

# Sentence Structure

The structure of a sentence is as important as all the grammar you learn in English. When you write a sentence, the way you put the words together can make it beautiful and effective. Without good sentence structure, the sentence is not clear, not beautiful and not effective.



Imagine you want to make a large sculpture or even a building. The structure has to be strong and sound or it will fall apart. Your sentences are just like that. They have to have a strong structure, so that they will be able to carry your meaning and make them clear to whoever is reading them.



In this chapter on sentence structure, you will learn what things you **MUST** have in a good sentence and what order they must come in. You will also read about parts of speech and how the form of a word is different from its function in a particular sentence. Then you will learn about the elements of sentences and how to use those elements to make sound sentences.

This chapter does not need to be studied in its entirety. If you have a firm handle on parts of speech and how verbs work, etc., you may want to go down to Part III to study the mechanics of sentence building. However, it is a good idea to read everything, for familiarization, review, or just to begin understanding terms as you study the structure of the English sentence.

This chapter is quite helpful for editing and error correction. As many students, including those who are native English speakers, have problems with sentence fragments and mechanics, this chapter provides an explanation as to some of the problems that students may encounter.

# PART I

## Parts of speech

The most important first step in learning good sentence structure is to know **parts of speech**. When we talk about parts of speech, we mean that we have some words that can be put into the same group because they are the same type. For example, nouns are people, places and things.

### **Nouns**

We just saw that nouns are people, places and things. That means any word that is a person (boy, mother, king, children) are all nouns. Words that are places are also nouns (school, Africa, Singapore, Europe). Also words that are things must be nouns too (painting, brush, chisel, lunch). Because all of these words show people, places and things, they must all be nouns.

We have to remember that there are many types of nouns. They are probably the most versatile set of words in English, so it is not surprising that there would be so many different ones:

1. Concrete nouns. These are nouns that you can feel, touch or see. Examples of concrete nouns include trees, grass, clouds, friend, chocolate, or paint.
2. Abstract nouns. These are nouns that you cannot see, feel or touch. They are more like ideas, or example, religion, love, sadness, communism, duty.
3. Common nouns. These are nouns that do not have any proper name attached to them, like a person or country. They can be concrete or abstract, for example pen, table, love, hate, birds.
4. Proper nouns. Unlike common nouns, proper nouns are specific names, like China, Lasalle, John, Obama. They are usually capitalized.
5. Countable nouns. These are nouns that can be counted like chair(s), book(s), cup(s), computer(s). etc.
6. Uncountable nouns. They are different from countable nouns because they cannot be counted, like rice, water, air, coffee, junk, homework. Usually abstract nouns (ideas) are uncountable. Uncountable nouns always take singular verbs.
7. Compound nouns. Compound nouns are two or more nouns that work together. They can be two nouns in one word (homework – home + work) or two separate words (coffee table). Sometimes they can be joined by a hyphen, like in the word mother-in-law, although quite often in a hyphenated noun, part of the word may not be a noun ('in' is a preposition). The entire word together, however, is a noun.
8. Collective nouns. These are nouns that represent groups or collections of things. For example family, group, team, class, are all nouns (in the singular) which mean groups of people. They are normally used with singular verbs (i.e. the family IS happy) but it is becoming more common to see collective nouns with singular verbs (Manchester are winning).

It should be noted that it is not necessary to understand all of the noun classes to understand sentence structure. There are many classes we can use to make noun categories, like feminine/masculine, animate/inanimate, etc. However all of these distinctions can be found without a deep knowledge of nouns and are not necessary for understanding sentence structure. The most useful and necessary ones are the eight listed above.

## **Pronouns**

Nouns can be replaced by pronouns (he, she, it, we, etc.) and can be used in all the same ways as nouns.

## **Verbs**

Verbs are words that show action or state. They are the only words that can have present, past or future tense. They have a number of forms like infinitive (no tense), imperative (request or command) and participles (-ed or -ing forms used for various kinds of tenses and sentences). Verbs are usually classified into two groups, action and non-action (or stative).

Here are some examples:

### *Action*

Run  
Take  
Eat  
Read  
Buy

### *Non-action*

Believe  
Understand  
Be  
Know  
Want

Verbs can also be classified as transitive or intransitive (whether or not they take direct objects). For more on this topic, see 'Objects' below.

