don't exercise **too** hard.*
- *I don't think she will pass the exam because her answer was **rather** a mess.*
- *She's **really** offended her friend.*
- *At all* is a very common intensifier with negative expressions:
- *Are there no available seats **at all**?*
- *I'm afraid I'm not **at all** interested.*

(Source: Cambridge Dictionary, 2025b)

- (ii) In expressions of measurement and age, a noun phrase may function as a premodifier in an adjective phrase. For example: *three months old, a metre long 50-kg weight*.
- (iii) Postmodifiers occur after the adjective. For example:
- |                            |                              |                         |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------|
| <i>glad you could come</i> | <i>guilty of murder</i>      | <i>reluctant to say</i> |
| <i>happy to smile</i>      | <i>delighted to meet you</i> |                         |

Nelson (2001, p.96) adds three functions of adjective phrases with examples as follows:

- (i) Subject complement:  
Our uncle is *quite ill*.  
You were *very sad*.  
My grandmother seemed *genuinely happy to see me*.
- (ii) Premodifier of a noun:  
Emily was wearing a *very old* dress.  
I've ordered a *slightly different* menu this time.  
Maria is a *rather talkative* person.
- (iii) Object complement:  
Pizza always makes Danny *allergic*.  
The new wallpaper makes the bedroom *much brighter*.  
The Pacific Ocean keeps the climate *fairly mild*.

**Practice writing adjective phrases: Create your own phrases with the given main adjectives in the following table:**

Ex. Active:           *extremely active for Grade A.*  
                              (prem) head adj (postm)

Premodifiers	Adjectives	Postmodifiers
	difficult	
	sweet	
	boring	
	fragrant	
	late	

**Practice writing adjective phrases in sentences: Put the above adjective phrases you create into complete sentences.**

Ex. William becomes *extremely active for Grade A*. (This AP is the object of the sentence.)

- (1) \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) \_\_\_\_\_

#### (4) Adverb phrases

Nelson (2001, p. 97) states that adverb phrases have the following basic structure:

<b>Premodifier</b>	<b>Adverb</b>	<b>Postmodifier</b>
very	<i>quickly</i>	indeed
really	far	to go there

- The premodifier in an adverb phrase is always an intensifier. For example:

<b>Premodifier</b>	<b>Adverb</b>
<i>very</i>	gradually
<i>too</i>	slowly
<i>extremely</i>	badly
<i>quite</i>	soon

- Postmodifiers in adverb phrases seem to be rare. Apart from *indeed*, only *enough* is commonly used. For example:

funnily <i>enough</i>	oddly <i>enough</i>
naturally <i>enough</i>	strangely <i>enough</i>

Nelson (2001, pp.97-98) adds the functions of adverb phrases with examples as follows:

- (i) Premodifier of an adjective:
  - Erick is *extremely* sensitive.
  - Titanic was a *very* successful film.
  - The noodle was *far too* spicy.
- (ii) Premodifier of an adverb:
  - I spoke to James *very* recently.
  - Sheena drives *far too* slowly.
  - The other witness saw the situation *slightly more* clearly.
- (iii) Adjunct:
  - Suddenly* the company bankrupt and all workers were unemployed.
  - Full-time staff members receive a medical care card *automatically*.
  - George died in his thirties quite *recently*.

**Practice writing adverb phrases: Create your own phrases with the given main adverbs in the following table:**

Ex. Clearly: exceptionally clearly to impress other people.  
(prem + head adverb + postm)

Premodifiers	Adverbs	Postmodifiers
	carefully	
	gently	
	completely	
	perfectly	
	excitedly	

**Practice writing adverb phrases in sentences: Put the above adverb phrases you create into complete sentences.**

Ex. Lydia speaks English **exceptionally clearly to impress other people**. (This AdvP is used to modify the verb phrase 'speaks English' of the sentence.)

- (1) \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) \_\_\_\_\_

**(5) Prepositional phrases**

According to Nelson (2001, pp.98-99), prepositional phrases have the following basic structure:

Premodifier	Preposition	Complement
just	<i>after</i>	the game
merely	across from	the library

- The complement in a prepositional phrase is most commonly a noun phrase. For example:  
in *London*      across *our street*      through *the open window*
- Clauses can also function as the complement in a prepositional phrase. For example:  
- It is a terrible way of *increasing taxes*.  
- He succeeded by *working hard*.
- Prepositional phrases usually consist of a preposition followed by its complement. Premodifiers in a prepositional phrase are quite rare, but there are some examples as follows:

<i>merely</i>	before	the	show
<i>straight</i>	across	the	road
<i>right</i>	around the corner		

Nelson (2001, pp.99-100) also provides the functions of prepositional phrases with examples below.

- (i) Postmodifier of a noun:
  - The population *of India* is growing.
  - The demand *for Thai durians* has dropped dramatically.
  - Caroline is reading a novel on Dystopian society.
- (ii) Adjunct:
  - I've got to see the doctor *on Wednesday*.
  - *Before the election*, he played football for Port FC.
  - We met Will *beside the river*.
- (iii) Subject complement:
  - Your lunch is *in the microwave*.
  - The other award is *for James*.
  - Charlie was *with his new motorcycle*.
- (iv) Postmodifier of an adjective:
  - Sarah is very proud *of her son's achievements*.
  - The villagers are not very pleased *with the new comers*.
  - The politicians were found guilty *of dishonest conduct*.
- (v) Object complement:
  - Sue has a job processing files *in databases*.
  - I am required to enroll in the English program *before July*.
  - She bought a new house *on Kanchanawanit Road*.

**Practice writing prepositional phrases: Create your own phrases with the given prepositions in the following table:**

Ex. into: right into the forest.

Premodifiers	Prepositions	Complements
	alongside	
	under	
	on	
	beyond	
	because of	

**Practice writing prepositional phrases in sentences: Put the above prepositional phrases you create into complete sentences.**

Ex. Alan ran *right into the forest*. (This PP is used as the modifier of the verb phrase ‘ran’.)

- (1) \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) \_\_\_\_\_

**2.4 Common Errors of Phrase Structure in Writing**

It is not easy to create sentences with the use of phrases in writing. This problem is faced by Thai EFL writers who made errors when forming phrases in writing. This is evident in some studies. Waelateh et al. (2019) found that 15 Thai EFL undergraduate students at a university in Southern Thailand made errors at the syntactic level of their essays in English. Among them, prepositional phrases appeared to be 11 items of the errors. This problem is also similarly faced by 29 second-year students of an EAP writing course at a state university in Thailand. They made three sub-types of preposition errors - “addition (3.5%), misuse (2.84%), and omission (1.83%) of prepositions” (Kampookaew, 2020, p.264). For example, “One reason that cause people leaving their hometown is that they are seeking *for* better education” is that the preposition ‘for’ is added, leading its errors, so the correct one requires the absence of ‘for’. Next, “When I go to university *on* the morning by metro, I always get stuck in lots of crowds” shows the prepositional misuse, so the correct one should be “in”. Finally, “In urbanization, the hospitals are higher quality” indicates the missing preposition, so the correct one should be ‘...in higher quality’. Thus, these examples display the ineffective use of prepositions, resulting in the weak structure of prepositional phrases in Thai EFL students’ writing. Overall, solving this problem is understanding L1 interference of Thai EFL students by thinking in English to write in English.

**2.5 The Unit Summary**

In this unit, EFL student writers can start to create parts of sentences, that is, phrases. To form phrases is not an easy task. They have to learn their structure prior to practicing writing. It seems that noun phrases are the most complexed form as there are many components and sub-elements to be aware of before practicing. Next, verb phrases are also intensive because of their multiple verb forms. Moreover, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, and preposition phrases have specific structures regarding modifiers. Phrases seem to be complex elements of sentences, so they need to be carefully studied and practiced. Once they have created phrases with their modifiers, they can apply them into particular sentences so that they can visualize the locations of the phrases in the sentences.

## Unit Tasks

**Directions: Create specific phrases with modifiers using the given words as directed and use them to write sentences with your own ideas.**

### (1) Noun phrases

jeans: \_\_\_\_\_

airport: \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

### (2) Verb phrases

assist: \_\_\_\_\_

fly: \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

### (3) Adjective phrases

friendly: \_\_\_\_\_

interesting: \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

### (4) Adverb phrases

surprisingly: \_\_\_\_\_

ordinarily: \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

### (5) Prepositional phrases

through: \_\_\_\_\_

behind: \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

## Unit 3: English Clauses

### 3.0 Objectives and Overview

This unit aims at providing English majors with the structure of English clauses they have learned and practiced writing using English phrases. It contains the following objectives for EFL student writers:

- (i) To comprehend the various types of English clauses.
- (ii) To analyze the components and modifiers of English clauses.
- (iii) To form English clauses.
- (iv) To transfer English clauses into sentences.
- (v) To point out common errors in writing clauses.

This unit focuses on three common types of English clauses: noun clauses, adjective clauses, and adverb clauses. Each type is examined alongside its constituting elements and modifiers. Mastering them is crucial for students' practicing of forming clauses and writing sentences with particular clauses. Further, common errors in writing clauses are also illustrated through related studies, enhancing their understanding of their writing problems. The unit may be complicated in that students need to analyze the detailed components and modifiers of clauses, but the instructor's help is essential. Through these objectives and topics, students will be able to create clauses that fulfill the completion of sentences.

### 3.1 Warm-up Activity

**A. Directions: Read the following sentences and underline independent clauses by writing IC as well as dependent clauses by writing DC:**

(1) Because English is used as a foreign language, many Thai people cannot speak English well.

---

(2) Tony will drive to Alabama to visit his grandparents whenever he has free time.

---

(3) When you have any problem, you can call me immediately.

---

(4) Nisarar did not get good results even though she studied hard and read notes.

---

(5) Thaksin university, which is located in Songkhla and Phatthalung, offers many Science and Arts-based courses.

---

**B. Directions: Read the following sentences, underline their clauses and identify their clause type (noun clause, adjective clause, or adverb clause).**

(1) Jariya who wears torn jeans and shirts walks along the street.

---

(2) Windy does not want to study what her parents would like her to do.

---

(3) After Sofia has watered trees, she immediately gets into the kitchen.

---

(4) Erick sleeps until it is raining.

---

(5) I am going to take you to my old house where I lived with my parents.

---

### 3.2 Definition of Clauses

A clause refers to a group of words that consists of a subject and a verb in their relationship. Their relationship is vital. That is, a clause addresses information of what the subject is about or what the subject acts. This seems to make a clause look similar to a sentence. This is called an independent clause or a complete sentence. However, another form of a clause in this relationship is quite complicated. It is a dependent clause because it carries some grammatical forms that convey incomplete ideas (Kramer, 2025a). Look at the following examples:

(a) Rode a motorcycle: This is a phrase.

(b) Peter rode a motorcycle: This is a clause (independent clause).

- (c) Because Peter rode a motorcycle: This is a clause (dependent clause – the use of ‘because’ makes an incomplete thought).

The focus of clauses is on the clauses ‘b’ and ‘c’. The clause ‘b’ contains a complete idea. However, the clause ‘c’ is not complete, so it must depend on the independent clause ‘b’. The clause ‘Because Peter rides a motorcycle’ must be attached to another dependent clause. For instance:

- **Because** Peter rode a motorcycle, he could reach the college on time.
- Peter could reach the college on time **because** he rode a motorcycle.

Kramer (2025a) also adds that clauses are important in grammar and writing. Firstly, one can write a sentence that requires one or more than a clause, so a clause needs a subject and a verb. Secondly, when you are forming sentences in more details, you should use multiple clauses to make your sentences much clearer. Thirdly, the use of both independent and dependent clauses in your sentences can help you understand the meaning of what you are conveying through the main point and supporting information. Thus, this shows the relationship of the ideas embedded in clauses. Finally, using dependent clauses can assist your identification of what is necessary or unnecessary in information or contents of your sentences to make complete or incomplete ideas.

### 3.3 Types of Clauses: Independent Clauses (IC) and Dependent Clauses (DC)

To understand the two major types of clauses as mentioned – IC and DC, the information about clauses needs to be revised.

According to Oregon State University, College of Liberal Art, School of Writing, Literature, and Film (2021), a clause is similar to a phrase in that it refers to a group of words. However, it differs from a phrase in that a clause provides a complete idea. That is, a clause is *a group of words that comprises both a subject and a predicate (verb)*. Look at the following examples:

- (a) Emily smiles. → It is a clause because there are a subject and a predicate.
- (b) Emily has a lot of money. → It is a clause that consists of a subject and a predicate.
- (c) Emily drinks a cup of tea. → Surely, it is a clause in which a subject and a predicate are found.

It is noted that the above clauses look like complete sentences themselves. They can be sentences. However, they are called **independent clauses (IC)** here. They do not need to rely any other construction to complete their idea or to make a sentence. Thus, independent clauses can stand themselves. They can also use ‘coordinating conjunctions’ (and, or, but, nor, for, so, yet), for example “Emily drinks a cup of tea, and she eats sandwich”. IC can also be called ‘main clauses’ or ‘coordinate clauses’.

On the other hand, **dependent clauses (DC)** cannot stand individually. They still contain subjects and predicates (verbs); however, they depend on something/some information to complete the ideas. For example, the expression ‘If Emily has a lot of money’ is a dependent clause (‘Emily’ is a subject and ‘has a lot of money’ is a predicate) because the idea is not complete. The word ‘if’ is used, so it needs to rely on some information/construction which is ‘an independent clause’ to become a complete sentence.

Without the word ‘if’, “Emily has a lot of money” seems to be an independent clause. However, the word ‘if’ or a subordinating conjunction (e.g. before, when, because...) is used to represent its dependent clause. That is why DCs can also be called ‘subordinate clauses’.

It could be said that a **dependent clause** means a group of words in which a subject and a verb (predicate) are introduced by a subordinator (subordinating conjunction). As this clause appears in an ‘incomplete statement’, it must be attached to a main clause (an independent clause) to fulfill its complete sentence (Immel & Sacks, 2008).

We can say that dependent and independent clauses are the two major clauses embedded in a variety of sentences. Nevertheless, in this course, we will focus more on dependent clauses as they are more complicated and provide types with various examples for EFL student writers to write or create their modifiers.

### 3.4 Dependent Clauses: Types, Modifiers, and Writing

As dependent or subordinate clauses have much complexity with modifiers, EFL student writers need to learn their types and modifiers in order to analyze their construction and practice writing them.

According to Stevenson (2010), there are three types of dependent clauses – noun clauses, relative (adjective clauses), and adverb (adverbial) clauses. To understand them, you need to be familiar with their general features and examples.

**A. Noun clause** or a nominal clause is a dependent clause that acts like a noun because it can function as a subject, object of a verb, or object of a preposition. Typically, a noun clause begins with one of the aforementioned keywords such as *who*, *what*, *whether*, and *that* (Academic Resource Center, ARC, 2018).

Examples of noun clauses are given.

- whether it will rain
- when I arrived
- what they said

As stated above, all dependent clauses must be attached to an independent clause to form a complete sentence. For example:

- I do not know **whether it will rain**.
- The sun was out **when I arrived**.
- **What they said** is none of your business.

### Forms of noun clauses

As aforementioned, a noun (or nominal) clause functions as a noun which can be a person, place, thing, or idea. That is, in a sentence, it can be the subject, object, object of a preposition, or a nominative predicate. Look at the following instances:

- Subject:
    - **How to cook Pad Thai** is a tough lesson for a foreigner.
    - **What Tina discussed in the classroom** was interesting.
  - Object:
    - Tammy realizes **how much reading is important**.
    - I am learning **what linguists are exploring**.
  - Object of a Preposition:
    - Suchanon is excited about **how to live on a university campus**.
    - Achita cannot make a decision on **which university she should apply for**.
  - Predicate Nominative
    - Chulalongkorn University is **where top Thai students would like to study**.
    - The controversial issue is **whether portfolios should serve as criteria for Thai university admission in the next decade**.
- B. Adjective clauses** or an adjectival/relative clause is a dependent clause that acts like an adjective because it provides extra information about the noun or pronoun it follows. Similar to noun clauses, adjective clauses typically begin with one of the aforementioned keywords (Academic Resource Center, ARC, 2018). For example:
- who is sleeping
  - that he loved
  - where you are working

In complete sentences, these clauses are used to modify or provide extra information about a noun, for example,

- Ann, **who is sleeping**, is James's daughter. (Modifies "Ann")
- Billy wants to enroll in a course **that he loves**. (Modifies "a course")

- The city **where you are working** is evergreen. (Modifies “the city”)

C. **Adverb clauses** or an adverbial clause provides details regarding how an action is performed. For example:

- while he was driving
- because you got promoted
- if she comes to the office

When adverb clauses are used in complete sentences, they can answer questions such as *when, where, why, and how* in which a certain action is performed. They can also convey a condition, contrast, purpose, or result of an action (Academic Resource Center, ARC, 2018). This is evident in the following examples:

- His daughter was sleeping in the car **while he was driving**. (Describes when his daughter was sleeping in the car)
- I am glad **because you got promoted**. (Describes why I am glad)
- **If she comes to the office**, she will be surprised. (Conveys a condition in order to come to the office)

### 3.4.1 Noun clauses: Functions, modifiers, and practical writing

A noun clause functions as a noun in a sentence. In other words, a noun clause can be *the subject, object (object of preposition, a direct object, indirect object), or complement*. Noun clauses usually begin with particular words and interrogatives which are *that, what, who, whom, which, whoever, whomever, whatever, when, where, how, why, if, or whether*. They comprise both a subject and a verb as what other clauses do (Ellis, 2023a; Lim, 2023; Mendoza, 2024). To understand a noun clause’s functions and modifiers, you can study and analyze them before practically writing.

**(1) Functions of noun clauses:** There are five functions of noun clauses, namely subjects, object of preposition, direct object, indirect object, and sentence complement.

**(1.1) As a subject:** The subject is the person or thing that does the major action in a sentence. The subject usually appears at the beginning of a sentence. For example:

- ***What Peterson said*** is really boring.
- ***What you are listening to*** is not found in the textbook.
- ***Whoever passed the English Structure and Sentence Writing Course*** can enroll in the Paragraph and Essay Writing Course.
- ***Whichever you chose*** is good for me.

(1.2) **As an object of preposition** or prepositional object: Nouns work as objects to prepositions which can be *to, with, in, on, about, or for*. The preposition and its object together form a prepositional phrase. For example:

- Amanda would like to visit **wherever many foreign tourists highly recommend**.
- Yaya wants to work **with whoever is active and punctual**.
- Suniti is interested in **whichever course offers a fieldtrip**.
- Many villagers want to hear about **why they have to pay for land tax**.
- Our suspect depends on **who owns the murder weapon**.

(1.3) **As a direct object:** The direct object concerns the noun that receives the action of transitive verbs. For example:

- Rosy does not know **why her mother is smoking**.
- Naree has been wondering **whether her grandfather was a former soldier**.
- Nick is not sure **if his brother, Micky, has a fever**.
- My mother taught me **how chili paste is made**.

(1.4) **As an indirect object:** In sentences in which transitive verbs are formed, indirect objects receive the direct objects. They are typically positioned between the verb and the direct object. For example:

- Geena told **whoever would enjoy** her adventurous story.
- Mandy sent **whoever is listed in the file** a business email.
- Professor Will teaches **whoever wants to be a novelist** his experience in creative writing.

(1.5) **As a sentence complement** or predicate nominative: The subject complement is a word, phrase, or clause that follows a copular (Verb BE), or linking verb and describes the subject of a clause (University of Batna 2, n.d.). Indeed, predicate nominatives are nouns that accompany linking verbs ‘*be* and *seem*’. Instead of detailing an action as other verbs do, linking verbs describe the subject of the clause in which an action is simply existing (Ellis, 2023a). For example:

- The truth is **that everyone must die**.
- Her reason for not being punctual today was **that she got a car accident**.
- My question is **whether you will work part-time**.
- Is **this what you really mean?** (This is what you really mean.)
- The winner will be **whoever got the top score of IELTS**.
- This seems **that you don’t understand English grammar**.

## (2) Noun clause modifiers: Adjective clauses

According to Linguistics Girl (2014), noun clause modifiers are defined as words, phrases, and clauses that describe a noun clause. A noun clause is a dependent clause that comprises a subordinating conjunction followed by a clause and that achieves a nominal function. The only grammatical form that can grammatically function as a noun clause modifier in the English language structure is **the adjective clause**, specifically '**which**' **adjective clauses**. An adjective clause comprises **a relative pronoun** accompanied by a clause that contains a subject and a predicate and that carries out an adjectival function. Only these '**which**' **adjective clauses** act as noun clause modifiers.

For example, the following italicized adjective clauses function as noun clause modifiers, so please analyze them.

- (a) That the college announced the award winner, *which has been approved*, surprises me.

Analysis: \_\_\_\_\_

- (b) Not submitting assignments, *which would not a modelling behavior*, may result in failing the course.

Analysis: \_\_\_\_\_

- (c) That Ployphan spent much time on her project, *which is still wondering*, pleased her advisor.

Analysis: \_\_\_\_\_

- (d) How Thai desserts are favored by foreigners at this restaurant, *which is astonishing*, should be memorable.

Analysis: \_\_\_\_\_

- (e) Do you know when the bus to Bangkok will reach here, *which is what other passengers should realize?*

Analysis: \_\_\_\_\_

- (f) The lecturer explained grammar elements in sentence writing to us, **which are really difficult**.

Analysis: \_\_\_\_\_

**(3) Practical writing of noun clauses**

Lim (2023) states that it is easy to construct or write noun clauses through the following ways:

(3.1) Read and analyze examples of noun clauses which usually follow the word ‘that’.

- I hope that you will enjoy your holiday.  
\_\_\_\_\_
- She didn’t really think that it would happen.  
\_\_\_\_\_
- I knew that I had seen her somewhere before.  
\_\_\_\_\_
- I believe that Kenneth will win the contest.  
\_\_\_\_\_

(3.2) You can use the following verbs related to thoughts/beliefs to construct noun clauses:

think	believe	expect	decide	hope	know	understand
suppose	guess	imagine	feel	remember	forget	

Ex. I think that someone does not need a university degree.  
I feel that studying at the university level is difficult.  
We expect.....  
Robert has decided .....  
Rebecca remembered .....

(3.3) You can also use the following verbs related to what is said to construct noun clauses:

say	admit	argue	reply	agree	claim	deny
mention	answer	complain	explain	promise	suggest	

Ex:  
They admitted **that they had made a mistake.**  
The children complained **that they had been tired all day.**  
He argued.....  
My friend promised.....  
The teacher explained.....

(3.4) You can use the following verbs to construct a noun clause with a direct object:

tell	convince	persuade	inform
remind	promise	advise	

Ex.

The police informed everybody **that the danger was over.**

We tried to tell them that **they should stop what they were doing.**

My father persuaded .....

Lily reminded.....

(3.5) You can use the following nouns to construct a noun clause by defining nouns/situations with the verb *be*:

danger	problem	chance	possibility	fact
--------	---------	--------	-------------	------

Ex.

The problem is **that the electricity will be cut off tomorrow.**

The possibility is **that more than 10 students will fail this course.**

The danger.....

The fact .....

(3.6) You can use the following adjectives to construct noun clauses for describing feelings to give reasons for your feelings:

pleased	sorry	happy	unhappy	sad
excited	glad	disappointed	afraid	

Ex.

I am sorry **that you can't come.**

Everyone was pleased **that the danger is over.**

I am disappointed that.....

Many Thai people are afraid that .....

We are glad that .....

• It is noted that the word 'that' in some cases of noun clauses can be left. For example:

- They admitted (that) they had made a mistake.
- The police informed everybody (that) the thief had been caught.
- I am sorry (that) you can't come.
- There is a big chance (that) we would succeed.

**Practice writing noun clauses with modifiers (adjective clauses).**

Ex. Many new graduates know that it is hard to get a job.....

Many new graduates know that it is hard to get a job **that serves their desire.**

- (1) Can you tell us what the name of the hotel .....is?
- (2) The news of his success,....., is true.
- (3) That you could finish a degree within 3 years,....., is hard to believe.
- (4) Charley is explaining to his colleague how the machine works,.....
- (5) What many Thai politicians have been doing, ..... is not something new to me.

**Practice writing sentences with noun clauses using the prompts given and your own ideas.**

Ex. that / appreciate

**That** majoring in English literature requires one to **appreciate** fiction, non-fiction writings, and poetry is not surprising.

(1) what / comprehend

\_\_\_\_\_

(2) that / complicated

\_\_\_\_\_

(3) which / habit

\_\_\_\_\_

(4) why / appreciate

\_\_\_\_\_

**3.4.2 Adjective clauses: Functions, modifiers, and practical Writing**

According to Na Kalasin et al. (2007), adjective or adjectival clauses (Adj clause) are called relative clauses. They are used to describe nouns. There are three types of adjective clauses – restrictive adjective clauses, non-restrictive adjective clauses, and connective adjective clauses. Each has particular functions and modifiers.

**(1) Restrictive adjective clauses (RAC) (Defining adjective clauses):** They restrict or limit the head noun or the head noun phrase. However, they can also help to identify the head noun or head noun phrase. Restrictive clauses “provide key, identifying information, so they are often referred to as *essential clauses*” in the sentence (Traffis, 2025). There are four constructions of the RAC.

**Construction 1: Relative pronoun (subject) + verb + Object / Complement**

Ex.1

Charles wears a white uniform ***which looks pure and clean.***

The Main clause : Charles wears a white uniform.

The Adj clause: *which looks pure and clean.*

This sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences:

- Charles wears a white uniform.
- ~~A white uniform~~ looks pure and clean. (made into Adj clause)

Thus, we can combine these two sentences into one sentence as “Charles wears a white uniform ***which looks pure and clean.***” Here, “that looks pure and clean” functions as the adjective clause that modifies the noun phrase (head/object) ‘a white uniform’.

Ex.2 Rita behaves herself in a way ***that really pleases her boss and colleagues.***

**Practice analyzing the above adjective clause using example 1 as a model.**

The main clause:

.....

The Adj clause:

.....

This sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences:

- .....
- .....

We can combine these two sentences into one sentence as

.....

Thus, ‘.....’  
is used to modify ‘.....’.

Ex.3. Ajarn Mark Weeks *who was my Australian lecturer of Native-English Speaking Culture Course* never came to the class late.

The main clause: Ajarn Mark Weeks never came to the class late.

The Adj clause: *who was my Australian lecturer of Native-English Speaking Culture Course*.

This sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences:

- Ajarn Mark Weeks never came to the class late.

- ~~Ajarn Mark Weeks~~ was my Australian lecturer of Native-English Speaking Culture Course.

Thus, we can combine these two sentences into one sentence as “Ajarn Mark Weeks *who was my Australian lecturer of Native-English Speaking Culture Course* never came to the class late.” Here, ‘*who was my Australian lecturer of Native-English Speaking Culture Course*’ functions as the adjective clause that modifies the noun phrase (head/subject) ‘Ajarn Mark Weeks’.

### **Construction 2: Relative pronoun (object) + subject + verb**

Ex. Smith really likes to wear a grey flat cap *that he bought at Pratunam Platinum Mall*.

