SESSION1: PARTS OF SPEECH

The parts of speech are the primary categories of words according to their function in a sentence.
English has **seven main** parts of speech, in addition to **five other** parts.

Nouns

Nouns are words that identify or name people, places, or things. Nouns can function as **the subject** of a clause or sentence, an object of a verb, or an object of a preposition. Words like *cat, book, table, girl*, and *plane* are all nouns.
N.B. a gerund is simply a noun that ends with "-ing"

Pronouns

Pronouns are words that represent nouns (people, places, or things). Grammatically, pronouns are used in the same ways as nouns; they can function as subjects or objects. Common pronouns include *you, she, him, it*, and *somebody*.

Verbs

Verbs are words that describe the actions—or states of being—of people, animals, places, or things. Verbs function as the root of what's called **the predicate**, which is required (along with a subject) to form a complete sentence; therefore, every sentence must include at least one verb. Verbs include action words like *run, walk, write*, or *sing*, as well as words describing states of being, such as *be, seem, feel*, or *sound*.

Adjectives

Adjectives are words that modify (add description to) nouns and (occasionally) pronouns. They can be a part of either the subject or the predicate. Common adjectives are *red, blue, fast, slow, big, tall*, and *wide*.

Adverbs

Adverbs are words that modify verbs, adjectives, other adverbs, or even entire clauses. Depending on what they modify (and how), adverbs can appear anywhere in the sentence.
Adverbs are commonly formed from adjectives by adding "-ly" to the end, as in *slowly, widely* or *commonly*.

Prepositions

Prepositions are words that express a relationship between a noun or pronoun (known as the **object of the preposition**) and another part of the sentence. Together, these form **prepositional phrases**, which can function as adjectives or as adverbs in a sentence. Some examples of prepositional phrases are: ***on*** *the table*, ***in*** *the shed*, and ***across*** *the field*. (The prepositions are in **bold**.)

Conjunctions

Conjunctions are words that connect other words, phrases, or clauses, expressing a specific kind of relationship between the two (or more) elements. The most common conjunctions are the **coordinating conjunctions**: *and, but, or, nor, for, so*, and *yet*.

SESSION2: OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH

In addition to the seven parts of speech above, there are several other groupings of words that do not neatly fit into any one specific category— **particles**, **articles**, **determiners**, **gerunds**, and **interjections**.
Many of these share characteristics with one or more of the seven primary categories. For example, **determiners** are similar in many ways to **adjectives**, but they are not completely the same, and most **particles** are identical in appearance to **prepositions** but have different grammatical functions.
Because they are harder to classify in comparison to the seven primary categories above, they've been grouped together in this guide under the general category **Other Parts of Speech**.

Particles

A particle is a word that does not have semantic meaning on its own, but instead relies on the word it is paired with to have meaning. It is very similar to a preposition—in fact, they are almost always identical in appearance. However, prepositions are used to establish a relationship between their objects and another part of a sentence, while particles are only used to create infinitives and to form certain phrasal verbs.
Examples**:** I would like **to** be alone / My closet takes **up** too much room

Articles

There are three grammatical **articles**: *the*, *a*, and *an* (though *a* and *an* are sometimes considered a single article with two forms). The **definite article** *the* is used to identify a specific or unique person, place, or thing, while the **indefinite articles** *a* and *an* identify nonspecific or generic people, places, or things.

Determiners

Determiners are used to introduce a noun or noun phrase and give determining information about it. Determiners often behave similarly to **adjectives** in that they modify the noun they precede, but they differ in how they signal that a noun will follow. determiners can be classified as one of the following:
An Article (a/an, the)
A Demonstrative (this, that, these, those)
A Possessive (my, your, his, her, its, our, their)
A Quantifier (common examples include many, much, more, most, some)

Gerunds

Gerunds are nouns that are formed from verbs. They are identical in appearance to present participles (the base form of the verb + "-ing"). Because they function as nouns, gerunds can be subjects or objects, and they can also act as **adjective complements**.
Examples: **Swimming** is an excellent form of exercise / **Eating protein** gives you a lot of extra energy

Interjections

Interjections are words, phrases, or sounds used to convey emotions such as surprise, excitement, happiness, or anger. They are grammatically unrelated to any other part of a sentence, so they are set apart by commas. They are also often used alone as **minor sentences**.
Examples: **Hey**! Get off that floor! / **Oh**, that is a surprise. / **Good**! Now we can move on. / **Jeepers**, that was close.

Yes and No
Expressions such as "**yes**," "**no**," "**indeed**," and "**well**" are often used as interjections. For example:
Indeed, this is not the first time the stand has collapsed. / **Yes**, I do intend to cover the bet.
Phew! Some interjections are sounds. For example: / **Phew**! I am not trying that again.
Humph! I knew that last week. / **Mmmm**, my compliments to the chef.

Multi-word Interjections
Some interjections are more than one word. For example: **Oh, really**? I doubt that. / **Holy moly**! She won!
They're not always at the start of a sentence. For example: It is cold, **indeed**.

SESSION3: DEPENDENT / INDEPENDENT CLAUSE

A sentence is a set of words that is complete in itself, typically containing a subject and predicate, conveying a statement, question, exclamation, or command, and consisting of a main clause and sometimes one or more subordinate clauses. ***Oxford Dictionary***
We will look at what comprises a sentence. We will explore the elements used to construct sentences, and what **parts of speech** are used to expand and elaborate on them.
We will explore the different kinds of sentences according to **structure**, **purpose**, and **length**.

The Construction of a Sentence Clauses

In English, a **clause** almost always consists of two parts—a **subject** and a **predicate**. (This rule is only broken when making **imperative sentences** and **non-finite clauses**.) In traditional English grammar, a predicate is made up of a verb or **verb phrase** (a verb and any objects or modifiers relating to it), while the subject consists of a **noun**, **pronoun**, or a **phrase** containing either.

A sentence, whether short or long, must express a complete idea; and a complete sentence must consist of at least one **independent clause**—that is, a subject and predicate that make a complete thought. Independent clauses are so called because they make sense when they stand on their own. They are also sometimes referred to as "**main clauses**."
For example: • "I refuse." / • "The wind blows." / • "Dogs bark." / • "Bees sting." / • "Cats meow."
In the previous examples, the **subject** begins the sentences and the **predicate** ends them. The predicate (in each these cases made up of just a verb) contains all the necessary information about the subject to be considered logical, so each is considered an independent clause.

