Acknowledgements

Materials written and compiled by Elizabeth Topa.

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# Unit outline

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Section 1: Introduction

**What is grammar?**

‘Grammar is a way of how a language works to make meaning within a particular culture.’ B. Derewianka

Grammar is language and that in turn is part of life. Language is used for getting on with the business and pleasure of life, for interacting with other people and for creating and making sense of our whole experience. Grammar is the central organising system for all the meaning making resources in a language, and it really consists of a series of options - a system of choices for making meaning. When we use our language we are inevitably using its grammar. Grammar holds a central place in language because everything else is related to it and can be affected by it. These are the levels of organization found in any language. It starts with the systems of meaning, which reflects the purposes for which we use language and the functions which it fulfils. At the bottom are the resources for writing, such as punctuation and spelling.
It is essential to clarify terms also used in grammatical context.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Syntax</strong></th>
<th>is the study of larger structure like sentences, clauses, and phrases</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Morphology</strong></td>
<td>is the grammar of word formation and parts of words.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Phonetics</strong></td>
<td>is the sounds in a word.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Phonology</strong></td>
<td>applies to the sound systems of a language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Semantics</strong></td>
<td>deals with the meanings of language.</td>
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**Grammar in context**

Because recent language teaching developments have shown that language teaching is influenced by functional approach- how language enables us to do things in our daily lives, we will work from a functional grammar view. That is grammar used in context for making meaning in text. How texts work beyond the level of the sentence, how different texts are structured and how language varies to suit the purpose of the users.

We use language for different purposes in the various contexts of our daily lives. For each of these purposes we use language differently, and this becomes evident in the choices of grammar and vocabulary we use. The choices of language are shaped by the context and purpose.

Functional grammar principles are now the bases for the language syllabuses in the PNG primary schools.

**Levels of grammar**

**Text**

Modern grammar now recognises how grammar extends beyond the sentences and can operate at the whole text level. At the text level, we find grammatical patterns, which are related to a particular text type (e.g. the use of commands in a procedure, the use of actions verbs in a recount, the use of abstract nouns in an exposition, the use of dialogue in a narrative). We also find certain features which serve to link a text together: cohesive devices such as pronouns, words which show relationship within a text (e.g. synonyms, repeated words,), words which signal how the text is structured (eg Firstly …; On the one hand …).

**Sentences**

A text is made up of a number of sentences. Sentences can consist of a single clause or a number of clauses joined together. A sentence may be a statement, a question, or a command. Students need to know how to combine clause and how to show the relationship between a clauses in a sentence.

**Clause**

A clause is a unit of meaning which expresses a message. It must contain a verb. The clause is often seen as the basic unit for analysing a language.
Phrase
A clause consists of smaller ‘chunks’ or groups of words, which do certain jobs. At the core is the verb group (e.g. was playing). Involved in this action might be one or more persons or things, represented by a noun group (e.g. ‘the frisky white piglet was playing’). There might also be some extra information in the form of an adverbial phrase (e.g. ‘The frisky white piglet was playing in the garden’).

Word
Groups and phrases can be divided into individual words. In a noun group, for example, we might find an article, an adjective and a noun (e.g. the timid cuscus). It is important to see how individual words function within a group so that students can see how the words relate to each other.

2.3 Activity 1
In groups select a text-Recount, Reports, Explanation to be placed on a chart. Identify the different levels of text
Section 2: The Parts of Speech

**Nouns**

What is a noun?
Nouns are names of person, place and thing.
Nouns answer the question ‘Who?’ or ‘What?’

For example: **Jane** is a **girl**.

The **crowd** is moving away.

**Happiness** is **something** we feel.

**Types of nouns**

1. **Common nouns**
   Common noun is the name of any ordinary thing you can see and touch.

   For example: apple, mountain, beach, man, bell, flower, desk, bucket, garden, house, hat, cat, paper

2. **Proper nouns**
   Proper noun is the name of a person, place or thing. Proper nouns begin with capital letters.

   For example: Paul, Mr Kiera, Christmas, Monday, Mazda, Easter, July, Mt. Hagen, Captain Mek, Boroko, Renbo, Dr Kaip

3. **Collective nouns**
   Collective nouns refer to a group of people or things.