The main clause: Smith really likes to wear a grey flat cap.

The Adj clause: *that he bought at Pratunam Platinum Mall*.

This sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences:

- Smith really likes to wear a grey flat cap.

- He bought ~~a grey flat cap~~ at Pratunam Platinum Mall.

Thus, we can combine these two sentences into one sentence as “Smith really likes to wear a grey flat cap *that he bought at Pratunam Platinum Mall*”. Here, ‘*that he bought at Pratunam Platinum Mall*’ functions as the adjective clause that modifies the noun phrase (head/object) ‘a grey flat cap’.

### **Construction 3: No relative pronoun (object) + subject + verb**

Ex. Nana is forced to study the English major she does not want.

The main clause: Nana is forced to study the English major.

The Adj clause: she does not want.

This sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences:

- Nana is forced to study the English major.  
that
- She does not want to study the English major.

Therefore, we can combine these two sentences as “Nana is forced to study the English major ~~that~~ she does not want.” The Adj clause ‘she does not want’ is used to modify the noun phrase (head) ‘the English major’.

**Construction 4: Preposition + relative pronoun (object of preposition) + subject + verb + (object)**

Ex. 1 There are many kinds of jobs *in which English majors can work after graduation.*

The main clause: There are many kinds of job.

The Adj clause: in which English majors can work after graduation.

This sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences:

- There are many kinds of jobs.  
*which*
- English majors can work in ~~many kinds of jobs~~ after graduation.

There are many kinds of jobs which English majors can work in after graduation.

Therefore, we can combine these two sentences as “There are many kinds of jobs *in which English majors can work after graduation*”. The Adj clause ‘in which English majors can work after graduation’ is used to modify the noun phrase (head) ‘many kinds of jobs’

Ex. 2 Andria is the one *with whom Oliver often talks after class.*

The main clause: Andria is the one.

The Adj clause: with whom Oliver often talks after class.

This sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences:

- Andria is the one.  
*whom*
- Oliver often talks with ~~Andria~~ after class.

We can combine them as:

Andria is the one whom Oliver often talks *with* after class.



This sentence, Andria is the one ***with whom Oliver often talks after class***, is that the Adj clause “with whom James often talks after class” is used to modify the noun phrase (head) ‘the one’.

**Practice writing restrictive adjective clauses to modify the main clauses that can complete the sentences.**

Ex. The canal on which ..... is very polluted.

The canal on which **people in Bangkok take a long-tailed boat** is very polluted.

- (1) The story *that*..... is very boring.
- (2) The woman *with whom* .....is working for this company.
- (3) Many Thai people like to visit Japan *which* .....
- (4) There are a few male students *who*.....
- (5) Nobody wants to enroll in a course *in which*.....
- (6) Fifa is one of my friends *with whom* .....

**Practice analyzing adjective clauses with *where, when, why, and whose* (see examples on pp. 58-61).**

- (i) Chiang Mai ***where many local people and foreigners really like to travel to*** is full of many beautiful natural tourist attractions.

Analysis:

.....

.....

.....

- (i) In the Swanna *where many wild animals are living*, we would like to go on an adventure.

Analysis:

.....  
.....  
.....

- (ii) Jefferey started working at this company in the year *when his son was born*.

Analysis:

.....  
.....  
.....

- (iii) I know the reason *why Hat Yai has traffic jams*.

Analysis:

.....  
.....  
.....

- (iv) A lion cub *whose life is very fragile* gets lost with its mother in the forest.

Analysis:

.....  
.....  
.....

- (v) Jessica incidentally met a tiger cub *whose legs are broken* along the road.

Analysis:

.....  
.....  
.....

**(2) Non-restrictive adjective clauses (NAC) (non-defining adjective clauses)**

Na Kalasin et al. (2007) state that non-restrictive adjective clauses “don’t help to identify the head noun or the head noun phrase. In other words, they do not restrict or limit the head noun or the head noun phrase and so they are called non-restrictive adjectival clauses” (p.91). This is because such clauses are not necessary; they are just additional. They appear in the pattern: ..... , xxxxxxxxxxxx, ..... (with one/two comma(s)).

Ex. 1: Many senior school students want to study at Thaksin University, *which has two campuses*.

The main clause : Many senior high school students want to study at Thaksin University,

The Adj clause: , which has two campuses.

This sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences:

- Many senior high school students want to study at Thaksin University.
- Thaksin University has two campuses.

Therefore, we can combine these two sentences as:

Many senior high school students want to study at Thaksin University. ~~Thaksin University~~ has (, which) two campuses.

In this sentence, the non-restrictive clause, ‘ which has two campuses’, is used to modify the head noun phrase ‘Thaksin University’.

**Practice analyzing the following clauses using example 1 as a model:**

Ex.2: Thaksin University, *which is located in Songkhla and Phattalung*, is popular among many senior high school students.

Analysis:

---

---

---

Ex 3: Yaya Urasaya, *who is a Norwegian-Thai actress*, played many Thai television dramas.

Analysis :

---

---

---

According to Grammarly (2024d), there are some rules regarding the use of ‘that’ and ‘which’ in restrictive and non-restrictive clauses. “Restrictive clauses are introduced with *that*. Nonrestrictive clauses are introduced with *which*”. This means we cannot use ‘that’ with non-restrictive clauses; the use of ‘that’ can be replaced by ‘which’. However, ‘which’ can be used in both restrictive and non-restrictive clauses. This is shown in the following examples:

- The white car **that is parked in front of Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences** is mine.
- The white car **which is parked in front of Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences** is mine.
- Central Hat Yai, *which is the biggest shopping mall in Songkhla*, is located opposite Makro Hatyai.

**Practice writing non-restrictive adjective clauses to modify the main clauses that can complete the sentences.**

Ex. Satun, ....., has many beautiful islands.

Satun, which is located west of Songkhla, has many beautiful islands.

- (i) Bangkok, ....., is considered one of the most polluted cities in the world.
- (ii) Many Malaysian tourists prefer to stay overnight in Hat Yai,.....
- (iii) Mr. Anutin Charnvirakul,....., is the present Prime Minister of Thailand.
- (iv) Many fan clubs are pleased with Nadech Kugimiya, .....

**(3) Connective adjective clauses (CAC)** refer to certain relative clauses in which ‘which’ is used to replace the preceding noun/noun phrase/clause. Here, ‘which’ functions as a subject, a direct object, or an object of preposition. Moreover, ‘commas’ are used between the first and final information (STOU, n.d.). For example:

- Mirinda is a diligent, smart, and helpful student, *whom made her teachers and friends really like her.*

This sentence consists of two clauses as follows:

- The main clause: Mirinda is a diligent, smart, and helpful student.
- The Adj clause: *whom made her teachers and friends really like her.*

This sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences as follows:

- Mirinda is a diligent, smart, and helpful student.
- This made her teachers and friends really like her.

We can combine these sentences as follows:

- Mirinda is a diligent, smart, and helpful student.  
  , whom +
- ~~This~~ made her teachers and friends really like her.

That is, the Adj clause above describes/modifies the whole of the previous statement rather than a noun. In fact, the relative pronoun ‘whom’ refers to the fact that ‘Mirinda is a diligent, smart, and helpful student’.

- Lorence arrived at the exam room late, *with which the proctor was dissatisfied.*

*Analysis:* .....

- Ladda considered Jim a selfish person, *which he really hated being called.*

*Analysis:* .....

### Summary of Relative Pronouns Used in Adjective Clauses

Clause marker	Function	Sentence
which	Provides information that answers the question of ‘which’	The city <b>which I most prefer</b> is Sydney.
Who	- refers to people - cannot replace nouns and pronouns which refer to animals or things - normally the subject of the verb	- Albert, <b>who scored low marks in the exams</b> , never came to class on time.
whom	- refers to people - cannot refer to animals or things -objects of a verb or preposition	Barry is a colleague <b>whom I can advise</b> .
Whose	- provides information about possession	Soren <b>whose house was burnt</b> is very miserable.
That	-replaces nouns and pronouns that refer to people, animals, or things	The city <b>that I prefer most</b> is Istanbul.
Where	- provides information that answers the question of ‘where’	On a holiday, I am looking for a chalet <b>where I can relax with my family</b> .
When	- provides information that answers the question of ‘when’	I can remember the time <b>when I started to live with this family</b> .
Why	-provides information that answers the question of ‘why’	The reason <b>why he stole my money</b> is unreasonable.

(Source: Mat Sapian & Choo, 2012, pp.67-68)

**Practice writing connective adjective clauses to modify the main clauses that can complete the sentences.**

Ex. Halit finished his master’s degree in Economics, .....

Halit finished his master’s degree in Economics, **which helps him get promoted**.

(1) Kelly behaves herself politely, .....

.....

- (2) Farah is a charitable and hard-working volunteer, .....
- (3) Danish called his younger brother a genius, .....

**Practice writing sentences with adjective clauses using the prompts given and your own ideas.**

Ex. when /house

My house was repainted in April, when we left home for a vacation.

- (1) who / politician : \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) which / sock: \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) that / Mathematics: \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) whose / carpet: \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) whom / shopping: \_\_\_\_\_
- (6) where / lake: \_\_\_\_\_
- (7) when / summer: \_\_\_\_\_
- (8) why / anger: \_\_\_\_\_

**3.4.3 Adverb clauses: Functions, modifiers, and practical writing**

According to Kramer (2022), adverb (Adv) or adverbial clauses refer to a group of words that function collectively as an adverb. The Adv clause is to modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. It is considered a dependent clause; it cannot stand individually as an independent one. The use of this clause can enrich the clarity of a sentence in that an additional context and description are provided. Look at the following examples:

- Federick washes clothes **weekly**. → ‘weekly’ is an adverb phrase that modifies this sentence.
- Federick washes clothes **after he comes back from work every Friday**. → “after he comes back from work every Friday” is an adverb clause that clearly modifies this sentence/clause.
- **Preferably**, Mally discussed the new project with her boss.
- **Because there is a preference to get promoted this year**, Mally discussed the new project with her boss.

There are many types of adverb clauses. Thus, there is a need to show the classification of adverb clauses with functions and examples.

Types	Conjunctions	Functions	Examples
1. Time	When, before, after, while, as, until, since, as soon as, whenever	Referring to a period of time or to another event	<i>When I am sick</i> , I take a medicine. I drink milk <i>after I have taken rice</i> . <i>As soon as I arrive at Hatyai airport</i> , it is heavy raining.
2. Place	Where, wherever	Referring to a place	She will go <i>wherever her husband goes</i> .
3. Reason	Because, since, as	Referring to the reason for something	<i>Because it is flooding outside</i> , I cannot leave my house.
4. Purpose	So that, in order that, lest, for fear that	Referring to the purpose of an action	The lecturer speaks <i>so fast that nobody can catch her lecture</i> .
5. Result	So that, so.....that, such....that	Referring to the contrast of something	He is <i>such</i> a generous boss <i>that everyone in the company likes</i> .
6. Concession	Though, although, even though, even if, whatever, while	Referring to the contrast of something	<i>Although the weather is cold</i> , Praew still eats ice-cream.
7. Comparison (manner)	As, as if	Referring to someone's behavior or the way something is done.	Leena behaves herself <i>as if she were a doctor</i> .
Comparison (degree)	As...as, not such.....as, not so.....as, than	Referring to someone's action in a comparative way	In one-week Weera can make <i>more money than his wife can do in a month</i> .
8. Condition	If, supposing (that) Providing (that) Provided (that) On condition that As long as, So long as, Unless	Referring to a possible situation and its consequences	<i>Supposing (that) I am bankrupt</i> , what should I do? <i>Providing (that) the furniture is ready</i> , we can move into our new house.

(Source: Mat Sopian & Choo, 2012; Nakalasin et al., 2007)

From the above table, we can describe the way those sentences are modified by adverb clauses.

(1) When I am sick, I take a medicine. (I take a medicine when I am sick)

This sentence consists of two clauses:

- 'When I am sick' is a dependent clause. (adverb clause of time)
- 'I take a medicine' is an independent/main clause that can stand alone.

Thus, the Adv clause 'when I am sick' is used to modify the verb phrase 'take a medicine'.

(2) She will go *wherever her husband goes*.

This sentence consists of two clauses:

- 'She will go' is an independent clause.
- 'wherever her husband goes' is a dependent clause.

Thus, the Adv clause 'wherever her husband goes' is used to modify the verb phrase 'will go'.

(3) *Because it is flooding outside*, I cannot leave my house. (I cannot leave my house because it is flooding outside.)

Analysis:

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

(4) The lecturer speaks *so fast that nobody can catch her lecture*.

Analysis:

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

(5) He is such a generous boss that everyone in the company likes.

This sentence contains the following two clauses:

- 'He is a generous boss' is an independent clause.
- 'such...that everyone in the company likes' is a dependent clause.

This Adv clause is used to modify the verb phrase with complement 'is a generous boss'.

(6) Although the weather is cold, Praew still eats ice-cream.

Analysis:

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

(7) Leena behaves herself *as if she were a doctor*.

Analysis:

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

(8) In one-week Weera can make *more money than his wife can do in a month*.

Analysis:

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

(9) *Providing (that) the furniture is ready*, we can move into our new house.

This sentence consists of two clauses:

- 'we can move into our new house' is an independent clause.
- 'providing (that) the furniture is ready' is a dependent clause.

Thus, this Adv clause is used to modify the verb phrase 'can move'.

**Practice writing adverb clauses to modify the main clauses that can complete the sentences.**

Ex. Teddy will be silent whatever.....

Teddy will be silent **whatever occurs in his surrounding area.**

(1) I am waiting for my father to pick me up *until* .....

(2) Sunita will work *wherever* .....

(3) Many Thai politicians have been corrupting the budget *because* .....

(4) Many TSU students have a well preparation for reading *in order that* .....

(5) Martin is swimming now *even though* .....

(6) Toshiro speaks English *as if*.....

.....

- (7) Sheena can run faster *than*.....  
 (8) I can financially support my family *as long as*.....  
 .....

**Practice writing sentences with adverb clauses through the prompts given and your own ideas.**

Ex. unless / fuel : .....  
Many airlines stop flying **unless** the jet **fuel** has low price.

- (1) before / kitchen : \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 (2) after / AI : \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 (3) when/ river: \_\_\_\_\_  
 (4) because/ street food: \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 (5) so that / lazy: \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 (6) as if/ police: \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 (7) if / bridge : \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 (8) although / canal: \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

**3.5 Common Errors in Writing Clauses**

A number of Thai EFL students face some problems in using and writing clauses. Firstly, Boonrod et al. (2018) found that 61 Grade 12 (Matthayom 6) students at a private school in Prathumthani province made 19 categories of errors in writing an English paragraph. Among them, relative clauses are ranked at 12 with 8 items of mistakes, accounting for 2.11 percent, caused by their L1 interference. Likewise, the issue of relative clauses seems to be a common error, so it is found by Termjai (2021) through an argumentative essay written by 2 undergraduate Thai students of the second-year English major at a state university in the lower northern region of Thailand. The outstanding error goes to the use of the relative pronoun ‘that’ in introducing non-restrictive relative clauses (NRRCs) of the essay. Grammatically, relative pronouns can be used to introduce NRRCs that can be “who, whom, whose, and which”, excluding ‘that’, for example, “According to statistic, use of technology by college students in cell phone and social networking were almost equal **that** were 32% and 31%” (p.99). In this sentence, ‘that’ should be replaced by ‘which’, but it is not. Thus, this became an error. Similarly, Jangho et al. (2023) revealed

that 50 English majors at the Faculty of Education, Naresuan University, made errors in the use of relative markers in English adjective clauses. The relative pronoun ‘whom’ was the most one (44.59%), accompanied by ‘which’ (33.56%) and ‘whose’ (16.67%). Meanwhile, the relativizer was the least problematic aspect for them, accounting for 5.18%. Overall, relative clauses seem to be problematic to Thai EFL students.

Additionally, Mendoza (2024) found that noun clauses can also be a problem for English learners. He provides some examples of errors below.

- (i) The error occurs when noun clauses are confusingly used with other types of clauses. For example:
  - “*What he said surprised me*”. This is correct as it is a noun clause.
  - “*The man who spoke loudly was rude*”. This is not correct. It is not a noun clause because it is an adjective clause.
  - “*She cried because she was tired*”. This is not correct. It is not a noun clause because it is an adverb clause.
- (ii) Subject-verb agreement is wrongly used in long noun clauses, particularly when the subject is located far from the verb. For example:
  - “*What she said about the rules were shocking*”. It is not correct. The subject ‘what’ is singular, but the verb ‘were’ is plural. The correct one should be “*What she said about the rules **was** shocking*”.
- (iii) Overusing or forgetting of ‘that’: The pronoun ‘that’ is too much used or skipped when it is needed in a clause, so this can be confusing. For example,
  - “*I know that he said that she was that kind of person*”. This is not correct because ‘that’ is repeated. The correct version can be “*I know he said she was that kind of person*” (the first ‘that’ can be elliptical).
  - “*She insisted he was wrong*”. This is incorrect because the pronoun ‘that’ is needed here, but is not found. Thus, the correct version can be “*She insisted that he was wrong*”.
- (iv) Noun clauses do not require the use of commas even they appear after the introductory phrases or long subjects. However, commas are used in some clauses, so they become an error. For instance:
  - “*The fact is, that he lied*”.
  - “*I know, that she’s busy*”.

Both are not correct because the commas are used, so the correct version should be “*The fact is that he lied*” and “*I know that she’s busy*”.

Therefore, these errors in relative clauses and noun clauses can be solved by a thorough understanding of clause structure and a careful practice of writing clauses by EFL student writers through the help of their teachers.

### 3.6 The Unit Summary

This unit has provided a descriptive analysis and a practical way of writing clauses. EFL student writers need to be aware of what independent and dependent clauses are about. Then, they can delve into certain types of clauses – noun clauses, adjective clauses, and adverb clauses. The key elements of the clauses are functions and modifiers. As they are working in sentences, their functions and modifications need to be analyzed. After that, EFL student writers can practice constructing clauses following the examples given and writing them in full sentences through the writing prompts. Although these clauses provide complex structure, they can be formed with the help of the lecturers.

#### Unit Tasks

**A. Directions: Construct noun clauses, adjective clauses, and adverb clauses as directed to complete the sentences.**

##### Noun clauses

- (1) What .....has been known.
- (2) .....whether fast food is suitable for some consumers.
- (3) Where.....is Koh Samui.

##### Adjective clauses

- (4) I would like to buy a computer which .....
- (5) Nurse is a key person who.....  
.....
- (6) It is a good chance for you to study in a foreign country that.....  
.....

##### Adverb clauses

- (7) Eating cookies is good for your health although .....
- (8) This resort is so beautifully decorated that .....

(9) Before you go to the hospital for a medical check-up, .....  
.....

**B. Directions: Write sentences with dependent clauses using the writing prompts and your own ideas.**

(1) although / palace

\_\_\_\_\_

(2) until / flood

\_\_\_\_\_

(3) as soon as / snow

\_\_\_\_\_

(4) when / winter

\_\_\_\_\_

(5) after / festival

\_\_\_\_\_

(6) because /hate

\_\_\_\_\_

(7) if / island

\_\_\_\_\_

(8) as long as / slim

\_\_\_\_\_

## Unit 4: Introduction to English Sentence Structures

### 4.0 Objectives and Overview

This unit aims to explain the overview of English sentence structures. It comprises the following objectives for EFL student writers:

- (i) To understand the foundation of English sentence structures.
- (ii) To analyze the components of sentences.
- (iii) To construct the subject and predicate parts of the sentences.
- (iv) To master the active and passive voice.
- (v) To write sentences using the passive voice.
- (vi) To recognize common errors in writing sentences and voice

As the sentence structures have complexity, this unit is merely based on two main topics – components of sentences and voice. Other layers of sentence structures will be explored in Units 5-6. Here, they can practice writing subjects and predicates of sentences, which will help them to strengthen their ability in sentence-writing skills. They will also delve into the structure of the passive voice across all 12 tenses they are familiar with. By transforming sentences with the active voice into the passive voice, students will develop fluency in their writing. Moreover, this unit covers common errors in writing components of sentences and voice based on previous studies, enabling students to recognize and avoid these grammar mistakes. Through these objectives and topics, they will be motivated to improve their sentence writing.

### 4.1 Warm-up Activity

**A. Directions: Read the following sentences and identify their components – subjects (S) or predicates (P) by underlining them:**

(1) Hatyai, Songkhla, had been flooded during the end of November, 2025.

---

(2) The boy who is walking to the canteen is Ronan's younger brother.

---

(3) What you need to be aware of when you are studying grammar is about rules.

---

(4) Victoria and her mother have arrived at their hometown in New York.

---

(5) Reading a lot of books without much relax can cause you to become stressed.

---

**B. Directions: Change the following active sentences into the passive voice:**

(1) The principal punished a group of students in the morning because they were late.

---

(2) Tomorrow we will bake chicken in the dormitory's kitchen.

---

(3) Edward is watering rose trees in the garden.

---

(4) Staff members write business letters.

---

(5) Someone has stolen Paulina's mobile phone.

---

#### **4.2 Definition of Sentences**

A sentence is defined as a group of words consisting of a subject and a predicate that conveys a complete idea (Pinijsakkul, 2016). Moreover, it is “a written expression of a complete thought” that comprises the following elements (RMIT University, 2026):

- (i) A capital letter located at the beginning of a sentence and a full stop positioned at the end of a sentence
- (ii) A subject - a person, people or thing(s) – which is doing something
- (iii) A verb that involves an action

Similarly, a sentence can refer to “a group of words that expresses a statement, question, command, or wish”. It usually carries “a subject and verb. In written English, the first word of a sentence is capitalized and the sentence ends with a period, question mark, or exclamation point” (The Britannica Dictionary, 2026). Further, a sentence concerns a complete set of words in which meaning is conveyed, and it can have different functional

communications through a statement (She is smiling), a command (Stand up), an exclamation (How exciting it is!) or a question (Do you know this place?) (Andersen, 2014). Moreover, the definition of a sentence is related to its formation. When it is constructed, it follows a specific word order. It comprises words, phrases, and clauses which must be ordered subsequently to be meaningful. It can be written with or without the determiner (e.g. *a, an, the,...*), and it is followed by a verb (Byjus, 2026a). Look at the following examples:

- Maria’s hometown is located in Sydney, Australia.
- Do you have any problem living here?
- To live in the campus happily, you should have friends.
- What a beautiful this car is!
- There are many TSU students who came from Patthalung province.
- May I help you?
- Use the following words to make a declarative sentence.

Why are those examples are considered to be ‘sentences’?

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---

### 4.3 Components of Sentences

Components or parts of a sentence is very vital. EFL student writers need to be aware of the components of a sentence in order to analyze them and practice writing them effectively.

According to Pinijsakkul (2016), a sentence has two main components which are a subject and a predicate. The subject refers to “a noun or noun substitute which usually appears at the beginning of a sentence” (p. 4). It attempts to reply the following questions – who? or what? – in relation to what the predicate says.

Williams (2019) states that with regard to traditional grammar, “sentence are divided into two parts – **subjects**, which tell us who or what the sentence is about, and **predicates**, which tell us something about those subjects. It is generally agreed that sentences have subjects and predicates” (p.68).

From the above definitions, we can see the following examples of the subject and predicate:

- (i) Penelope teaches Chemistry.  
*Subject* is “Rosy”.  
*Predicate* is “teaches Chemistry”.
- (ii) Jack called Emma yesterday.  
*Subject* is .....  
*Predicate* is.....

- (iii) The old man wearing the white shirt is Richard.  
*Subject* is .....  
*Predicate* is .....

To understand details of subjects and predicates, Butte College (2019) provides this principle. Basic parts of sentences are comprised of **subjects and predicates**. Moreover, other embedded components which are **object, indirect object, and subject complement**; they can provide more details to the subject and predicate.

**A. Subject:** The subject of a sentence can be a particular person, place, or thing that is performing the action of the sentence. It acts for what or whom the sentence is written about. Normally, it can be a noun or a pronoun, and it can cover words, phrases, or clauses that can be modified. Look at the following examples:

- The Prime Minister
- The Prime Minister of Thailand
- The Prime Minister of Thailand who is from Phumjaithai Party
  
- Ton-nga-chang waterfall
- Ton-nga-chang waterfall at Hatyai, Songkhla
- Ton-nga-chang waterfall at Hatyai, Songkhla, that is iconic
  
- My laptop
- My new laptop
- My new laptop (that) I bought at Central Hatyai

**B. Predicate:** The predicate performs its action within a sentence. The basic predicate consists of a verb and can comprise words, phrases, or clauses that will be modified. Look at the following instances:

- The Prime Minister of Thailand **is forming a new government**.
- Ton-nga-chang waterfall at Hatyai, Songkhla, **will be the tourist destination of my next trip**.
- My new laptop **works well**.

**C. Direct object:** The direct object is the main recipient of the action of the sentence. Normally the direct object can be a noun or pronoun. Look at the following examples:

- The woman bought **a van**.
- The woman bought **it**.

**D. Indirect object:** The indirect object is the minor recipient of the action of the sentence. That is, the action of the sentence is being done to whom or for whom. Basically, the direct object is a noun or pronoun. Look at the following instances:

- The woman bought **her son** an iPad.
- The woman bought **him** an iPad.

**E. Subject complement:** The subject complement works by renaming or describing the subject; thus, it is often a noun, pronoun, or adjective. The subject complement takes place when a *linking verb* is used within the sentence. Look at the following examples:

- Ricardo is an obedient son. (Son is a noun that renames the subject ‘Ricardo’.)
- Ricardo seems obedient. (Obedient is an adjective that describes the subject ‘Ricardo’.)

Moreover, there are some more details of subjects and predicates that should be more recognized (UMD Writing and Reading Center Tutor, 2003).

- Subjects can be simple and compound.

(i) **Simple subjects:** They can be “the one word that tells what the sentence is about”. Using a simple subject in a sentence, it can be described by other words; this suits the term ‘a complete subject’. For example:

- The officer smiles. (officer is a simple subject)
- The tall, thin officer smiles. (‘tall, thin’ describes the officer, so the tall, thin officer is a complete subject)

(ii) **Compound subjects:** They will appear if there are two or more subjects linked to the same predicate. For example:

- **Joey and Lisa** study in the same class.
- **Adam and Chalotte**, my best friends, have already enrolled in the Calculus course.

- Predicates can be complete, compound, action verbs, and linking verbs.

(i) **Complete predicate:** It refers to a predicate in which a verb and words are associated with. For example:

- Palmy **cooked Tom Yam at her apartment yesterday.**
- Rocha **is playing tennis on the court with his friend.**

(ii) **Compound predicate:** It will happen when a sentence has more than one predicate. For example:

- Joshua **cleaned his bed and found some money under the bed.**
- Roberta **went jogging in the park and met her old friend, Mia, there.**

- (iii) **Action verbs:** They are verbs indicating certain physical and mental actions in the predicate of a sentence. For example:
  - Andrew **wrote** research reports.
  - Natalia **considers** reasons to change her job.
  