A **dependent clause**, on the other hand, relies on the information from an independent clause to form a complete, logical thought. Dependent clauses (also known as **subordinate clauses**) are usually marked by *dependent words*, such as a **subordinating conjunctions** or **relative pronouns**.
Here are some examples of dependent clauses:
• "**whenever** (subordinating conjunction) I travel" / • "**whom** (relative pronoun) we met on the plane"
We can see that the clauses above do not express a complete idea—they require independent clauses to be logically complete: • "**Whenever I travel**, I like to stay in fancy hotels." / • "We struck up a great conversation with a person **whom we met on the plane.**"

Types of sentences

So far what we have been discussing are known as simple sentences, which are made up of a single independent clause and no dependent clauses. Even as we have added a lot of information into the sentences above, each one has remained an independent clause because each one has a subject (or compound subject) and a predicate.
However, there are many different types of sentences, depending on how we order the text, if we use multiple clauses, if we're asking a question, etc. We'll begin looking at the various kinds of sentences we can make and how they are formed.

SESSION4: TYPES OF SENTENCES (STRUCTURE + LENGTH)

Classifications of Sentences:
By **Structure** (simple / compound / complex / compound-complex)
By **Length** (major / minor)
By **Purpose** (declarative / exclamatory / interrogative / imperative)

By Structure (simple / compound / complex / compound-complex)

1. Simple Sentence:

It is made up of a **single independent clause** and no dependent clauses.

2. Compound Sentences

It is a sentence that has at least **two independent clauses** joined by a comma, semicolon or conjunction.
An example of a compound sentence is, 'I really need to go to work, but I am too sick to drive.' This sentence is a compound sentence because it has two independent clauses, 'I really need to go to work' and 'I am too sick to drive' separated by a comma and the conjunction 'but.' I really need to go to work, but I am too sick to drive.

3. Complex Sentences

A complex sentence has an **independent clause** and at least **one dependent clause**.
For example: Because my coffee was too cold, I heated it in the microwave.

4. Compound-Complex Sentences

A compound-complex sentence contains three or more clauses: **two independent** and at least **one dependent clause**. For example: I'm happy, even though I don't make much money, but my kids are always complaining since we can't afford to buy the newest toys.
Independent clauses: "I'm happy" and "my kids are always complaining" Dependent clauses: "even though I don't make much money" and "since we can't afford to buy the newest toys" Linking word: "but"

By Length (major / minor)

1. Major (Regular) Sentences

A major sentence (also called a regular sentence) is any complete sentence that is made up of or contains an independent clause—that is, it has both a subject and a predicate (a verb and any of its constituent parts).

2. Minor (Irregular) Sentences

A minor sentence (also called an irregular sentence), on the other hand, is any sentence that does not have at least one independent clause—that is, it does not have both a subject and a complete predicate—and yet is used in writing or speech as a complete sentence that stands on its own. Minor sentences can be made up of single words, sentence fragments, interjections, or set expressions (such as idioms and proverbs).

A. Sentence Fragments

We also commonly use sentence fragments (phrases, incomplete clauses, or dependent clauses) as standalone sentences. Again, these are typically used in conversational English when we are responding to someone else.

For example: Person A: “Are you going to have lunch soon?” / Person B: “**In about an hour**.” (prepositional phrase)
Person A: “Do you want to come to a movie with me later?” / Person B: “**Sounds good**!” (incomplete clause)
Person A: “When did you realize that you wanted to pursue politics?” / Person B: “**When I was in college**.” (dependent clause)

B. Single-Word Sentences

In conversational English, we very often use single words to get across required information in response to another person. These are known as **sentence words**, one-word sentences, or just **word sentences**.
For example: Person A: “Where is your meeting again?” / Person B: “**Tunisia**.”
Person A: “I think it’s best that we don’t get involved.” / Person B: “**Agreed**.”
Person A: “When do you need these reports finished?” / Person B: “**Tomorrow**.”
Even though the second speaker’s response is only made up of a single word in each of these examples, it contains all the relevant information that is necessary in the context of the conversation.

SESSION5: TYPES OF SENTENCES (PURPOSE)

By Purpose (declarative / exclamatory / interrogative / imperative)

1. DECLARATIVE SENTENCES

A **declarative sentence** makes a statement or argument about what is, was, or will be the case. That is, it talks about that which is asserted to be **true**.
Declarative sentences usually end in a **period** (also known as a **full stop**) and are the most ubiquitous type of sentence in English. (If they are expressing a strong emotion or are forceful in nature, they can also end in an **exclamation point** (“!”), in which case they are sometimes referred to as **Exclamatory Sentences**.)
They stand in contrast to **interrogative sentences**, which ask a question and end with a question mark (“?”), and **imperative sentences**, which are used to give orders, commands, and general instructions.

Different sentence structures

All four of types of sentence structures—simple, compound, complex, and compound complex sentences—can be made into declarative sentences.
For example: Simple Sentences “I’m walking to the library.” / Compound Sentences “She wanted to play basketball, but he wanted to play tennis.” / Complex Sentences “Even though I’m not a fan of Hitchcock, I’ll go with you to see The Birds.” / Compound-Complex Sentences “We went to Venice, even though they knew I wanted to go to Madrid; nevertheless, we had a great time.”

Different Verb Tenses

Declarative sentences can be formed in any tense, so long as the sentence is a statement of what is the case.

Present Tense

“I always run on Fridays.” (**present simple tense**) “I am driving to work now.” (present **continuous tense**)
“She has worked in this firm for 10 years.” (**present perfect tense**) “He has been living in New York all his life.” (**present perfect continuous tense**)

Past Tense

“I enjoyed that soup.” (**past simple tense**) “He was walking the dog at the time.” (**past continuous tense**)
“They had been in the olive oil business for generations.” (**past perfect tense**) “We had been looking for a new style for our music.” (**past perfect continuous tense**)

Future Tense

“I will work from home tomorrow.” (**future simple tense**) “He will be working late tonight, for sure.” (**future continuous tense**) “Her flight will have arrived by then.” (**future perfect tense**) “We will have been living together for five years this Tuesday.” (**future perfect continuous tense**)

Negative declarative sentences

Negative declarative sentences (or simply negative sentences) are declarative sentences whose information is made negative by the word not or never. All of the different sentence structures and verb tenses that we looked at previously can be made negative.