   For example: bunch, class, group, choir, family, staff, swarm, team, buddle, crew, council, flock, group of students, herd of cows, team of players
4. **Abstract nouns**
Abstract noun refers to things such as ideas or concepts, or feelings which cannot be touched or seen.

For example: multiplication memory love honesty beauty democracy kindness genre sadness angry Christianity hypothesis greed hungry happy

5. **Compound nouns**
Compound nouns refer to when two existing words (or more) combine to make a new word.

For example: partners in crime green house civil rights social studies birds of prey dry-cleaning tea-bag baby sitter brother-in-law human race resources second hand mother tongue fast food hard worker baked beans

6. **Uncountable nouns**
Nouns which refer to things which are seen as uncountable mass (cannot count). Uncountable nouns generally represent qualities, substance, and abstract notions.

For example: happiness politics water snow air homework information research butter hair rice Intelligence furniture respect traffic advice sand

Some nouns can be both countable and uncountable

For example: five cakes some cake

---

**2.3 Activity 2**

*Study the texts below and see how the nouns above are used to make meaning. Identify the different nouns in the text*
Talk

Talk is the principal product of the world. It is divided into plain, loud, big, back, double, idle, and just. It is said in every language known to man and, of course to woman. It comes out of loudspeakers, professional speakers, after-dinner speakers and plain windbags. It is a means of communication, explanation, exaggeration, and prevarication.

F. Milahic in Quips

Bottle of coins

Somewhere in Mumeng there is a bottle of coins buried under a house. It’s a lollipop bottle. It’s full of money.

The money was my grandfather’s pay for working with the German missionaries before the war. My grandmother saved all his pay in that bottle. She buried it under the house to keep it safe. There were no banks in those days.

When the war came they packed up everything and went to Lae. But nobody thought about the money. My grandmother said no one else knows about the hiding place.

It must still be there.

By Joycelyn Leahy in School Journal.

2.3 Activity 3

As a class select a text already in your classroom and identify the different types of nouns in that text.

Discuss the text type being used.

Identify the different nouns in the following text.
More about nouns

**Suffixes**
Nouns can be formed by adding suffixes to a verb or an adjective.

For example:

- verb + ment = *movement*
- verb + er / or = *writer, director*
- verb + ion = *administration*
- adjective + ness = *happiness*
Singular / plural

Nouns can refer to a single thing (singular) or a number of things (plural). In forming the plural we generally add a suffix.

1. To make a noun plural, we generally add 's' to the end of the noun (eg boys, girls, toys).

2. Noun ends in a consonant followed by-y, the plural drops the –y and add –ies (pony ponies, story stories, lady ladies).

3. Noun ends in –x, –s, –ss, –sh, –ch, or –z then we add –es (fox foxes, bus buses, brush brushes, branch branches, quiz quizzes).

4. Noun ending in –f or –fe form their plural in two ways. They change the –f to –ves (eg half, halves, wife wives,) while others simply take –s (eg beliefs, chiefs, proofs and roofs).

5. Nouns ending in –o make the plural in two ways. They add simply add –s (photos, kilos, videos, radios, stereos) or add –es (eg tomato tomatoes, potato potatoes).

6. Some singular nouns change their vowels to form the plural (eg man men).

7. Some change their consonants as well (eg mouse mice).

Note: Always check the different spellings of plurals in your dictionary.

2.3 Activity 4

In the following text identify the different nouns.

Turn the text in its singular form to plural form.

What type of text is it?

How could you help the child to write the appropriate genre?
The Lazy Frog

Once upon a time there lived a big ugly frog. He was very greedy and very mean to the other small animals. He was lazy and wanted the other small animal to bring food for him every day. One day the snake, the lizard, and the fleas planned to kill the greedy frog. In the evening all the animal came to give their food to the frog but the flies didn’t come. When the flies asked the frog, the frog was singing and sitting on a leaf. The frog was very angry with the flies. The frog began to chase the flies or once the snake coiled around the frog and the lizard started to fight the frog with his tail saying don’t be greedy okay! The frog was badly injured. That day onwards, he was never greedy again and was never mean to others.
**Pronoun**

What is a pronoun?

