MODULE CONTENT

| Unit of Competency | **RECEIVE AND RESPOND TO WORKPLACE COMMUNICATION** |
| --- | --- |
| Module Title | **RECEIVING AND RESPONDING TO WORKPLACE COMMUNICATION** |
| Module Descriptor | This unit covers the knowledge, skills and attitudes required to receive, respond and act on verbal and written communication. |
| Nominal Duration | **12 hours** |
| Summary of the Learning Outcomes: | |
| Upon completion of this module the student must be able to: | |
| LO1. Follow routine spoken messages | |
| LO2. Perform workplace duties following written notices | |

**LEARNING OUTCOMES 1**

**FOLLOW ROUTINE SPOKEN MESSAGES**

**Assessment Criteria:**

1. Required information is gathered by listening attentively & correctly interpreting or understanding information /instructions
2. Instructions/information are properly recorded
3. Instructions are acted upon immediately in accordance with information received
4. Clarification is sought from workplace supervisor on all occasions when any instruction/information is not clear

**Contents:**

* Parts of a speech
* Parts of a sentence
* Kinds of sentence

**Conditions:**

The students/trainees must be provided with the following:

* Writing materials(pen and paper)
* References
* Modules
* Learning elements

**Methodologies**:

* Lecture /discussion
* Demonstration
* Modular

**Assessment Methods:**

* Written exam/test
* Practical/performance test

**LEARNING EXPERIENCES**

**LEARNING OUTCOMES NO. 2**

**PERFORM WORKPLACE DUTIES FOLLOWING WRITTEN NOTICES**

| **Learning Activities** | **Special Instructions** |
| --- | --- |
| Read Information Sheet 1.1-1 Parts of a speech | If you have some problem on the content of the information sheet don’t hesitate to approach your Trainer.  If you feel that you are now knowledgeable on the content of the information sheet, you can now answer self-check provided in the module. |
| Answer Self-Check 1.1-1 Parts of a speech | Try to answer the Self-check without looking at the Answer Key  Compare your answer to Answer Key 1.1-1 |
| Read Information Sheet 1.1-2 Parts of a sentence | If you have some problem on the content of the information sheet don’t hesitate to approach your Trainer.  If you feel that you are now knowledgeable on the content of the information sheet, you can now answer self-check provided in the module. |
| Answer Self-Check 1.1-2 Parts of a sentence | Try to answer the Self-check without looking at the Answer Key  Compare your answer to Answer Key 1.1-2 |
| Read Information Sheet 1.1-3 Kinds of sentence | If you have some problem on the content of the information sheet don’t hesitate to approach your Trainer.  If you feel that you are now knowledgeable on the content of the information sheet, you can now answer self-check provided in the module. |
| Answer Self-Check 1.1-3 Kinds of sentence | Try to answer the Self-check without looking at the Answer Key  Compare your answer to Answer Key 1.1-3 |

**INFORMATION SHEET 1.1-1**

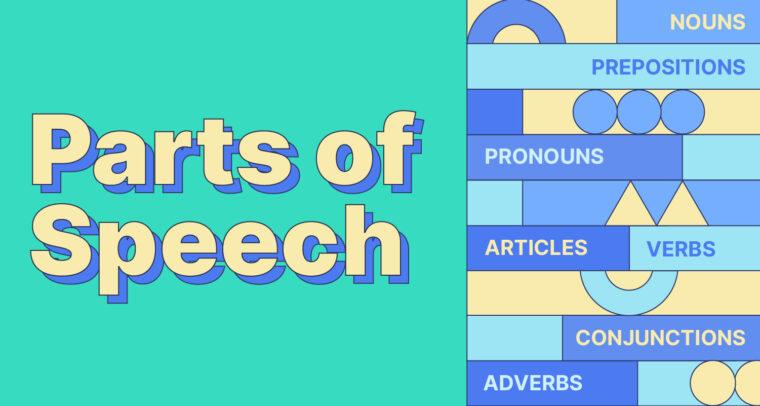
**PARTS OF A SPEECH**

Learning Objectives:

After reading this Information Sheet, you must be able to:

1. Know the parts of speech

**INTRODUCTION**



Every word is a part of speech. The term “part of speech” refers to the role a word plays in a sentence. And like any workplace or TV show with an ensemble cast, these roles were designed to work together.

Read on to learn about the different parts of speech that the words we use every day fall into, and how we use them together to communicate ideas clearly.

**THE 8 PARTS OF SPEECH**

1. **NOUNS**

A noun is a word that names something, such as a person, place, thing, or idea. In a sentence, nouns can play the role of subject, direct object, indirect object, subject complement, object complement, appositive, or adjective**.**

A noun is a person, place, concept, or object. Basically, anything that’s a “thing” is a noun, whether you’re talking about a basketball court, San Francisco, Cleopatra, or self-preservation.

Nouns fall into two categories: common nouns and proper nouns.