- (iv) **Linking verbs:** They include Be (is, am, are, was, were, been), get, become, and appear, as well as senses (look, feel, taste and hear). They can also be action verbs that are used or linked within the sentence's context. For example:
  - Luke **is** my colleague. (Is links Luke, the subject, to the noun that follows it, colleague.)
  - Alexandra **appears** happy. (Look links Alexandra, the subject, the adjective that follows it, happy.)
  - Fried rice **tastes** spicy. (Taste links a description of spicy to fried rice.)

**Practice writing subjects and predicates: Fill in the space to complete the actions of the subjects or to provide the subjects of the predicates.**

Ex. Applying for a job online .....

Applying for a job online **does not take a long time.**

.....takes your time.

Editing ungrammatical sentences takes your time.

(1) Leonardo and his son .....

(2) .....are examples of corruptions in Thailand.

(3) Reading literary books .....

(4) .....is to learn by yourself.

(5) To ride a bicycle .....

(6) ..... look unpleasant in my opinion.

#### 4.4 Voice: Writing Sentences with Active and Passive Voices

To understand voice in grammar and practice it in sentence writing, one needs to be aware of its perspectives and structure.

#### 4.4.1 Perspectives of voice

Voice in grammar is also called ‘grammar voice’ in linguistics. In this textbook, it is more structure and sentence writing course; it relies on voice, however. Definition of voice in modern English grammar is given by Quirk et al. (1985). It is used to describe the verb category that can differentiate an active verb phrase, ‘ate’, from a passive one, ‘was eaten’. Indeed, “voice is a grammatical category which makes it possible to view the action of a sentence in either of two ways, without change in the facts reported” (p.159). For example, the sentence (clause) “the butler murdered the detective” has an active voice while “the detective was murdered by the butler” has a passive voice. Thus, active and passive voices play significant roles in the verb phrase and the clause (sentence). Therefore, in the clause or sentence level, the active and passive construction is related to the following statement: “(a) The active subject becomes the passive agent; (b) the active object becomes the passive subject; and (c) the preposition *by* is introduced before the agent.” (p.159). This principle of voice in grammar structure is utilized in this textbook.

In writing, the active and passive voices are used differently. Active voice is a common verb pattern used in non-scientific writing. If you mainly used active voice, this will contribute to the clearer meaning of your sentences. Moreover, it will not make the sentences too difficult or wordy for your readers (Purdue OWL, 2026b). For instance, “The majority of TSU students did not perform well in the English Linguistics course” is that the active voice is used because the subject of the sentence performs the action. Meanwhile, passive voice is formed when “the subject is acted upon; he or she receives the action expressed by the verb. The agent performing the action may appear in a “by the...” phrase or may be omitted” (Purdue OWL, 2026b), for instance “the car will be washed by my son”. This sentence requires the use of the passive voice as the subject ‘the car’ is being acted upon (washed) by another person (my son).

Krammer (2024) adds that active voice refers to “a grammatical structure in which the subject of the sentence, creating a direct and clear expression”, for instance, “The nurse vaccinated the patients”. On the other hand, passive voice occurs when the subject of the sentence is the recipient of the way the verb is acted, leading to a more indirect structure such as “The patients were vaccinated by the nurse”. This shows that passive voice is suitable for the way the action or the recipient is more emphasized than the performer.

#### Examples of the active voice in sentences

- **Daniel is using a laptop.** (Daniel is performing the action, using, on the target of the action, a laptop.)
- Elizabeth cooked Italian food.
- They brushed their teeth.
- Samuel took an IELTS test.

### Examples of the passive voice in sentences (according to the above passive voices)

- **A laptop is being used by Daniel.** (The action's target, a laptop, is located first as the subject of the sentence whereas the doer of the action is given later in the sentence, with the preposition 'by'. There are two verbs found in the passive voice sentences – 'is being' (a conjugated form of verb-be) and 'the past participle verb 'used' which is the main verb.
- Italian food was cooked by Elizabeth.
- Their teeth were brushed by them.
- An IELTS test was taken by Samuel.

However, some sentences in the passive voice do not need to be followed by the preposition 'by' because the doers are unnecessary to be told. For example:

- *The check was paid.*
- *He will be remembered.*
- *The Philippines is known for its marine biodiversity.*

### 4.4.2 Structures of the active and passive voices

Kramer (2024) provides general structures of the active voice in present, past, and future tenses which are illustrated below.

#### A. General structures of the Active Voice in Present, Past, and Future Tenses

Marina	+	cleans	+	the restroom.
Marina		cleaned		the restroom.
Marina		will clean		the restroom.
<i>subject</i>		<i>verb</i>		<i>object</i>
<i>(doing action)</i>		<i>(action)</i>		<i>(receiving action)</i>

#### B. General Structures of the Passive Voice in Present, Past, and Future Tenses

The restroom	+	is cleaned	+	by Marina.
The restroom		was cleaned		by Marina.
The restroom		will be cleaned		by Marina.
<i>receiver of action</i>		<i>passive verb</i>		<i>doing action</i>

To delve into the active and passive voices in sentences according to 12 verb tenses in the English language, EFL student writers need to be aware of the following rules and examples:

**(1) Active and Passive Voice Rules for Present Simple Tense (Jayathilaka, n.d.)**

Active Voice	Passive Voice (Auxiliary Verb – is/am/are)
Subject + V1+s/es+ object	Object+ is/am/are+ V3+ by + subject
Subject + Do/does+ not + V1 + Object	Object + is/am/are+ not + V3+ by Subject
Does+ Subject+ V1+Object+?	Is/am/are + Object+ V3+ by subject +?

**Examples:**

Active voice: He reads a novel.

Passive voice: A novel is read.

Active voice: He does not cook food.

Passive voice: Food is not cooked by him.

Active voice: Does he purchase books?

Passive voice: Are books purchased by him?

Active voice: They grow plants.

Passive voice: .....

Active voice: She teaches me.

Passive voice: .....

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice and vice versa (Adapted from Lim, 2023).**

Active Voice	Passive Voice
Matthew waters the garden.	
Winnie vacuums the floor.	
	Once a year, the house is painted by Ryan.

**(2) Active and Passive Voice Rules for Present Continuous Tense (Jayathilaka, n.d.)**

Active Voice	Passive Voice (Auxiliary Verb- is/am/are + being)
Subject + is/am/are+ V1+ ing + object	Object+ is/am/are+ being+ V3+ by + subject
Subject + is/am/are+ not+ V1+ ing+ object	Object + is/am/are+ not + being+V3+ by Subject
Is/am/are+ subject+V1+ing + object+?	Is/am/are + Object+ V3+ by subject +?

**Examples:**

Active voice: Erika is writing a letter.	Passive voice: A letter is being written by Erika.
Active voice: Kritika is not chopping vegetables.	Passive voice: Vegetables are not being chopped by Kritika.
Active voice: Is Ninlana buying a table?	Passive voice: .....
Active voice: .....	Passive voice: Poor people are being served by them.
Active voice: She is disturbing Dida.	Passive voice: .....

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice and vice versa (Adapted from Lim, 2023).**

Active Voice	Passive Voice
Emmanuel is watering the garden.	
	The baby is being fed by Helen.
Right now, Nora is eating fast-food.	

**(3) Active and Passive Voice Rules for Present Perfect Tense (Jayathilaka, n.d.)**

Active Voice	Passive Voice (Auxiliary Verb- has/have +been)
Subject + has/have+ V3+ object	Object+ has/have+ been+ V3+ by + subject
Subject + has/have+ not+ V3+ object	Object + has/have+ not + been+V3+ by Subject
Has/have+ subject+ V3 + object+?	Has/Have + Object+ been+V3+ by subject +?

**Examples:**

Active voice: Nitat has challenged her.	Passive voice: She has been challenged by Nitat.
Active voice: Michiko has not written an article.	Passive voice: An article has not been written by Michiko.
Active voice: .....	Passive voice: Has apartment been left by them?
Active voice: Harry has created this masterpiece.	Passive voice: This masterpiece has been created by her.
Active voice: My uncle has read the newspaper.	Passive voice: .....

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice** (Adapted from Lim, 2023).

Active Voice	Passive Voice
Timmy has eaten sweet potatoes.	
Many tourists have visited that lake.	
Sonia has finished a research report.	

**(4) Active and Passive Voice Rules for Present Perfect Continuous Tense** (Lim, 2023)

Active Voice	Passive Voice (Auxiliary Verb- has/have +been being)
Subject + has/have+ been + ving+ object	Object+ has/have+ been+ being + V3+ by + subject
Subject + has/have+ not+ been + ving+ object	Object + has/have+ not + been+ being + V3+ by Subject
Has/have+ subject+ been + ving + object+?	Has/Have + Object+ been+ being + V3+ by subject +?

**Examples:**

Active voice: Phu has been fixing this computer.

Passive voice: This computer has been being fixed by Phu.

Active voice: The workers have been building this tower.

Passive voice: .....

Active voice: The staff has been typing many documents.

Passive voice: .....

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voices** (Adapted from Lim, 2023).

Active Voice	Passive Voice
Fah has been drawing the picture	
He has been eating the pudding.	
Recently, Hugo has been doing the work.	

**(5) Active and Passive Voice Rules for Past Simple Tense** (Jayathilaka, n.d.)

Active Voice	Passive Voice (Auxiliary Verb- was/were)
Subject + V2+ object	Object+ was/were V3+ by + subject
Subject +did+ not+v1+ object	Object + was/were+ not +V3+ by Subject
Did+ subject+V1+ object+?	Was/were + Object+ V3+ by subject +?

**Examples:**

Active voice: Michael vacuumed the floor. Passive voice: The floor was vacuumed by Michael.

Active voice: Eddie bought a bicycle. Passive voice: A bicycle was bought by Eddie.

Active voice: Nisa called my friends. Passive voice: .....

Active voice: He saved me. Passive voice: I was saved by him.

Active voice: Miya paid the bills. Passive voice: .....

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice (Adapted from Lim, 2023).**

Active Voice	Passive Voice
Jasper played basketball yesterday.	
I wrote the essay.	
Sam repaired the boat.	
Did Charlie paint the cottage?	

**(6) Active and Passive Voice Rules for Past Continuous Tense (Jayathilaka, n.d.)**

Active Voice	Passive Voice (Auxiliary Verb- was/were + being)
Subject + was/were + V1+ing+ object.	Object+ was/were +being+V3+ by + subject
Subject +was/were+ not+V1+ing + object	Object + was/were+ not +being+V3+ by Subject
Was/were+ Subject + V1+ing + object+?	Was/were + Object+ being+V3+ by+ subject+?

**Examples:**

Active voice: Niti was painting the wall. Passive voice: The wall was being painted by Niti.

Active voice: Manit was repairing the computer. Passive voice: The computer was being repaired by Manit.

Active voice: Were you reciting the poem? Passive voice: Was the poem being recited?

Active voice: Daranee was baking the cake. Passive voice: .....

Active voice: ..... Passive voice: I was being watched by her.

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice** (Adapted from Lim, 2023).

Active Voice	Passive Voice
The salesman was helping the customer when the thief came into the shop.	
Siree was packing her suitcase when the phone rang.	
Sak and Serm were washing dishes when their mother arrived at the restaurant.	

**(7) Active and Passive Voice Rules for Past Perfect Tense** (Jayathilaka, n.d.)

Active Voice	Passive Voice (Auxiliary Verb- had +been)
Subject + had + V3+ object.	Object+ had+been +V3+ by + subject
Subject +had+ not+V3+ object	Object + had+ not +been+V3+ by Subject
Had+ Subject + V3+ object+?	Had + Object+ been+V3+ by+ subject+?

**Examples:**

- Active voice: Mickey had closed the room.      Passive voice: The room had been closed by Mickey.
- Active voice: Louise had not received the letter.      Passive voice: .....
- Active voice: Ben had solved the doubt.      Passive voice: The doubt had been solved by Ben.
- Active voice: Had the police caught the thief?      Passive voice: Had the thief been caught by them?
- Active voice: I had paid fifty thousand baht.      Passive voice:.....

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice** (Adapted from Lim, 2023).

Active Voice	Passive Voice
Bruce had played basketball.	
Byran had repaired many cars before he received his mechanic's licence.	
Sakura had done a research report in English literature.	

**(8) Active and Passive Voice Rules for Past Perfect Continuous Tense (Lim, 2023)**

Active Voice	Passive Voice (Auxiliary Verb- had +been + being)
Subject + had been + ving+ object.	Object+ had+been being+V3+ by + subject
Subject +had+ not+been + ving + object	Object + had+ not +been being+V3+ by Subject
Had+ Subject + had been + ving object+?	Had + Object+ been+ being + V3+ by+ subject+?

**Examples:**

Active voice: Charles had been building this company.

Passive voice: This house had been being built by Charles.

Active voice: Billy had been fixing this laptop.

Passive voice: .....

Active voice: Had they been repairing the fridge?

Passive voice: .....

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice (Adapted from Lim, 2023).**

Active Voice	Passive Voice
Steve had been drawing the picture.	
Chef James had been preparing the restaurant’s fantastic dinners for two years before he moved to Madrid.	
Nicole had been furnishing her living room.	

**(9) Active and Passive Voice Rules for Future Simple Tense (Jayathilaka, n.d.)**

Active Voice	Passive Voice (Auxiliary Verb- will+ be)
Subject + will+ V1+ object.	Object+ will+ be +V3+ by + subject
Subject +will + not+ V1+object	Object + will+ not +be+V3+ by Subject
Will+ Subject + V1+ object+?	Will + Object+ be +V3+ by+ subject+?

**Examples:**

Active voice: Kaewta will sew the bag.    Passive voice: The bag will be sewed by Kaewta.

Active voice: Lee will not arrange the things. Passive voice: .....  
 Active voice: Will you mop the floor? Passive voice:.....?  
 Active voice: They will post the letter. Passive voice: The letter will be posted.  
 Active voice:..... Passive voice: Money will be saved by Reena.

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice** (Adapted from Lim, 2023).

Active Voice	Passive Voice
Malcom will play basketball.	
Hanna will buy the bag.	
Harvey will water the rose trees.	

**(10) Active and Passive Voice Rules for Future Perfect Tense** (Jayathilaka, n.d.)

Active Voice	Passive Voice (Auxiliary Verb + had +been)
Subject + will+ have +V3+ object.	Object+ will+ have+ been +V3+ by + subject
Subject + will+ have +not+V3+ object.	Object + will+ have +not+been+V3+ subject
Will+ Subject+have+V3+ object+?	Will + object+have+been+V3+by +subject+?

**Examples:**

Active voice: They will have brought the toy.  
 Passive voice:.....  
 Active voice: Nim will not have changed the bed sheet.  
 Passive voice: The bed sheet will not have been changed by Nim.  
 Active voice: Will she have written the notes.  
 Passive voice: .....?  
 Active voice: They will have won the match.  
 Passive voice: The match will have been won by them.  
 Active voice: .....  
 Passive voice: A shirt will have been washed by Ken.

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice** (Adapted from Lim, 2023).

Active Voice	Passive Voice
Justin will have played basketball.	
Narin will have bought the bag.	
Sabrina will have watered the rose trees.	

**(11) Active and Passive Voice Rules for Future Continuous Tense** (English Central, 2023a)

<b>Active Voice</b>	<b>Passive Voice (will be being )</b>
Subject + will be + being + Ving + object	Object+ will+ be being+V3+ by + subject
Subject + will not + be +Ving+ object.	Object + will+ not be being+V3+ subject
Will+ Subject+ be + Ving + object+?	Will + object be being+V3+by +subject+?

**Examples:**

Active voice: This family will be building the new hotel next year.

Passive voice: The new hotel will be being built by this family next year.

Active voice: This family will not be building the new hotel next year.

Passive voice: The new hotel will not be being built by this family next year.

Active voice: Will this family be building the new hotel next year?

Passive voice: Will the new hotel be being built by this family next year?

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice** (Adapted from Lim, 2023).

<b>Active Voice</b>	<b>Passive Voice</b>
Kiara will be playing basketball.	
Lulu will be buying the bag.	
Anan will be watering the rose trees.	

**(12) Active and Passive Voice Rules for Future Perfect Continuous Tense** (English Central, 2023b)

<b>Active Voice</b>	<b>Passive Voice (will have been being )</b>
Subject + will have been + Ving + object	Object+ will+ have been being+V3+ by + subject
Subject + will+ not have been + Ving + object.	Object + will+ not have been being +V3+ subject
Will+ Subject+ have been + Ving + object+?	Will + object have been being + V3+by +subject+?

**Examples:**

Active voice: The team will have been working on the project happily.

Passive voice: The project will have been being worked on happily by the team.

Active voice: The staff members will have been preparing the report for a long time by the deadline.

Passive voice: The report will have been being prepared by the staff members for a long time by the deadline.

Active voice: The team will have been making significant process in the field of engineering research by the end of the year.

Passive voice: By the end of the year, significant progress will have been being made in the field of engineering research by the team.

Active voice: Teacher training will have been taking three percent of the school's resources by next month.

Passive voice: Three percent of the school's resources will have been being taken by employee training by next month.

Active voice: We will have been doing extensive preparations for the seminar for nine months by next week.

Passive voice: Extensive preparations for the seminar will have been being done by us for nine months by next week.

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice** (Adapted from Lim, 2023).

Active Voice	Passive Voice
Quinn will have been being playing basketball.	
Liz will have been repairing the bag.	
Raymond will have been watering the rose trees.	

**Other forms of the passive voice**

Beyond the aforementioned structures of the passive voice with regard to the 12 verb tenses, there appear to be other forms of the passive voice that should be recognized for writing sentences.

**A. Passive voice without an agent (doer)**

In some expressions or sentences, the doer of the action is unnecessary to be known or the writer of the sentence does not need to know who the performer of an action is (Signum International AG, 2025). This is evident in the following examples:

- The classroom's door is broken. (The classroom's door is the subject and the verb (passive) is 'is broken', but the doer is not identified.)
- All the candies in the box have been eaten.
- Some money has been stolen.
- Many victims in the war are killed.

Look at the following table that show this type of the passive voice in affirmative and interrogative sentences:

<b>Affirmative Sentence</b>	<b>Negative Sentence</b>	<b>Interrogative Sentence</b>	<b>Negative - interrogative sentence</b>
Thaksin University was established in 1968.	Thaksin University was not established in 1968.	Was Thaksin University established in 1968?	Wasn't Thaksin University established in 1968?
Those companies were built in 2022.	Those companies were not built in 2022.	Were those companies built in 2022?	Weren't those companies built in 2022?

Sometimes, the passive voice without the doer can be seen in academic or scientific writing. Their active voice is also shown for comparison. Look at the following examples:

<b>Passive Voice</b>	<b>Active Voice</b>
Water <b>is made up of</b> oxygen and hydrogen.	Oxygen and hydrogen <b>make up</b> water.
Parcels <b>are wrapped in</b> plastic.	Plastic <b>wraps</b> parcels. .
A paragraph <b>is composed of</b> a topic sentence, supporting details, and a conclusion.	A topic sentence, supporting details and a conclusion <b>compose</b> a paragraph.

### **B. Passive voice with infinitives (without an agent)**

Some sentences need the infinitive passive voice. This form is used after modal verbs and other most verbs usually precede an infinitive 'to' (Signal International AG, 2025).

- Waraporn has **to be tested** on her English writing.
- Sam wants **to be promoted** this year.
- Billy expects **to be invited** to the seminar.
- Nobody would like **to be disappointed**.

### **C. Passive voice with gerunds (without an agent)**

Gerunds are another verb form that can be used for the passive voice, specifically as 'being+ past participle'. Normally, the gerund form is used after the preposition, and the

passive verb precedes the gerund (Signal International AG, 2025). Look at the following examples:

- I **remember being taught** to drive.
- The children are excited **about being taken** to the zoo.
- Most film stars **hate being interviewed**.
- Daughters **like being pampered**.
- Richmond dislikes **being questioned** about his education background.

**Practice writing sentences in the passive voice without doers using the given verbs.**

Ex. Communicate: \_\_\_\_\_  
English is communicated in this company.

- (i) Write: \_\_\_\_\_
- (ii) Make: \_\_\_\_\_
- (iii) Do: \_\_\_\_\_
- (iv) Process: \_\_\_\_\_

#### **4.5 Common Errors in Writing Sentences Regarding Grammatical Components and Voice**

It is normal for Thai EFL students to make errors in writing sentences regarding their grammatical components and voice. The former aspect is seen in Bootchuy (2008, as cited in Hinnon, 2014) who found the ill-formed sentences of English academic writing by 41 students at a university in Bangkok. These students produced many errors. One of them is about the part of sentence which are “omission of subjects, verbs, objects and complement” (p. 174). Similarly, Promsupa et al. (2017) revealed that 34 English essays by 34 second year students at a university in Thailand are full of grammatical errors. In light of subject and predicate parts of the sentences, students created some errors in omission of subjects with 39 items (1.76%), omission of verbs or actions with 24 items (1.08%), and omission of objects/complements with 31 items (1.40%). These problems are caused by their Thai language interference, so they should be solved by the teacher’s teaching through a contrastive analysis between Thai and English grammar structure.

In light of the active and passive voice, Thai EFL students also make this type of error. This is evident in a study of Somphong (2013) who revealed that 90 first year students majoring Southeast Asian Studies at Thammasat University who studied English II course produced some errors when they were given the written test of writing 25 sentences from

each pair of noun and verb. The first problem is about malformed passive sentences in which the subject (the given noun) precedes a correct form of verb-be but the main verb given is wrongly formed. There appeared to be 27.87% or 240 examples of the sentences written in malformed passive sentences such as the wrong use of ‘-ed’ ending of an irregular verb - “readed” instead of “read”, “drived” instead of “driven”, “hited” or “hitted” instead of “hit”, “writed” instead of “written”, “wined” instead of “won”, among others (p.7). The next problem is ungrammatical sentences in which a subject and a main verb given are the main part of the sentence with an active voice but they are ungrammatically written. This error consisted of 8.13% or 70 instances of the 861 sentences. Some examples in which objects of the sentences with active voices were not included - “The cart pushes”, “The watch steals”, and “The prize won” (p.9). And an instance in which the passive sentence with an object is ungrammatically used – “The gate was hit my hand” (p. 9). The final problem is about active sentences. There appeared to be only 26 complete active sentences, 3.02% of the total number of sentences. That is, the remaining sentences were incorrectly written. Some examples of this error are “That gate hit me!”, “The gate is hitting me.”, “He’s read a book.”, “She buy the letter because she will write letter to her dad.”, and “I’m writing a letter to my mother who lives in Canada now” (p. 12). Thus, these errors can be caused by the students’ mother tongue interference in writing English sentences. They can be solved by an intensive teaching on contrastive analysis of Thai and English grammar.

Moreover, there are some common errors with passive verbs encountered by English learners. This is illustrated in the following sentences with their correct versions (English by the Day, n.d.):

- (1) **Incorrect:** She hopes to appoint as team leader.
  - **Correct:** She hopes to be appointed as team leader.
- (2) **Incorrect:** They want to select for the project.
  - **Correct:** They want to be selected for the project.
- (3) **Incorrect:** I invited to the ceremony last year.
  - **Correct:** I was invited to the ceremony last year.
- (4) **Incorrect:** He hopes to recognize for his achievements.
  - **Correct:** He hopes to be recognized for his achievements.
- (5) **Incorrect:** Edith assigned to a new role.
  - **Correct:** Edith was assigned to a new role.
- (6). **Incorrect:** The report needs to finish by Friday.
  - **Correct:** The report needs to be finished by Friday.

Overall, these errors concern the lack of verb-be and misuse of past participle verbs which are the key elements in passive sentences. Without these components, the students’ passive sentences are incomplete.

To eliminate the problems in writing sentence components and voice, it seems to be difficult. This is because the sentence components are full of various types of grammatical structures. Moreover, the passive voice in sentences can appear into the complex structure. Some possible solutions are that students should be familiar with subject and predicate parts of the sentence and types of the passive voice. If possible, thinking in English to write English sentences can help this to eradicate their L1 interference. In this regard, their teachers can help them to differentiate English sentences from Thai sentences structurally. The most important thing is practicing writing sentences.

#### 4.6 The Unit Summary

In this unit, EFL student writers start to learn the introductory lesson of writing English sentences. They are required to analyze the core components of a sentence. Understanding subjects and predicates can lead them to delve into other internal parts of sentences. They can be aware that forming sentence and predicate parts of the sentence with the use of phrases and clauses they have learned in the previous units can be the vital writing ability. Moreover, this unit provides sentence varieties in the active and passive voice which are familiar to them. However, the active and passive voice here seems to be intensified so that they can practice forming them in more complicated sentences.

#### Unit Tasks

**A. Directions: Fill in the blank with writing subjects or predicates of sentences as directed.**

- (1) What you have studied in Mathematics .....
- (2) .....has never been done before.
- (3) To live in a campus happily and study with motivation.....  
.....
- (4) .....is something terrible in my life.
- (5) Those who live in Bangkok and its surrounding areas .....

**B. Directions: Write sentences with the passive voice using the following verbs and tenses directed:**

(1) plan/ future simple tense

---

(2) take care / present perfect tense

---

(3) teach / past simple tense

---

(4) decorate / present simple tense

---

(5) explain / present continuous tense

---

**C. Directions: Write sentences with the passive voice without doers using the given verbs.**

(1) Find

---

(2) Notice

---

(3) Criticize

---

(4) Call

---

(5) Solve

---

## Unit 5: Grammar Moods

### 5.0 Objectives and Overview

This unit aims to introduce students with the functional or communicative structure of sentences, specifically grammar moods. It comprises the following objectives for EFL student writers:

- (i) To understand the various types of grammar moods.
- (ii) To analyze grammar moods in context.
- (iii) To construct sentences using various grammar moods.
- (iv) To recognize common errors in writing with grammar moods.

This unit is a continuation of how to write sentences. It focuses on grammar moods of written expressions which include declarative/informative, imperative, interrogative, exclamative, and subjunctive sentences. Students will analyze these moods before practicing how to apply them in their own sentence writing. This unit also highlights problems in writing sentences with grammar moods based on related studies. Through these objectives and content, they will have a chance to explore how writers communicatively convey moods through sentence structures.

### 5.1 Warm-up Activity

**Directions: Identify the following sentences with their types of grammar moods – Declarative Sentence (DS), Imperative Sentence (IS), Interrogative Sentence (ITS), Exclamative Sentence (ES), and Subjunctive Sentence (SS):**

- (1) Shut your mouth up!

---

- (2) There are many tourists in Asiatique The Riverfront Destination, Bangkok.

---

- (3) How many tourists came to Krabi this year?

---

- (4) Our teacher suggested that we read books and notes.

---

(5) What a lazy worker you are !

---

## 5.2 Definition of Grammar Moods

Grammar moods are defined by some scholars. Mat Sopian and Choo (2012) state that mood is “the form of the verb that shows the mode or manner in which a thought is expressed” (p. 92). Verb tenses in English carry verb moods that convey a sense of being or reality. Similarly, DeFeo (2023) states that mood involves a specific frame of mind humans use for thinking about things and feelings of ideas. Here, verbs are used to express one’s ideas and feelings. Therefore, verbs are related to grammar moods. According to Byjus (2026b), grammar moods are related to the speaker or writer’s intention expressed through sentences. He/she can denote particular functions in his/her spoken/written expressions which can be requests, orders, suggestions or facts.