• "I won't be going to the party because I have an exam tomorrow." (complex sentence – future continuous tense – made negative by not (contracted with will))
• "I did not eat your sandwich." (simple sentence ¬– past tense – made negative by not)
• "Jim is a good guy, but you can never rely on him." (compound sentence ¬– present simple tense – second independent clause made negative by *never*)

Variations

Not all declarative sentences are straightforward statements of positive fact—there are a few variations that express slightly different information, while still remaining declarative in nature.

Declarative commands and requests

We generally use **imperative sentences** to issue commands or instructions, and **interrogative sentences** to ask questions or make requests.

• "Clean your room." (imperative sentence) / • "Would you buy me a video game while you're at the mall?" (interrogative sentence)

However, we can sometimes use declarative sentences to make statements that have the sound of a command or request, and yet are not exactly either one.

• "You should clean your room." / • "You could buy me a video game while you're at the mall."

Both of these sentences are now in the declarative form, yet both function in a middle ground between a command and a request. Note that the forcefulness of the imperative sentence is lost when it is made declarative, just as the tact and politeness is lost from the interrogative sentence.

Statements of uncertainty

We often use declarative sentences as an indirect way of asking a question about something that we're not certain about, expressing what we wish to know as a declarative, factual statement.

• "I was thinking we could see the movie together, if you're free." / • "They want to know why you did this."

Because these kinds of statements are so close in nature and meaning to interrogative sentences, many people end up erroneously putting a question mark at the end of them.

However, we must take care not to make this mistake and only use a period with such sentences.

Indirect questions

Indirect questions are very similar to statements of uncertainty, except that they use what is known as reported speech (sometimes called indirect speech) to relay an interrogative sentence from another person to the listener as a declarative sentence.

• "Dan asked if you are coming to the study session this evening." / • "She was wondering if you want to get some coffee later." / • "They told me to ask where you're going later."

Declarative questions

Declarative questions are a bit of a unique bridge between declarative sentences and interrogative sentences. They are declarative, yet they end with a question mark; they are used primarily in spoken, informal English and generally have "yes" or "no" as possible responses.

For example: • "You're firing me?" / • "He wants to drive to the city at this hour? / • "She's moving to Russia?"

These could technically be considered interrogative sentences because they ask a question and end with a question mark, but, because the actual form of the sentence does not change, they are still very like a declarative sentence. In spoken English, the only way they are marked as questions is by the speaker's intonation.

2. EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES

Exclamatory sentences are declarative sentences that are expressing a strong emotion or are forceful in nature. they usually end in an exclamation point (“!”). For example: I got the concert tickets! / I hate you!

Exclamatory Sentences That Begin with "What:"

What a lovely bouquet of flowers! / What a cute puppy! / What an ugly bug! / What a happy ending!

Exclamatory Sentences That Begin with "How:"

How bright they've grown in the sunlight! / How well he listens! / How slow they crawl! / How fast you ran!

Exclamatory Sentences Containing "So:"

That birthday cake was so good! / Sheldon's gift was so amazing! / Eugh, that bug is so ugly! / I’m so mad right now!

Exclamatory Sentences Containing "Such:"

He's such a kind soul! / That's such a gorgeous ring! / Your puppy is such a cutie! / You’re such a liar!

Avoid Exclamations in Academic Writing

Exclamatory sentences don't really have a place in academic writing or reports. Short of quoting someone else, they are to be avoided. Academic papers are going to be filled with declarative sentences, which make a statement, or interrogative sentences, which pose a question.

3. INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

An interrogative sentence is simply a sentence that asks a question—that is, we use it when we interrogate someone for information. Interrogative sentences always end with question marks.

Forming interrogative sentences

When we make sentences into questions, we almost always use auxiliary verbs that are inverted with the subject. This is known as subject-verb inversion.
For example: • “Are you sleepy?” • “Will she be coming to the party later?” • “Have they finished their project yet?”
We can also use question words (**who, what, where, when, why,** and **how**) to ask more nuanced questions, but we still use auxiliary verbs and subject-verb inversion.
For instance: • “What does the boss think about the proposal?” • “Who is coming to the play?”
In this last question, the subject is unknown, so it is represented by the word who (which does not invert with an auxiliary verb). Using these constructions, we can create several different kinds of interrogative sentences.

There are four main types of interrogative sentences: yes/no questions, alternative questions, “Wh-” questions, and tag questions.

A. Yes/No questions

Yes/No questions are simply questions that can be answered with either "yes" or "no." These are exclusively formed with auxiliary verbs that are inverted with the subject—that is, they do not use question words.
For example: • “Are you registered to vote?” • “May I borrow your pen?” • “Do you speak French?”
• “If you miss the deadline for entry, will you still be able to compete?” • “Is there enough food for everyone?”

B. Alternative questions

Alternative questions, also known as **choice questions**, are questions that provide a choice among two or more answers. These choices might be explicitly stated in the question (identified by the **coordinating conjunction** *or*), or they might be implied by the context.
We usually use inverted auxiliary verbs on their own for these questions, but they can also be formed using certain question words. For example: • "Do you prefer apple juice or orange juice?" • "Who won—New York or Boston?" • "Do you live in the city, or the suburbs?" • "Do you want cake, pie, or ice cream?"

C. "Wh-" questions

"Wh-" questions (or question word questions) are questions that seek information by posing a question with a "wh-" question word (who, what, where, when, why, and how).
These questions seek an open-ended answer that can be short or long, simple or complex— there is no expectation about how the person might respond.
Here are some examples: • "Who is your favorite author?" • "What is the capital of England?" • "When will you be finished with this project?" • "Where are you going for your summer vacation?" • "Why haven't you responded to Karen's invitation yet?" • "How did you get here?"