* Common nouns are general names for things, like planet and game show.
* Proper nouns are specific names for individual things, like Jupiter and Jeopardy!

**Types of Nouns**

Nouns form a large proportion of English vocabulary and they come in a wide variety of types.

* Nouns can name a person: Albert Einstein, the president, my mother, a girl
* Nouns can also name a place: Mount Vesuvius, Disneyland, my bedroom
* Nouns can also name things, although sometimes they might be intangible things, such as concepts, activities, or processes. Some might even be hypothetical or imaginary things. shoe, faucet, freedom, The Elder Wand, basketball

**Proper Nouns Vs. Common Nouns**

One important distinction to be made is whether a noun is a proper noun or a common noun.

A **Proper Noun** is a specific name of a person, place, or thing, and is always capitalized.

ex. Does Tina have much homework to do this evening?

(Tina is the name of a specific person.)

ex. I would like to visit Old Faithful.

(Old Faithful is the specific name of a geological phenomenon.)

The opposite of a proper noun is a common noun, sometimes known as a generic noun.

A Common Noun is the generic name of an item in a class or group and is not capitalized unless appearing at the beginning of a sentence or in a title.

The girl crossed the river. Girl is a common noun; we do not learn the identity of the girl by reading this sentence, though we know the action she takes. River is also a common noun in this sentence.

Types Of Common Nouns

Common or generic nouns can be broken down into three subtypes:

* concrete nouns,
* abstract nouns, and
* collective nouns.

A concrete noun is something that is perceived by the senses; something that is physical or real.

ex. I heard the doorbell.

ex. My keyboard is sticky.

ex. Doorbell and keyboard are real things that can be sensed.

Conversely, an abstract noun is something that cannot be perceived by the senses.

ex. We can’t imagine the courage it took to do that.

Courage is an abstract noun. Courage can’t be seen, heard, or sensed in any other way, but we know it exists.

A collective noun denotes a group or collection of people or things.

ex. That pack of lies is disgraceful.

ex. Pack of lies as used here is a collective noun. Collective nouns take a singular verb as if they are one entity – in this case, the singular verb is.

ex. A pride of lions roamed the savanna. Pride of lions is also a collective noun.

**Nouns as Subjects**

Every sentence must have a subject, and that subject will always be a noun. The subject of a sentence is the person, place, or thing that is doing or being the verb in that sentence.

ex. Maria is happy.

Maria is the subject of this sentence and the corresponding verb is a form of to be (is).

**Nouns as Objects**

Nouns can also be objects of a verb in a sentence. An object can be either a direct object (a noun that receives the action performed by the subject) or an indirect object (a noun that is the recipient of a direct object).

ex. Give the books to her.

Books is a direct object (what is being given) and her is the indirect object (who the books are being given to).

**Nouns as Subject and Object Complements**

Another type of noun use is called a subject complement. In this example, the noun teacher is used as a subject complement.

ex. Mary is a teacher.

Subject complements normally follow linking verbs like to be, become, or seem. A teacher is what Mary is.

A related usage of nouns is called an object complement.

ex. I now pronounce you husband and wife.

Husband and wife are nouns used as object complements in this sentence. Verbs that denote making, naming, or creating are often followed by object complements.

**Appositive Nouns and Nouns as Modifiers**

An appositive noun is a noun that immediately follows another noun in order to further define or identify it.

ex. My brother, Michael, is six years old.

Michael is an appositive here, further identifying the subject of the sentence, my brother.

Sometimes, nouns can be used adjectivally as well.

ex. He is a speed demon.

Speed is a normally a noun, but here it is acting as an adjective to modify demon.

**Plural Nouns**

Plural nouns, unlike collective nouns, require plural verbs. Many English plural nouns can be formed by adding -s or -es to the singular form, although there are many exceptions.

ex. cat—cats

These two cats are both black. (Note the plural verb are.)

ex. tax—taxes

ex. house—houses

**Countable Nouns vs. Uncountable Nouns**

* Countable nouns are nouns which can be counted, even if the number might be extraordinarily high (like counting all the people in the world). Countable nouns can be used with a/an, the, some, any, a few, and many.

ex. Here is a cat. Cat is singular and—obviously—countable.

ex. Here are a few cats. Here are some cats.

* Uncountable nouns are nouns that come in a state or quantity which is impossible to count; liquids are uncountable, as are things that act like liquids (sand, air). They are always considered to be singular, and can be used with some, any, a little, and much.

ex. An I.Q. test measures intelligence. Intelligence is an uncountable noun.

ex. Students don’t seem to have much homework these days.

This example refers to an unspecified, unquantifiable amount of homework, so homework is an uncountable noun.

**Possessive Nouns**

Possessive nouns are nouns which possess something; i.e., they have something. You can identify a possessive noun by the apostrophe; most nouns show the possessive with an apostrophe and an s.

ex. The cat’s toy was missing. The cat possesses the toy, and we denote this by use of ‑’s at the end of cat.