Grammar moods are important for sentence writing. As they are certain features representing the way a speaker/writer expresses particular verbs in his/her attitudes toward actions or states, verbs used can form several functions of expressions. Understanding moods can affect the way verb phrases are formed and how effective communication is succeeded through a variety of sentence structures. Thus, expressing sentences in oral or written communications with the use of mood verbs can help the reader understand the speaker/writer’s purposes or functions or tones (Fiveable, 2025).

## 5.3 Grammar Moods: Types and Practical Writing

Mat Sopian and Choo (2012) divide grammar moods into five types – declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory, and subjunctive. Each has its characteristics and examples for EFL student writers to learn and practice writing sentences communicatively.

### 5.3.1 Declarative sentences

Declarative moods can also be called indicative or informative ones. They represent a state of factuality and reality as in the following sentences:

- Humans have two legs.
- Chulalongkorn University is located in Pathumwan, Bangkok.
- We shall plant trees for our green environment.

These sentences simply provide facts of some ideas or describe what happens or display some details about reality. The speakers or writers of this mood are making statements of what act in the real world. Some verb-be and auxiliaries (shall) are used for this indicative mood.

According to Ellis (2021), declarative sentences denote “a fact, opinion, observation, or explanation in a plain manner”. They normally carry “a subject and

a predicate” which are mentioned in the previous unit. The subject can be nouns or pronouns referring to what or who are performing the action of a sentence. Meanwhile, the predicate involves the verb or action that gives information about the subject. Declarative sentences are similar to many other sentences in that their subjects and predicate make up independent clauses. Different from other types, declaratives often end in periods.

### 5.3.1.1 Functions of declarative sentences

Functions of declarative sentences are given below (Byjus, 2026b).

(1) Giving information about something casual

- I love exercising.
- Rachel is walking in the market.
- Leonard already finished homework.

Analysis: \_\_\_\_\_

(2) Providing information regarding one’s everyday activities

- Walter rides a motorcycle to university.
- TSU students start classes at 8.00 a.m.
- Every night, Chompoo revises English lessons.

Analysis: \_\_\_\_\_

(3) Informing one’s audience/reader about something specific

- Eddie is reading a novel ‘Pride and Prejudice’.
- The buffet at this restaurant starts at 4 p.m.
- My son is 18 years old now.

Analysis: \_\_\_\_\_

(4) Stating general or scientific facts in the real world

- The Sun rises in the East.
- There is no snow in Thailand.
- Chao Praya River is located in central Thailand.
- The latest flood in Hatyai began on November 22, 2025.

Analysis: \_\_\_\_\_

(5) Explaining something

- There are five common types of English phrases which are noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, and prepositional phrases.
- Novel is different from a short story in light of length and story development.
- There are many dimensions of causes of conflicts between Cambodia and Thailand.

- Learning phonetics and phonology can help strengthen your spoken English abilities.

Analysis: \_\_\_\_\_

Additionally, Jones (n.d.) provides other functions of declarative sentences below.

#### (1) Making a Statement

A statement refers to an expression of something that can function as an action, event, or observation, among others. Statements can be proved to be true or false. Look at the following examples:

- I heard the news about the war in the Middle East.
- Timothy is having breakfast.
- Songkhla Zoo was full of tourists.
- Phakin wants to join SEA Game.

#### (2) Offering an Opinion

Declarative sentences can function as expressions of your opinions in a direct way. This is evident in the following examples:

- *I don't think that Thai university students should wear uniforms.*
- *In my opinion, living in Songkhla is much better than in Pattaya.*
- *To me, Bangkok is the most polluted city in Thailand.*
- *I think you should come to the class early.*

One may be wondering whether there is a difference between a declarative sentence that offers an opinion and an imperative sentence that offers advice. The two sentences are exactly different. An imperative sentence is used to tell a person what the speaker thinks that the listener should or should not do something. It usually starts with a verb without a subject. Meanwhile, a declarative opinion always begins with the forms, namely “I think” or “in my opinion”.

The following sentences are imperative sentences that offer advice:

- *Don't trust any strangers.*
- *Remember to bring your umbrella during the rainy season.*
- *Do your assignment by yourself without using an AI.*
- *Switch off your mobile phone before going to bed,*

These are imperative sentences in which advices are offered, but they can also be commands. Alternatively, declarative do not raise commands because they simply denote your expression of personal opinions.

### 5.3.1.2 Types of declarative sentences

According to Kihlstrom (2025), there are four types of declarative sentences below.

- (1) *Simple Declarative Statement*: A simple declarative sentence comprises one independent clause that addresses a complete thought. The sentence pattern is “subject + verb + object”, even though sometimes a short phrase or modifier is added. This pattern provides the sentence with clarity. The doer of the action and the occurrence in the action are visualized because everything follows a natural line of one’s thought.

Example: *The fishermen go to the sea port early in the morning.*

The sentence is declarative, ends with a period, and denotes meaning plainly. That creates simplicity and precision about the fishermen who go to the sea port.

- (2) *Compound Declarative Sentence*: A compound declarative sentence functions as a linker of two independent clauses which can be sentences. They are connected through coordinating conjunctions, namely *for, and, nor, but, yet, so*, among others. The pattern is still the same – subject + verb + object.

Example: *Last night, it was hot outside the house, but I still felt cold in my bedroom because of the air conditioner.*

Both sides could stand alone as independent clauses; however, they become better if they are linked together.

- (3) *Complex Declarative Sentence*: It is comprised of one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. The independent clause can stay alone in a sentence; however, the dependent clause cannot rely on its own without additional information. The sentence pattern is that one can start with the dependent clause, and later write another independent clause.

Example: *When my house got flooded, I started to worry about my car.*

The first clause relies on the second one to complete the thought. This connected sentence makes this writing become smoother and more meaningful.

- (4) *Compound–Complex Declarative Sentence*: It carries two or more independent clauses and at least one dependent clause. In this type of declarative sentence, one can demonstrate the way some ideas can exist strongly alone in real-life situations whereas other ideas need more supports. The sentence pattern is not fixed. One can start with the dependent clause to be located within the independent or main clauses.

Example: *The water got into my house, and it penetrated throughout the first floor because the rain was still pouring outside.*

Each idea tells a specific detail, but they become a clearer picture when they are linked together.

**Practice writing declarative sentences with certain words.**

Ex. Providing information regarding one’s everyday activities

Stadium : Many TSU students go jogging in the stadium.

(1) Giving information about something casual

War: \_\_\_\_\_

(2) Providing information regarding one’s everyday activities

Library: \_\_\_\_\_

(3) Informing one’s audience/reader about something specific

Whales: \_\_\_\_\_

(4) Stating general or scientific facts in the real world

Global warming: \_\_\_\_\_

(5) Explaining something

Flood: \_\_\_\_\_

(6) Making a statement

Café: \_\_\_\_\_

(7) Offering an opinion

Politics: \_\_\_\_\_

**5.3.2 Imperative sentences**

Imperative moods convey “a state of prohibition, advice, request, instruction or command” (Mat Sapian & Choo, 2012, p. 94). Look at the following example:

- Stand up.

This sentence is a command. The sentence is formed with the present tense in which

the subject (pronoun) ‘you’ (singular/plural). The marker of the sentence ‘you’ does not usually appear; ‘you’ is omitted. However, it can imply as “(You) stand up.”

Structurally, imperative sentences require a base form of the verb (V1). For example:

- Please mind the gap between the train and platform.
- Be careful of your pickpocket.
- Let’s go to the market.
- Don’t touch that shell!
- Never accept anything from a stranger!

### **Forms of imperative sentences**

Imperative sentences seem to have the similar tone to declarative sentences, but they are different in three ways (Cowan, 2008).

- (i) Imperative sentences do not require visible subjects, but declarative do.
- |                         |                     |
|-------------------------|---------------------|
| You come to talk to me. | Come to talk to me. |
| (Declarative)           | (Imperative)        |
| You bring me the book.  | Bring me the book.  |
| (Declarative)           | (Imperative)        |
- (ii) The main verb of imperatives can be bare infinitive forms while declaratives can have inflected verb forms.
- |                |              |
|----------------|--------------|
| You are quiet. | Be quiet.    |
| (Declarative)  | (Imperative) |

Imperatives can have inflected verb forms after the copula ‘be’; however, declaratives can have the progressive verb forms.

- You had better be working when I get back. (I expect you to be working when I get back.) (Declarative)
- Be working when I get back.

- (iii) The use of negation (not) is different; imperatives require ‘don’t’ (auxiliary +not) while declaratives need ‘be not’.
- |  |                |
|--|----------------|
| You are not late.                      | Don’t be late. |
| (Declarative)                          | (Imperative)   |
| You don’t eat it.                      | Don’t eat it.  |
| (Affirmative declaration, using ‘you’) | (Imperative)   |

Additionally, a question tag can be used to differentiate negative declaratives from negative imperatives.

- You don’t drink it, do you?
- Don’t drink it, do you?

## Types of imperative sentences

There are three types of imperative sentences (Kramer, 2025b), so you can be aware of them before you start to write them.

Type of imperative sentence	Definition	Examples
Positive affirmative imperative sentence	It tells the reader or listener to take a special action.	Give me your mobile phone! Ask your parent to sign this form. Show me your score.
Negative imperative sentence	It tells the reader or listener not to perform some actions.	Don't drink that water! Never blame other people without knowing their background. Stop using that calculator.
Conditional imperative sentence	It provides a command or makes a request that is subject to a certain condition. And it carries multiple clauses.	If you need any help, call me. When you enter the room, look for your seat. In case of an earthquake, drop to the floor.

(Source: Kramer, 2025b)

## How to soften imperative sentences

The best way to soften your imperative sentences is to add the word 'please' in order to increase the politeness or to soften the request. This tone or mood of spoken communication can also be applied to written communication of sentences. This can help transform your imperative sentences of commands to requests (Kramer, 2025b). Look at the following instances:

- Please show me your score.
- Please switch off your mobile phone.
- Please come this way.
- Please fill in the form.

## Practice writing imperative sentences with certain words.

Ex. Positive and negative imperative sentences

Kitchen: Come to cook in the kitchen. (positive imperative sentence)

Don't make a mess in the kitchen. (negative imperative sentence)

(i) Positive/affirmative imperative sentence

Money \_\_\_\_\_

Photo \_\_\_\_\_

(ii) Negative imperative sentence

Crocodile \_\_\_\_\_

Drug \_\_\_\_\_

(iii) Conditional imperative sentence

Office \_\_\_\_\_

Toilet \_\_\_\_\_

### 5.3.3 Interrogative sentences

Interrogative sentences which can be called question sentences are an important element of humans' communication. They assist one to collect information, address curiosity, and form effective conversations. These sentences are used to obtain information, explain a certain point, or start a talk. To make interrogative sentences, particular question words “*who, what, where, when, why, or how*” are used; they are wh-questions. Moreover, a helping verb such as ‘verb-be’, ‘verb-do’ and ‘verb-have’ can be a crucial option to start yes/no questions. Both wh-questions and yes-no questions are shared by their ending with a question mark (Grammarly, 2024a).

#### **The structure of interrogative sentences**

The structure of interrogative sentences is unique. They start with a wh-question word or a help verb, and they precede the subject and the main verb.

- The question ‘Where is your hometown?’ consists of ‘Where’ as a question word, ‘is’ as a main verb (linking verb), and ‘your hometown’ as a subject of the sentence. Thus, this interrogative sentence is patterned by “Wh-question word + main verb + subject”.
- The question ‘What does your father do?’ comprises ‘What’ as a question word, ‘does’ as a helping verb, ‘your father’ as a subject, and ‘do’ as a main verb. Therefore, this interrogative sentence is patterned by “Wh-question word + helping verb + subject + main verb”.

According to Grammarly (2024a), there are five types of interrogative sentences that can be communicatively used.

**(1) Yes/no questions:** They are considered the easiest type of interrogative sentences. They need yes or no answers. They can start with helping verbs such as verb-do (do, does, did), verb-be (is, am, are, was, were), modals (can, will, may...). For example, “Do you have a mobile phone?” and “Can you speak French?” show that the helping verbs appear at the first element of the sentence and they precede the subject and the main verb.

**(2) Wh-questions:** They seem to be more complex. They begin with a wh-question word such as “who, what, where, when, why, or how”. This type of question is different from yes-no questions in that they require more detailed answers. For instance, “Where does she work?” or “Why are you late?” show that the wh-question words precede the helping verbs, the subjects, and the main verbs.

**(3) Alternative questions:** Their structure offers choices. They are similar to yes/no questions; however, they provide more than two possible responses. They often carry a coordinating conjunction ‘or’ in the middle of the question to indicate options. For example, “Would you like noodle or rice?” or “Are you going to study Japanese or Russian?” show that these questions are patterned by “a helping verb + the subject + the main verb + the choices divided by or”.

**(4) Tag questions:** They have a special structure. They are statements that are changed into questions in which question tags are added at the end. The tag represents a mini-question that can be attached to the end of the sentence. For example, “You’re going to the fitness center, aren’t you?” and “It’s a good job, isn’t it?” are patterned by “the statements + the question tags”. This type of question serves your confirmation of something.

**(5) Rhetorical questions:** They are also unique because particular answers are not required. Indeed, they are more used to highlight a point or persuade than to obtain information. For instance, “How I could buy this luxurious car?” and “Why don’t your parents teach you social manners?” are indicative of expressing feelings to the listener rather than seeking full answers. In fact, rhetorical questions are usually used in figurative language and literary writing.

### How to form interrogative sentences

Murphy (2019) provides four ways to form interrogative questions as follows:

(i) The subject is often located after the first verb or ‘a reverse form’. For example:

subject + verb	⇒	verb + subject	
Clare will	⇒	will + Clare	⇒ Will Clare go to Australia?
You have	⇒	have + you	⇒ Have you finished your report?
The garden is	⇒	is + the garden	⇒ Is the garden beautiful?
Cameron is	⇒	is + Cameron	⇒ Is Cameron teaching students today?

(ii) Present simple questions can be formed using the helping verb 'do/does'. For example:

You work            ➡    **do** you work?   ➡    Do you work today?  
The bird flies    ➡    **does** the bird fly? ➡    Does the bird fly to sky?

Past simple questions can be formed using the helping verb 'did'.

You wrote           ➡    did you write?       ➡    Did you write an email?  
The rain dropped ➡    did the rain drop?   ➡    When did the rain drop?

It is noted that "do not use do/does/ did/" if the question words 'who' and 'what' are used (Murphy, 2019, p. 98). Look at the following examples for comparison:

**Who object**

Lydia phoned **someone**

**Who** phoned Lydia?

**Who subject**

**Someone** phoned Lydia

**Who** phoned Lydia?

Hence, some examples of who/what in questions are given.

- Who wants to visit Rayong? (*not* Who does want)
- What happened to Hatyai last year? (*not* What did happen)
- How many lecturers join this conference? (*not* did join)
- Which airline goes to Perth? (*not* does go)

(iii) In questions that start with "who, what, which, where", prepositions (in, for, etc) are often located at the end. For example:

- Where is she **from**?
- What was the exam **like**?
- Who are you talking **to**?
- Which university do you want to apply **for**?
- **With** whom would you like to work? (This is exception as the preposition follows 'whom' for the formal style of the question.)

(iv) The forms 'isn't it....?' and 'didn't you....?' are used for negative questions. For example:

- Didn't you know the grade? (showing surprise)
- Haven't we known each other before? (expecting the listener to agree with)

'Why' is often used in negative questions. For example:

- Why don't you eat vegetables? (*not* Why you don't eat?)
- What wasn't Keith here last night? (*not* Why Kim wasn't?)

The aforementioned forms are direct questions. Therefore, Murphy (2019) provides how to form indirect or reported questions.

- (i) Do you know where.....? / I don't know why ... / Could you tell me what ... ? (p. 100)  
- Where is Winona going? (direct) ⇒ Do you know **where Winona is going?** (indirect)

This example shows the word order is changed from 'is Winona going' to 'Line is going' because of the question word 'where'.

Other examples:

- Where is Walailak University ? Can you tell me **where Walailak University is?**
  - What are interesting courses? Do you know **what courses are interesting?**
  - How much is it? Do you have any idea **how much it is?**
  - Who are those women? Can you tell me **who those women are?**
- The form "I don't know why..." can also be reported speech such as "I don't know *why Lina is going to Spain*" that requires a period, not a question mark. For example:
    - Where is Walailak University ? Please tell me **where Walailak University is.**
    - What are interesting courses? Tell me **what courses are interesting.**
    - How much is it? I don't know **how much it is.**
    - Who are those women? I don't know **who those women are.**
- Do/does/did questions can also be transformed into indirect questions and reported speech. For example:
    - What time does the lecture start? Do you know **what time the lecture starts?**
    - What do you know about this job? Please tell me **what you know about this job.**
    - Why did Julia quit her job? I wonder **why Julia quitted her job.**
- 'If' or 'Whether' can also be changed into indirect question that functions as a reported speech when there is no other question. For example:
    - Did you have breakfast? I want to know **whether you had breakfast.**
    - Did Wit play football yesterday? I don't know **if Wit played football yesterday.**

(ii) The form 'He/she asked me where.....' is also used with the word order in reported speech. For example:

- The teacher asked me 'Where are you staying? (direct question)
- The teacher asked me where I was staying. (reported speech)

- Rick asked “What time does I finish class?” (direct question)
- Rick asked what time I finished class. (reported speech)
- Rick wanted to know what time I finished class. (reported speech)
- Yuyee asked me “Why I don’t come to the meeting?” (direct question)
- Yuyee wondered why I didn’t come to the meeting. (reported speech)
- Wim asked “How long have I been working for the project?” (direct question)
- Wim asked how long I had been working for the project. (reported speech)

**Practice writing interrogative sentences with certain words.**

Ex. Yes-No Interrogative (Do /mix): Do you mix these ingredients?  
 Wh-Interrogative (Why/ chop): Why don’t you chop the garlic?

(1) Yes-No Interrogatives

- Is/am/are (company)

---

- Was /were (politician)

---

- Do/does (airplane)

---

- Did (credit card)

---

- Have/has (sunbathe)

---

- Had (swim)

---

- Will/would (family)

---

- Shall/should (scammer)

---

## (2) Wh-Interrogatives

- What (clinic)

---

- Where (coral)

---

- How (Mathematics)

---

- Why (soldier)

---

- Which (branch)

---

- Whom (game)

---

- When (sell)

---

- Whose (resort)

---

### 5.3.4 Exclamative sentences

Exclamative moods form exclamative or exclamatory sentences. They function as an expression of admiration, astonishment, strong emotions, and feelings, for instance, “what a bad politician he is!”. Sometimes, exclamative sentences can be more forceful versions of declarative sentences ended with an exclamation point (!) and the voice (intonation) at the end of the sentence. Moreover, they are common in speech and literary works (fiction). However, exclamation is not used in academic writing (Mat Sopian & Choo, 2012).

#### Forms of exclamatory sentences

In general, an exclamatory sentence can be formed through one of the following two structures (Singh, 2025):

- (1) Exclamation starts with “What”. This structure is used when the writer wants to emphasize we emphasize a **noun**.

**Pattern: What + a/an + adjective + noun + subject + verb!**

**Examples:**

- *What an adorable panda this is!*
- *What an interesting show that was!*
- *What bad behavior you have!*
- *What a horrible thing she did!*

- (2) Exclamation starts with “How”. This structure is used when the writer wants to underscore an **adjective or adverb**.

**Pattern: How + adjective/adverb + subject + verb!**

**Examples:**

- *How terrible you are!*
- *How lovely this parrot looks !*
- *How fast he swims!*
- *How skillfully you drive!*

Similarly, MasterClass (2021b) provides structure of an exclamatory sentence as follows:

- Exclamatory sentences usually start with exclamatory pronouns, namely “what” or “how” to focus on an antecedent noun. For instance, “What a scary story!”
- Exclamatory sentences often end with exclamation marks,!, which are a specific punctuation mark for emphasizing the writer’s emotion.
- Exclamatory sentences can be written with interjections such as ‘wow’ or ‘ouch’ to express a strong emotion or feeling, for example, “Wow! You got a Grade A!”. Such interjections can stand individually with their exclamation marks or can be linked to the remaining exclamatory sentences through the use of commas.

**Other examples of exclamatory sentences (MasterClass, 2021b):**

- (1) “**How beautiful the waterfall is!**” shows the use of the exclamatory pronoun “how” to express strong emotions about a natural landscape.
- (2) “**Yikes, what a crazy leader!**” indicates the use of an interjection that precedes a comma and the exclamatory pronoun “what” to convey disappointment about a leader.
- (3) “**You draw such a beautiful picture!**” looks similar to a declarative sentence, but it employs the word “such” (a determiner) to highlight the adjective “beautiful” with regard to the noun “picture,” and it expresses a strong feeling of approval and support.

- (4) “**Congratulations, my friend!**” is that the word “congratulations” comes with excitement, which is enhanced by the use of an exclamation mark.
- (5) “**Ouch! I hurt my ankle!**” begins with a standalone interjection to address a strong feeling of pain.

**How to transform statements into exclamatory sentences**

The following sentences are statements that can be transformed into exclamatory sentences (Vedantu, 2025):

- This is a cold room. → What a cold room this is!
- She dresses extravagantly. → How extravagantly she dresses!
- The mountain is evergreen. → What an evergreen mountain it is!
- The jeans are very fashionable. → How very fashionable the jeans are!
- He delivered speech clearly. → .....
- The house is expensive → .....
- He solved the puzzle → .....

**Practice writing exclamatory sentences with certain words.**

Ex. Cheerful: How cheerful Doris looks!

- (1) Miserable  
\_\_\_\_\_
- (2) Talent  
\_\_\_\_\_
- (3) Skinny  
\_\_\_\_\_
- (4) Ambitious  
\_\_\_\_\_
- (5) Helpful  
\_\_\_\_\_
- (6) Aggressive  
\_\_\_\_\_

**5.3.5 Subjunctive sentences**

Subjunctive moods provide subjunctive sentences. They are used to address one’s doubt. Moreover, they convey a hypothetical state and a state contrary to reality, for

example, a wish, a desire, and imaginary situations. This type of sentence can use an indicative mood, especially regarding “conditional forms of could, should, might, and would to indicate statements contrary to reality” (Mat Sapian & Choo, 2012, p. 96). Some examples of subjective sentences are given below.

- (i) Condition
  - If I should meet him, I will inform him of our research proposal.
  - If I could break the rule, I wouldn’t study here.
- (ii) Hypothetical conditions/state
  - If I were you, I might make a hassle.
  - If she were in love, she would get married.
- (iii) Hope/desire
  - May you have a peaceful life.
  - May you pass the final exam.
- (iv) Suggestion
  - I suggest that everyone realize the new election.
  - We wish that the new government were effective.

According to English Club (2026), the English subjunctive is considered an unusual and rare verb form that addresses somethings or some actions which are **desirable** or **imaginary**. The subjective verb is mainly used when the writer wants to write about events which are uncertain or unsure to occur. For instance, the subjective is used when we talk about events that someone “**wants** to happen, **anticipates** to happen, and **imagines** to happen”.

## Structure of subjunctive sentences

### (1) Base Subjunctive

**The form of base subjunctive** is simple. That is, the **base** form of the verb for all subjects (pronouns), for example, *be, have, do, explain, write, smile*. Other forms – is, explains, writes or smiles – are not used for the base subjunctive forms. In other words, the subjective verb does not change its agreement with any subjects of the sentence. This can be evident in the following tables (English Club, 2026):

Pronouns	Base-subjunctive		
	Be	Explain	Write
I	Be	explain	write
You	Be	explain	write
He, she, it	Be	explain	write
We	Be	explain	write
They	Be	explain	write

### The use of the base subjunctive form in *That* clauses

The base subjunctive form can be used for ‘*that clauses*’ after two structures as follows (English Club, 2026):

(1) **Structure A** “*suggest-verb (or noun) + that*” consists of the following verbs and nouns:

- *advise, ask, command, demand, desire, insist, order, prefer, propose, recommend, request, and suggest*
- *command, demand, order, proposal, recommendation, request, and suggestion.*

Examples:

<b>Main clause <i>suggest-verb</i></b>	<b><i>That</i> clause with subjunctive</b>
My teacher suggests	that I work hard for exam.
The doctor advises	that you have a deep sleep.
The dentist recommended	that he use mouthwash.
The university students requested	that the uniform not be used.
The Prime Minister made a command	that taxes be increasing.
The school principal issued an order	that all teachers join the school committees.
Jasmine’s father had a request	that she not become a nurse.
We have a demand	that the report be well-written.

(2) **Structure B** “*advisable/anxious-adjective + that*” comprises of the following verbs and nouns:

- *advisable, best, crucial, desirable, essential, imperative, important, necessary, unthinkable, urgent, and vital*
- *adamant, anxious, determined, eager, and keen*

Examples:

<b>Main clause <i>advisable-adjective</i></b>	<b><i>That</i> clause with subjunctive</b>
It is advisable	that you see a doctor.
It is necessary	that she take a rest.
It is vital	that everyone not use a mobile phone.
It is important	that he not drink alcohol beverages.

<b>Main clause <i>anxious-adjective</i></b>	<b><i>That</i> clause with subjunctive</b>
Tanya is anxious	that her mother be happy.
The students are determined	that the final exam be complete.
We were keen	that our teacher have good teaching techniques.

- It is noted that *that* clauses can appear in negative and continuous forms. Look at the following examples:

- The Supreme Leader orders that the minister **not be imprisoned**.
- They have made a request that all students **not wear** the uniform.
- It is crucial that **a flight not be waiting** for those who are late.
- The secretary was eager that the boss **be promoting** her presentation.
- The reviewers recommended that informal language **not be used** in the manuscript.
- I suggest that you **be reading** magazines while waiting for me.

The aforementioned examples are the subjunctive moods based on American English. Meanwhile, the subjective moods in British English require the use of ‘should’ in *that* clauses. Look at the following examples:

- It was essential that she should take a rest.
- The students requested that the uniform should not be worn.

- Moreover, the use of **be** after **if/whether** clause is pointed out in the subjunctive moods. This use seems to be formal in British English (English Club, 2026).

<b>If /whether + be</b>	<b>Independent clause</b>
Whether he be right,	he has a chance to prove himself.
If she be wrong,	she will have evidence to prove it.
Whether the politician be corrupt or not,	the people already know the truth.