D. Tag questions

Tag questions are formed by adding a question as a "tag" onto the end of a declarative sentence. This "tag" is usually made of at least an auxiliary verb inverted with a subject, though it is sometimes just a single word. It is considered parenthetical, so we set it apart from the rest of the sentence with a comma.
Tag questions are often rhetorical, used to confirm an answer that the speaker already knows or believes to be the case. For example: • "You're not going to the party, are you?" • "This isn't your hat, is it?" • "That was the most delicious meal, wasn't it?" • "You can't talk during the movie, OK?" • "We're going to the game, right?"

Other interrogative sentences

Some interrogative sentences consist of a declarative statement posed to someone as a question, such as: • "You won?" • "It ended just like that?"
Some questions can even be a single word. These are often "question words," (e.g. What?, Why?, When?, etc.), but they can consist of other words as well.
For example: • Speaker A: "Sir, you need to move your car." • Speaker B: "Me?" • Speaker A: "You didn't eat all of your vegetables." • Speaker B: "So?" • Speaker A: "Well?" • Speaker B: "Hold on, I'm thinking!"

Indirect questions

Some declarative sentences express uncertainty, but are not truly interrogative. These are known as **indirect questions**.
For example: • "I was wondering if you would like to go to the party with me." This does not pose an actual question, so it is not an interrogative sentence.
In informal writing, it is very common to see these types of sentences end with a question mark. However, this shouldn't be done, especially in formal or professional writing—the question mark should either be left out, or the sentence should be rewritten. For example, to change the sentence above from declarative to interrogative, we could say, "Would you like to go to the party with me?"

Negative interrogative sentences

As their name implies, **negative interrogative sentences** (sometimes called **interronegative sentences**) are **interrogative sentences** that are made negative. In addition to asking literal questions, negative interrogative sentences are often used to imply that the speaker is expecting a certain answer or for emphatic effect.

Constructing negative interrogative sentences

As with all **negative sentences**, we generally form the negative interrogative by adding the word *not*. Where it appears in the sentence depends on the type of interrogative sentence we're using.

4. MPERATIVE SENTENCES

We use imperative sentences to give orders, commands, and general instructions. Such sentences are said to be in the Imperative Mood, one of the Irrealis Moods in English.

Emphatic responses

When we make an imperative sentence, we use the infinitive form of the verb (without "to"), and we omit the subject of the verb. We can also intensify the sentence by adding an exclamation mark at the end.
For example: • "Stand up." • "Sit down!" • "Turn off the light before you leave." • "Go to bed!"
As you can see, there are no subjects in the sentences above. For example, it would be incorrect to say, "Open you the window"—it should simply be, "Open the window." It would also generally be incorrect to say "You open the window," unless it is done for emphasis (as in a retort). For example: • A: "Daniel, could you please open the window?" • B: "You open the window!"

Subjects vs. Nouns of Address

Note that this is not the same as using a noun of address (also known as a vocative), which is a noun or noun phrase used to address someone directly in a sentence.
Nouns of address act as parenthetical elements within a sentence, grammatically unrelated to the rest of the content. They are set apart with one or two commas, depending on their position in a sentence.
For example: • "John, please turn out that light." • "Stand up, Janet." • "Be quiet, sir!" • "You there, pay attention!"
John, Janet, sir, and you there are not the subjects of their sentences' verbs; they are nouns of address.

Negative Imperatives

We can also make imperative statements negative by putting "do not" or "don't" before the infinitive verb:
• "Don't run in the hallways!" • "Do not leave your dirty dishes in the sink."
The imperative form is also used for general instructions, as might be seen on product instructions, formal announcements, notices, or in prohibitions. If these are in the negative, "do not" is usually not contracted.
For example: • "Wash all woolen garments in lukewarm water." • "Do not smoke in the airport."
• "Do not leave your luggage unattended."

Usage Note: Imperatives vs. "No" + Gerund

There is another form of prohibition that can be found in public notices, which is "no" plus a gerund (a verb put into the "-ing" form and used as a noun). This is used for general prohibitions, as in "no running," "no smoking," "no parking," etc. While similar to the negative imperatives above, and even having the exact same meaning sometimes ("do not smoke in the airport" means the same as "no smoking in the airport"), this formation is not truly imperative from a grammatical point of view; it is considered a **noun phrase** made up of a determiner ("no") and a gerund.

Using "Do"

We can also use the auxiliary verb "do" before the main verb of an imperative sentence. This adds an emphasis to the tone of the command, instruction, or request.
For instance: • "Oh, *do* shut up!" • "*Do* take care of yourself, Mary!" • "Please *do* enjoy your stay."
This "emphatic do" can also be made negative, which changes the way a negative imperative sentence is constructed. Take for instance this negative imperative: • "Don't talk to me like that."
If we want to add emphasis to "don't," we simply add the subject back into the sentence before the verb:
• "Don't *you* talk to me like that!"

SESSION6: PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

Subject / predicate / object / complement / modifier / adverbial

1 Subject

In general, the subject refers to the part of the sentence that tells who or what the sentence is about.
The subject is a noun, pronoun or noun phrase.

For example: *Kelly* walked down the street. / *They* went to school. / *The black cat* is sleeping.
While "Kelly" and "They" are single-word subjects, "The black cat" is a noun phrase that includes an adjective to provide additional information about the subject.

There are a few different types of subjects. A **simple subject** is just one word, without any modifiers, usually a noun or pronoun. A **complete subject** is the simple subject plus all modifiers. A **compound subject** is made up of more than one subject element.
For example: Simple subject: *Kate* is a thin girl.
Complete subject: *Jeffrey's poem about his mother* made the class cry.
Compound subject: *Paul and Tommy* joined the soccer team at the same time.

2 Predicate (simple, complete and compound)

The predicate of a sentence includes the verb and everything that follows it. This typically tells what the subject does with an action verb or describes the subject using a linking verb and a complement.
Let's return to the first example sentence:
Kelly *walked down the street*.
In this sentence, "walked" is the action verb that tells the reader what Kelly is doing, and "down the street" is an adverb phrase that modifies the verb by describing where she walked.
All of these words make up the **complete predicate** of the sentence.
The verb alone is the **simple predicate.**
As with subjects, it's also possible to have a **compound predicate** that consists of two different actions.
Take a look at the examples below to note the differences:
Simple predicate: Harry *cried. /* Complete predicate: The mouse *slowly ran towards the food*.
Compound predicate: She *laughed at the dog's tricks and decided to adopt him.*
Predicates can contain a good deal of information and may be quite long. Predicates often have several parts in addition to the verb, including objects and complements.