When a singular noun ends in the letter s or z, the same format often applies. This is a matter of style, however, and some style guides suggest leaving off the extra s.

ex. I have been invited to the boss’s house for dinner.

ex. Mrs. Sanchez’s coat is still hanging on the back of her chair.

Plural nouns ending in s take only an apostrophe to form a possessive.

ex. My nieces’ prom dresses were exquisite.

1. **PRONOUNS**

Pronouns are the words you substitute for specific nouns when the reader or listener knows which specific noun you’re referring to.

Pronouns make up a small subcategory of nouns. The distinguishing characteristic of pronouns is that they can be substituted for other nouns.

For instance, if you’re telling a story about your sister Sarah, the story will begin to sound repetitive if you keep repeating “Sarah” over and over again.

ex. Sarah has always loved fashion. Sarah announced that Sarah wants to go to fashion school.

(You could try to mix it up by sometimes referring to Sarah as “my sister,” but then it sounds like you’re referring to two different people.)

ex. Sarah has always loved fashion. My sister announced that Sarah wants to go to fashion school.

(Instead, you can use the pronouns she and her to refer to Sarah).

ex. Sarah has always loved fashion. She announced that she wants to go to fashion school.

You might say “Jennifer was supposed to be here at eight,” then follow it with “she’s always late; next time I’ll tell her to be here a half-hour earlier.”

Instead of saying Jennifer’s name three times in a row, you substituted she and her and your sentences remained grammatically correct. Pronouns are divided into a range of categories, and we cover them all in our guide to pronouns:

**Personal Pronouns**

There are a few different types of pronouns, and some pronouns belong to more than one category. She and her are known as personal pronouns. The other personal pronouns are I and me, you, he and him, it, we and us, and they and them. If you learned about pronouns in school, these are probably the words your teacher focused on. We’ll get to the other types of pronouns in a moment.

**Antecedents**

Pronouns are versatile. The pronoun it can refer to just about anything: a bike, a tree, a movie, a feeling. That’s why you need an antecedent. An antecedent is a noun or noun phrase that you mention at the beginning of a sentence or story and later replace with a pronoun. In the examples below, the antecedent is highlighted and the pronoun that replaces it is bolded.

ex. My family drives me nuts, but I love them. The sign was too far away for Henry to read it. Sarah said she is almost finished with the application.

In some cases, the antecedent doesn’t need to be mentioned explicitly, as long as the context is totally clear. It’s usually clear who the pronouns I, me, and you refer to based on who is speaking.

It’s also possible to use a pronoun before you mention the antecedent, but try to avoid doing it in long or complex sentences because it can make the sentence hard to follow.

ex. I love them, but my family drives me nuts.

**Relative Pronouns**

Relative pronouns make up another class of pronouns. They are used to connect relative clauses to independent clauses. Often, they introduce additional information about something mentioned in the sentence. Relative pronouns include that, what, which, who, and whom. Traditionally, who refers to people, and which and that refer to animals or things.

ex. The woman who called earlier didn’t leave a message. All the dogs that got adopted today will be loved. My car , which is nearly twenty years old, still runs well.

Whether you need commas with who, which, and that depends on whether the clause is restrictive or nonrestrictive.

**Who vs. Whom—Subject and Object Pronouns**

Now that we’ve talked about relative pronouns, let’s tackle the one that causes the most confusion: who vs. whom. Who is a subject pronoun, like I, he, she, we, and they. Whom is an object pronoun, like me, him, her, us and them. When the pronoun is the object of a verb or preposition, the object form is the one you want. Most people don’t have much trouble with the objective case of personal pronouns because they usually come immediately after the verb or preposition that modifies it.

incorrect: Please mail it to I.

correct: Please mail it to me.

incorrect: Ms. Higgins caught they passing notes.

correct: Ms. Higgins caught them passing notes.

incorrect: Is this cake for we?

correct: Is this cake for us?

Whom is trickier, though, because it usually comes before the verb or preposition that modifies it.

correct: Whom did you speak to earlier?

correct: A man, whom I have never seen before, was asking about you.

incorrect: Whom should I say is calling?

One way to test whether you need who or whom is to try substituting a personal pronoun. Find the place where the personal pronoun would normally go and see whether the subject or object form makes more sense.

Who/whom did you speak to earlier? Did you speak to he/him earlier?

A man, whom I have never seen before, was asking about you. Have I seen he/him before?

Whom should I say is calling? Should I say she/her is calling?

If the object pronoun (him or her) sounds right, use whom. If the subject pronoun (he or she) sounds right, use who.

Before we move on, there’s one more case where the choice between subject and object pronouns can be confusing. Can you spot the problem in the sentences below?

incorrect: Henry is meeting Sarah and I this afternoon. There are no secrets between you and I. It doesn’t matter to him or I.