## **Adjectives**

Adjectives are basically words that describe nouns. Some examples are: slow, nice, warm, delicious, beautiful, crazy, artistic. They can come before nouns (the brown dog) or after the nouns (The teacher was busy. – Here 'busy' is an adjective but it doesn't come before the noun.) See the sections on Subject compliments and Link Verbs to better understand how adjectives work in this kind of environment.

There are some distinctions between adjectives that should be learned in order to better understand sentence structure, mostly in terms of word order.

1. Opinions come before facts (wonderful before old).
2. As for facts: size- shape – age – colour – origin – material.

Examples:

He bought a beautiful big round antique wooden table.  
                  opinion  size shape  age      material  NOUN

She did a fantastic monochromatic blue oil painting.  
Opinion                      colour                      material

They always love big black Labrador dogs.  
size colour origin

## Adverbs

Adverbs generally are known for describing verbs (He walked *slowly*). Here ‘slowly’ describes how he walked. However, adverbs can also be used to describe other things. Adverbs can describe:

1. Verbs: The talked *quietly*. (*Quietly* describes how they talked.)
2. Adjectives: I was *really* hungry. (*Really* describes how hungry I was.)
3. Other Adverbs: She screamed *very* frantically. (*Very* describes how frantically she screamed.)
4. Entire Sentences: *Personally*, I don’t believe in ghosts. In this sentence, the adverb describes the entire idea. This is often called a sentence adverbial, simply because it functions differently from normal adverbs. See the section below on Adverbials.
5. Everything else: Often times we call parts of speech adverbs if they do not fit into other part of speech categories. For example, He looked up. Here we can say that ‘up’ is an adverb because it describes where. Adverbs are words that can describe time, place, direction, etc.

There are many kinds of adverbs as well. Here are examples of some of them:

1. Manner (how something is done – quickly, slowly, carefully)
2. Degree (how much of something – he works very slowly).
3. Frequency (how often something happens)
4. Time and Place (information about when and where).

## Prepositions

Prepositions are words that tell us about time and space (like adverbs) but can also tell us about relationships, special, physical, and other types of relationships. They are different from adverbs because they are followed by a noun (unless found as part of a phrasal verb or some other such expression). We use the word preposition because of its relationship to nouns. Pre means before and Position means place. So a Preposition comes before a noun. Here are some examples:

|        |            |
|--------|------------|
| In     | two weeks  |
| At     | school     |
| On     | the table  |
| To     | Japan      |
| With   | my friends |
| Before | the test   |
| Since  | 1998       |
| Near   | the door   |

You can see from the examples above that prepositions are followed by nouns, but often in questions the preposition is found at the end. In these cases, it is the noun itself that is being asked about. For example: Who did you go with? We want to find the noun that fits with (my friends, my sister, some people I know). In more formal language we might say: With whom did you go? Now with is followed by whom, which represents the noun that should come after 'with'. However, we often do not use this type of structure anymore, simply because it is stilted or overly formal. For more information on Formality, please read the chapter on Stylistics and Register.

## **Conjunctions**

Conjunctions are connector words. They join groups of nouns, groups of adjectives, groups of verbs, etc. They can even join smaller sentences or clauses.

There are three types of conjunctions:

1. COORDINATING
2. CORRELATIVE
3. SUBORDINATING

For a full study on conjunctions, see the chapter on conjunctions and transitions.

Some examples of conjunctions are:

But

Because

So

If

When

Not only...but also

## **Interjections**

Interjections are parts of speech that do not have a grammatical link to the rest of the sentence. Their meanings are clear, but there is no dependence on the rest of the sentence for structure or word order. They are sometimes a single utterance. Some examples of interjections are:

Hey! Ouch! Oh! Shoot! Sigh. Hmmm...

These words lend feeling to the sentence and can convey the attitude of the speaker.

# **PART II**

## **Form and Function**

This part of the chapter allows us to take a closer look at how sentences are formed. Now that we have looked at all the parts of speech, we can see how they work in a sentence. We first have to look at the difference between FORM and FUNCTION.

### **Form**

Imagine you are a person from Germany. No matter what you do, you are German. You are German in the morning, German in the afternoon, and German at night. This is something that never changes. No matter what you do, where you go, or who you speak to, you are always German. This is like FORM in grammar. A noun is always a noun. It doesn't change. No matter where you see it in a sentence, it is always a noun. The parts of speech we learned above are all FORM.