3 Object (direct and indirect)

Objects are noun phrases that are included in the predicate. They are the things being acted upon by the verb.
For example: Susan bought *the gift*. / The dog caught *the ball*. / The boy spilled *the milk*.
In each of these sentences, there is a **direct object** in the predicate. It is the thing being acted upon; for example, the gift is the thing given by Susan.
It's also possible to have an **indirect object** that includes more information about the person or thing towards which the action is directed.
For example: Susan bought *him* the gift. / He wrote *them* a long letter. / The man gave *her* an ultimatum.
In the sentence "Susan bought him the gift," "him" is an indirect object because he is not the item bought at the store, but rather the person for whom the action was completed.

4 Complement

In predicates that use linking verbs rather than action verbs, items following the verb are known as complements. Complements modify the subject by describing it further.
For example: I am a *teacher*. / The cat was *the laziest creature*. / The woman seems *smart*.
In these cases, the words following the linking verb describe the subject, whether they are nouns, noun phrases or adjectives. To write a complete sentence, you must include at least a subject and a predicate. If you only include one of these, you will have only a sentence fragment, which is grammatically incorrect.

5 Modifier

Modifiers are words or phrases that describe parts of the sentence by adding additional information. Adjectives modify nouns and pronouns, while adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. It is possible for parts of speech to do this work alone in the sentence in either the subject or the predicate.
For example: / The *blue* boat sank. / The boat *slowly* sank.
In the first example, the adjective modifies the subject, but in the second example, the adverb modifies the simple predicate.

6 Adverbial

Not all modifiers are single words. Sometimes they are groups of words that work together. When these words are in the predicate and explain how, when, where or why the action was performed, they are known as an **adverbial**.
For example:
She exercised *in the morning*. / The boy reached out *to the teacher for help*. / I skipped school *because I was sick*.
Each adverbial above modifies the verb, therefore performing the function of an adverb in the sentence.
The first two examples are **adverbial phrases** — groups of words that function as an adverb but don't contain a subject and a verb.
The final example is an **adverbial clause**, which performs the same function but does contain a subject and a verb. Adverbial clauses are dependent clauses and are not complete sentences on their own.
Modifiers are optional when it comes to writing sentences since they merely give additional information and are not required the way a subject and verb are. Note that complements are considered to be a type of modifier as well.

SESSION7: SENTENCE PATTERNS

The five basic patterns are:

1 Subject + Verb (intransitive)

The earth trembled.

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2 Subject + Verb (transitive)+ Direct Object

The earthquake destroyed the city.

---

3 Subject + Verb (linking) + Subject Complement: noun or adjective

The result was chaos.

4 Subject + Verb (transitive)+ Indirect object + Direct object

The government sent the city aid.

5 Subject + Verb (transitive)+ Direct object + Object Complement: noun or adjective

The citizens considered the earthquake a disaster.

Phrases (types and examples):

A phrase is a group of words that express a concept and is used as a unit within a sentence. Eight common types of phrases are: noun, verb, gerund, infinitive, appositive, participial, prepositional, and absolute. Take a look at our selection of phrase examples below.

Phrase type	definition	examples
Noun Phrases	A noun phrase consists of a noun and all its modifiers.	• **The bewildered tourist** was lost. • **The lost puppy** was **a wet and stinky dog.** • **The flu clinic** had seen many cases of infectious disease. • It was **a story as old as time.** • **The sports car** drove **the long and winding road**. • Saturday became **a cool, wet afternoon.**
Verb phrases	A verb phrase consists of a verb and all its modifiers.	• He **was waiting for the rain to stop**. • She **was upset when it didn't boil**. • You **have been sleeping for a long time.** • You **might enjoy a massage.** • He **was eager to eat dinner.**
Gerund Phrases	A gerund phrase is simply a noun phrase that starts with a gerund.	• **Taking my dog for a walk** is fun. • **Walking in the rain** can be difficult. • **Strolling along a beach at sunset** is romantic. • **Getting a promotion** is exciting. • **Signing autographs** takes time. • **Going for ice cream** is a real treat. • **Singing for his supper** was how he earned his keep. • **Getting a sore back** was the result of the golf game. • **Pulling an all-nighter** did not improve his test scores. • **Sailing into the sunset** was the perfect end to the book.

Infinitive Phrases	An infinitive phrase is a noun phrase that begins with an infinitive verb.	• **To make lemonade**, you have **to start with lemons**. • I tried **to see the stage**, but I was too short. • She organized a boycott **to make a statement**. • **To see Niagara Falls** is mind-boggling. • He really needs **to get his priorities in order**. • The company decided **to reduce hours for everyone**.
Appositive Phrases	An appositive phrase restates and defines a noun. It consists of one or more words.	• **My favorite pastime**, needlepoint, surprises some people. • Her horse, **an Arabian**, was her pride and joy. • My wife, **the love of my life**, is also my best friend. • A cheetah, **the fastest land animal**, can run 70 miles an hour. • My idea, **a recycling bin for the office**, was accepted by the boss. • The Florida panther, **the state animal of Florida**, is an endangered species.
Participial Phrases	A participial phrase begins with a past or present participle.	• **Washed with my clothes**, my cell phone no longer worked. • **Knowing what I know now**, I wish I had never come here. • I am really excited, **considering all the people that will be there**. • We are looking forward to the movie, **having seen the trailer last week**. • **Grinning from ear to ear**, she accepted her award. • The happy dog ran the entire length of the park, **pausing only to sniff the dandelions**. • **Painted a brilliant white**, the small room appeared bigger. • The lake, **frozen over all winter**, was finally thawing.
Prepositional Phrases	A prepositional phrase begins with a preposition and can act as a noun, an adjective or an adverb.	• The book was **on the table**. • We camped **by the brook**. • He knew it was **over the rainbow**. • She was lost **in the dark of night**. • He was **between a rock and a hard place**. • I waited **for a while**. • She smelled **of strawberries and cream**. • He won the challenge **against all odds**.