In each of the sentences above, the pronoun I should be me. If you remove the other name or pronoun from the sentence, it becomes obvious.

incorrect: Henry is meeting I this afternoon. No one keeps secrets from I. It doesn’t matter to I.

**Demonstrative Pronouns**

That, this, these and those are demonstrative pronouns. They take the place of a noun or noun phrase that has already been mentioned.

This is used for singular items that are nearby. These is used for multiple items that are nearby. The distance can be physical or metaphorical.

correct: Here is a letter with no return address. Who could have sent this? What a fantastic idea! This is the best thing I’ve heard all day. If you think gardenias smell nice, try smelling these.

That is used for singular items that are far away. Those is used for multiple items that are far away. Again, the distance can be physical or metaphorical.

correct: A house like that would be a nice place to live. Some new flavors of soda came in last week. Why don’t you try some of those? Those aren’t swans, they’re geese.

**Indefinite Pronouns**

Indefinite pronouns are used when you need to refer to a person or thing that doesn’t need to be specifically identified. Some common indefinite pronouns are *one, other, none, some, anybody, everybody, and no one.*

correct: Everybody was late to work because of the traffic jam. It matters more to some than others. Nobody knows the trouble I’ve seen.

When indefinite pronouns function as subjects of a sentence or clause, they usually take singular verbs.

**Reflexive and Intensive Pronouns**

Reflexive pronouns end in -self or -selves: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

Use a reflexive pronoun when both the subject and object of a verb refer to the same person or thing.

correct: Henry cursed himself for his poor eyesight. They booked themselves a room at the resort. I told myself it was nothing.

**Intensive pronouns** look the same as reflexive pronouns, but their purpose is different. Intensive pronouns add emphasis.

correct: I built this house myself. Did you yourself see Loretta spill the coffee?

“I built this house” and “I built this house myself” mean almost the same thing. But “myself” emphasizes that I personally built the house—I didn’t hire someone else to do it for me. Likewise, “Did you see Loretta spill the coffee?” and “Did you yourself see Loretta spill the coffee?” have similar meanings. But “yourself” makes it clear that the person asking wants to know whether you actually witnessed the incident or whether you only heard it described by someone else.

Occasionally, people are tempted to use myself where they should use me because it sounds a little fancier. Don’t fall into that trap! If you use a -self form of a pronoun, make sure it matches one of the uses above.

incorrect: Please call Sarah or myself if you are going to be late. Loretta, Henry, and myself are pleased to welcome you to the neighborhood.

**Possessive Pronouns**

Possessive pronouns come in two flavors: limiting and absolute. *My, your, its, his, her, our, their and whose* are used to show that something belongs to an antecedent.

ex. Sarah is working on her application. Just put me back on my bike. The students practiced their presentation after school.

The absolute possessive pronouns are mine, yours, his, hers, ours, and theirs. The absolute forms can be substituted for the thing that belongs to the antecedent.

correct: Are you finished with your application? Sarah already finished hers. The blue bike is mine. I practiced my speech and the students practiced theirs.

Some possessive pronouns are easy to mix up with similar-looking contractions. Remember, possessive personal pronouns don’t include apostrophes.

**Interrogative Pronouns**

Interrogative pronouns are used in questions. The interrogative pronouns are *who, what, which, and whose.*

correct: Who wants a bag of jelly beans? What is your name? Which movie do you want to watch? Whose jacket is this?

1. **ADJECTIVES**

Adjectives are the words that describe nouns. Think about your favorite movie. How would you describe it to a friend who’s never seen it?

You might say the movie was funny, engaging, well-written, or suspenseful. When you’re describing the movie with these words, you’re using adjectives. An adjective can go right before the noun it’s describing (I have a black dog), but it doesn’t have to. Sometimes, adjectives are at the end of a sentence (my dog is black).

**What Do Adjectives Modify?**

Adjectives are words that modify nouns. They are often called **“describing words**” because they give us further details about a noun, such as what it looks like (the white horse), how many there are (the three boys) or which one it is (the last house). Adjectives do not modify verbs or other adjectives.

Most often, adjectives are easy to identify in a sentence because they fall right before the nouns they modify.

ex. The old clock hung upon the wall.

ex. A white horse galloped across the lush, green grass.

ex. Have you met our three handsome boys?

ex. Ours is the last house on the street.

In these sentences, old, white, lush, green, three, handsome, and last are all adjectives; they give us a more detailed description of the nouns they modify. An adjective might answer the mental questions, “What kind is it?” (as with an old clock, a white horse, the lush grass, the green grass, or the handsome boys), “How many are there?” (as with the three boys), or “Which one is it?” (as with the last house). Adjectives that answer the first question are descriptive adjectives. Those that answer the other two questions are limiting adjectives—they restrict or quantify a noun rather than describing it.

ex. The five ladies go to Las Vegas every year.

ex. Those flowers must go on that table.

ex. She gave the best piece to her mother.