## Function

Imagine again that you are that same German person, who is always German, no matter what. Besides being German, you have many functions in life. Sometimes you are a parent, sometimes a child, sometimes a friend, sometimes a classmate, boss or co-worker. You can have many functions or jobs in life, but always you are a German. Your form stays the same, but your function, or what you do in life (you're your relationship to others) changes. This is how we will look at the next segment, FUNCTION. How do words work in a sentence?

## Subject

In any sentence, there is a person or thing that is doing something or being something. The boy went home. 'The boy' here is a person who did something in a sentence. 'The boy' is the subject. The subject is the person/thing that is doing or being something. Here are some more examples of subject:

|  |                          |
|--|--------------------------|
| His mother made breakfast every day.   | Subject – his mother     |
| John loves coconut.                    | Subject - John           |
| Russia is a cold country.              | Subject - Russia         |
| The population is growing rapidly.     | Subject – the population |
| Art is the most subjective study area. | Subject – art            |

Subjects are nouns. We will discuss other functions of nouns below.

## Verb

Part of the confusion in distinguishing verbs as form and verbs as function is that they are the same for both. So, FORM is verb and FUNCTION is also verb. This is because there is no need to make a difference between them. Verbs are verbs as both form and function. Unlike nouns, they do not have functions other than being verbs. In the following sentences the verbs are underlined. Which ones are action verbs and which are stative verbs?

David was hungry so he went to the supermarket.

I have been to China three times.

He is our best film student.

She first ate her own rice, and then she ate mine.

For a thorough look at how we use verb tense, see the chapter on verb tenses.

### 3 Objects

Above we saw the first function of nouns – the subject of the sentence. Nouns have various other functions as well. They can be objects in a sentence. This means they can be grammatical objects, of which there are three.

#### **Direct Object**

A direct object is a noun which is the object of a verb (something that may or may not be affected by the verb, but is closely linked to it). Here are some underlined examples:

|  |                            |
|--|----------------------------|
| She finished <u>her homework</u> .         | (what she finished)        |
| They need <u>more money</u> .              | (what they needed)         |
| We can't do <u>this</u> any longer.        | (what we can no longer do) |
| James writes <u>poetry and stories</u> .   | (what he writes)           |
| Johnny sings <u>jazz and rock n roll</u> . | (what he sings)            |
| I wanted <u>pizza</u> .                    | (what I wanted)            |

As you can see above, the direct object can answer the question “What?” when it refers to something the subject has done (or thought, or wanted, etc.)

#### **Indirect Object**

An indirect object is usually a person, but could also be a group, an organization or even an inanimate object, but normally we see this as a person. It is usually a person because the indirect object is the receiver of the direct object.

For example: John gave Darla a ring.

|                  |   |
|------------------|---|
| Subject:         | John (He did something.)                          |
| Verb:            | gave (This is what he did.)                       |
| Direct Object:   | a ring (This is what he gave.)                    |
| Indirect Object: | Darla (This is the person who received the ring.) |

Sometimes people confuse the direct object and the indirect object. In the following sentences, look at the indirect and direct objects. Which one does the subject throw, give or sell? Who receives something?

1. I threw **Mary** a pen.
2. He gave **his mother** some flowers.
3. She sold **the old man** a valuable book.
4. They gave their best chair to **the guest**.

In the above sentences, **Mary, his mother, the old man and the guest** are all indirect objects. Mary received a pen; his mother received some flowers; the old man received a valuable book; and the guest received their best chair. The things that these people received (pen, flowers, sculpture, chair) are the direct objects.



I did not throw Mary; I threw a pen and Mary received it.  
 He did not give his mother; he gave flowers and his mother received them.  
 She did not sell the old man; she sold a sculpture. The old man received it.  
 They did not give the guest; they gave a chair and the guest received it.

You will notice that with indirect objects, we sometimes will use “to” plus the indirect object when we want to put it after the direct object. When it comes before the direct object, we do not use “to”, as in the example below:

John gave his girlfriend a new car.    John gave a new car to his girlfriend.  
 S    V            IO                    DO            S    V            DO                    IO

## Prepositional Object

The third kind of object is a prepositional object (also known as an object of a preposition). Earlier we learned, that prepositions are always followed by nouns. The nouns that come after prepositions are called Prepositional Objects.