Absolute Phrases	An absolute phrase has a subject, but not an action verb, so it cannot stand alone as a complete sentence. It modifies the whole sentence, not just a noun.	• **His tail between his legs**, the dog walked out the door. • **Picnic basket in hand**, she set off for her date. • The guys attacked the pile of nachos, **their fingers getting the last bit of cheese off the plate**. • **Their heads hanging down**, the whole group apologized. • The entire team, **their uniforms muddy and stained**, shouted for joy.

Do not confuse a present participle phrase with a gerund phrase.

Present participle phrases and **gerund phrases** are easy to confuse because they both begin with an ***ing*** word.

The difference is the function that they provide in a sentence.

A present participle phrase will always act as an **adjective** while a gerund phrase will always behave as a **noun**.

SESSION8: SENTENCE ERRORS AND CORRECTIONS

Sentence fragments / comma splices / run-ons / choppy writing

1 Sentence Fragment

Every sentence must have at least three components to be considered a complete sentence:

1. Express a **complete thought**.
2. Has a **subject**
3. Has a **predicate**

Fragment: a word, phrase, or clause that usually has in speech the intonation of a sentence but lacks the grammatical structure usually found in the sentences of formal and especially written composition. ***Merriam webster dictionary.***

A sentence fragment is a group of words that resembles a sentence. It will start with a capital letter and have ending punctuation; however, it is neither an independent clause nor a complete idea.
A sentence fragment can be very confusing for the reader, so usually, the best thing to do is to fix it by adding what is missing from the sentence or joining it to another sentence. Below see some sentence fragment examples and possible corrections, plus examples of how powerful an intentional use of fragments can be.

1. Fragment types:

A. It doesn't express a complete thought.

For example, milk and eggs.
This sentence is lacking a complete thought - what are the milk and eggs an example of?

B. It's lacking a subject.

For example: Eating chicken.
This sentence is lacking a subject - who or what is eating chicken?

C. It's doesn't express an action.

For example: A book without a cover.
What about a book without a cover? Is the book doing something? Is someone doing something to the book? We don't know, because there is no subject.

D. It's a dependent clause, standing alone.

For example: Because I went to the store.
The conjunction "because" makes this clause dependent. A dependent clause can't stand alone, it needs to be attached to an independent clause

2. How to Correct Sentence Fragments:

Knowing how to correct a sentence fragment depends on what's lacking. Here are three ways to make sentence fragment corrections:

A. Add a subject or verb to complete the thought.

Sentence Fragment: Enjoying his latest self-development book.
Complete Sentence: Roland was enjoying his latest self-development book.

B. Join the dependent clause with an independent clause to complete the thought.

Sentence Fragment: Because her puppy got sick.
Complete Sentence: Kelly was late for work because her puppy got sick.
In this example, you can also remove the subordinating word to complete the thought. Either a period or semicolon would work in the corrected thought.
Sentence Fragment: Kelly was late. Because her puppy got sick.
Complete Thought: Kelly was late. Her puppy got sick.

C. Rewrite the portion with the fragment.

Sentence Fragment: He ran through the door. Clenching his water bottle. When he reached the crib, he saw that the baby was okay.
Complete Sentence: He ran through the door. His hands clenched his water bottle. When he reached the crib, he saw that the baby was okay.

3. Are Sentence Fragments OK?

Although usually assumed to be a grammatical mistake, as you can see in the examples above, fragments of sentences can be used deliberately to lend more meaning to words or impart a specific tone. Having said that, sentence fragments should always be reviewed to make sure they don't need to be revised so that they carry a complete thought.

2 Run-Ons

These are also called fused sentences. You are making a run-on when you put two independent sentences (a subject and its predicate and another subject and its predicate) together in one sentence without separating them properly.

Here's an example of a run-on:
My favorite Mediterranean spread is hummus it is very garlicky.
This one sentence actually contains two complete sentences. But in the rush to get that idea out, I made it into one incorrect sentence. Luckily, there are many ways to correct this run-on sentence.

A. You could use a semicolon:

My favorite Mediterranean spread is hummus; it is very garlicky.

B. You could use a comma and a coordinating conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so):

My favorite Mediterranean spread is hummus, for it is very garlicky. -OR- My favorite Mediterranean spread is hummus, and it is very garlicky.

C. You could use a subordinating conjunction (see above):

My favorite Mediterranean spread is hummus because it is very garlicky. -OR- Because it is so garlicky, my favorite Mediterranean spread is hummus.

D. You could make it into two separate sentences with a period in between:

My favorite Mediterranean spread is hummus. It is very garlicky.

E. You could use an em-dash (a long dash) for emphasis:

My favorite Mediterranean spread is hummus—it is very garlicky.

N.B.
*You **CANNOT** simply **add a comma** between the two sentences, or you'll end up with what's called a "**comma splice**."*

3 Comma Splice

A comma splice is particular kind of comma mistake that happens when you use a comma to join two independent clauses.
Some people consider this a type of run-on sentence, while other people think of it as a punctuation error.

How to Fix a Comma Splice?

There are three common ways to fix a comma splice. Let's look at the following example:
I am not angry with you, I am not happy with you, either.

1 Add a Conjunction

One way to fix a comma splice is to add a conjunction immediately after the comma. With most comma splices, the conjunction you'll want to add is probably *and*, *but*, or *so*.
I am not angry with you, but I am not happy with you, either.

2 Change the Comma to a Semicolon

If adding a conjunction doesn't seem to work, you can change the comma to a semicolon instead. Unlike commas, semicolons *are* strong enough to glue two independent clauses together.
I am not angry with you; I am not happy with you, either.
If you decide to use a semicolon, make sure there is a close, logical connection between the two independent clauses.

3 Make Separate Sentences (using a period)

If adding a conjunction doesn't seem to work and using a semicolon feels too stuffy, you can fix a comma splice by simply making each independent clause a separate sentence.
I am not angry with you. I am not happy with you, either.

4 Choppy Writing

Writing feels choppy when the sentences are very short, and the sentences do not connect to each other. Choppy writing sounds like it has been written by someone who can only use the basic words of the English language.