The examples above use the limiting adjectives five (how many ladies?), every (which year/s?), those (which flowers?), that (which table?), best (which piece?) and her (whose mother?). Technically, definite articles (the) and indefinite articles (a/an) also function as limiting adjectives.

**Predicate Adjectives**

Although many adjectives fall before the nouns they modify, as in the examples above, those used in sentences or clauses with linking verbs fall after the nouns they modify. Linking verbs describe a state of being rather than an action; the most common linking verb is to be, and others include sense verbs like appear, seem, look, smell, sound, and taste.

ex. Cynthia is fatigued .

ex. Those muffins look delicious .

ex. The sunrise seemed golden .

ex. Do you think this spaghetti sauce tastes spicy ?

With linking verbs, adjectives like fatigued, delicious, golden, and spicy all fall after the nouns they modify (Cynthia, muffins, sunrise, spaghetti sauce).

1. **VERBS**

Go! Be amazing! Run as fast as you can! Win the race! Congratulate every participant for putting in the work to compete!

These bolded words are verbs. Verbs are words that describe specific actions, like running, winning, and being amazing.

Not all verbs refer to literal actions, though. Verbs that refer to feelings or states of being, like to love and to be, are known as non-action verbs. Conversely, the verbs that do refer to literal actions are known as action verbs. Types of verbs

Dynamic (action) verbs

Most verbs describe a physical action or activity, something external that can be seen or heard. These verbs are formally known as dynamic verbs, but can also be called action or event verbs.

Examples: walk, laugh, swim, play, eat, drink, sing, dance, talk, say

There are a lot of actions that take place in our minds and feelings, which are not external. Verbs that describe mental or internal actions are still dynamic verbs, but they’re not always so obvious. These include “process verbs,” which describe actions of transition.

Examples: consider, guess, change, grow, live, endure, succeed, fail

Stative (state-of-being) verbs

The opposite of dynamic verbs of action is stative verbs of being. Stative verbs describe a subject’s state or feeling, including things they like and don’t like.

Examples: want, need, prefer, love, hate, like, dislike, seem, understand, know, believe, involve, realize

**Verb Categories**

Aside from the different types, verbs also come in different categories. Dynamic, stative, and auxiliary verbs all make up the categories below.

**Transitive, intransitive, and ditransitive**

Transitive, intransitive, and ditransitive refer to how a verb acts with direct and indirect objects. A direct object is the person or thing that the action happens to, while an indirect object is the person or thing that receives the direct object.

**Active Vs. Passive Voice**

In English, the standard format where the subject performs the action is known as the active voice. However, you can switch around your words to make the direct or indirect objects the subject of the sentence, known as the passive voice. As explained in our guide to the passive voice, you can make a verb passive by adding a conjugated form of be in front of its past participle.

**Linking (copular) verbs**

A linking verb is any verb, dynamic or stative, that directly connects or “links” the sentence’s subject to other words in the sentence. For example:

ex. Garfield is a cat.

**Regular Vs. Irregular Verbs**

Verbs have different forms to show different uses, such as an action that happened in the past, or an action that happens continuously. Normally, these forms follow the same patterns of conjugation, so that you can use the same rules on all verbs. Verbs that use the normal forms are regular verbs.

Unfortunately, some verbs don’t want to play by the rules. They have their own unique forms with no patterns, specifically for the simple past tense and past participle forms. These are the notorious irregular verbs, and there are quite a few of them—including the most common verb be.

To make matters worse, the only way to learn how to use irregular verbs is to study them and all their forms. On the bright side, we explain the best ways to memorize irregular verbs. But first, you’ll want to learn the standard verb forms of the majority regular verbs below.

**Verb Forms**

Before we explain how to conjugate verbs in English, you need to understand the different forms a verb takes. This helps immeasurably when you conjugate on your own—you just need to use the right form at the right time. Keep in mind that these forms work mostly for regular verbs; irregular verbs each have their own special forms.

If you want to learn more, we have a more detailed guide on verb forms here.

| Root | 3rd Person Singular | Simple Past | Present Participle | Past Participle |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Dance (regular) | dances | danced | dancing | danced |
| Sing (irregular) | sings | sang | singing | sung |

.

**Root**

The root form is the basic form of the verb with no changes. It’s also the simple present tense for everything except the third-person singular.

**Third-person singular present**

Used with subjects like he, she, the singular they, or it, the third-person singular in the present tense just adds an -s to the end of the root form most of the time.

For verbs that end in a consonant and -y (try, carry), you remove the y and add -ies (tries, carries). If the verb ends in a vowel and -y (say, buy), you just add an -s like normal (says, buys).

Verbs that end in -ch, -sh, -x, -z, or -s add -es to the end instead of just -s. For example, watch becomes watches and kiss becomes kisses.

**Simple past**

The past tense shows an action that already happened. In most cases it’s made by adding -ed to the end of the root form, or just -d if the root form already ends in an E. However, be careful of irregular verbs—their rules for the past don’t tend to be consistent.