Examples:

Bobby gave his girlfriend some flowers **for** *her birthday*.

In this sentence, ‘for’ is a preposition and must have a noun after it. ‘Her birthday’ is the prepositional object.

|                              |                  |                                  |
|------------------------------|------------------|----------------------------------|
| He put the cup on the table. | On = preposition | the table = prepositional object |
| He was born in Canada.       | In = preposition | Canada = prepositional object    |
| Brazil is in South America.  | In = preposition | South America = PO               |

Jennifer found her keys under the table.  
 S            V            DO    Prep    PO

They were always talking about grammar!  
 S    V    adv    V            prep    OP

It is very common to consider a preposition and its PO (prepositional object) an adverbial. For more information on adverbials, see the section called ADVERBIALS below.

## Complements

### Subject complements

Nouns can also be complements (subject complements and object complements). A complement is something that describes something else. Complements can be *nouns* or *adjectives* and they come AFTER the subject / verb. Here are some examples:

William Shakespeare was the greatest English writer.  
Subject                      verb                      subject complement

In the sentence above, William Shakespeare is the SUBJECT and the greatest English writer is the SUBJECT COMPLEMENT. William Shakespeare and the greatest writer are the same person. This is a noun that tells us something about the subject.

William Shakespeare was intelligent.  
S                      V                      SC

An SC (or subject complement) can also be an adjective, since its function is to describe the Subject, like in this example: William Shakespeare was intelligent. Here the word 'intelligent' describes William Shakespeare, so it is also a subject complement.

### Object complements

Direct objects can also have complements. We call them, of course, object complements. They are also nouns or adjectives, but are ones that describe the direct object (we don't use them for indirect objects). Below are some examples:

She painted the house **green**.  
Subject    verb    direct object    object complement

In the above sentence, the word green describes the house, not she. The house is the direct object, so green must be the object complement since it describes the object. Green is an adjective. Below are more examples. Note that in sentence 1 below, the object complement is also an adjective, but in sentences 3 and 4, the object complements are nouns.

Joe made me **angry**.  
S    V    DO    OC

The USA elected Obama **President**.  
S                      V                      DO                      OC

The headmaster made him **department head**.  
S                      V    DO                      OC

### Where do adjectives fit?

In the above sections we saw that nouns can have the following functions:

- Subject
- Direct Object
- Indirect Object
- Prepositional Object

So where do adjectives fit into all this grammar? We know already, that adjectives can have the function of Subject Complements (SC) or Object Complements (OC) but they can also be found attached to nouns in any of the four positions in the above list. The adjectives in the sentences below are in **bold**. You will see that they can be part of any grammatical function where there is a noun, including adverbials.

The **tall** man couldn't find a **suitable** pair of trousers in the **new** store.  
S V DO A

Jennifer was very **angry** at the **new** company policy.  
S V SC A

Some **large** dogs were tearing at the **black** rubbish bags.  
S V A

He gave his **sick** wife some **hot** chicken soup for her **bad** cold.  
S V IO DO A

## Verbs II

### Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

In the discussion on nouns, we saw that nouns can be not only subjects, but also direct objects (as well as other things). In this section, we want to focus on direct objects and verb that have direct objects compared to verbs that don't.

Verbs that take direct objects are called transitive verbs.

He bought a piano.  
S V DO

Verbs that do not take direct objects are called intransitive verbs.

He is sleeping.  
S V

In the first sentence, the verb **bought** (buy) is transitive because it takes a direct object.

In the second sentence, the verb **is sleeping** (sleep) is intransitive. Sleep does not take a direct object.

Some verbs can be transitive or intransitive:

She was reading all day. 'was reading' is intransitive (no object).  
She read four books. 'read' is transitive (the object is four books).

## Link Verbs

Verbs that take subject complements (SC) are intransitive. They do not take objects. Compare the two sentences below:

Barbara is a nurse.                      Barbara knows a nurse.  
S    V   SC                                      S        V        DO

In the first sentence, **Barbara** and **a nurse** are the same person (nurse describes Barbara) so it is a subject complement. In the second sentence **Barbara** and **a nurse** are not the same person (the nurse is someone Barbara knows) and is a direct object.