How to Avoid (and Improve) Choppy Sentences in Your Writing

A. Conjunctions

Try combining sentences using a conjunction. Some conjunctions you could use are:
And / But / Or / Nor / Yet / For / So.
When combining two complete sentences, make sure that you use a comma, too. For example:
Before: We need to contact the doctor's office. We should try to get an appointment right away.
After: We need to contact the doctor's office, and we should try to get an appointment right away.

B. Subordination

Subordination involves combining a main idea with an incomplete clause using a connector. This helps show how the two sentences work together.
The connector is typically a word like: *after*, *although*, *because*, *even though*, *if*, *since*, *though*, *unless*, *whereas*, and *which*. For example:
Before: Don't forget to wash your hands before handling food. You don't want to contaminate it.
After: Since you don't want to contaminate the food, don't forget to wash your hands before handling it.

C. Appositives

Appositives are phrases that add extra information about a noun in the sentence. Rather than use a separate sentence to provide information about that noun, you can include it right after mentioning it:
Before: Buzz Aldrin was an astronaut. He was the second person to walk on the moon.
After: Buzz Aldrin, an astronaut, was the second person to walk on the moon.
When using appositives in a sentence, don't forget to set the phrase apart with commas.

D. Modifying Phrases

Another way to combine two sentences is by turning one of them into a modifying phrase. This involves using a verb in the *–ing* form. The modifying phrase needs to modify a word in the sentence or it will become a dangling modifier.
Before: The politician spoke to the high school students. She urged them to get informed and get involved with their local government.
After: The politician spoke to the high school students, urging them to get informed and get involved with their local government.

E. Reworked Ideas

You can also combine multiple sentences by reworking the ideas. Think about ways to combine several sentences into one long sentence. For example:
Before: The boy got sidetracked on his way to school. He was six years old. He ended up at a park this morning.
After: The six-year-old boy ended up at the park rather than going to school this morning.
You can manipulate the sentence and move phrases around to find the best way to convey your ideas to the reader.

When writing, it's important to remember that variety is one of the keys to keeping your reader's attention.
Spice up your writing with a mixture of long and short sentences, so you don't end up with lots of choppy sentences that could distract your reader.

F. Logical order

Sentences with logical order facilitate the writing process and improves readers understanding of the text.

G. Sentence variety

Subject-verb-object sentences are the workhorses of our writing, but variety helps break up choppiness and improve our rhythm. So, we want to mix and match all four types of sentence structures:
Simple, compound, complex and compound complex.

SESSION9: CONJUNCTIONS

coordinating conjunctions / **subordinating** conjunctions / **correlative** conjunctions / **conjunctive adverbs**.

Conjunctions are used to express relationships between things in a sentence, link different clauses together, and to combine sentences.
Without conjunctions, we would be forced to use brief, simple sentences that do not express the full range of meaning we wish to communicate. Only using simple sentences would sound unnaturally abrupt and disjointed.
By using different kinds of conjunctions, however, we are able to make more complex, sophisticated sentences that show a connection between actions and ideas.

1 Coordinating Conjunctions

The most common conjunctions are the **coordinating conjunctions**: *and*, *but*, *or*, *yet*, *for*, *so* and *nor*.
We use coordinating conjunctions between:

1. Individual words

- "I like to run **and** swim."
- "Do you want pepperoni **or** anchovies on your pizza?"

2. Phrases

- "The president has been praised for both his willingness to negotiate **and** his strength in defending his principles."
- "I am a big fan of playing sports **but** not watching them."

3. Independent clauses

- "It was raining, **so** I took an umbrella."
- "We went for a hike, **but** I didn't bring the right shoes."

2 Subordinating Conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions connect a subordinate clause to an independent clause.
For example:

- "**Although** it was raining, I didn't take an umbrella."
- "**Even though** she didn't like pepperoni, she still ate the pizza."
- "I went to work **in spite of** being sick."
- "I intend to go to South America next month, **provided that** I can get the time off work."

3 Correlative Conjunctions

Correlative conjunctions are pairs of conjunctions that work together to indicate the relationship between two elements in a sentence. For example:
Correlative conjunctions, or **paired conjunctions**, are sets of conjunctions that are always used together.
Like **coordinating conjunctions**, they join words, phrases, or independent clauses of similar or equal importance and structure. Unlike coordinating conjunctions, they can only join two elements together, no more. Some of the most

common correlative conjunctions are:
both ..... **and**
either ..... **or**
just as ..... **so**
neither ..... **nor**
not ..... **but**
not only ..... **but also**
whether ..... **or**

- "Sports are a great way to bring people together, **whether** you like to play **or** just watch."
- "I like **neither** pepperoni **nor** anchovies on my pizza."

4 Conjunctive Adverbs

Conjunctive adverbs join two independent clauses. These can either be two separate sentences, or they can be joined into a single complex sentence with a semicolon.
For example:
- "The English language school offers discounted English language courses. There's **also** a library where you can study and borrow books."
- "Jen hadn't enjoyed the play; **nevertheless**, she recommended it to her friend."

SESSION10: PARALLELISM

In English grammar, parallelism (also called parallel structure or parallel construction) is the repetition of the same grammatical form in two or more parts of a sentence.

Not parallel	**Parallel**
I like to jog, bake, paint, and watching movies.	I like to jog, bake, paint, and watch movies. I like jogging, baking, painting, and watching movies.

Maintaining parallel structure helps you avoid grammatically incorrect sentences and improves your writing style.

1. Parallel structure in a series

Use parallel construction when items in a series have an equal level of importance. These items are usually joined by commas or semicolons along with *and* or *or*.

A. Parallel words

On the word level, a noun should be grouped with other nouns, an adjective with other adjectives, and so on.

Not parallel	**Parallel**
The company is looking for a candidate who is friendly, organized, meticulous, and is going to arrive to work on time.	The company is looking for a candidate who is friendly, organized, meticulous, and punctual.

When a series is composed of verbs, do not mix forms. For example, mixing an infinitive (a verb beginning with *to*) with a gerund (a verb form ending in *-ing*) breaks parallel structure.