**Present participle**

The present participle is used for the continuous tenses to show ongoing or current action, and in more advanced English can be used for participial phrases. In most cases you simply add –ing to the end of the root form, although sometimes you have to remove an E first.

**Past participle**

The past participle is used for the perfect tenses. In regular verbs, it’s the same as the simple past tense, so there’s nothing extra to learn. However, irregular verbs often use unique past participles, so you may have to memorize their forms.

1. **ADVERBS**

An adverb is a word that describes an adjective, a verb, or another adverb. Take a look at these examples:

Here’s an example: I entered the room quietly. Quietly is describing how you entered (verb) the room.

Here’s another example: A cheetah is always faster than a lion. Always is describing how frequently a cheetah is faster (adjective) than a lion.

1. **PREPOSITIONS**

Prepositions tell you the relationship between the other words in a sentence.

Here’s an example: I left my bike leaning against the garage. In this sentence, against is the preposition because it tells us where I left my bike.

Here’s another example: She put the pizza in the oven. Without the preposition in, we don’t know where the pizza is.

1. **CONJUNCTIONS**

Conjunctions make it possible to build complex sentences that express multiple ideas.

I like marinara sauce. I like alfredo sauce. I don’t like puttanesca sauce. Each of these three sentences expresses a clear idea. There’s nothing wrong with listing your preferences like this, but it’s not the most efficient way to do it.

Consider instead: I like marinara sauce and alfredo sauce, but I don’t like puttanesca sauce.

In this sentence, and and but are the two conjunctions that link your ideas together.

1. **ARTICLES**

A pear. The brick house. An exciting experience. These bolded words are known as articles.

Like nouns, articles come in two flavors: definite articles and indefinite articles. And just like the two types of nouns, the type of article you use depends on how specific you need to be about the thing you’re discussing.

A definite article describes one specific noun, like the and this. Example: Did you buy the car?

Now swap in an indefinite article: Did you buy a car?

See how the implication is gone and you’re asking a much more general question?

**INFORMATION SHEET 1.1-2**

**PARTS OF A SENTENCE**

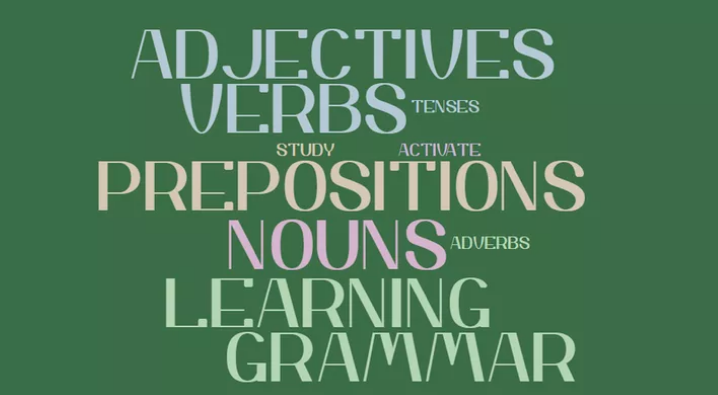
Learning Objectives

After this Information Sheet, you must be able to:

1. Learn the parts and structure of a sentence

**INTRODUCTION**

**Sentence Parts and Sentence Structures**

**** Words on a green background.

The job of grammar is to organize words into sentences, and there are many ways to do that (or we could say, "words can be organized into sentences in many different ways"). For this reason, describing how to put a sentence together isn't as easy as explaining how to bake a cake or assemble a model plane. There are no easy recipes, no step-by-step instructions. But that doesn't mean that crafting an effective sentence depends on magic or good luck.

Experienced writers know that the basic parts of a sentence can be combined and arranged in countless ways. So as we work to improve our writing, it's important to understand what these basic structures are and how to use them effectively.

We'll begin by introducing the traditional parts of speech and the most common sentence structures.

**Parts of Speech**

One way to begin studying basic sentence structures is to consider the traditional parts of speech (also called word classes): nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, articles, and interjections. Except for interjections ("ouch!"), which have a habit of standing by themselves, the parts of speech come in many varieties and may show up just about anywhere in a sentence. To know for sure what part of speech a word is, we have to look not only at the word itself but also at its meaning, position, and use in a sentence.

**Parts of a Sentence**

The basic parts of a sentence are the *subjec*t, the *verb*, and (often, but not always) *the object.*

* The subject is usually a noun — a word that names a person, place, or thing.
* The verb (or predicate) usually follows the subject and identifies an action or a state of being.
* An object receives the action and usually follows the verb.

**Adjectives and Adverbs**

A common way of expanding the basic sentence is with modifiers, words that add to the meanings of other words. The simplest modifiers are adjectives and adverbs. Adjectives modify nouns, while adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

**Prepositional Phrases**

Like adjectives and adverbs, prepositional phrases add meaning to the nouns and verbs in sentences. A prepositional phrase has two basic parts: a preposition plus a noun or a pronoun that serves as the object of the preposition.