Verbs such as 'be' cannot take direct objects, but take subject complements. These are called LINK VERBS because they link the subject and the complement. Here are some more examples of link verbs:

She seems nice.    He feels tired.    She became president.    He will be an artist.  
S    V    SC        S    V    SC        S    V        SC        S    V        SC

There are some verbs that can be link verbs OR transitive verbs, especially the verbs of our senses. In these cases, the verbs change meaning:

| TRANSITIVE<br>(S + V + DO) | LINK<br>(S + V + SC)          |
|----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| He smelled the coffee.     | The coffee smelled delicious. |
| He looked at the hat.      | The hat looked expensive.     |
| He felt the fur.           | The fur felt soft.            |
| He sounded the alarm.      | The alarm sounded scary.      |
| He tasted the milk.        | The milk tasted old.          |

## Adverbials

Adverbials are parts of the sentence that don't always have connections to the grammar of the sentence. They add meaning to the sentence without actually having a grammatical (or structural) function. They can give information on time, place, relationship, etc. Of course adverbs themselves, are also in this section and they serve to modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, etc. Here are some examples of adverbials:

He was killed **in the war**.  
I have **never** been so happy.  
It was the best fireworks display **in 50 years**.  
He lives **somewhere around here**.

As we saw in the above section on adverbs, sometimes adverbs can modify or describe entire sentences. When an adverb modifies an entire sentence, it can be called a sentence adverbial. Sentence adverbials usually come at the front of the sentence and are marked with a comma, but sometimes they are found at the back.

Adverbs that only describe sentences usually take on a different meaning, like in the examples below:

He speaks French very **clearly**.

Here, 'clearly' means how well he speaks French. It is an adverb that describes the verb 'speak'.

**Clearly**, he has never read this book.

In this case, 'clearly' modifies the entire sentence, and so is a sentence adverbial. The meaning here also changes to 'obviously'.

Below are more examples of the difference between adverbials (simple adverbs vs. sentence adverbials). How does the meaning of the adverbial change in each of the pairs of sentences?

I wanted to speak to her **personally**.

**Personally**, I don't think she should get the job.

He moved **strangely** throughout the house.

**Strangely**, he didn't say hello when he came in.

He told the story **truthfully**.

**Truthfully**, I feel I should have handled the situation better.

In a sentence, we can represent adverbials with the letter A.

She met her boyfriend *at the football match*.

S V DO A

Can you find a bank *near here*?

V S V DO A

We were talking *about it*.

S V A

He *always* used to come *to our house* to look at the flowers *in the garden*.

S A V A V DO A

## PART III

### The Structure

In the above sections we learned about parts of speech (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, etc). We learned how these forms have different functions (subjects, objects, complements and adverbials). The third part of this discussion is on the structure of the sentence and how all of the functions work together to make a good English sentence.

#### **Clauses**

One of the most important concepts to understand in sentence structure is the idea of the clause. A clause is basically a part of a sentence (it can also be a full sentence), which has a subject and a verb. Basically the subject and verb are the main building blocks of a sentence and a sentence is incomplete without both of them. If you have two clauses in one sentence, that means there must be a minimum of two subjects and two verbs (one verb for each subject). The idea of SV (subject – verb) is elemental in English sentences. However, clauses can have more elements like the things learned earlier (objects or complements, for example).

A **clause** should not be confused with a **phrase**. A phrase is a group of words that make sense together but do not hold a subject AND verb. A phrase could be an adverbial or subject, etc, but not a subject and verb together. For example, these are phrases:

in a minute

my brother Joe

everybody around here

with you.

None of these have a subject-verb combination. As soon as it has a subject and verb together, it becomes a clause.

Below are the seven basic structures of clauses. Notice that each one is different, but that each one has at least a subject and a verb.

SV

SVC

SVA

SVO

SVOO

SVOC

SVOA

Below are some examples of these types of clauses (each of these clauses will also be complete sentences).

SV

He died.

SVC

She is a doctor.

SVA

She is at the college.

SVO

He bought bread.

SVOO

She gave her grandmother a new watch.

SVOC

Candy makes children happy.

SVOA

I bought a house in Malaysia.

## **PUTTING CLAUSES TOGETHER**

So far, we know:

1. what parts of speech are
2. what functions those parts of speech have
3. how to put those elements into clauses
4. the seven basic types of clauses.