- The *were-subjunctive* form is also important; so EFL student writers should learn it to practice writing this sentence. All personal pronouns – I, you, he, she, it, we, they – can be followed by verb-be ‘were’. Further, the ‘were-subjunctive’ form can be used after the forms – **if, as if, wish, and suppose** (English Club, 2026). Look at the following examples:

<b>Formal with were</b>	<b>Informal with was</b>
<b>If I were</b> you, I would major in Russian.	<b>If I was</b> you, I would major in Russian.
<b>If he were</b> the governor, he would be very busy.	If he <b>was</b> the governor, he would be very busy.
She behaves herself <b>as if she were</b> the nurse.	She behaves herself <b>as if she was</b> the nurse.
I <b>wish</b> my car <b>were</b> not flooded!	I <b>wish</b> my car <b>was</b> not flooded!
Ball <b>wishes</b> his motorcycle <b>were</b> working.	Ball <b>wishes</b> his motorcycle was working.
<b>Suppose</b> the Prime Minister <b>were</b> here, what would you talk to him?	<b>Suppose</b> the Prime Minister <b>was</b> here, what would you talk to him?

**Practice writing subjunctive sentences with specific words and structures.**

Ex. adamant (apartment): \_\_\_\_\_

Duke is **adamant** that he stay at this **apartment**.

(1) demand (benefit):

\_\_\_\_\_

(2) insist (right):

\_\_\_\_\_

(3) prefer (iPad):

\_\_\_\_\_

(4) desirable (exam):

\_\_\_\_\_

(5) urgent (problem):

\_\_\_\_\_

(6) necessary (road):

\_\_\_\_\_

(7) if (money)

\_\_\_\_\_

(8) as if (princess)

\_\_\_\_\_

(9) wish (rain)

\_\_\_\_\_

(10) suggest (bridge)

\_\_\_\_\_

**5.4 Problems in Writing Sentences with Grammar Moods**

It is difficult to show research studies that Thai students have problems in writing sentences with grammar moods. What the author found is based on English writing errors of Ghanaian students from a study of Tabiri and Jones-Mensah (2020). In this study, the researchers analyzed errors in writing the subjunctive mood among 60 Ghanaian university students. Based on their written deviations from the Correct Usage Test, there appeared to be four types of errors in writing subjunctive sentences as follows:

- (i) Subjunctive mood expressing a desire or a wish (were-subjunctive) accounted for 18% with the following examples:
  - I wish I was at your wedding ceremony. (were) (Tabiri and Jones-Mensah (2020, p.85)  
(The correct one is “I wish I were at your wedding ceremony”.)
  - I wish he was there. (were) (p.85)  
(The correct one is “I wish he were there.”)
  
- (ii) Subjunctive mood expressing a requirement or necessity accounting for 29 percent consisted of the following examples:
  - It is necessary that he marries this year. (marry) (p.85)  
(The correct one is “It is necessary that he marry this year”.)
  - It is essential that a student goes to school early. (go) (p.85)  
(The correct one is “It is essential that a student go to school early”.)
  
- (iii) Subjunctive mood expressing suggestions accounted for 35% with the following examples:
  - I suggest that the Director transfers him without delay. (transfer) (p.86)  
(The correct one is “I suggest that the Director transfer him without delay”.)
  - I suggest that he comes without delay (come) (p.86)  
(The correct one is “I suggest that he come without delay”.)
  
- (iv) Subjunctive mood expressing hypothetical situations, accounting for 18 percent, is evident in the following examples:
  - If I get 20 million dollars, I would build a house in Accra. (got) (p.86)  
(The correct one is “If I got 20 million dollars, I would build a house in Accra”.)
  - If he goes abroad, he would see my friend. (went) (p.86)  
(The correct one is “If he went abroad, he would see my friend”.)

These errors are caused by the students’ L1 interference in writing English sentences.

Although this research is not grounded in the errors faced by Thai EFL students because it is taken from the problems of Ghanaian ESL students, it is worthwhile for this textbook. Thai and Ghanaian students are similar in that they are non-native English learners. It is possible for them to encounter errors in writing in which English grammar structure is different from that in their mother tongue. Moreover, subjunctive moods contain special grammatical rules which are different from other types of sentences, so non-native English students might perform grammar deviations in their writing. Consequently, the best solution for this problem is that Thai students should be familiar with the rules and examples of writing sentences with subjunctive moods as well as other four moods and practice writing the sentences with the teachers’ guidance.

## 5.5 The Unit Summary

In this unit, EFL student writers have learned how to create sentences with grammar moods. This type of sentence provides functional or communicative aspects of grammar according to the writer's moods, emotions, or intentions. Each mood has specific grammatical structures, so they need to practice writing sentences carefully. It could be said that the subjunctive mood seems to be more complicated than the other moods in that it has specific rules of a variety of grammatical forms.

### Unit Tasks

**Directions: Write sentences with specific grammar moods using the words given.**

(1) Declarative sentence

Curiosity: \_\_\_\_\_  
Slice: \_\_\_\_\_

(2) Imperative sentence

Control: \_\_\_\_\_  
Knowledge: \_\_\_\_\_

(3) Interrogative sentence

Update: \_\_\_\_\_  
Honesty: \_\_\_\_\_

(4) Exclamative sentence

Successful: \_\_\_\_\_  
Joy: \_\_\_\_\_

(5) Subjunctive sentences

Recommend: \_\_\_\_\_

Crucial: \_\_\_\_\_

If: \_\_\_\_\_

Wish: \_\_\_\_\_

## Unit 6: English Sentences for Effective Communication

### 6.0 Objectives and Overview

This final unit aims to provide an intensive overview of how to write sentences based on their structural types, and it also emphasizes common errors in sentence writing. It comprises the following objectives for EFL student writers:

- (i) To master the various structural types of English sentences.
- (ii) To analyze the components and modifiers within each sentence type.
- (iii) To construct sentences according to their types effectively.
- (iv) To revise and edit sentences correctly.
- (v) To point out common problems in sentence construction.

This unit underlines the four structural types of sentences: simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex ones. Each possesses unique components and modifiers; therefore, it is necessary for students to analyze these structures before practicing writing. A particular challenge for students relies on mastering ‘modifiers’ which can enhance the sentences’ details and clarity. Nevertheless, the instructor aims to enable students to write these four sentence types grammatically and communicatively. To write the sentences effectively, students must also recognize common errors in sentence writing such as run-ons, sentence fragments, and comma splices which are the most prevalent among EFL student writers. Consequently, this unit provides explicit examples and strategies to help students to revise and edit sentences correctly. Moreover, previous research on problems on these common writing errors is highlighted to remind the students of these mistakes. Through these objectives and content, students will have the opportunity to enhance their sentence writing more efficiently.

### 6.1 Warm-up Activity

**A. Directions: Identify which of the following sentences are simple sentence (SPS), compound sentences (CPS), complex sentences (CLS), and compound-complex sentences (CCS). What are the indicators of such sentences?**

(1) Krabi has many beautiful islands, so there are many local and foreign tourists there.

---

(2) There are many people during the lunch time at TSU canteen.

---

(3) When I arrive at Koh Samui International airport, it is heavy raining.

---

(4) Choosri likes to go jogging at the park because she wants to be healthy.

---

(5) Sue really enjoys reading novels, but her brother, Sam, prefers surfing the internet, although it leads to a high electricity bill.

---

(6) Nobody knows that Nok is from a rich family, for she does not show her wealth.

---

(7) It is quite hard for someone to be keen at using computers.

---

(8) Dylan finished having breakfast, and he attended the conference.

---

**B. Directions: The following sentences have errors in run-on (RO), fragments (FM), and comma splices (CS). Please identify them and edit them correctly.**

(1) Nobody at the library in this university.

---

(2) You are a hardworking student I am not.

---

(3) Alan came to the market, he bought many vegetables.

---

(4) Really difficult to understand Mathematics.

---

(5) Reading many literary books is very tough, they are valuable pieces of works.

---

(6) It is raining come into my house.

---



### Analysis:

- **Subject:** “Robert”
- **Appositive phrase:** “– a tall, fair-skinned, about 20 years old, in blue jeans and canvas shoes –”
  - This provides extra information about Robert. (It modifies Robert.)
  - Using **em dashes** (—) is a good way to balance a long appositive that comprises internal commas.
- **Compound predicate:** “rode a black motorcycle and parked it near the pine tree”
  - One subject (Robert) performs two actions (rode and parked).

## (2) Functions of simple sentences

According to Grammarly (2023b), simple sentences are simply formed by their nature, and they are useful forms in grammatical structure. That is, simple sentences function as the language form used by a speaker/writer to provide clear and informative contents to the listener or reader, for example, “TSU parking lots for motorcycles are **limited**”.

Moreover, simple sentences function as the language form used to make your writing forceful and definitive, for instance, “**Stand up** for the national anthem at **8.00 a.m.**”

Other functions of simple sentences (BBC, 2026) are listed as follows: (i) creating tension such as “The proctor walks around the exam room. The students pay attention to take a test”; (ii) being easy to understand through offering facts such as “Bangkok is the sleepless society”; and (iii) creating emphasis, for example, “The lecturer is walking into the classroom. Many students are having breakfast. The lecturer is approaching them. They are still eating.”

## (3) Modifiers of simple sentences

Prior to documenting modifiers of simple sentences, it is important to review what modifiers are about. According to Routh (2025), a modifier can be “an adjective, adverb, or group of words that describes or limits the meaning of one or more other words in a sentence”. Modifying means ‘changing’. If one use modifiers correctly, his/her writing will be more precise. For instance, the noun ‘boy’ is not precise. However, adding one or more modifiers can enhance your meaningful writing. For example:

- Veronica saw an **adorable, chubby, Korean** boy.
- The **dirty, skinny, homeless** boy is **very** pitiful.

From these two sentences, we can see that modifiers provide clearer details to the word ‘boy’. Common modifiers used in simple sentences are “**Adjectives, adverbs, participial phrases, adjective clauses, gerund phrases, infinitive phrases, and appositive phrases**”. Look at the following examples:

### (3.1) Adjectives as modifiers:

- Sunya found a **glittering, shiny, silver ring** in the box in her parents' bedroom.
- I noticed a **rotten, torn, old** storybook behind the **colored** television in the living room.
- The **lush, chilly, flowery** garden in front of my **wooden** house makes me feel refreshed.

These three examples provide a series of adjectives as modifiers; there is more than one adjective used to modify a noun. EFL student writers should follow a specific order of adjectives from different categories of descriptions. They are called 'coordinated adjectives'. However, the order of adjectives for modifiers without the use of commas is called 'cumulative adjectives' in which the adjectives are ordered in grammar rules. Look at the following examples:

- Sunya found a **glittering shiny silver ring** in the box in her parents' bedroom.
- I noticed a **rotten torn old** storybook behind the **colored** television in the living room.
- The **lush chilly flowery** garden in front of my **wooden** house makes me feel refreshed.

Examples of cumulative adjectives that follow the order of grammar can be shown below.

- Opinion (e.g., "dreamy" or "fun")
- Age (e.g., "modern" or "traditional")
- Color (e.g., "white" or "ivory")
- Material (e.g., "marble" or "gold")
- Purpose (e.g., "relaxing" or "living")

For example, "It is exciting to see the **dreamy modern ivory marble living** room". This sentence shows that the highlighted adjectives follow the rule of the above cumulative adjectives.

### (3.2) Adverbs as modifiers

- I **really** enjoyed my trip to Karnchanaburi, **particularly** the resort by the River Kwai.
- Pasini walked **carelessly** and **clumsily** in the market.
- My friend **excitedly** told me a **very** hilarious story.

### (3.3) Participial phrases as modifiers

A participial phrase refers to a group of words that starts with a present participle verb form '-ing' such as 'drinking' or a past participle verb form such as 'played' and 'driven'. It can be used as an adjective to modify nouns and pronouns. For example:

- The **smiling** woman at the office is my friend. (smiling as a present participle acting as an adjective.)
- The **written and signed** agreement between you and your cline had expired. (written and signed as past participial phrases acting as adjective phrase.)

- **Worried about the war in the Middle East**, many Thai people are rushing to refill petrol in their cars. (“Worried about the war in the Middle East” is a past participial phrase.)
- **Hanging out at Central Hatyai**, Jay feels better. (Hanging out at Central Hat Yai is a present participial phrase.)

### (3.4) Prepositional phrases as modifiers

- Please go to the university clinic **behind the gymnasium**.  
(The prepositional phrase “behind the gymnasium” identifies where the noun phrase “the university clinic” is located.)
- Winter in northern Thailand is very cold **at night**.  
(The prepositional phrase “at night” indicates when it is very cold.)
- Some staff members take a nap **after lunch**.  
(The prepositional phrase “after lunch” displays when staff members take a nap.)

### (3.5) Gerund phrases as modifiers

A gerund phrase refers to a phrase in which a gerund, the -ing form, functions as a noun (Chegg, 2021), for instance, “**Writing** English essays is difficult”. Before we use gerund phrases as modifiers, we need to know a brief information about a gerund phrase. It can be a subject of the sentence, such as “**Talking** to new friends is a challenge.” Next, it can be a subject complement such as “My hobby is **playing** computer games”. Later, it can be a direct object, “Sirin loves **drinking** coffee”, and an indirect object, “Alice made **sewing clothes** her hobby”. Finally, it can be an object of a preposition such as “I read a lot of notes after **having dinner**” (Chegg, 2021).

To use gerund phrases as modifiers in writing sentences can be done in two ways as follows (Signum International AG, 2026):

- (i) The use of adverbs to modify gerund (modifiers located inside the phrase): Gerund is used as subject of the sentence, and an adverb is used to modify the gerund. For example:
  - Eating food **quickly** is not a good habit. (Quickly is an adverb used to modify ‘eating food’.)
  - Talking **a lot** in the classroom should not be done. (A lot is an adverb used to modify ‘talking in the classroom.’)
- (ii) The use of adverbs after prepositions (adverbial modifiers): Gerund works with prepositions to modify the simple sentence through the pattern (subject + verb + preposition + gerund phrase). For example:
  - Ball feels energetic **by jogging in the park**. (The gerund phrase ‘by jogging in the park’ is to modify ‘feel energetic’ or tell the reason why ‘Ball feels energetic’.
  - My son can ride a bicycle **without using his hands**. (The gerund phrase ‘without

using his hands' is a modifier of 'can ride a bicycle'; it tells the manner of how my son can ride a bicycle.).

### (3.6) An infinitive phrase

It is constructed when an infinitive (to + verb 1) precedes modifiers such as adverbs or complements such as direct objects. Infinitive phrases can be similarly used as infinitive, nouns, adverbs, and adjectives, for example, "I would like you **to help me**" and "**To learn Spanish** is a good choice" (Shores, 2024). We need to know its functions in sentences. It can be used as the following: (i) a noun, "Luna wants **to sell her car**"; (ii) an adjective, "Krabi is an extraordinary province **to visit in summer**"; (iii) an adverb, "He goes jogging **to refresh himself**", and (iv) a prepositional phrase, "Florence walked **to the convenience store**".

From the aforementioned functions, we can say that the use of infinitive as adjectives and adverbs is for modifiers (Shores, 2024). Thus, we can see more examples of them and explain the modifiers.

#### (i) Infinitive phrases as adjective modifiers

- I have a lot of clothes **to iron today**.
  - Noun (as an object): clothes
  - Infinitive phrase: to iron today (it modifies the noun 'clothes' – what the purpose of having a lot of clothes is.)
- Nirada has an ability **to translate from English into Thai**.
  - Noun (as an object): an ability
  - Infinitive phrase: to translate from English into Thai (it modifies the noun 'ability' – what the ability is about.)

#### (ii) Infinitive phrases as adverb modifiers

- I rent a motorcycle **to hang out around Koh Lanta**.
  - Infinitive phrase: to hang out around Koh Lanta
  - Function: adverb modifier of the verb 'rent'
  - Purpose: Why I rent a motorcycle
  - Internal modifier: around Koh Lanta.
- Fareen booked a hotel in Chiang Rai **to stay during her winter vacation**.
  - Infinitive phrase: to stay during her winter vacation.
  - Function: adverb modifier of 'booked a hotel in Chiang Rai'.
  - Purpose: Why Fareen booked a hotel in Chiang Rai.
  - Internal modifier: during her winter vacation.

### (3.7) An appositive

It refers to a noun or pronoun that appears with modifiers and is located beside another noun or pronoun to explain or identify it (Purdue OWL, 2026a). For example:

- My friend **Wong** has just bought a condominium. (Wong modifies my friend.)
- My car, **a white Toyota Yaris Ativ**, is parked in front of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences. (A white Toyota Yaris Ativ modifies my car.)
- An appositive phrase often follows the word which it explains or identifies, but it may also precede it. For example:
  - Anutin Charnvirakul, **Thailand's 32 Prime Minister**, graduated from a university in the USA.
  - Many foreign tourists like to visit Phuket, **the Pearl of the Andaman**.
  - Penang, **the Pearl of the Orient**, was the first British colony on the Malay Peninsula.

### (4) How to write a simple sentence

To write a simple sentence effectively, you can consider the following guidelines (Grammarly, 2023b):

- (4.1) Consider the component of a simple sentence – at least a subject and a verb.
- (4.2) You may include a direct or indirect object.
- (4.3) You try to write modifiers in phrases to add more details of the sentences.
- (4.4) Do not change the status of a simple sentence – compound subjects, compound predicates, multipart objects, and compound modifiers.

Examples:

- **Bam and Om** have been working for the same company for many years.  
(*compound subjects*)
- We **ate** outside **and swam** in the lake all week. (*compound predicate*)
- My friend Jason gave *me* and *my family* **airline miles and hotel points** for our trip.  
(*me and my family: compound indirect objects*)  
(*airline miles and hotel points: compound direct objects*)

**Practice writing simple sentences with modifiers using the following words and your own ideas:**

Ex. clumsily (adverb phrase as modifier)

Walking **clumsily** into the toilet is very dangerous.

(1) funny (adjective as modifier)

---

(2) effectively (adverb as modifier)

---

(3) boring (present participle phrase as modifier)

---

(4) frozen (past participle phrase as modifier)

---

(5) with (prepositional phrase as modifier)

---

(6) learn (gerund phrase as modifier)

---

(7) discuss (infinitive phrase as modifier)

---

(8) plane (appositive phrase as modifier)

---

### 6.2.2 Compound sentences

Different from simple sentences, compound sentences are comprised of more than one independent clause. The independent clauses are connected either by a semicolon (;) or by a coordinating conjunction. EFL student writers might be familiar with coordinating conjunctions as the FANBOYS: *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so* (Ellis, 2024).

#### Examples

- *Sirinda wanted to go jogging, but Mit would like to sleep.*
- *Minnie swept the floor, and she cleaned the restroom.*
- *The lightning flashed; the thunder roared.*
- *Many Ramkamhaeng University students work part-time, so they can have some more money.*

#### How to use coordinating conjunctions

According to University of Bristol (n.d.), one needs to know how to use coordinating conjunctions to form compound sentences.

##### (i) For

*For* is often used as a preposition, but for compound sentence it is a coordinating conjunction that indicates a reason. For example:

- Thanakorn did not go to the office, for he felt sick.
- Many Thai people choose to take a train, for its fare is quite cheap.

**(ii) And**

*And* is used for connecting the similar idea or the additional and continual information of two clauses. For example:

- Noi finished cooking in the kitchen, **and** she washed the equipment.
- Many tourists walked around the flower garden in the park, and they took beautiful pictures of the blossoms.

**(iii) Nor**

*Nor* can be used as a coordinating conjunction individually. Normally, it is used alongside the conjunction *neither*, namely *neither...nor*. For example:

- This school does not have a swimming pool, **nor** does it have a gym.
- You can **neither** smoke here, **nor** can you eat any food.

**(iv) But**

*But* is usually used to denote a contrast between two clauses. For example:

- It is hard to pass Calculus, **but** Ray could get a good grade in this course.
- Today the weather is very cold, **but** Champ still eats ice-cream happily.

**(v) Or**

*Or* is used when two options are introduced. For example:

- You have to return the books to the library, **or** you have to pay the fine.
- You need to continue your studies this year, **or** you will have to wait until next year.

**(vi) Yet**

Similar to 'but', the conjunction *yet* is used to denote a contrast of two clauses.

For example:

- This province is home to numerous shopping malls, **yet** it is polluted.
- He is keen on English, **yet** he dare not speak English with foreigners.

**(vii) So**

*So* is used to address the reason for something. For example:

- Shakespeare's plays have been studied around the world, so he is considered the most important playwright in English literary studies.
- Bangkok is full of many people from different provincial cities, so it can be the city of the melting pot.

### Summary of Coordinating Conjunctions

List of Coordinate Conjunctions	
For	reason or cause
And	Addition
Nor	negative option
But	Contrast
Or	choice or option
Yet	contrast or surprising result
So	Result

(Source: Mak & Vrh-Zoldos, n.d.)

### How to use conjunctive adverbs

According to Ellis (2023c) conjunctive adverbs refer to particular adverbs in which two ideas of two clauses are connected. They provide various relationships for their use. One may consider how to use particular conjunctive adverbs with examples as follows:

- to display contradictions (however, on the other hand)
- to continue similar and continual points (additionally, moreover)
- to introduce specific examples (for example, for instance)
- to indicate cause and effect (consequently, as a result)
- to emphasize a point (in fact, certainly)
- to exhibit a time relationship (meanwhile, now)
- to arrange a sequence or list (next, finally)

Examples:

- Thai students have been learning English for many years; **however**, they cannot speak English well.
- Krabi has many famous islands; **for instance**, Phi Phi Island is renowned for its white sandy beaches.
- Foreign tourists walked along Khaosan Road; **moreover**, they took a boat trip on the Chao Phraya River.

It is noted that you have to use a semicolon (;) and a comma (,) between the conjunctive adverbs.

### List of Conjunctive Adverbs

Addition	Alternative	Contrast	Time	Example or Emphasis	Result or Consequence
additionally	instead	however	Eventually	for example	consequently
also	otherwise	nonetheless	then, finally	for instance	therefore
besides	alternately	nevertheless	Later	of course	thus
furthermore			meanwhile	in fact	hence
moreover			subsequently	undoubtedly	

(Source: Mak & Vrh-Zoldos, n.d.)

Examples:

- (i) **Addition**  
- Jack has never visited Korea; **furthermore**, he has not been to Japan.
- (ii) **Alternative**  
- You have to enroll in this course today; **otherwise**, you will await next year.
- (iii) **Contrast**  
- Bowy really likes English; **nevertheless**, she does not choose it as her major.
- (iv) **Time**  
- We have completed a project; **finally**, we will present it at the conference.
- (v) **Example/emphasis**  
- Thaksin University offers many interesting courses; **in fact**, it provides a wide range of useful programs in Arts and Science curricular for both undergraduate and post-graduate students.
- (vi) **Result/consequence**  
- Jom has completed all courses in the curriculum; **consequently**, he is awarded a bachelor's degree.

### How to write compound sentences

According to Megginson and Bridge (n.d.), your compound sentences will be effective when you try to create a sense of balance of two clauses. Thus, you can consider the following patterns with examples to write compound sentences:

- (i) Independent clause; independent clause  
- Songkhla has beautiful beaches; Hatyai offers shopping malls and nightlife activities.
- (ii) Independent clause: independent clause  
- Hatyai is famous for its shopping malls: tourists like to shop at Central Hatyai.
- (iii) Independent clause, coordinating conjunction + independent clause  
- Songkhla has beautiful beaches, but Hatyai offers shopping malls and nightlife activities.
- (iv) Independent clause; conjunctive adverb, independent clause.  
- Songkhla has beautiful beaches; however, Hatyai offers shopping malls and nightlife activities.

Beyond the aforementioned four patterns, you can consider the use of modifiers in writing compound sentences using phrases. To make compound sentences clearer, you can add some details by inserting various phrases as modifiers – before, between or within the independent clauses. Look at the following table:

Phrase type	How it modifies	Example
<b>Present Participial Phrase</b>	Adds action or state of being related to a subject.	<b>Walking along the seaside</b> , Derek saw many flying birds, and he took their pictures.
<b>Past Participial Phrase</b>	Adds action or state of being related to the cause of the situation.	<b>Discouraged by the difficulty</b> , the students struggled with the exam; for example, many of them left before the time was up.
<b>Appositive Phrase</b>	Renames or provides extra info about a nearby noun.	Sue usually reads <i>The Bluest Eye</i> , <b>her favorite novel</b> ; moreover, she appreciates the story backgrounds.
<b>Prepositional Phrase</b>	Adds context like time, location, or reason.	<b>For your success</b> , you need to read books and notes, so you may achieve good grades.
<b>Infinitive Phrase</b>	Add the infinitive 'to' phrase for the reason of the clause	Darin had a plan <b>to study hard</b> , but her brother wanted to go to the park <b>to relax</b> .

(Source: Tetzner, 2025b; Udemy, 2020)

**Practice writing compound sentences with modifiers.**

Ex. consequently / anger: \_\_\_\_\_

It is important to lower your **anger**; **consequently**, you will be a wise person.

(1) and / return :

(2) but / condominium:

(4) or / Khonkaen:

(5) for / friend:

(6) so / money :

(7) however / food:

(8) for instance / fruit:

(9) in fact / quality:

(10) moreover / decorate :

(11) therefore / ill:

(12) otherwise/ punish:

### 6.2.3 Complex sentences

A complex sentence refers to a sentence in which more information based on your main point is provided through the linking between one independent clause and at least one dependent clause. This type of sentence gives more details and background information to a certain topic (Grammarly, 2025). Look at the following sentence:

“Although she is wealthy, she is not happy”. This sentence can be analyzed in the following structure of the complex sentence:

- Independent clause: she is not happy.
- Dependent clause: Although she is wealthy.

Dependent clauses are vital for the structure of a complex sentence. They cannot stand individually, but they can enhance complex sentences through an addition of levels of information, context and details. There are many subordinating conjunctions that suit complex sentences, so you can see them in the following table that demonstrates common uses and examples for each of them (Grammarly, 2025):

Common usage	Subordinating conjunction examples	How it is used in a complex sentence
Time	<i>when, while, before, after, as, as soon as, since, until, once, whenever, now that, as long as, by the time</i>	<b>After</b> I finish lunch, I go for walk to digest my food.
Cause/effect	<i>because, since, as, so that, in order that, as long as, as much as</i>	Baw practiced using computers <b>so that</b> he could become a programmer.
Contrast/opposition	<i>although, though, even though, whereas, while</i>	Amara is keen on Biology <b>while</b> Anan is good at Chemistry.
Condition	<i>if, unless, only if, even if, in case, provided that, as long as, supposing that</i>	I will work for this company <b>as long as</b> I am happy to be here.
Reason	<i>because, since, as, inasmuch as</i>	Sarah’s car was not flooded <b>since</b> it was parked in high ground.

Common usage	Subordinating conjunction examples	How it is used in a complex sentence
Place	<i>where, wherever, whereas</i>	I will travel to <b>wherever</b> I can afford the airfare.
Manner	<i>as if, as though, as</i>	She behaves herself <b>as though</b> she were the owner of the company.