A pronoun is a word that is used in place of a noun (e.g. Tina is reading. She is reading Mauswara Frog). Instead of constantly repeating nouns they can be replaced with pronouns. There are different kinds of pronouns.

The main types of pronouns are personal, possessive, relative, and interrogative

1. **Personal pronouns**

   Personal pronouns are used to refer to the person who is speaking (the first person). The person being spoken to (the second person) and the person/thing being spoken about (the third person). They can refer to one person or thing (singular) or more than one (plural).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Object</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Object</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st person (speaking)</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd person (spoken to)</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person (spoken of)</td>
<td>he</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   They can also be the:

   1. subject of the verb, that is, the person doing the thing (eg I heard the news yesterday). or
   2. object of the verb i.e. the person/thing receiving the action (eg Susan told me the whole story. She told the whole story.) or

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>took</td>
<td>the book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>rang</td>
<td>the school bell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>dug up</td>
<td>the soil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>made</td>
<td>a big mumu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   3. object of a preposition (eg She sat beside me in class.).

2. **Possessive pronouns**

   Possessive pronouns replace a noun to indicate ownership e.g. That’s not her book, it’s mine.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st person (speaking)</td>
<td>mine</td>
<td>ours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd person (spoken to)</td>
<td>yours</td>
<td>yours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person (spoken of)</td>
<td>His / her</td>
<td>theirs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.3 Activity 5

In the following story there are some personal and possessive pronouns. Identify them with your peer.

Work with your peer to identify the subject and objects of some sentences. Produce a text which has different possessive pronouns.

Who Owns The Ball? By Annabella Topa
Grade 8. HTDS.

It was time to begin afternoon classes. Mrs Marah was already in class preparing chalkboard when she heard shouting coming from outside the front door.

"Hey! that's mine," cried Josh. "No! it's not yours, it's mine," replied Solo.

They were fighting over a ball outside the classroom. The children crowded in to see what was happening. Two children who were twins saw the ball and the girl walked towards the struggling boys and said, "That ball is ours. Our dad bought that ball for us. It's not yours. Will you return it to us, please. It's got our initials on, Check it."

When the teacher heard this she said, "Give the ball to the twins, it's theirs." "And I want everybody back in class now," she commanded.
3. Relative pronoun

The main relative pronouns are **who**, **whom**, **whose**, **that** and **which**. Who and whom refer to persons. Who is the subject and whom is the object. For example:

- The boy **who** lives next door... (subject of verb)
- The person **whom** I spoke to... (object of verb)
- The person to **whom** she gave the letters... (object of preposition)

The relative pronoun that and which refer to people, animals, places, or things. For example:

- You catch the bus **which** goes in ten minutes time.
- You catch the train **that** arrives in ten minutes.
- The door **which** was broken ...

4. Question pronouns / interrogative pronouns

**Who**, **whom**, **whose**, **what** and **which** are used in asking a 'wh' question (eg Who knows the answer? To whom did you send? What can you see?).

5. Demonstrative pronoun

Demonstrative pronouns stand for and refer to a noun. Demonstrative pronouns are **that**, **this**, **those** and **these**. For example:

- **Those** are library books. **That** is my biro. **This** is my book.

If a demonstrative pronoun is preceded by a noun it becomes a demonstrative adjective (eg **That** hat is mine.).

6. Other pronouns

**Reflexive pronoun**

Examples of reflexive pronouns are **myself**, **ourself**, **yourself**, **himself**, **herself** and **themselves** (eg He hurt **himself**).

**Indefinite pronoun**

Examples of indefinite pronouns are **anybody**, **anything**, **nobody**, **somebody**, **nothing**, **something**, **everybody** and **none** (eg **Nothing** is left of the lunch.).

**Distributive pronoun**

Examples of distributive pronouns are **each**, **every**, **either** and **neither** (eg **Each** has its own tag.).

**Reciprocal pronoun**

Examples of reciprocal pronouns are **each other**, **one another** and **the other** (eg You must tell **each other**.).
2.3 Activity 6

Identify and name the different pronouns in the following texts.

Produce a Recount that has different types of pronouns in them.