We now need to know what to do when we have more than one clause in a sentence.

There are a number of constructions that we must learn:

1. Simple Sentence
2. Compound Sentence
3. Complex Sentence
4. Compound Complex Sentence

**1. A sentence with only once clause is a Simple Sentence.**

The boy bought a toy car.

S            V            O

A simple sentence can have more than one subject (compound subject), more than one verb (compound verb) or more than one object (compound object). Don't confuse compound subject, verb, etc with a compound SENTENCE (explained below).

The boy and his friend bought a toy car.

Compound subject            V            DO

The boy bought and used a new toy car.

S      Compound Verb      DO

The boy bought a new toy car and a bag of candy.  
S      V                      compound object

2. A sentence with two simple clauses is a **Compound Sentence**.

The girl went to Japan and she visited her grandmother.  
S      V                      S      V

3. However there is another kind of sentence with two simple clauses. It is the **Complex Sentence**. The difference between a compound sentence and a complex sentence is in the clauses. Some simple clauses can be independent (they can stand alone). Other simple clauses are dependent (they cannot stand alone because of the meaning). Look at the following example:

She made her favourite cake. She didn't like it.

These are two simple sentences. When we put them together we can make a compound sentence:

She made her favourite cake, but she didn't like it.  
Independent clause                      independent clause      (compound sentence)

However, if we use the conjunction *although*, suddenly the clause "although she made her favourite cake..." is now dependent. That means that it doesn't have any meaning without the rest of the sentence. It also shows which part of the sentence is most important (she didn't like it).

Although she made her favourite cake, she didn't like it.  
Dependent clause                      independent clause      (complex sentence)

So, when we have a dependent clause (although she made her favourite cake) and an independent clause (she didn't like it), the result is a **Complex Sentence**. For a study of the conjunctions that go with compound or complex sentences, see the chapter on Conjunctions and Transitions.

4. When we have two *independent* clauses (compound) and a *dependent* clause (compound) we have a **Compound-Complex Sentence**.

I saw my sister, but I didn't talk to her, although I had the time.  
Independent                      independent                      dependent      (compound-complex sentence)

### Sentence Fragments and Run On Sentences

One of the main reasons it is important for us to study sentence structure is the problem of sentence fragments. Often in a paper can be seen sentence fragments like these:

Although he was in school all day.

But she didn't know the computer was broken.



Even when I went home.  
Because I don't like it here.

All of the above statements have subjects and verbs, but because they have conjunctions in front of them, they are considered incomplete because they should have another clause attached to them (either dependent or independent). If the conjunction were not there, they would all be complete sentences.

Sometimes sentence fragments are caused because of mistakes in translation. For example, in some languages a subject (or even a verb) can be omitted. If either is omitted in an English sentence, then it becomes a fragment. For example, if you ask the question "Can go to Orchard Road today?", the sentence is not complete because there is no subject. For a more complete study on local language vs. standard English, see the chapter on Singlish vs. English.

Run-on sentences are sentences that have too many clauses. Some writers, in an attempt to make complicated sentences, string together too many clauses, forming run-on sentences. Here is an example:

The student wanted to buy a new book so he went to the book store and looked all around the store because he was interested in all the books there and bought a lot of books, especially books that he liked on subjects like geography and history, he didn't however, buy the book he wanted and had to go home without it, so he was upset when he got home because he had to go back to the book store.

The above sentence is too long and has too many clauses. It should be simplified like this:

The student wanted to buy a book, so he went to the store, but didn't buy it because he got too interested in other books. He bought lots of books on history and geography, but went home without the one he wanted. So, he was upset because he had to go back to the bookstore again.

The above now has three sentences instead of one and is much easier to read.

It is important in editing to realize where fragments and run on sentences are. We can more easily see them by understanding sentence structure.

## EXERCISES

1. Write below the parts of speech for each of the words in the following sentences:

- i. The boy gave his girlfriend some flowers for her birthday.
- ii. Margaret said that she had been to China many times.
- iii. UWC is an internationally recognized college.
- iv. Sculpture is her favourite form of art.
- v. She plays football whenever she feels like it.
- vi. Oh! I've spilt coffee all over your workbook.
- vii. Julia spoke quietly to her mother, who was feeling very ill.
- viii. The performance showcased dances from around the world.
- ix. Running is my favourite way to relax.
- x. Food can be very therapeutic, when used in the appropriate manner.