**Basic Sentence Structure**

There are four basic sentence structures in English:

* A simple sentence is a sentence with just one independent clause (also called a main clause): Judy laughed.
* A compound sentence contains at least two independent clauses: Judy laughed and Jimmy cried.
* A complex sentence contains an independent clause and at least one dependent clause: Jimmy cried when Judy laughed.
* A compound-complex sentence contains two or more independent clauses and at least one dependent clause: Judy laughed and Jimmy cried when the clowns ran past their seats.

**Coordination**

A common way to connect related words, phrases, and even entire clauses is to coordinate them — that is, connect them with a basic coordinating conjunction such as "and" or "but."

**Adjective Clauses​**

To show that one idea in a sentence is more important than another, we rely on subordination, treating one word group as secondary (or subordinate) to another. One common form of subordination is the adjective clause, a word group that modifies a noun. The most common adjective clauses begin with one of these relative pronouns: who, which, and that.

**Appositives**

An appositive is a word or group of words that identifies or renames another word in a sentence — most often a noun that immediately precedes it. Appositive constructions offer concise ways of describing or defining a person, place, or thing.

**Adverb Clauses**

Like an adjective clause, an adverb clause is always dependent on (or subordinate to) an independent clause. Like an ordinary adverb, an adverb clause usually modifies a verb, though it can also modify an adjective, adverb, or even the rest of the sentence in which it appears. An adverb clause begins with a subordinating conjunction, an adverb that connects the subordinate clause to the main clause.

**Participial Phrases**

A participle is a verb form used as an adjective to modify nouns and pronouns. All present participles end in -ing. The past participles of all regular verbs end in -ed. Irregular verbs, however, have various past participle endings. Participles and participial phrases can add vigor to our writing, as they add information to our sentences.

**Absolute Phrases**

Among the various kinds of modifiers, the absolute phrase may be the least common but one of the most useful. An absolute phrase, which consists of a noun plus at least one other word, adds details to an entire sentence — details that often describe one aspect of someone or something mentioned elsewhere in the sentence.

**Four Functional Types of Sentences**

There are four main types of sentences that can be distinguished by their function and purpose:

* A declarative sentence makes a statement: Babies cry.
* An interrogative sentence poses a question: Why do babies cry?
* An imperative sentence gives instructions or expresses a request or demand: Please be quiet.
* An exclamatory sentence expresses strong feelings by making an exclamation: Shut up!

**Subject of a Sentence**

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*.

Examples of subjects in sentences include the words seen in bold below:

* Kelly walked down the street. (Kelly is a noun)
* They went to school. (They is a pronoun)
* The black cat slept all day. (The black cat is a noun phrase)

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.

* *Simple subject* - Kate is a nice 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.

Notice that the subject comes before the verb in each sentence (is, made, joined). No matter how long the subject is, it is always the noun performing the object.

**Predicate of a Sentence**

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.

* Kelly walked down the street. (What did Kelly do?)
* They went to school. (What did they do?)
* The black cat slept all day. (What did the black cat do?)

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. They often have several parts in addition to the verb, including objects and complements.

**Optional Parts of a Sentence**

Now that you know the two main parts of a sentence, take a look at how optional elements work. These elements include *objects, complements and modifiers.*

**Direct and Indirect Objects**

Objects are noun phrases that are included in the predicate. Direct objects are the things being acted upon by the verb. They answer questions that begin with what.

* Susan bought the gift. (What did Susan buy?)
* He wrote a letter. (What he write?)
* The boy threw the ball. (What did the boy throw?)

Indirect objects include more information about the person or thing towards which the action is directed. They answer the questions that begin with who.

* Susan bought him the gift. (Who did Susan buy the gift for?)
* He wrote me a long letter. (Who did he write a letter to?)
* The boy threw his mother the ball. (Who did he throw the ball to?)

You can also rephrase these sentences so that the indirect object appears after the direct object in a prepositional phrase. For example, "Susan bought the gift for him" is also a correct way to state the sentence.

**Subject and Object Complements**

In predicates that use linking verbs rather than action verbs, nouns following the verb are known as complements. Complements can be nouns, noun phrases, pronouns, or adjectives. Subject complements, also known as predicate nominatives, modify the subject by describing it further.

* I am a mother.
* The cat was the laziest creature.
* The woman is blonde.

Object complements function the same way, but for the object of the sentence instead. They follow transitive verbs, which express action performed toward an object.

* I named my son Carson. (The noun Carson complements the object son)
* The cat considers me his servant. (The noun phrase his servant complements the object me)
* The woman dyed her hair blonde. (The adjective blonde complements the object her hair)

These complements help to explain more in a sentence. You can see how they fit into a sentence when you practice sentence diagramming.