Not parallel	**Parallel**
The participants in the workshop learned how to communicate, negotiate, and working collaboratively for the most effective outcome.	The participants in the workshop learned how to communicate, negotiate, and work collaboratively for the most effective outcome. The participants in the workshop learned about communicating, negotiating, and working collaboratively for the most effective outcome.

B. Parallel phrases

Parallel structure should be used to balance a series of phrases with the same grammatical structure.

For example, avoid mixing noun phrases with verb phrases.

Not parallel	**Parallel**
Initial trials showed that exposure to the chemical caused memory problems, intermittent dizziness, and deters sleep.	Initial trials showed that exposure to the chemical caused memory problems, intermittent dizziness, and insomnia.

As with a series of verbs, a series of verb phrases should use parallel forms. Do not mix phrases based on an infinitive with phrases based on *-ing* verbs.

Not parallel	**Parallel**
Her main duties were answering phone calls, filing records, and to conduct visitor surveys.	Her main duties were answering phone calls, filing records, and conducting visitor surveys.

C. Parallel clauses

Parallelism is also applicable to a series of clauses in a sentence.

Not parallel	**Parallel**
The report card stated that the student often talked in class, that he bullied other students, and rarely finished his homework.	The report card stated that the student often talked in class, that he bullied other students, and that he rarely finished his homework. The report card stated that the student often talked in class, bullied other students, and rarely finished his homework.

D. Lists after a colon

A list that follows a colon should always have parallel elements.

Not parallel	Parallel
Mainstream economists have attributed the recession to several key causes: deregulation policies, spike in interest rates, manufacturing orders declining, and the emergence of asset bubbles.	Mainstream economists have attributed the recession to several key causes: the enactment of deregulation policies, the spike in interest rates, the decline in manufacturing orders, and the emergence of asset bubbles. Mainstream economists have attributed the recession to several key causes: deregulation policies, high interest rates, low manufacturing orders, and asset bubbles.

2. Parallel construction in pairs

Use parallel construction when a sentence contains a pair of connected ideas.

Pairs can be connected by coordinating conjunctions, which include *and*, *nor*, *but*, *or* and *yet*.

Not parallel	Parallel
She planned to collect data by either using an online survey or phone interviews.	She planned to collect data by either using an online survey or conducting phone interviews. She planned to collect data through either online surveys or phone interviews.

Use parallel structure when a pair of ideas are linked by a correlative conjunction, such as *not only…but also*, *either…or*, and *neither…nor*.

Not parallel	Parallel
His paper argues that the distinctive divergence in the two artists' styles was not only shaped by their mutual rivalry but also because of the idiosyncratic tastes of patrons.	His paper argues that the distinctive divergence in the two artists' styles was shaped not only by their mutual rivalry but also by the idiosyncratic tastes of patrons.

The same rule applies to pairs connected by a word of comparison, such as *over*, *than* or *as*.

Not parallel	Parallel
He prefers movie nights at home over going to loud house parties.	He prefers movie nights at home over loud house parties. He prefers hosting movie nights at home over going to loud house parties.

3. Outlines and headings

Headings that divide a paper into sections should be parallel. Likewise, parallel structure should be applied to elements in paper outlines.

Not parallel	Parallel
1. Origin of homeopathy 2. Initial reception 3. Rising to popularity in the 19th century 4. Recent studies show lack of evidence	1. Origin of homeopathy 2. Initial reception 3. Rise to popularity in the 19th century 4. Lack of evidence in recent studies

SESSION11: PONCTUATION AND CAPITALIZATION

1 English Capitalization Rules:

1. Capitalize the First Word of a Sentence

This one's easy. Always capitalize the first word of a sentence.
Where did I put that book?

2. Capitalize Names and Other Proper Nouns

You should always capitalize people's names.
My favorite author is Jane Austen.

Names are proper nouns. The names of cities, countries, companies, religions, and political parties are also proper nouns, so you should capitalize them, too.

We experienced some beautiful Southern California weather last fall when we attended a Catholic wedding in San Diego.

You should also capitalize words like *mom* and *grandpa* when they are used as a form of address.
Just wait until Mom sees this!

3. Don't Capitalize After a Colon (Usually)

In most cases, you don't need to capitalize after a colon.
I have one true passion: wombat racing.

There are a couple of common exceptions. One is when the word following the colon is a proper noun.
There is only one place I want to visit: New York City.

The other exception is when the words following the colon form one or more complete sentences.
Maggie wears a brimmed cap at all times for these two reasons: Strong light often gives her a headache. She also likes the way it looks.

4. Capitalize the First Word of a Quote (Sometimes)

Capitalize the first word of a quote when the quote is a complete sentence.

Mario asked, "What is everyone doing this weekend?"

5. Don't capitalize the first word of partial quotes.

Mr. Thompson described the rules as "extremely difficult to understand if you don't have a law degree."

Capitalize Days, Months, and Holidays, But Not Seasons

The names of days, months, and holidays are proper nouns, so you should capitalize them.

I hate Mondays!

Tom's birthday is in June.

Oh no! I forgot about Valentine's Day!

I hate winter!

Having a summer birthday is the best.

6. Capitalize Most Words in Titles

The capitalization rules for titles of books, movies, and other works vary a little between style guides. In general, you should capitalize the first word, all nouns, all verbs (even short ones, like *is*), all adjectives, and all proper nouns. That means you should lowercase articles, conjunctions, and prepositions—however, some style guides say to capitalize conjunctions and prepositions that are longer than five letters.

Sense and Sensibility is better than *Pride and Prejudice*.

The first movie of the series is *Harry Potter and the Sorcerer's Stone*.

7. Capitalize Cities, Countries, Nationalities, and Languages

The names of cities, countries, nationalities, and languages are proper nouns, so you should capitalize them.

English is made up of many languages, including Latin, German, and French.

My mother is British, and my father is Dutch.

The capital of Botswana is Gaborone.

8. Capitalize Time Periods and Events (Sometimes)

Specific periods, eras, and historical events that have proper names should be capitalized.

Most of the World War I veterans are now deceased.

In the Middle Ages, poor hygiene was partly responsible for the spreading of bubonic plague.

Middle school students often enjoy studying the social changes that took place during the Roaring Twenties.

However, centuries—and the numbers before them—are not capitalized.

In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, England blossomed into an empire.