---

**Turtle Eggs**

Koa and Voa are two brothers who live at Raroraro village. The village is along the coast with white sandy beaches. One Morning the two brothers went for a walk along the beach. They decided to wander away from their village.

As they walked along the beach they saw a turtle. The turtle was busy digging a hole in the sand to hide her eggs. She laid her eggs and went back to the sea. Koa ran quickly to where the turtle had laid her eggs.

He started digging up the eggs. He told his brother that turtle eggs were delicious. As Koa was digging up the eggs Voa shouted at him to stop digging. Voa ran to Koa and told him that if they eat the eggs now there will be no more eggs in the future.

*By Bernadette Aihi Env. Studies*

---

**Whose was out there in the dark**

It was dark and quiet. Everyone in the house was fast asleep. Something woke me up. I heard a twig break. Who or what was out there? I walked quietly to the window, moved the curtains to look outside. Then I saw them. They were talking to each other in low voices. Each had a bag in their hand.

What was in the bag? Who were they? I walked very quietly to where uncle was sleeping and woke him up. His torch was on the table beside his bed. We walked to the door and quietly opened it. When we were facing the men he immediately shone his torch. We caught them red-handed. They were Paul and Tiptip. They had gone to collect the bananas from the garden so that they could catch the bus early to the mumu. By then everybody was awake.
Adjectives

What is an adjective?
Adjectives are describing words. Adjectives describe a noun or a pronoun (e.g. She is pretty. A small tree. The big oak tree.). See Appendix 1 for information on adjectives. Generally adjectives are included within the noun phrase, though they can also be used after relating verbs. For example:

1. She is tired.
2. The teacher was exhausted.
3. Mother goose felt sick.
4. Sport was organised.

(Note: See relating verbs in the Verb Section)

There are many types of adjectives.

1. Descriptive / factual adjectives
Descriptive adjectives tell us about the quality of a person or thing. These attributes can be verified, measured, and agreed upon as true. These attributes the thing possesses: size, age, shape, colour and other qualities. For example:

   The cuscus have a furry body with sharp claws.

   Some have black fur while others have brown fur.

   They have big eyes.

Other Factual adjectives which are technical and /or abstract include:

nutritious food, a contagious, nitrogen-rich soil, a reasonable suggestion,
the subtle difference, a critical review, a honest answer, a sad story

2. Possessive adjectives
These adjectives show possession. Possessives tell us who owns something. Possessives adjectives must be attached to a noun. Possessive adjectives are sometimes called pronoun adjectives or pronominal adjectives or possessive determiners.

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<td>your</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person (spoken of)</td>
<td>his / her / its</td>
<td>their</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The following rules show how possessives are formed

1. To make a singular noun possessive, add 's e.g. a dog's life; Brooke's bag; the boy's leg.
2. If the noun ends in s, you can simply put an apostrophe e.g. James' car (though sometimes this is written as James's car)
3. If the noun is plural, put an apostrophe after the s e.g. the birds' nests, the students' lunches
4. If the plural is an irregular one (and does not end in s) add 's e.g. the women's toilets, some children's hair

Look at the example. See how the possessive adjectives are used in the text.

One afternoon the children came home with their catch. Nikint's fish was very big. Waka's was a small fish with sharp nose. Nikint shouted as he walked through the door, "Look at my fish, mum". I looked at his fish which certainly was big. "My fish is bigger than Waka's fish, mum." "Do you want me to cook your fish?" I asked the boys.

No School Tomorrow

It was two o'clock in the afternoon. Tasi, his brother Silta and his three friends Norman, Morris and Boas had just finished drinking their kulau and sat down to rest. Tasi remembered what his father had told him before coming to school.

"There is going to be a storm tomorrow," Tasi told his friends. "must not go to school"

"How do you know?" asked Morris.

"My father heard the news on the radio" replied Tasi

"What did they say on the radio?" interrupted Boas

"Listen my friends," continued Tasi, "There will be strong wind and rain. This means that there will be floods and we will not be able to cross the river. Branches of trees by the roadside could fall on us. We must not go to school."

"There will be a Maths test tomorrow. I don't want to miss the test" said Silta.

"And tomorrow is our sports day too. Last week my team was defeated because I was sick but tomorrow I am ready to beat them," said Norman.