2. Write below the function of each of the underlined groups of words.

- xi. The boy gave his girlfriend some flowers for her birthday.
- xii. Margaret said that she had been to China often.
- xiii. UWC is an internationally recognized college.
- xiv. Sculpture is her favourite form of art.
- xv. She plays football whenever she feels like it.
- xvi. Oh! I've spilt coffee all over your workbook.
- xvii. Julia spoke quietly to her mother, who was feeling very ill.
- xviii. The performance showcased dances from around the world.
- xix. Running is my favourite way to relax.
- xx. Art can be very therapeutic, when used in the appropriate manner.

3. The following sentences have problems with structure. Fix the errors below the sentences. There may be more than one way to fix them.

- i. The woman gave her son wanted the toy.
- ii. I went to Japan I was born there.
- iii. She went to the shop buy a book.
- iv. I took my students go to the library.
- v. And I don't like ice cream.
- vi. But she didn't tell me where she was going.
- vii. Can finish soon?
- viii. How to spell this word?
- ix. The boy went to the doctor needed to be in hospital.
- x. Betty I love her didn't like the sculpture I made it for her.

ANSWER KEY:

Exercise 1

- xxi. The boy gave his girlfriend some flowers for her birthday.  
A N V PN N A N P PN N
- xxii. Margaret said that she had been to China many times.  
N V C PN V P N ADJ N
- xxiii. UWC is an internationally recognized college.  
N V A ADV ADJ N
- xxiv. Sculpture is her favourite form of art.  
N V ADJ ADJ N P N
- xxv. She plays football whenever she feels like it.  
N V N C N V P PN
- xxvi. Oh! I've spilt coffee all over your workbook.  
I PN V N AD P ADJ N
- xxvii. Julia spoke quietly to her mother, who was feeling very ill.  
N V ADV P ADJ N PN V ADV A
- xxviii. The performance showcased dances from  
A N V A N P  
around the world.  
P A N
- xxix. Running is my favourite way to relax.  
N V ADJ ADJ N V
- xxx. Art can be very therapeutic, when used in the appropriate  
N V V ADV ADJ C V P A ADJ  
manner.  
N

KEY TO ABBREVIATIONS:

- A article  
ADJ adjective  
ADV adverb  
C conjunction  
N noun  
P preposition

PN pronoun  
V verb  
Exercise 2

xxxi. The boy gave his girlfriend some flowers for her birthday.  
S V IO DO P PO

xxxii. Margaret said that she had been to China often.  
S V C S V P OP A

xxxiii. LASALLE is an internationally recognized college.  
S V SC

xxxiv. Sculpture is her favourite form of art.  
S V SC

xxxv. She paints pictures whenever she feels like it.  
S V DO C S V P PO

xxxvi. Oh! I' ve spilt coffee all over your workbook.  
I S V DO A P PO

xxxvii. Julia spoke quietly to her mother, who was feeling very ill.  
S V A P PO S V SC

xxxviii. The exhibition showcased the finest pieces of art from around the  
S V DO  
world.

xxxix. Drawing is my favourite way to relax.  
S V SC

xl. Art can be very therapeutic, when used in the appropriate manner.  
S V V SC C V P PO

#### KEY TO ABBREVIATIONS:

A adverbial  
C conjunction  
DO direct object  
IO indirect object  
P preposition  
PO prepositional object  
S subject  
SC subject complement  
V verb

### Exercise 3

xi. The woman gave her son wanted the toy.

The woman gave her son the toy that he wanted.

xii. I went to Japan I was born there.

I went to Japan, where I was born.

xiii. She went to the shop buy a book.

She went to the shop to buy a book.

xiv. I took my students go to the library.

I took my students to the library.

xv. And I don't like ice cream.

Also, I don't like ice cream.

xvi. But she didn't tell me where she was going.

However, she didn't tell me where she was going.

xvii. Can finish soon?

Can we finish this soon?

xviii. How to spell this word?

How do you spell this word?

xix. The boy went to the doctor needed to be in hospital.

The boy who went to the doctor needed to be in hospital.

xx. Betty I love her didn't like the sculpture I made it for her.

Betty, who I love, didn't like the sculpture I made for her.