(Source: Grammarly, 2025)

### How to write complex sentences

- (i) You need to consider two patterns of complex sentences (Bourchrika, 2026) as follows:
- Pattern A: Subordinating Conjunction + Dependent Clause + Comma + Independent Clause. For example:
    - “Because it is heavy raining, it is quite hard for students to go to university”.
  - Pattern B: Independent Clause + Subordinating Conjunction + Dependent Clause (No comma usually required). For example:
    - “It is quite hard for students to go to university because it is heavy raining”.
- (ii) You should follow the step of writing as follows:
- You try to identify your central idea by starting with a simple sentence that can stand individually (e.g., “My family is proud of me”).
  - You can choose a relationship by deciding the relation between the extra information to the central idea, for example, about time (*when, before, after*), cause (*because, since*), condition (*if, unless*), or contrast (*although, even though*).
  - You can add subordinating word by attaching the chosen conjunction to the second idea to write a dependent clause, for example, : Attach the chosen conjunction to the secondary idea to create a dependent clause (e.g., “Because I am awarded a scholarship”).
  - You have to combine two clauses and use punctuation marks by joining them together with the use of a comma, that is, “Because I am awarded a scholarship, my family is proud of me.”
  - You may write some modifiers for details of complex sentences which can be the following clauses, phrases, or words.
    - **Relative or adjective clauses** (who, which, that, whose) (Walailak University, n.d.).
      - As modifiers of nouns or pronouns which are the subjects of independent clauses: “The student **who is awarded a scholarship** is my friend”.
      - As modifiers of nouns or pronouns which are the objects of independent clauses: “I know the student **who is awarded a scholarship.**”
      - As modifiers of the complements of the subjects in independent clauses: “He is the student **who is awarded a scholarship.**”

Other examples:

- The man **whom Shakira sits near** is a superstar.
  - The book **that I borrowed** is very useful for my report.
  - The room, **which was cleaned by my wife**, will be repainted.
  - Your friend **whose name is Danny** is always late.
  - The time **when you stared to study here** is known.
  - I want to know the reason **why you hate me**.
- **Adverb clauses** modify the verb or the entire thought in the independent clause, typically answering questions like *When?*, *Why?*, or *Under what condition?* (Routh, 2025). For example
    - “**After the rain stopped**, the children ran outside to play.”
    - “**Before we have a meeting**, we have discussed the plan.”
  - **Adjective and adverb modifiers** (Study, 2026)
    - You can choose to use single words or short phrases to modify specific elements within either the independent or dependent clause.
    - Adjective:** “The **blue** bird is flying while the sun was rising” (*Blue* modifies the subject *bird*).
    - Adverb:** “Because it is snowing **heavily**, I could not get out of my house”. (*Heavily* modifies the verb *snowing*.)
- Common phrase modifiers** (Twinkl, n.d.)
- **Prepositional phrases:** They usually provide information on time, location, or direction. For example:
    - “My daughter slept **on the bed** while it was raining heavily”. (*On the bed* modifies *slept*.)
  - **Participial phrases:** They can start with an *-ing* or *-ed* verb form and function as adjectives. For example:
    - “**Drinking apple juice**, I could read books because I felt fresh”. (*Drinking apple juice* modifies *I*.)
  - **Appositive phrases:** They can rename other nouns. For example:
    - “Ramona, **a nurse**, is very active because she works with many patients”. (*A nurse* modifies Ramona.)
  - **Infinitive phrases:** They begin with ‘to’ that precedes a verb, and they can function as adjectives or adverbs. For example:
    - “**To improve her health**, Anna goes jogging every day although she does not like to get up early”. (*To improve her health* modifies the action of the main clause.)

**Practice writing complex sentences with modifiers.**

Ex. now that / petrol / adjective phrase as modifier

Now that the very high-priced petrol is known, you need to save the energy.

(1) as soon as / water / prepositional phrase as modifier

\_\_\_\_\_

(2) because / butter / adjective phrase as modifier

\_\_\_\_\_

(3) although / fly / adverb phrase as modifier

\_\_\_\_\_

(4) if / visit / infinitive phrase as modifier

\_\_\_\_\_

(5) wherever / upset / present participial phrase as modifier

\_\_\_\_\_

(6) until / finish / past participial phrase as modifier

\_\_\_\_\_

(7) as / policeman / appositive phrase

\_\_\_\_\_

(8) buy / adjective clause as modifier (which)

\_\_\_\_\_

(9) waterfall / adjective clause as modifier (where)

\_\_\_\_\_

(10) soldier / adjective clause as modifier (who)

\_\_\_\_\_

**6.2.4 Compound-complex sentences**

The compound-complex sentence concerns the way elements of compound and complex sentences are combined. It is considered the most advanced type of sentence. To write this type of sentence, one needs to understand its complex structure (The Evergreen State College, 2023).

## Understanding clauses

Understanding clauses is the way to delve into compound-complex sentences. You have learned the structure of clause in Unit 3. However, it is vital to revise it here. A clause carries at least one subject and one verb. It is divided into two types – independent and dependent. An independent clause is evident in a statement or a question that can function as a complete sentence, for example, *The cow walks*. (This structure consists of a subject and a verb.)

In contrast, a dependent clause cannot function as a complete sentence since it starts with a subordinating word, namely “before, after, because, whenever...”. For example, “Whenever *the cow walks*” is not a complete sentence because ‘whenever’ is used.

## Identifying compound-complex sentences

You need to identify which sentence is a compound one and which is a complex one. A compound sentence is comprised of two independent clauses which are combined by a coordinating conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, or so) and a comma or by a semicolon without the use of the conjunctions. For example:

- *Rita is a student of the Science program, **but** she is not interested in continuing her studies in Science.*
- *Rita is a student of the Science program; she is not interested in continuing her studies in Science.*

A complex sentence is different from a compound sentence in that it requires a dependent clause in addition to an independent one. That is, a dependent clause is combined with an independent one by a subordinating word: “when the dependent clause is placed before the independent clause, the two clauses are divided by a comma; otherwise, no punctuation is necessary” (The Evergreen State College, 2023).

Example: **Because** the Maldives is full of beautiful islands and beaches, many tourists around the world visit there.

## Constructing compound-complex sentences

A compound-complex sentence is comprised of at least two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses. In other words, two independent clauses are combined with a coordinating conjunction, and another dependent clause is added for this combination.

Example:

- Laura will work as a journalist, **so** she applies for a job at Bangkok Post **after** she has graduated from a university.
- **Because** the Maldives is full of beautiful islands and beaches, many tourists around the world visit there; **for instance**, they dive and sunbathe.

## Steps to write a compound-complex sentence

To write a compound-complex sentence effectively, you can follow the steps below (Duncan, 2026; MasterClass, 2021a).

- (1) You can draft two independent or main clauses, for example, “I have breakfast”, “I go to the office.”
- (2) You can join them using a comma and a coordinating conjunction, for example, “I have breakfast, and I go to the office.” This can become a compound sentence.
- (3) You try to add a dependent clause to make a complex sentence by inserting a clause with the use of a subordinating conjunction in the context, for example, “*When* I get into the kitchen, I have breakfast, *and* I go to the office”.

### Writing modifiers in compound-complex sentences

If you want to make your compound-complex sentences clearer with more details, you can try to add modifiers by placing descriptive words or phrases as close as possible to the specific words they modify to support the clarity (Utah Valley University, 2026). Consider the following types of modifiers that can be used for compound-complex sentences:

**(i) Adjectives and adverbs (phrases):** They are single words that can modify nouns or verbs, so place them directly before the word they describe, for example, “The **active** student **determinedly** pays attention to the lecture”.

- The **active** student **determinedly** pays attention to the lecture of Advanced English Grammar, *and* she **carefully** reviewed exercises *because* she does not **really** want to fail this **tough** course.

**(ii) Participial phrases:** You can use phrases that end in *-ing* or *-ed* to add action-oriented details. You can place them at the beginning, middle, or end of a clause. For example:

- **Swimming almost every day**, Ming realizes the value of this exercise, *so* he can become a university swimmer *although* he is very busy with his studies.
- **Stuck in traffic**, Mei Ling arrived late to class; *however*, she could still **catch up on** the lecture *as* she had already reviewed her books and notes.

**(iii) Infinitive phrases:** You may add infinitive phrases to a clause. For example:

- “**To improve her fitness**, Sarah joined the university’s gym, and she started a fixed diet since she wanted to become a marathon runner.”

**(iv) Appositive phrase:** You may add an appositive phrase that renames another noun in a clause using commas (e.g., “Manee, **an obedient child**, did homework”). For example:

- Manee, **an obedient child**, never has any argument with her parents, so she is her parents’ pride and joy, whereas Mana, **her brother**, has a different habit.

**(v) Prepositional phrases:** You may use prepositional phrase to add more details about location, time, or manner in a clause. For example:

- Marisa is now working as a flight attendant **for Emirates Airlines**, **as** this is her dream job **after** she changed many previous jobs.

(vi) **Adjective clauses:** You may add adjective clauses as modifiers to compound-complex sentences. For example:

- Thaksin University, **which is located in Songkhla and Phatthalung**, is a leading education institute in southern Thailand, **and** it is ranked the 26 best Thai university **where many Arts and Science programs are offered**.

### Summary of structural examples

To create a modified compound-complex sentence, you can start with your core clauses and levels in details (Filo, 2025):

- (i) **Base Sentence:** *I went to the store, and I bought fruits because I was hungry.*
- (ii) **Add Modifiers:** *Late last night, I went to the **local** store, and I bought **fresh** fruit because I was **extremely** hungry.*
- (iii) **Add Phrases:** *Late last night, I went to the local store **in the neighborhood**, and I bought fresh fruit **arranged in baskets** because I was extremely hungry.*

### Practice writing compound-complex sentences with modifiers.

Ex. because / palace / prepositional phrase

I visited Topkapi Palace in Istanbul because it was a must-visit place, but I did not get into Dolmabahçe Sarayı.

(1) and / mountain / adjective clause

(2) but / lake / prepositional phrase

(3) so / forest / infinitive phrase

(4) for / night / participial phrase

(5) furthermore / rain / adjective phrase

(6) for example / courses / adverb phrase

(7) therefore / flower / appositive phrase

(8) otherwise / teacher / adjective clause

## 6.3 Common Errors in Sentence Writing: Revising and Editing English Sentences for Effective Communication

To write sentences with effective communication, you need to revise them correctly. Effective sentences must not have errors. Thus, we can consider three common types of errors in writing sentences which are run-on, fragments and comma splice, and edit them.

### 6.3.1 Run-on sentences

A run-on sentence has been known as a fused sentence. This error takes place when two or more independent clauses are combined using incorrect punctuations. In other words, run-ons refer to the way sentences are overcrowded into one sentence. They can be confusing because of their complex structure (Suffolk Community College, n.d.). Look at the following example:

- Karen is fat Mike is thin.

In fact, there are many ways you can edit run-ons, but there are three common ways with examples you can choose.

- (i) Write a period between the two independent clauses.  
- *Karen is fat. Mike is thin.*
- (ii) Place a semicolon between the two independent clauses.  
- *Karen is fat; Mike is thin.*
- (iii) Use a comma and a coordinating conjunction between the two independent clauses.  
- *Karen is fat, but Mike is thin.*

According to Northern Illinois University (2025), a run-on sentence can happen when two independent clauses run or are written together without the use of *proper punctuation* or *correct or appropriate conjunctions*.

**Incorrect:** William wrote many literary books published worldwide he is an excellent novelist.

**Correct:** William wrote many literary books published worldwide, **for** he is an excellent novelist.

William wrote many literary books published worldwide **because** he is an excellent novelist.

William wrote many literary books published worldwide; he is an excellent novelist.

William wrote many literary books published worldwide. **He** is an excellent novelist.

**Incorrect:** Hara vacuumed the living room therefore Randy will clean the kitchen.

**Correct:** Hara vacuumed the living room; **therefore**, Randy will clean the kitchen.

Hara vacuumed the living room; Randy will clean the kitchen.

Hara vacuumed the living room, **so** Randy will clean the kitchen.  
Hara vacuumed the living room; **thus**, Randy will clean the kitchen.  
Hara vacuumed the living room. **Thus**, Randy will clean the kitchen.

To correct or edit run-on sentences, you need to examine the clauses that make up the sentence by deciding what the main purpose of the sentence is and choosing one of the following ways to rewrite the sentence clearer:

- Split clauses into two sentences.
- Add a semicolon between the two clauses.
- Place a comma with either a coordinating or subordinating conjunction.

**(i) Split the clauses** into two sentences by inserting a period between them.

**Incorrect:** Rana was too tired to cook for her family she bought boxes of dinner.

**Correct:** Rana was too tired to cook for her family. She bought boxes of dinner.

**(ii) Add a semicolon** between two closely related clauses.

**Incorrect:** Rana was too tired to cook for her family she bought boxes of dinner.

**Correct:** Rana was too tired to cook for her family; she bought boxes of dinner.

**(iii) Place a comma with a coordinating conjunction** to divide the clauses.

**Incorrect:** Rana was too tired to cook for her family she bought boxes of dinner.

**Correct:** Rana was too tired to cook for her family, **so** she bought boxes of dinner.

**(iv) Insert a subordinating conjunction** to make one sentence out of the two clauses.

**Incorrect:** Rana was too tired to cook for her family she bought boxes of dinner.

**Correct:** Rana was too tired to cook for her family; **therefore**, she bought boxes of dinner.

### Practice editing run-on sentences.

Ex. Navito migrates to Australia he works as a chef in a restaurant in Perth.

Correct sentence(s):

- Navito migrates to Australia, and he works as a chef in a restaurant in Perth.
- Navito migrates to Australia; he works as a chef in a restaurant in Perth.
- Navito migrates to Australia. He works as a chef in a restaurant in Perth.

(1) Jarunee applied for a job in Songkhla she did not want to work in Bangkok.

Correct sentence:

---

---

---

(2) Andy played computer games he went to sleep.

Correct sentence:

---

---

---

(3) Dorothy spent much time in the gym she was not exhausted.

Correct sentence:

---

---

---

(4) Anurak wanted to help his family he did chores.

Correct sentence:

---

---

---

### 6.3.2 Fragments

Sentence fragments refer to *incomplete sentences*. They are unacceptable grammatical forms in academic and business writing. Fragments are considered errors in which the writer cannot provide a complete thought. To correct fragment errors, you need to make a complete sentence with the following elements (Tidewater Community College, 2003):

- A complete sentence contains at least one independent clause.
- A complete sentence comprises a complete idea.
- A complete sentence must have a capital letter at the beginning.
- A complete sentence must have a terminal punctuation at the end that can be a full stop, a question mark, or an exclamation point).

#### Dependent or subordinate clause fragments

Although they carry a group of subjects-verbs, dependent clauses are not considered ‘grammatically complete sentences.’ This is because particular subordinators such as “*if, because, whenever, although, or which*” are not included in the clauses. Thus, you have insert them into the clauses. However, they cannot stand individually; they are still incomplete. Look at the following examples (Tidewater Community College, 2003):

- When my wife is washing clothes.
- Because the restroom is not cleaned.
- Where nobody wants to live in.

### Phrase fragments

Phrases are a group of words. However, they do not carry subject-verb groups and are not regarded as complete sentences. Indeed, phrases comprise verbs or verb forms, especially verb phrases. The following examples are punctuated as complete sentences, but they are not complete sentences (Tidewater Community College, 2003):

- Leaving the capital to the provincial city.
- Stressed by the life failure.
- To indulge in the beauty of nights.
- After the flooding.
- The flowers, the leaves, the river, and the wind.
- More cheerful than before.

### How to correct fragment errors

There are many ways to correct fragments, so you can choose the method that will be the most logical to address the idea of your written sentence.

(1) Give the missing subject or verb or both.

Original: The waterfall in the forest.

Revision: *The waterfall is in the forest.*

Original: Leaving the capital to the provincial city

Revision: *Many works are leaving the capital to the provincial city.*

(2) Rewrite to make an independent clause.

Original: To indulge in the beauty of nights

Revision: *My friends like to indulge in the beauty of nights.*

(3) Remove the subordinator (dependent clause signal) to write an independent clause.

Original: When my wife is washing clothes.

Revision: *My wife is washing clothes.*

Original: Because the restroom is not cleaned.

Revision: *The restroom is not cleaned.*

(4) Link the fragment to a logically related sentence that appears before or after it.

Original: I cannot see the view. To which the curtain is attached.

Revision: *I cannot see the view to which the curtain is attached.*

Original: Depressed by the high living cost in the capital. Jay decided to move to the provincial city.

Revision: *Depressed by the high living cost in the capital, Jay decided to move to the provincial city.*

(5) Add an independent clause of your own idea that makes sense.

Original: Because it is raining heavily.

Revision: *I don't go to work because it is raining heavily,*

Original: Before the exam starts.

Revision: *Before the exam starts, many students pay attention to the proctor's directions.*

### **Practice editing sentence fragments.**

Ex. A boat trip along Bosphorus Strait, Istanbul, for many tourists.

Revision:

A boat trip along Bosphorus Strait, Istanbul, is fabulous for many tourists.

(1) Nowadays a chef a dream job for many young people.

Revision:

---

(2) Because Hatyai was flooded.

Revision:

---

(3) Waree wants to walk alongside the garden. Which is lush, natural, and flowery.

Revision:

---

(4) Karn closed the door. Not knowing that someone was hidden behind the door.

Revision:

---

(5) Stuck in traffic jam. Isara came to the office late.

Revision:

---

### **6.3.3 Comma splices**

A comma splice is a specific type of common errors in sentence writing that occurs when you use a comma to combine two independent clauses. Look at the following example (Grammarly, 2023d):

- Lion cubs are looking for their mother, they are hungry.

This sentence has a comma splice. It can be divided into two sentences.

- Lion cubs are looking for their mother. They are hungry.

Thus, these two sentences are independent clauses with the use of full stops because the comma is left. If you do not want to divide this sentence into two independent clauses, you

can fix it by combining them with a subordinating conjunction – “Lion cubs are looking for their mother **because** they are hungry.

### How to fix a comma splice

You can consider the following three common ways to fix a comma splice (Grammarly, 2023d). Look at the following example:

- *Malinee lives in a rural area, she studies in a school in the city.*

Fix 1: You can add a conjunction between the two clauses.

- Malinee lives in a rural area, **but** she studies in a school in the city.

Fix 2: You can change the comma to a semicolon to ensure the two clauses have a logical connection.

- Malinee lives in a rural area; she studies in a school in the city.

Fix 3: You can make separate sentences. You may add a connector at the end of the second sentence.

- Malinee lives in a rural area. She studies in a school in the city.
- Malinee lives in a rural area. She studies in a school in the city, *however*.

### Practice editing sentences with comma splices.

Ex. Khao Yai is full of evergreen scenery, it is suitable for a vacation.

Correct: Khao Yai is full of evergreen scenery, so it is suitable for a vacation.

Khao Yai is full of evergreen scenery; it is suitable for a vacation.

Khao Yai is full of evergreen scenery. It is suitable for a vacation.

(1) Zack wants to invent a robot, he does not have a background in Physics.

Correct:

(2) Thanin got into the kitchen, he found that there were many cockroaches.

Correct:

(3) Kimberly spent two years in Japan, she can speak Japanese well.

Correct:

(4) Betong, Yala, has many famous tourist attractions, tourists can visit Aiyerweng Skywalk.

Correct:

(5) You have to apply for a job today, the deadline is today.

Correct:

## 6.4 Common Errors in Sentence Writing with Specific Types and Other Issues

Writing simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences is not easy for Thai EFL students. This is evident in a study by Yawiloeng (2025) who examined paragraph writing of 27 students at a university in Thailand who used the digital tool, Grammarly, to enhance their English writing development. The students' writing showed problems in grammar structure and punctuation. There are 4 items of errors in conjunction use, 2 items of misuse of modifiers, and 8 items of punctuation in compound sentences. The researcher illustrated an example of the student's writing errors. Before using the Grammarly, the student made an error in punctuation in compound or complex sentences such as "Especially because in today's era where technology plays an increasingly important role in society." Then, after the use of the Grammarly, the student added a comma in the complex sentence according to the post feedback, namely "Especially because in today's era, where technology plays an increasingly important role in society" (p.2178). Although in this study, simple sentence and compound-complex sentences are not directly mentioned, the shown issues can be related to problems in sentence writing in general.

In light of run-on, fragments, and comma splices, there are several studies that give recognition to these errors in writing. The textbook writer reviews only two studies that are related to sentence writing. Pornthanachotanan (2020) examined writings of 40 students of Grade 12 at a school in Bangkok. She found that those writings comprised of 60 items (47.24%) of run-ons, 46 items (36.22%) of fragments, and 21 items (16.54%) of comma splices. She revealed only sub-types of fragments faced by the students, namely lack of subjects, lack of verb-be, absence of complete thoughts, and absence of subject-verb (be). Similarly, Chuanpipatpong (2025) found that 70 undergraduate students at Bangkok University made errors when they were writing sentences. Such errors are grammar-related – run-on, sentence fragments, and comma splices. Run-on sentences appeared into 2 items (0.61%) while there were 9 items, 2.74%, of fragments. However, comma splices were part of punctuation errors with 75 items (22.87%). Examples of the errors are given. The sentence "That's all about me Thank you" shows the issue of run-on, so the correct sentence should be "That's all about me. Thank you" (pp. 323-324). The problem of a comma splice is seen in the sentence "I'm Miguel, I'm 20 years old," (p. 324). The correct sentence should be "I'm Miguel. I'm 20 years old" (p.324).

As a whole, the problems in writing sentences with their specific types as well as run-ons-fragments-comma splices are mainly caused by the Thai EFL student writers' language interference. Their thought patterns in Thai influence the way they are writing in English. Moreover, English sentence structures have a variety of detailed rules in phrases, clauses, and modifiers that require Thai students' comprehension before writing sentences. The possible solution could be an in-depth practice of analyzing English sentence structure and grammar rules for writing alongside the teachers' guidance. Another solution suggested by Bennui (2008) to reduce L1

interference in written English is that Thai instructors apply the communicative approach through the use of English as a medium of instruction, enabling their EFL student writers to have more opportunities to think and write in English.

## 6.5 The Unit Summary

This unit has shown that four structural types of sentences are crucial. Each type of sentence has its specific modifiers and punctuations. It is important for EFL student writers have to point out structural patterns of each type. It seems that writing modifiers is quite difficult; however, they can consider them to focus on subjects or predicates of sentences or both. Then, writing sentences effectively, they need to pay attention to errors – run-on, fragments, and comma splices – by editing them correctly to produce writing communicatively. Indeed, there are many more errors for them to consider in their written sentences. However, this unit provides simple guidance to practice editing errors, so these three common aspects of the errors should come first. Later, they can have more chances to learn other aspects of errors in sentence writing.

### Unit Tasks

**A. Directions: Write sentences according to their types using the words and your own ideas.**

(1) Simple sentence/ sunset

---

(2) Simple sentence with a modifier / coral

---

(3) Compound sentence / snorkeling

---

(4) Compound sentences with a modifier / coconut tree

---

(5) Complex sentence /resort

---

(6) Complex sentence with a modifier / stores

---

(7) Compound-complex sentence / watermelon

---

(8) Compound complex with modifiers / hospital

---

**B. Directions: Edit the following sentences with run-ons, fragments, and comma splices in the space provided:**

(1) Sticky rice with mangoes is my favorite dessert it is very delicious.

---

(2) Coconut milk becomes a key ingredient in Thai food it is available in many markets.

---

(3) When Thailand's economy is booming.

---

(4) After you finish working part-time at a convenience store.

---

(5) Many Thai laborers in the Middle East want to go back home, they are worried about the war there.

---

---

(6) The price of coconuts in Thailand is decreasing, the government is dealing with this problem.

---

---



## Possible Answers

### Unit 1: Mechanics of Writing

#### 1.1 Warm-up Activity

**Directions:** Read the following sentences and identify their errors in punctuation marks and capitalization as well as inconsistent spelling in British English or American English:

- (1) Mandy studies at university of hongkong<sup>v</sup>  
\_\_ Mandy studies at University of **Hong Kong**. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) she was born on saturday morning.  
\_ **S**he was born on **S**aturday morning. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) Did you have breakfast<sup>^</sup>  
\_ Do you have breakfast? \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) Bob likes green ~~colour~~<sup>v</sup> but his sister loves white ~~colour~~.  
\_ Bob likes green **colour**, but his sister loves white colour. \_\_\_\_ (British English)  
\_ Bob likes green **color**, but his sister loves white **color**. \_\_\_\_ (American English) \_\_\_\_
- (5) ~~mr.~~ Somsak Saengsri will visit ehiang ~~mai~~<sup>v</sup> in December<sup>v</sup> 2026<sup>v</sup>  
\_ **Mr** Somsak Saengsri will visit **Chiang Mai** in December, 2026. \_\_\_\_ (British English)  
\_ **Mr.** Somsak Saengsri will visit **Chiang Mai** in December, 2026. \_\_\_\_ (American English)
- (6) What a beautiful house<sup>^</sup>  
\_ What a beautiful house! \_\_\_\_\_
- (7) We have a lot of cars; <sup>^</sup>we are rich.  
\_ We have a lot of cars; we are rich. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_ We have a lot of cars **because** we are rich. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_ We have a lot of cars, **for** we are rich. \_\_\_\_\_
- (8) There are three favorite subjects of mine <sup>^</sup> English, ~~mathematic~~<sup>v</sup>, and social studies<sup>v</sup>  
\_ There are three favorite subjects of mine: English, **Mathematics**, and **Social Studies**. \_\_\_\_\_
- (9) is your brother sick, isn't he<sup>^</sup>  
\_ **Is** your brother sick, isn't he? \_\_\_\_\_

(10) i-can't speak ehinese √

\_\_ I can't speak Chinese. \_\_\_\_\_

**Practice: The following sentences have inconsistent spelling in British English or American English. Please identify and rewrite them correctly.**

- (1) There are many travellers to Thailand who come to buy jewelry.  
\_\_ There are many **travellers** to Thailand who come to buy **jewellery**. (British English) \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_ There are many **travelers** to Thailand who come to buy **jewelry**. (American English) \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) Chitchai has learnt that his house was burned because of his carelessness.  
\_\_ Chaichai has **learnt** that his house was **burnt** because of his carelessness. (British English) \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_ Chitchai has **learned** that his house was **burned** because of his carelessness. (American English) \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) My favo~~r~~ite fruit is watermelon because of its sweet and juicy flavo~~r~~our.  
\_\_ My **favourite** fruit is watermelon because of its sweet and juicy **flavour**. (British English) \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_ My **favorite** fruit is watermelon because of its sweet and juicy **flavor**. (American English) \_\_\_\_\_

**Practice: The following sentences contain errors in punctuation marks. Please identify and rewrite them correctly.**

- (1) There are many menus of Thai foods offered at this restaurant I really like √ Tom Yam √ Pad Thai √ Green Curry √ and Pad Kra Prow.  
\_\_ There are many menus of Thai foods offered at this restaurant I really like: Tom Yam, Pad Thai, Green Curry, and Pad Kra Prow. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) Ball asked me √ “Can you go to Bangkok with me ^?” √  
\_\_ Ball asked me, “Can you go to Bangkok with me?” \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) Aranya missed the flight to Phuket; so she needs to take a bus instead.  
\_\_ Aranya missed the flight to Phuket; she needs to take a bus instead. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_ Aranya missed the flight to Phuket, so she needs to take a bus instead \_\_\_\_\_

**Practice: The following sentences contain errors in capitalization. Please identify and rewrite them correctly.**

- (1) istanbul, turkey is the most beautiful city i have ever visited.  
\_\_ Istanbul, Turkey is the most beautiful city I have ever visited. \_\_\_\_\_

(2) **m**onday mornings and **f**riday evenings have heavy traffic in many cities.  
\_ **M**onday mornings and **F**riday evenings have heavy traffic in many cities \_\_\_\_\_

(3) **t**he interviewer of the new applicants is **m**iss Qiara Taylors.  
\_ **T**he interviewer of the new applicants is **M**iss Qiara Taylors. \_\_\_\_\_

### Unit Tasks

**Directions: Read the following sentences, identify their errors in punctuation marks and capitalization as well as inconsistent spelling in British English or American English, and rewrite the correct sentences:**

(1) p~~r~~ofessor Mintra wrote a book titled ‘~~l~~inguistics and ~~a~~pplied ~~l~~inguistics for ~~e~~nglish ~~m~~ajors’ √ and she distributed it to many bookshops in ~~b~~angkok.