**INFORMATION SHEET 1.1-3**

**KINDS OF SENTENCE**

Learning Objectives

After this Information Sheet, you must be able to:

**INTRODUCTION**

**KINDS OF SENTENCE**



Every sentence is unique. That’s a declarative sentence.

But what makes every sentence unique? That’s an interrogative sentence.

When you understand each unique type of sentence, you’ll become a stronger writer. That’s a conditional sentence.

Understanding the different sentence types and how they function together in your writing is more than just recognizing them. Read on to learn more about how the different sentence types operate, how to structure them, and how to make sure you’re using them correctly.

That last one was an imperative sentence.

**Types of Sentence Based on Function**

Sentences can be classified in two ways: based on their function and based on their structure. When you describe a sentence based on its function, you’re describing it based on what it does.

1. **DECLARATIVE**

A declarative sentence is a sentence that:

* Makes a statement
* Provides an explanation
* Conveys one or more facts

Declarative sentences are among the most common sentences in the English language. You use them every day. They end with periods.

Here are a few examples of declarative sentences:

* I forgot to wear a hat today.
* Your pizza is doughy because you didn’t cook it long enough.
* Spiders and crabs are both members of the arthropod family.

1. **INTERROGATIVE**

An interrogative sentence is a sentence that asks a question, like:

* How many pet iguanas do you have?
* May I sit here?
* Aren’t there enough umbrellas to go around?

One hallmark of interrogative sentences is that they usually begin with pronouns or auxiliary verbs. When this kind of sentence does start with the subject, it’s usually in colloquial speech. For example:

* He went there again?
* Rats can’t swim, right?

1. **EXCLAMATORY**

Much like an interrogative question ends with a question mark, an exclamatory sentence ends with an exclamation mark. These sentences communicate heightened emotion and are often used as greetings, warnings, or rallying cries. Examples include:

* Hey!
* High voltage! Do not touch!
* This is Sparta!

The only difference between a declarative sentence and an exclamatory one is the punctuation at the end. But that punctuation makes a big difference in how the reader or listened interprets the sentence. Consider the difference between these:

* It’s snowing.
* It’s snowing!

1. **IMPERATIVE**

An imperative sentence is a sentence that gives the reader advice, instructions, a command or makes a request.

An imperative sentence can end in either a period or an exclamation point, depending on the urgency of the sentiment being expressed. Imperative sentences include:

* Get off my lawn!
* After the timer dings, take the cookies out of the oven.
* Always pack an extra pair of socks.

With an imperative sentence, the subject is generally omitted because the reader understands they’re the one being addressed.

1. **CONDITIONAL**

Conditional sentences are sentences that discuss factors and their consequences in an if-then structure. Their structure is:

Conditional clause (typically known as the if-clause) + consequence of that clause.

A basic example of a conditional sentence is:

* When you eat ice cream too fast, you get brain freeze.

Getting more specific, that sentence is an example of a zero conditional sentence. There are actually four types of conditional sentences, which we cover in detail (and explain which tense to use with each) in our post on conditional sentences.

**Types Of Sentence Based On Structure**

The other way to categorize sentences is to classify them based on their structure. Each of the types of sentences discussed above also fits into the categories discussed below.

**SIMPLE**

A simple sentence is the most basic type of sentence. This kind of sentence consists of just one independent clause, which means it communicates a complete thought and contains a subject and a verb.

A few examples of simple sentences include:

* How are you?
* She built a garden.
* We found some sea glass.

A simple sentence is the smallest possible grammatically correct sentence. Anything less is known as a sentence fragment.

**COMPLEX**

In contrast to a simple sentence, a complex sentence contains one independent clause and at least one dependent clause. While an independent clause can be its own sentence, a dependent clause can’t. Dependent clauses rely on the independent clauses in their sentences to provide context.

Dependent clauses appear after a conjunction or marker word or before a comma. Marker words are words like whenever, although, since, while, and before. These words illustrate relationships between clauses.

The following are complex sentences:

* Before you enter my house, take off your shoes.
* Matt plays six different instruments, yet never performs in public.

**COMPOUND**

Compound sentences are sentences that contain two or more independent clauses. In a compound sentence, the clauses are generally separated by either a comma paired with a coordinating conjunction or a semicolon. In some cases, they can be separated by a colon.

Examples of compound sentences include:

* I was thirsty, so I drank water.
* She searched through her entire closet; she could not find her denim jacket.

How can you tell if you have a compound sentence? Swap out your semicolon, colon, or coordinating conjunction for a period. If you now have two distinct, complete sentences, you’ve got a compound sentence.

**COMPOUND-COMPLEX**

When a sentence has two or more independent clauses and at least one dependent clause, that sentence is a compound-complex sentence. These are long sentences that communicate a significant amount of information. The clauses don’t need to be in any specific order; as long as you’ve got at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause, you’ve got a compound-complex sentence.

Here are a few examples of compound-complex sentences:

* I needed a new computer, so I got a laptop because they’re portable.
* The students were excited; they could go home early because of the power outage.