\_ **P**rofessor Mintra wrote a book titled ‘**L**inguistics and **A**pplied **L**inguistics for **E**nglish **M**ajors’, and she distributed it to many bookshops in **B**angkok. \_\_\_\_\_

(2) My brother and ~~i~~ do not go to school because today is ~~s~~unday √  
\_ My brother and **I** do not go to school because today is **S**unday. \_\_\_\_\_

(3) “Have you ever been to Betong ^” √ asked Kai √  
\_ “Have you ever been to Betong?” , asked Kai. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_ “Have you ever been to Betong?” , Kai asked. \_\_\_\_\_

(4) There are four names of ~~t~~hai desserts sold in this shop √ ~~t~~hongyib √ ~~t~~hongyord √  
~~k~~hanomchan √ and ~~b~~ualoi.  
\_ There are four names of **T**hai desserts sold in this shop: **T**hongyib, **T**hongyord,  
**K**hanomchan, and **B**ualoi. \_\_\_\_\_

(5) George does not like to study literary courses √ he is not good at analysing literary texts. He prefers to learn ~~e~~nglish skills √ he does not need to analy~~z~~e prose and poetry.

\_ George does not like to study literary courses; he is not good at analysing literary texts. He prefers to learn **E**nglish skills; he does not need to analy~~s~~e prose and poetry. (British English) \_\_\_\_\_

\_ Goerge does not like to study literary course; he is not good at analy~~z~~ing literary texts. He prefers to learn **E**nglish skills; he does not need to analy~~z~~e prose and poetry. (American English) \_\_\_\_\_

\_ George does not like to study literary courses, **for** he is not good at analysing literary texts. He prefers to learn English skills, **so** he does not need to analy~~s~~e prose and poetry. (British English) \_\_\_\_\_

George does not like to study literary course, for he is not good at analyzing literary texts. He prefers to learn English skills, so he does not need to analyze prose and poetry. (American English) \_\_\_\_\_

(6) how lazy he is^

How lazy he is! \_\_\_\_\_

(7) Chanchai is considered the best active managerial salesperson of Diana department store

Chanchai is considered the best active managerial salesperson of Diana Department Store. \_\_\_\_\_

(8) In 2016, "eaptain America eivil war" became The Highest-Grossing Film in Thailand.

In 2016, "Captain America Civil War" became the highest-grossing film in Thailand. \_\_\_\_\_

(9) dr. sanders asked his students whether they had finished The Report?

Dr Sanders asked his students whether they had finished the report. (British English) \_\_\_\_\_

Dr. Sanders asked his students whether they had finished the report. (American English) \_\_\_\_\_

(10) nobody in keng's family can speak italian.

Nobody in Keng's family can speak Italian. \_\_\_\_\_

(11) antalya is such a marvellous city in Turkey as it offers travelers a variety of interesting attractions, beaches, historical places, and shopping. \_\_\_\_\_

Antalya is such a marvellous city in Turkey as it offers travellers a variety of interesting attractions: beaches, historical places, and shopping. (British English) \_\_\_\_\_

Antalya is such a marvelous city in Turkey as it offers travelers a variety of interesting attractions: beaches, historical places, and shopping. (American English) \_\_\_\_\_

(12) Edward asked his students a question "why do you choose to study this course?"

Edward asked his students a question, "Why do you choose to study this course?" \_\_\_\_\_

## Unit 2: English Phrases

### 2.1 Warm-up Activity

**A. Directions: Read the following phrases and identify their types in the space provided:**

- (1) Have lunch at TSU canteen  
\_\_\_Verb phrase\_\_\_\_\_
- (2) My best friends at the secondary school  
\_\_\_Noun phrase\_\_\_\_\_
- (3) Very carelessly  
\_\_\_Adverb phrase\_\_\_\_\_
- (4) Cold today  
\_\_\_Adjective phrase\_\_\_\_\_
- (5) In a lush campus  
\_\_\_Prepositional phrase\_\_\_\_\_

**B. Directions: Underline parts of the following phrases in the parentheses and identify them:**

- (1) Many students at TSU major in English. (Noun Phrase and Verb Phrase)  
\_\_\_Noun phrase \_\_\_Verb phrase\_\_\_\_\_
- (2) You don't really know me. (Verb Phrase and Adverb Phrase)  
\_\_\_Adverb phrase Verb phrase\_\_\_\_\_
- (3) Percian cats are cute and naughty. (Noun Phrase and Adjective Phrase)  
\_\_\_Noun phrase \_\_\_Adjective phrase\_\_\_\_\_
- (4) We will stay at a hotel near the lake. (Verb phrase and Prepositional Phrase)  
\_\_\_Verb phrase \_\_\_Prepositional phrase\_\_\_\_\_
- (5) Pharanee shops at the street market very happily. (Prepositional Phrase and Adverb Phrase)  
\_\_\_Prepositional phrase \_\_\_Adverb phrase\_\_\_\_\_

**Practice writing noun phrases: Create your own phrases with the given head nouns.**

Determiners	Premodifiers	Head/ Head noun	Postmodifiers/Complements
A	kind	nurse	in this hospital
This	ripe	banana	on the table
A	wild	elephant	near the river
The	famous	canal	which is located in Bangkok

**Practice writing noun phrases in sentences: Put the above noun phrases you create into complete sentences.**

- (1) \_\_ Jessica is a kind nurse in this hospital. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) \_\_ This ripe banana on the table is mine. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) \_\_ A wild elephant near the river gets lost. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) \_\_ The famous canal which is located in Bangkok is full of historical stories. \_\_\_\_\_

**Practice writing verb phrases: Create your own phrases with the given main verbs.**

- (1) play: \_\_\_\_\_ definitely play football skillfully \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) learn: \_\_\_\_\_ quickly learn a foreign language effectively \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) lose: \_\_\_\_\_ accidentally lose her purse. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) apply: \_\_ merely apply this cream gently \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) smile: \_\_ hardly smile to the patients \_\_\_\_\_

**Practice writing verb phrases in sentences: Put the above verb phrases you create into complete sentences.**

- (1) \_\_ Scott and Brad can definitely play football skillfully. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) \_\_ My students can quickly learn a foreign language effectively \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) \_\_ Dusita accidentally loses her purse. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) \_\_ You merely apply this cream gently on your body for protecting the UV. \_\_
- (5) \_\_ Some doctors hardly smile to the patients. \_\_\_\_\_

**Practice writing adjective phrases: Create your own phrases with the given main adjectives in the following table:**

Premodifiers	Adjectives	Postmodifiers
very	difficult	indeed
too	sweet	to eat
quite	boring	for me
surely	fragrant	everywhere
probably	late	for the morning class

**Practice writing adjective phrases in sentences: Put the above adjective phrases you create into complete sentences.**

- (1) \_\_ Learning Japanese grammar is very difficult indeed. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) \_\_ The dessert is too sweet to eat. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) \_\_ Mathematics and Physics are quite boring for me. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) \_\_ This perfume surely smells fragrant everywhere. \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) \_\_ Kate is probably late for the morning class. \_\_\_\_\_

**Practice writing adverb phrases: Create your own phrases with the given main adverbs in the following table:**

Premodifiers	Adverbs	Postmodifiers
very	carefully	in public
too	gently	the other day
nearly	completely	on a new project
so	perfectly	on the catwalk
really	excitedly	in this talk show

**Practice writing adverb phrases in sentences: Put the above adverb phrases you create into complete sentences.**

- (1) \_\_ Eknarin speaks very carefully in public. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) \_\_ He touched his newborn baby too gently the other day. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) \_\_ Mario is working nearly completely on a new project. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) \_\_ Many models walked so perfectly on the catwalk. \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) \_\_ Paula acted really excitedly in this talk show. \_\_\_\_\_

**Practice writing prepositional phrases: Create your own phrases with the given prepositions in the following table:**

Premodifiers	Prepositions	Complements
nearly	alongside	you
almost	under	the bridge
right	on	the sofa
truly	beyond	my ability
just	because of	your fault

**Practice writing prepositional phrases in sentences: Put the above prepositional phrases you create into complete sentences.**

- (1) \_ I run nearly alongside you. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) \_ Garry went almost under the bridge. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) \_ You sit right on the sofa. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) \_ Becoming a pilot is truly beyond my ability \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) \_ Your mother is sad just because of your fault. \_\_\_\_\_

### Unit Tasks

**Directions: Create specific phrases with modifiers using the given words as directed and use them to write sentences with your own ideas.**

- (1) Noun phrases
  - jeans : \_ Many teenagers like to wear **fashionable jeans** when they go on trips. \_\_\_\_\_
  - airport: \_ Koh Samui has **a private airport** to boost the tourism on the island \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) Verb phrases
  - assist : \_ Many friends of mine **willingly assist me** with a new project. \_\_\_\_\_
  - fly: \_ Many airlines from Bangkok **did not directly fly** to the Middle East countries because of the war. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) Adjective phrases
  - friendly: \_ Tina is **really friendly** to her colleagues. \_\_\_\_\_
  - interesting: \_ Many online business courses are **very interesting** for me. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) Adverb phrases
  - surprisingly: \_ **Really surprisingly**, Udom came to class on time. \_\_\_\_\_
  - ordinarily: \_ The princess can behave herself **quite ordinarily**. \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) Prepositional phrases
  - through: You can improve your written English **merely through emails**. \_\_\_\_\_
  - behind: \_ You just walk **right behind the building**. \_\_\_\_\_

## Unit 3: English Clauses

### 3.1 Warm-up Activity

**A. Directions:** Read the following sentences and underline independent clauses by writing IC as well as dependent clauses by writing DC:

(1) Because English is used as a foreign language, many Thai people cannot speak English well.

\_\_\_\_\_ DC \_\_\_\_\_ IC \_\_\_\_\_

(2) Tony will drive to Alabama to visit his grandparents whenever he has free time.

\_\_\_\_\_ IC \_\_\_\_\_ DC \_\_\_\_\_

(3) When you have any problem, you can call me immediately.

\_\_\_\_\_ DC \_\_\_\_\_ IC \_\_\_\_\_

(4) Nisarar did not get good results even though she studied hard and read notes.

\_\_\_\_\_ IC \_\_\_\_\_ DC \_\_\_\_\_

(5) Thaksin university, which is located in Songkhla and Phatthalung, offers many Science and Arts-based courses.

\_\_\_\_\_ IC \_\_\_\_\_ DC \_\_\_\_\_

**B. Directions:** Read the following sentences, underline their clauses and identify their clause type (noun clause, adjective clause, or adverb clause):

(1) Jariya who wears torn jeans and shirts walks along the street.

\_\_\_\_\_ adjective clause \_\_\_\_\_

(2) Windy does not want to study what her parents would like her to do.

\_\_\_\_\_ noun clause \_\_\_\_\_

(3) After Sofia has watered trees, she immediately gets into the kitchen.

\_\_\_\_\_ adverb clause \_\_\_\_\_

(4) Erick sleeps until it is raining.

\_\_\_\_\_ adverb clause \_\_\_\_\_

(5) I am going to take you to my old house where I lived with my parents.

\_\_\_\_\_ adjective clause \_\_\_\_\_

### (3) Practical writing of noun clauses

(3.1) Read and analyze examples of noun clauses which usually follow the word 'that'.

- I hope that you will enjoy your holiday.

\_\_\_\_\_ that you will enjoy your holiday is a noun clause. \_\_\_\_\_

- She didn't really think that it would happen.  
     \_\_\_\_\_ **that it would happen** is a noun clause. \_\_\_\_\_
- I knew that I had seen her somewhere before.  
     \_\_\_\_\_ **that I had seen her somewhere before** is a noun clause. \_\_\_\_\_
- I believe that Kenneth will win the contest.  
     \_\_\_\_\_ **that Kenneth will win the contest** is a noun clause. \_\_\_\_\_

(3.2) You can use the following verbs related to thoughts/beliefs to construct noun clauses:

think	believe	expect	decide	hope	know	understand
suppose	guess	imagine	feel	remember	forget	

We expect **that we can get into the famous university in Thailand**. .....  
 Robert has decided **that he will migrate to New Zealand**.....  
 Rebecca remembered **that she was previously fat**. .....

(3.3) You can also use the following verbs related to what is said to construct noun clauses:

say	admit	argue	reply	agree	claim	deny
mention	answer	complain	explain	promise	suggest	

He argued **that Thai politics was like a soap opera**. .....  
 My friend promised **that he would visit my house in the summer**. .....  
 The teacher explained **that English grammar is complicated**. .....

(3.4) You can use the following verbs to construct a noun clause with a direct object:

tell	convince	persuade	inform
remind	promise	advise	

My father persuaded **me that learning English is fun**. .....  
 Lily reminded **me that I had to take a TOEIC test again**. .....

(3.5) You can use the following nouns to construct a noun clause by defining nouns/situations with the verb *be*:

danger	problem	chance	possibility	fact
--------	---------	--------	-------------	------

The danger is **that you do not bring any weapon to get into the forest.** .....

The fact is **that many high school students prefer to pursue a bachelor's degree in universities in Bangkok.**.....

(3.6) You can use the following adjectives to construct noun clauses for describing feelings to give reasons for your feelings:

pleased	sorry	happy	unhappy	sad
excited	glad	disappointed	afraid	

I am disappointed **that many new graduates are very choosy.** .....

Many Thai people are afraid **that there will be no more fuel for their cars.** ...

We are glad **that we get promoted this year.** .....

**Practice writing noun clauses with modifiers (adjective clauses).**

- (1) Can you tell us what the name of the hotel **where the farewell party is held** is?
- (2) The news of his success, **that the best officer who is awarded is surprising**, is true.
- (3) That you could finish a degree within 3 years, **which amazes many lecturers**, is hard to believe.
- (4) Charley is explaining to his colleague how the machine works, **which involves a complex process.** .....
- (5) What many Thai politicians have been doing, **namely that they do everything for the people who live in the rural area**, is not something new to me.

**Practice writing sentences with noun clauses using the prompts given and your own ideas.**

- (1) what / comprehend  
 \_\_\_ What you have to comprehend is the main idea of a passage. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) that / complicated  
 \_\_\_ That Calculus is a complicated course is true. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) which / habit  
 \_\_\_ Burapha wants to know which of his habit is not good for his classmates. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) why / appreciate  
 \_\_\_ English majors are curious about why they have to appreciate literary works.

Ex.2 Rita behaves herself in a way *that really pleases her boss and colleagues*.

**Practice analyzing the above adjective clause using example 1 as a model.**

The main clause:

...Rita behaves herself in a way. ....

The Adj clause: ...that really pleases her boss and colleagues. ....

This sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences:

- ...Rita behaves herself in a way. ....
- ...~~A way~~ really pleases her boss and colleagues ...(made into adjective clause).....

We can combine these two sentences into one sentence as ..... Rita behaves herself in a way *that really pleases her boss and colleagues*..... Thus, ‘...that really pleases her boss and colleagues’ is used to modify ‘the phrase ‘in a way’’.

**Practice writing restrictive adjective clauses to modify the main clauses that can complete the sentences.**

- (1) The story *that you told me* ..... is very boring.
- (2) The woman *with whom I am talking*.....is working for this company.
- (3) Many Thai people like to visit Japan *which has many tourist attractions*. ....
- (4) There are a few male students *who study at Faculty of Nursing*.....
- (5) Nobody wants to enroll in a course *in which many assignments are required*. ....
- (6) Fifa is one of my friends *with whom I am discussing on a senior project*. ....

**Practice analyzing adjective clauses with *where, when, why, and whose* (see examples on pp. 58-61).**

- (i) Chiang Mai ***where many local people and foreigners really like to travel to*** is full of many beautiful natural tourist attractions.

Analysis: ...The main clause is “Chiang Mai is full of many beautiful natural tourist attractions”. The adjective clause is “where many local people and foreigners really like to travel to”. The sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences: “Chiang Mai is full of many beautiful natural tourist attractions” and “Many local people and foreigners really like to travel to ~~Chiang Mai~~” (where). We can combine these two sentences as “Chiang Mai *where many local people and foreigners really like to travel to* is full of many beautiful natural tourist attractions”. Thus, the clause “*where many local people and foreigners really like to travel to*” is used to modify the noun ‘Chiang Mai’. .....

- (ii) In the Swanna ***where many wild animals are living***, we would like to go on an adventure.

Analysis: ...The main clause is “In the Swanna, we would like to go on an adventure”. The adjective clause is “In the Swanna where many wild animals are living”. The sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences: “In the Swanna, we would like to go on an adventure” and “Many wild animals are living in ~~the Swanna~~” (where). We can combine these two sentences as “In the Swanna *where many wild animals are living*, we would like to go on an adventure”. Therefore, the clause “where many wild animals are living” is used to modify the phrase “In the Swanna”. .....

- (iii) Jefferey started working at this company in the year ***when his son was born***.

Analysis: ...The main clause is “Jefferey started working at this company in the year”. The adjective clause is “when his son was born”. The sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences: “Jefferey started working at this company in the year” and “his son was born ~~in the year~~” (when). We can combine these two sentences as “Jefferey started working at this company in the year *when his son was born*.” Thus, the clause “*when his son was born*” is used to modify the phrase “in the year”. .....

- (iv) I know the reason ***why Hat Yai has traffic jams***.

Analysis: ...The main clause is “I know the reason”. The adjective clause is “why Hat Yai has traffic jams”. The sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences: “I know the reason” and “~~There is a reason~~ why Hat Yai has traffic jams” (why). We can combine these two sentences as “I know the reason *why Hat Yai has traffic jams*.” Thus, the clause “*why Hat Yai has traffic jams*” is used to modify the noun ‘reason’.

jams” . We can combine these two sentences into “I know the reason *why Hat Yai has traffic jams.*” Therefore, the clause “*why Hat Yai has traffic jams*” is used to modify the phrase ‘the reason’ . . . . .

(v) A lion cub ***whose life is very fragile*** gets lost with its mother in the forest.  
Analysis: ...The main clause is “A lion cub gets lost with its mother in the forest”. The adjective clause is “whose life is very fragile”. The sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences: “A lion cub gets lost with its mother in the forest” and “A lion cub’s life is very fragile” (whose). We can combine these two sentences as “A lion cub *whose life is very fragile* gets lost with its mother in the forest.” Thus, the clause “*whose life is very fragile*” is used to modify the phrase “a lion cub”. . . . .

(vi) Jessica incidentally met a tiger cub ***whose legs are broken*** along the road.  
Analysis: The main clause is “Jessica incidentally met a tiger cub along the road”. The adjective clause is “whose legs are broken”. The sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences: “Jessica incidentally met a tiger cub along the road” and “A tiger cub’s legs are broken” (whose). We can combine these two sentences into “Jessica incidentally met a tiger cub *whose legs are broken* along the road”. Therefore, the clause “whose legs are broken “ is used to modify the phrase ‘a tiger cub’ . . . . .

**Practice analyzing the following clauses using example 1 as a model:**

Ex.2: Thaksin University, *which is located in Songkhla and Phattalung*, is popular among many senior high school students.

Analysis: The main clause is “Thaksin University is popular among many senior high school students”. The adjective clause is “which is located in Songkhla and Phattalung”. The sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences: “Thaksin University is popular among many senior high school students” and “Thaksin University is located in Songkhla and Phattalung” (which). We can combine these two sentences as “Thaksin University, *which is located in Songkhla and Phattalung*, is popular among many senior high school students”. Thus, the clause “which is located in Songkhla and Phattalung” is used to modify the phrase “Thaksin University”.

Ex. 3: Yaya Urasaya, *who is a Norwegian-Thai actress*, played many Thai television dramas.

Analysis : The main clause is “Yaya Urassaya played many Thai television dramas.” The adjective clause is “ who is a Norwagian-Thai actress” . The sentence can be divided into two smaller sentences: “Yaya Urassaya played many Thai television dramas” and “Yaya Urassaya is a Norwegian-Thai actress” (who). We can

combine these two sentences into “Yaya Urassaya, *who is a Norwegian-Thai actress, played many Thai television dramas.*” Therefore, the clause “*who is a Norwegian-Thai actress*” is used to modify the phrase “Yaya Urassaya”.

**Practice writing non-restrictive adjective clauses to modify the main clauses that can complete the sentences.**

- (i) Bangkok, ...*where many people from different provinces are residing*..., is considered one of the most polluted cities in the world.
- (ii) Many Malaysian tourists prefer to stay overnight in Hat Yai, which is *full of hotels, shops, and restaurants*.....
- (iii) Mr. Anutin Charnvirakul, ...*who is the leader of Phumjaithai Party*....., is the present Prime Minister of Thailand.
- (iv) Many fan clubs are pleased with Nadech Kugimiya, *who is a superstar of Thailand*. .....

**Practice writing connective adjective clauses to modify the main clauses that can complete the sentences.**

- (i) Kelly behaves herself politely, *which makes her students admire her*.....
- (ii) Farah is a charitable and hard-working volunteer, *which is favored by her colleagues in the organization*. .....
- (iii) Danish called his younger brother a genius, *which much pleased him*. .....

**Practice writing sentences with adjective clauses using the prompts given and your own ideas.**

- (1) who / politician : A politician who is working as a member of the house of representatives needs to work for the benefits of people. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) which / sock: I bought many socks which are made of polyester. . \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) that / Mathematics: A few students like to study Mathematics that is full of rules and formulas. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) whose / carpet: \_\_\_Ali whose carpets are in the living room is my friend. \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) whom / shopping: \_Vickey, with whom I went shopping, is from Canada. \_\_\_\_\_
- (6) where / lake: \_\_\_Songkhla Lake, where many fishermen are residing, is rich in aquatic life. \_\_\_\_\_
- (7) when / summer: \_Many people enjoy the summer, a time when they can sunbathe along the beach. \_\_\_\_\_

(8) why / anger: \_\_\_ There are many reasons why people experience anger. \_\_\_\_\_

**Practice writing adverb clauses to modify the main clauses that can complete the sentences.**

- (1) I am waiting for my father to pick me up *until I fall asleep*. .....
- (2) Sunita will work *wherever she can earn much money*. .....
- (3) Many Thai politicians have been corrupting the budget *because they are greedy*. .....
- (4) Many TSU students have a well preparation for reading *in order that they can pass the final exam*. .....
- (5) Martin is swimming now *even though it is raining*. .....
- (6) Toshiro speaks English *as if he were a British*. .....
- (7) Sheena can run faster *than she could last month*. .....
- (8) I can financially support my family *as long as I am still working for this airline*. .....

**Practice writing sentences with adverb clauses through the prompts given and your own ideas.**

- (1) before / kitchen : \_\_\_ Before I helped my wife in the kitchen, I had finished cleaning the living room. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) after / AI : After I have been trained to use AI for research, I am confident that I can apply it for my own research. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) when/ river: \_\_\_ The river will not return when it flows. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) because/ street food: \_The street food is popular among tourists because it is accessible and cheap. \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) so that / lazy: \_Chitchai is so lazy that he could sleep all day. \_\_\_\_\_
- (6) as if/ police: \_Eddie acts as if he were a policeman. \_\_\_\_\_
- (7) if / bridge : \_If there is a bridge to Koh Samui, it will be convenient for the tourists. \_\_\_\_\_
- (8) although / canal: \_Although Sansaeb canal is very polluted, it is still a transportation way. \_\_\_\_\_

**Unit Tasks**

**A. Directions: Construct noun clauses, adjective clauses, and adverb clauses as directed to complete the sentences.**

**Noun clauses**

- (1) What [Ananya is planning to do in the summer](#) has been known.

- (2) Many people are wondering whether fast food is suitable for some consumers.
- (3) Where many beautiful sandy beaches are located is Koh Samui.

**Adjective clauses**

- (4) I would like to buy a computer which have a low price. ....
- (5) Nurse is a key person who takes care of patients.....
- (6) It is a good chance for you to study in a foreign country that English is used as a second language. ....

**Adverb clauses**

- (7) Eating cookies is good for your health although they are quite expensive.....
- (8) This resort is so beautifully decorated that many tourists want to visit.....
- (9) Before you go to the hospital for a medical check-up, you cannot eat nor drink after midnight. ....

**B. Directions: Write sentences with dependent clauses using the writing prompts and your own ideas.**

- (1) although / palace  
 \_\_\_Although this place is very beautiful, it is not my home. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) until / flood  
 \_\_\_This area has been flooded until the water level drops. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) as soon as / snow  
 \_\_\_The snow falls as soon as we arrive at the airport. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) when / winter  
 \_\_\_When the winter comes, I look for a coat. \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) after / festival  
 \_\_\_After the food festival in the city had ended, I found a lot of trash everywhere. \_
- (6) because /hate  
 \_\_\_Many people do not like durians because they hate their smell. \_\_\_\_\_
- (7) if / island  
 \_\_\_If I have a long vacation, I will spend time on a remoted island. \_\_\_\_\_
- (8) as long as / slim  
 \_\_\_I will not be slimmer as long as I eat a lot. \_\_\_\_\_

## Unit 4: Introduction to English Sentence Structures

### 4.1 Warm-up Activity

**A. Directions:** Read the following sentences and identify their components – subjects (S) or predicates (P) by underlining them:

(1) Hatyai, Songkhla, had been flooded during the end of November, 2025.

\_\_\_\_\_ S \_\_\_\_\_ P \_\_\_\_\_

(2) The boy who is walking to the canteen is Ronan's younger brother.

\_\_\_\_\_ S \_\_\_\_\_ P \_\_\_\_\_

(3) What you need to be aware of when you are studying grammar is about rules.

\_\_\_\_\_ S \_\_\_\_\_ P \_\_\_\_\_

(4) Victoria and her mother have arrived at their hometown in New York.

\_\_\_\_\_ S \_\_\_\_\_ P \_\_\_\_\_

(5) Reading a lot of books without much relax can cause you to become stressed.

\_\_\_\_\_ S \_\_\_\_\_ P \_\_\_\_\_

**B. Directions:** Change the following active sentences into the passive voice:

(1) The principal punished a group of students in the morning because they were late.

\_\_\_\_\_ A group of students was punished by the principal in the morning because they were late. \_\_\_\_\_

(2) Tomorrow we will bake chicken in the dormitory's kitchen.

\_\_\_\_\_ Tomorrow chicken will be baked (by us) in the dormitory's kitchen. \_\_\_\_\_

(3) Edward is watering rose trees in the garden.

\_\_\_\_\_ Rose trees in the garden are being watered by Edward. \_\_\_\_\_

(4) Staff members write business letters.

\_\_\_\_\_ Business letters are written by staff members. \_\_\_\_\_

(5) Someone has stolen Paulina's mobile phone.

\_\_\_\_\_ Paulina's mobile phone has been stolen (by someone). \_\_\_\_\_

**Practice writing subjects and predicates: Fill in the space to complete the actions of the subjects or to provide the subjects of the predicates.**

- (1) Leonardo and his son ...**come to Koh Chang, Trad** . .....
- (2) ...**Vote-buying and police bribery** are examples of corruptions in Thailand.
- (3) Reading literary books **is different from reading other types of books**. .....
- (4) **Reading what you wrote in your diary** is to learn by yourself.
- (5) To ride a bicycle **is the way to reduce the global warming**.....
- (6) **Smoking in public and spitting on the ground** look unpleasant in my opinion.

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice and vice versa (Adapted from Lim, 2023).**

Active	Passive
Matthew waters the garden.	The garden is watered by Matthew.
Winnie vacuums the floor.	The floor is vacuumed by Winnie.
Once a year, Ryan paints the house.	Once a year, the house is painted by Ryan.

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice (Adapted from Lim, 2023).**

Active	Passive
Timmy has eaten sweet potatoes.	Sweet potatoes have been eaten by Timmy.
Many tourists have visited that lake.	That lake has been visited by many tourists.
Sonia has finished a research report.	A research report has been finished by Sonia.

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice** (Adapted from Lim, 2023).

Active	Passive
Fah has been drawing the picture	The picture has been being drawn by Fah.
He has been eating the pudding.	The pudding has been being eaten by him.
Recently, Hugo has been doing the work.	Recently, the work has been being done by Hugo.

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice** (Adapted from Lim, 2023).

Active	Passive
Jasper played basketball yesterday.	Basketball was played by Jasper yesterday.
I wrote the essay.	The essay was written by me.
Sam repaired the boat.	The boat was repaired by Sam.
Did Charlie paint the cottage?	Was the cottage painted by Charlie?

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice** (Adapted from Lim, 2023).

Active	Passive
The salesman was helping the customer when the thief came into the shop.	The customer was being helped by the salesman when the thief came into the shop.
Siree was packing her suitcase when the phone rang.	Siree's suitcase was being packed by herself when the phone rang.
Sak and Serm were washing dishes when their mother arrived at the restaurant.	Dishes were being washed by Sak and Serm when their mother arrived at the restaurant.

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice** (Adapted from Lim, 2023).

Active	Passive
Bruce had played basketball.	Basketball had been played by Bruce.
Byran had repaired many cars before he received his mechanic's license.	Many cars had been repaired by Byran before he received his mechanic's license.
Sakura had done a research report in English literature.	A research report in English literature had been done by Sakura.

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice** (Adapted from Lim, 2023).

Active	Passive
Steve had been drawing the picture.	The picture had been being drawn by Steve.
Chef James had been preparing the restaurant's fantastic dinners for two years before he moved to Madrid.	The restaurant's fantastic dinners had been being prepared by Chef James for two years before he moved to Madrid.
Nicole had been furnishing her living room.	Nicole's living room had been furnished by herself.

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice** (Adapted from Lim, 2023).

Active	Passive
Malcom will play basketball.	Basketball will be played by Malcom.
Hanna will buy the bag.	The bag will be bought by Hanna.
Harvey will water the rose trees.	The rose trees will be watered by Harvey.

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice** (Adapted from Lim, 2023).

Active	Passive
Justin will have played basketball.	Basketball will have been played by Justin.
Narin will have bought the bag.	The bag will have been bought by Narin.
Sabrina will have watered the rose trees.	The rose trees will have been watered by Sabrina.

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice** (Adapted from Lim, 2023).

Active	Passive
Kiara will be playing basketball.	Basketball will be being played by Kiara.
Lulu will be buying the bag.	The bag will be being bought by Lulu.
Anan will be watering the rose trees.	The rose trees will be being watered by Anan.

**Practice writing sentences by transforming them from the active voice into the passive voice** (Adapted from Lim, 2023).

Active	Passive
Quinn will have been playing basketball.	Basketball will have been being played by Quinn.
Liz will have been repairing the bag.	The bag will have been being repaired by Liz.
Raymond will have been watering the rose trees.	The rose trees will have been being watered by Raymond.

**Practice writing sentences in the passive voice without doers using the given verbs.**

- (i) Write: \_Reviews of hotels are written in the website. \_\_\_\_\_
- (ii) Make: \_Mirrors are made in the factory. \_\_\_\_\_
- (iii) Do: \_\_The laundry is done quickly. \_\_\_\_\_
- (iv) Process: \_Publishing books is processed in the publishing house. \_\_\_\_\_

### Unit Tasks

**A. Directions: Fill in the blank with writing subjects or predicates of sentences as directed.**

- (1) What you have studied in Mathematics **is useful for your everyday life.** .....
- (2) .....**My doing a somersault** has never been done before.
- (3) To live in a campus happily and study with motivation **are many students' goals.**.....
- (4) ...**Skipping classes** is something terrible in my life.
- (5) Those who live in Bangkok and its surrounding areas **cannot escape from the pollution.** .....

**B. Directions: Write sentences with the passive voice using the following verbs and tenses directed:**

- (1) plan/ future simple tense  
 \_\_\_An oversea trip will be planned by Supat carefully. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) take care / present perfect tense  
 \_\_\_This patient has been taken care by many nurses. \_\_\_\_\_

(3) teach / past simple tense

\_\_\_ English speaking skills were taught by Thai teachers in this school. \_\_\_\_\_

(4) decorate / present simple tense

\_\_\_ My bedroom is decorated by the interior designer. \_\_\_\_\_

(5) explain / present continuous tense

\_\_\_ English syntactic rules are being explained by Dr. Mariam. \_\_\_\_\_

**C. Directions: Write sentences with the passive voice without doers using the given verbs.**

(1) Find

\_\_\_ Trash is found in my daughter's room. \_\_\_\_\_

(2) Notice

\_\_\_ Phone messages are not noticed. \_\_\_\_\_

(3) Criticize

\_\_\_ The Thai government has been criticized online. \_\_\_\_\_

(4) Call

\_\_\_ Willie's name has been called many times. \_\_\_\_\_

(5) Solve

\_\_\_ Thai education problems cannot be solved nowadays. \_\_\_\_\_

## Unit 5: Grammar Moods

### 5.1 Warm-up Activity

**Directions: Identify the following sentences with their types of grammar moods – Declarative Sentence (DS), Imperative Sentence (IS), Interrogative Sentence (ITS), Exclamative Sentence (ES), and Subjunctive Sentence (SS):**

(1) Shut your mouth up!

IS \_\_\_\_\_

(2) There are many tourists in Asiatique The Riverfront Destination, Bangkok.

DS \_\_\_\_\_

(3) How many tourists came to Krabi this year?

ITS \_\_\_\_\_

(4) Our teacher suggested that we read books and notes.

SS \_\_\_\_\_

(5) What a lazy worker you are !

ES \_\_\_\_\_

### Practice writing declarative sentences with certain words.

(1) Giving information about something casual

War: World War II ended in 1945. \_\_\_\_\_

(2) Providing information regarding one's everyday activities

Library: I read books at the library every week. \_\_\_\_\_

(3) Informing one's audience/reader about something specific

Whales : It has been known that whales are mammals. \_\_\_\_\_

(4) Stating general or scientific facts in the real world

Global warming: The use of plastic bags is a cause of global warming. \_\_\_\_\_

(5) Explaining something

Flood: \_Hat Yai's flood was caused by its basin surrounded by hills. \_\_\_\_\_

(6) Making a statement

Café: \_\_ Many Thai people like going to cafés to take photos. \_\_\_\_\_

(7) Offering an opinion

Politics: Thai politics is horrible in my opinion. \_\_\_\_\_

**Practice writing imperative sentences with certain words.**

(i) Positive/affirmative imperative sentence

Money \_\_ Give me some money, please. \_\_\_\_\_

Photo \_ Please take a photo for me. \_\_\_\_\_

(ii) Negative imperative sentence

Crocodile \_\_ Do not feed crocodiles here. \_\_\_\_\_

Drug \_\_ Do not bring drugs into the school. \_\_\_\_\_

(iii) Conditional imperative sentence

Office If you come to the office, please call me. \_\_\_\_\_

Toilet \_ If you use the toilet, please do not smoke. \_\_\_\_\_

**Practice writing interrogative sentences with certain words.**

(1) Yes-No Interrogatives

- Is/am/are (company) \_ Is your company big? \_\_\_\_\_

- Was /were (politician) \_ Was that movie star a politician? \_\_\_\_\_

- Do/does (airplane)

\_ Does this airplane fly to Tokyo? \_\_\_\_\_

- Did (credit card)

\_ Did you use a credit card last night? \_\_\_\_\_

- Have/has (sunbathe)

\_ Have you sunbathed? \_\_\_\_\_

- Had (swim)

\_ Had she swum in this swimming pool? \_\_\_\_\_

- Will/would (family)  
\_ Will your family join your graduation day? \_\_\_\_\_
- Shall/should (scammer)  
\_ Shall we solve the problem of scammers in Thailand? \_\_\_\_\_

(2) Wh-Interrogatives

- What (clinic)  
\_ What is the name of this dental clinic? \_\_\_\_\_
- Where (coral)  
\_ Where are the corals in this sea? \_\_\_\_\_
- How (Mathematics)  
\_ How much do you like Mathematics? \_\_\_\_\_
- Why (soldier)  
\_ Why are there many soldiers in this country? \_\_\_\_\_
- Which (branch)  
\_ Which branch of this company are you working for? \_\_\_\_\_
- Whom (game)  
\_ Whom did you play games with? \_\_\_\_\_
- When (sell)  
\_ When will you sell your house? \_\_\_\_\_
- Whose (resort)  
\_ Whose resort is this? \_\_\_\_\_

**Practice writing exclamatory sentences with certain words**

- (1) Miserable  
\_ What a miserable person you are! \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) Talent  
\_ How talent your daughter is! \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) Skinny  
\_ What a skinny boy this is! \_\_\_\_\_

- (4) Ambitious  
\_How ambitious Asma is! \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) Helpful  
\_What a helpful colleague this guy is! \_\_\_\_\_
- (6) Aggressive  
\_How aggressive my child is! \_\_\_\_\_

**Practice writing subjunctive sentences with specific words and structures.**

- (1) demand (benefit): \_Many protestors demand that the government increase the daily minimum wage. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) insist (right): \_I insist that that Ted be a victim of this accident. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) prefer (iPad): \_Many teenagers prefer that iPad be used in classrooms. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) desirable (exam): \_It is desirable that many high school students choose Thammasat University. \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) urgent (problem): \_\_It is urgent that bloods be donated to many hospitals.
- (6) necessary (road): \_\_It is necessary that diesel be a mechanism of Thai industry. \_\_\_\_\_
- (7) if (money) \_If I were you, I would earn a lot of money. \_\_\_\_\_
- (8) as if (princess)  
\_Julalak behaves herself as if she were a princess. \_\_\_\_\_
- (9) wish (rain) \_I wish it were raining. \_\_\_\_\_
- (10) suggest (bridge) \_A member of parliament suggests that the bridge be built to Koh Samui. \_\_\_\_\_

## Unit Tasks

**Directions: Write sentences with specific grammar moods using the words given.**

(1) Declarative sentence

Curiosity: \_\_ Many children have curiosity. \_\_\_\_\_

Slice: \_\_ It is good to slice mangoes before eating. \_\_\_\_\_

(2) Imperative sentence

Control: \_\_ Do not control your children too much at home. \_\_\_\_\_

Knowledge: Cultivate knowledge from your readings. \_\_\_\_\_

(3) Interrogative sentence

Update: \_\_ Can you update the news of the war in the Middle East? \_\_\_\_\_

Honesty: \_\_ How do you show your honesty in your workplace? \_\_\_\_\_

(4) Exclamative sentence

Successful: \_\_ How successful you are! \_\_\_\_\_

Joy: \_\_ What a great joy you have! \_\_\_\_\_

(5) Subjunctive sentences

Recommend: \_\_ My lecturer recommended that I pursue a PhD. \_\_\_\_\_

Crucial: \_\_ It is crucial that getting a job be an aim of many graduates. \_\_\_\_\_

If: \_\_ If I were the Prime Minister, I would lower the fuel prices.

Wish: She wishes she were the president. \_\_\_\_\_

## Unit 6: English Sentences for Effective Communication

### 6.1 Warm-up Activity

**A. Directions: Identify which of the following sentences are simple sentences (SPS), compound sentences (CPS), complex sentences (CLS), and compound-complex sentences (CCS). What are the indicators of such sentences?**

- (1) Krabi has many beautiful islands, so there are many local and foreign tourists there.  
\_\_\_\_\_ CPS / 'so' is the indicator. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) There are many people during the lunch time at TSU canteen.  
\_\_\_\_\_ SPS / 'There are' is the indicator. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) When I arrive at Koh Samui International airport, it is heavy raining.  
\_\_\_\_\_ CLS / 'When' is the indicator. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) Choosri likes to go jogging at the park because she wants to be healthy.  
\_\_\_\_\_ CLS / 'because' is the indicator. \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) Sue really enjoys reading novels, but her brother, Sam, prefers surfing the internet, although it leads to a high electricity bill.  
\_\_\_\_\_ CCS/ 'but' and 'although' are the indicators. \_\_\_\_\_
- (6) Nobody knows that Nok is from a rich family, for she does not show her wealth.  
\_\_\_\_\_ CCS/ 'that' and 'for' are the indicators. \_\_\_\_\_
- (7) It is quite hard for someone to be keen at using computers.  
\_\_\_\_\_ SPS / 'It is' is the indicator. \_\_\_\_\_
- (8) Dylan finished having breakfast, and he attended the conference.  
\_\_\_\_\_ CPS / 'and' is the indicator. \_\_\_\_\_

**B. Directions: The following sentences have errors in run-on (RO), fragments (FM), and comma splices (CS). Please identify them and edit them correctly.**

- (1) Nobody at the library in this university.  
\_\_\_\_\_ FM  
\_ There is nobody at the library in this university. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) You are a hardworking student I am not.  
\_\_\_\_\_ RO  
\_ You are a hardworking student, but I am not. \_\_\_\_\_

- (3) Alan came to the market, he bought many vegetables.  
 \_ CS \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_ Alan came to the market, and he bought many vegetables. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) Really difficult to understand Mathematics.  
 \_ FM \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_ It is really difficult to understand Mathematics. \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) Reading many literary books is very tough, they are valuable pieces of works.  
 \_ CS \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_ Reading many literary books is very tough; they are valuable pieces of works. \_
- (6) It is raining come into my house.  
 \_ RO \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_ It is raining, so come into my house. \_\_\_\_\_

**Practice writing simple sentences with modifiers using the following words and your own ideas:**

- (1) funny (adjective as modifier)  
 \_ Jirayu, a funny person, has many friends. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) effectively (adverb as modifier)  
 \_ Piriya can speak English effectively. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) boring (present participle phrase as modifier)  
 \_ This novel, boring many readers, is not a best-seller. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) frozen (past participle phrase as modifier)  
 \_ Frozen in the fridge, the seabass still looks fresh. \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) with (prepositional phrase as modifier)  
 \_ With the lower demand from China, many durians in Thailand face pricing problems. \_\_\_\_\_
- (6) learn (gerund phrase as modifier)  
 \_ Mira can speak English well by practicing with her foreign friends. \_
- (7) discuss (infinitive phrase as modifier)  
 \_ To discuss a topic for a final project, Chalinee has a meeting with her group members. \_\_\_\_\_
- (8) plane (appositive phrase as modifier)  
 \_ This old plane, a legacy from the Vietnam war, is displayed in a museum. \_

### Practice writing compound sentences with modifiers.

- (1) and / return : \_\_\_ You go to school in the morning, and you return home in the evening. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) but / condominium: \_\_\_ Daniel wants to stay in a condominium in Bangkok, but he does not have enough money rent it. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) or / Khonkaen: \_\_\_ You can work in a small company in Bangkok, or you choose to be a government official in Khonkaen. \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) for / friend: \_\_\_ Emmanuel does not have many friends at the college, for he is introvert. \_\_\_\_\_
- (6) so / money : \_\_\_ Money is a must for humans, so they have to work for earning money to live their lives. \_\_\_\_\_
- (7) however / food: \_\_\_ Fast food is popular among people in the city; however, it has been viewed as junk food. \_\_\_\_\_
- (8) for instance / fruit: \_ There are many different fruits sold in the Thai market in different seasons; for instance, mangos and durians are widely found in the summer.
- (9) in fact / quality: \_\_\_ Some people prefer to buy expensive products with the famous brands; in fact, such products have high quality. \_\_\_\_\_
- (10) moreover / decorate : \_ Areeya decorated her living room with vases of fresh flowers; moreover, she attached pictures of natural landscapes to her lovely bedroom. \_\_\_\_\_
- (11) therefore / ill: \_\_\_ Many children have been ill; therefore, their parents take them to the hospital near their home. \_\_\_\_\_
- (12) otherwise/ punish: \_\_\_ You have to come to the school on time; otherwise, you will definitely be punished. \_\_\_\_\_

### Practice writing complex sentences with modifiers.

- (1) as soon as / water / prepositional phrase as modifier  
\_\_\_ Through tanks, many households kept water as soon as the summer came. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) because / butter / adjective phrase as modifier  
\_\_\_ Butter essential for Western cooking has a high price in Thailand because it is imported. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) although / fly / adverb phrase as modifier  
\_\_\_ The airplane is flying very slowly into the sky although it is raining. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) if / visit / infinitive phrase as modifier  
\_\_\_ To pass your courses, you need to focus on your studies if you want success. \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) wherever / upset / present participial phrase as modifier  
\_\_\_ Natacha feels upset whenever seeing her mistakes in the past, although she tries to forget this. \_\_\_\_\_
- (6) until / finish / past participial phrase as modifier  
\_\_\_ Stuck indoors by the rain, Moss finished his assignments in the room until the rain stopped. \_\_\_\_\_

- (7) as / policeman / appositive phrase  
 \_Pichai, a new policeman of this police station, works hard as he is passionate about his career. \_\_\_\_\_
- (8) buy / adjective clause as modifier (which)  
 \_When it rains, I want to buy an umbrella which can protect me from the downpour. \_\_\_\_\_
- (9) waterfall / adjective clause as modifier (where)  
 \_I would like to visit Erawan Waterfall, where many plants and wildlife thrive, because it is very beautiful. \_\_\_\_\_
- (10) soldier / adjective clause as modifier (who)  
 \_After Victor had graduated from university, he applied to become a soldier who can devote himself to serving the country. \_\_\_\_\_

**Practice writing compound-complex sentences with modifiers.**

- (1) and / mountain / adjective clause  
 \_Because Thailand has many evergreen mountains, many tourists like to hike to indulge in their beauty, and they can spend time doing many other activities there.
- (2) but / lake / prepositional phrase  
 \_With its vibrant ecosystem, Songkhla Lake is naturally beautiful, but it is also surrounded by many resorts filled with local and foreign tourists and trashes. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) so / forest / infinitive phrase  
 \_To spend my vacation, I chose to visit Khaoyai, so I felt very relaxed, even though this place was full of many Thai and international visitors. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) for / night / participial phrase  
 \_Stuck in traffic jam, I tiredly arrived home late at night, for I did not take the MRT or the BTS because it is quite expensive. \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) furthermore / rain / adjective phrase  
 \_Raining, necessary for lives in the desert region, hardly occurs; furthermore, it is unpredictable if it will rain heavily. \_\_\_\_\_
- (6) for example / courses / adverb phrase  
 \_Many free online courses are available; for example, you can learn a foreign language very easily after you have logged into the course website. \_\_\_\_\_
- (7) therefore / flower / appositive phrase  
 \_Roses, a popular flower in the world, like the cold weather; therefore, they can be grown in Northern Thailand, where many roses are blossoming. \_\_\_\_\_

(8) otherwise / teacher / adjective clause

\_\_\_ You have to submit your assignment to the teacher; otherwise, you will receive no points which can probably make you fail this subject. \_\_\_\_\_

### Practice editing run-on sentences.

(1) Jarunee applied for a job in Songkhla she did not want to work in Bangkok.

Correct sentence(s):

- Jarunee applied for a job in Songkhla, for she did not want to work in Bangkok.
- Jarunee applied for a job in Songkhla; she did not want to work in Bangkok.
- Jarunee applied for a job in Songkhla because she did not want to work in Bangkok.
- Because Jarunee did not want to work in Bangkok, she applied for a job in Songkhla.

(2) Andy played computer games he went to sleep.

Correct sentence(s):

- Andy played computer games, and he went to sleep.
- Andy played computer games; he went to sleep.
- Andy played computer games; moreover, he went to sleep.
- Andy played computer games. Furthermore, he went to sleep.

(3) Dorothy spent much time in the gym she was not exhausted.

Correct sentence(s):

- Dorothy spent much time in the gym; she was not exhausted.
- Dorothy spent much time in the gym, but she was not exhausted
- Dorothy spent much time in the gym; however, she was not exhausted.
- Although Dorothy spent much time in the gym, she was not exhausted.
- Dorothy spent much time in the gym. Nevertheless, she was not exhausted.

(4) Anurak wanted to help his family he did chores.

Correct sentence(s):

- Anurak wanted to help his family; he did chores.
- Anurak wanted to help his family, so he did chores.
- Anurak wanted to help his family; therefore, he did chores.
- Because Anurak wanted to help his family, he did chores.

### Practice editing sentence fragments.

(1) Nowadays a chef a dream job for many young people.

Revision: *Nowadays a chef becomes a dream job for many young people.* \_\_\_\_\_

(2) Because Hatyai was flooded.

Revision: *Hatyai was flooded.* \_\_\_\_\_

(3) Waree wants to walk alongside the garden. Which is lush, natural, and flowery.

Revision: *Waree wants to walk alongside the garden which is lush, natural, and flowery.*

(4) Karn closed the door. Not knowing that someone was hidden behind the door.

Revision: *Karn closed the door without knowing that someone was hidden behind the door.*

(5) Stuck in traffic jam. Isara came to the office late.

Revision: *\_\_ Stuck in traffic jam, Isara came to the office late. \_\_\_\_\_*

### Practice editing sentences with comma splices.

(1) Zack wants to invent a robot, he does not have a background in Physics.

Correct: *\_\_ Zack wants to invent a robot; however, he does not have a background in Physics. \_\_\_\_\_*

(2) Thanin got into the kitchen, he found that there were many cockroaches.

Correct: *\_\_ Thanin got into the kitchen, and he found that there were many cockroaches. \_\_\_\_\_*

(3) Kimberly spent two years in Japan, she can speak Japanese well.

Correct: *\_\_ Kimberly spent two years in Japan, so she can speak Japanese well. \_\_\_\_\_*

(4) Betong, Yala, has many famous tourist attractions, tourists can visit Aiyerweng Skywalk.

Correct: *\_\_ Betong, Yala, has many famous tourist attractions; for instance, tourists can visit Aiyerweng Skywalk. \_\_\_\_\_*

(5) You have to apply for a job today, the deadline is today.

Correct: *\_\_ You have to apply for a job today because the deadline is today. \_\_\_\_\_*

## Unit Tasks

### A. Directions: Write sentences according to their types using the words and your own ideas.

(1) Simple sentence/ sunset

*\_\_ The sunset at Koh Lanta is very beautiful. \_\_\_\_\_*

(2) Simple sentence with a modifier / coral

*\_\_ I want to dive under the sea to see colorful corals. \_\_\_\_\_*

(3) Compound sentence / snorkeling

*\_\_ My friend and I spent time at Phi Phi Island, and we went snorkeling to see the nature under the sea. \_\_\_\_\_*

(4) Compound sentences with a modifier / coconut tree

*\_\_ There are many tall coconut trees along the beach, so they definitively enhance its natural beauty. \_\_\_\_\_*

(5) Complex sentence /resort

\_\_\_ This beachfront is full of resorts because there are many local and foreign tourists. \_\_\_

(6) Complex sentence with a modifier / stores

\_\_\_ This shopping complex has a wide variety of stores where many customers can browse and shop what they really need. \_\_\_\_\_

(7) Compound-complex sentence / watermelon

\_\_\_ During the summer, watermelons are popular fruits for Thai people; they are often chosen as a refreshing snack on boat trips along the Andaman Sea because they are juicy and sweet. \_\_\_\_\_

(8) Compound complex with modifiers / hospital

\_\_\_ When medical students transition to their clinical years, they must certainly study and train in a hospital; this setting is really rich with various patient cases. \_\_\_\_\_

**B. Directions: Edit the following sentences with run-on, fragments, and comma splices in the space provided:**

(1) Sticky rice with mangoes is my favorite dessert it is very delicious.

\_\_\_ Sticky rice with mangoes is my favorite dessert; it is very delicious. \_\_\_\_\_

(2) Coconut milk becomes a key ingredient in Thai food it is available in many markets.

\_\_\_ Coconut milk becomes a key ingredient in Thai food; thus, it is available in many markets. \_\_\_\_\_

(3) When Thailand's economy is booming.

\_ When Thailand's economy is booming, Thai people enjoy a better quality of life.

(4) After you finish working part-time at a convenience store.

\_\_\_ You finish working part-time at a convenience store. \_\_\_\_\_

(5) Many Thai laborers in the Middle East want to go back home, they are worried about the war there.

\_ Many Thai laborers in the Middle East want to go back home; they are worried about the war there. \_\_\_\_\_

(6) The price of coconuts in Thailand is decreasing, the government is dealing this problem.

\_\_\_ The price of coconuts in Thailand is decreasing; therefore, the government is dealing this problem. \_\_\_\_\_



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The textbook entitled “English Structure and Sentence Writing for English Majors” is specifically designed to teach first-year students who are majoring in English at Thaksin University, Songkhla. They are called EFL student writers who require intensive instruction based on theories and practices in English grammatical structures in order to compose sentences effectively. This textbook covers the contents regarding writing grammatical sentences in English, including writing mechanics, phrases, clauses, introductory sentences, voice, grammar moods, and various sentence types. Moreover, it is full of practical exercises and unit tasks they can employ to write sentences with a variety of grammatical constructions. Further, it is also useful for them to strengthen their grammar competence and performance, as well as their sentence-writing skills. Additionally, this textbook can be fruitful for many other EFL students at universities in Thailand and abroad. By using this textbook as a vital toolkit, students will find it worthwhile for enriching their mastery of grammatical structures and sentence composition in English. Additionally, this textbook is beneficial for EFL instructors who are starting to teach English grammar and sentence writing, as it helps them develop their students’ writing ability.

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