"Me too," agreed Boas.

by Rachael Sivatevi Konaka

3. Quality adjectives

Quality adjectives tell us about how many, how much, and in which order. These are sometimes referred to as qualifiers or number adjectives.

There are two main types of quality adjectives: cardinal and ordinal. Cardinal refers to the quantity of things (e.g. Three bags full, four little hens, my two sons, a hundred eyes). Ordinal refers to the order,(e.g. the first time, the third place, the sixth by-law, the fifth motion).
Other quantity adjectives

a lot of   a little   no   neither   enough   many   most   other
much       both      either    each     every    little    certain   any
a few      several   numerous  various  some     another

4. Demonstrative adjectives
Demonstrative adjectives tell us which specific thing is being referred to in terms of its distance in space and time. **This, that, these** and **those** are demonstrative adjectives in the following sentences.

**This** pencil is mine.
**These** shoes are mine.
Do you want this pen or **that** one.
How much are **those** laplaps.

**That** pencil is yours
**Those** shoes are yours.
**These** batteries don’t work.
Look out for **that** boy.

5. Interrogative adjectives
These adjectives ask questions. **Which, what** and **whose** are interrogative adjectives in the following sentences:

**Which** animal made that sound?
**What** make of plane is that?
**Whose** friend is waiting?

6. Participles verbal adjectives
Some words which may be verbs can act like adjectives (e.g. They went on a **working** trip. The teacher saw a **falling** star.).

◆ 2.3 Activity 7
Use a text selected by your lecturer and identify all the different types of adjectives.
Write a descriptive text of your best friend using as many adjectives as you can.
Identify the different adjectives in the following text.
The big black police dog lashed out at the angry crowd as they pushed their way towards the highly secure Mt Hagen Westpac bank. A big foolish man attempted to throw a small stone at the rather half-starved police dog. The big hungry dog lashed out at the man throwing him onto the dirty footpath. Some onlookers took it as a big joke and laughed to see the fallen man and angry dog wrestling in the dirty foot path. The silly man had the most frightening look you could imagine after he freed himself from the mouth dripping dog.

One day my best friend and I went to Mendi town. The one-street town was very crowded. There were people everywhere. Some people wearing long orange robes were talking while a large crowd was listening to them. In front of the first and only big shop a black- coated man said. “These shoes, plates, and shirts are going at discount sale”.

Someone asked, “What brand are those black shoes? Someone in the crowd shouted, “Whose things are you trying to sale?” another added.

**Verbs**

What is a verb?

A verb generally refers to an action or state. With younger children we can use ‘doing word’. Verbs can consist of a single word (eg I wrote a letter.) or a number of words (eg He should have been moving the books.).

Types of verbs

When we are interested in how language functions to represent the world, we look at how different verbs are involved in expressing different aspects of our experience.

1. **Action verbs**

Action verbs generally refer to physical actions which can be observed. They refer to the ‘doings’ and ‘happenings’. Action verbs are common in recounts and in procedures.

Examples of action verbs in recounts are:

Daniel **walked** towards the house.  
He **opened** the door.

She **smiled** at her dad.  
He **picked** up little Ennie.

The children **moved** towards the door when they saw him.

Examples of action verbs in a procedural text are:

**Put** the soil in the container.  
**Add** water to the soil.

**Mix** the soil and water together.
2. Saying verbs
Saying verbs are used when experience is reported through someone else’s words. Saying verbs are found most commonly in stories where we get to know the characters by the way they speak. Examples are:

“You are not coming!” stammered Maia. "I’m sure." Tina whispered.

Saying verbs are also important in newspaper articles where people say things (or promised or threatened, or implied, or announced).

HOLY Trinity Teachers’ College is calling on the Western Highlands community to cooperate with its students and teachers to ensure they complete the academic year without interruptions.

The call comes after the tertiary institution near Mt Hagen city was faced with disruptions caused by criminals who broke into the school, several times, stealing food and other items over the last few weeks.

The rising number of break-ins: is also taken as a threat to staff and student security.

Acting college principal Brother Raphael Reyes said food containers worth close to K6000 were, stolen by criminals over the past two weeks.

"Such incidents not only disrupt classes but is causing a lot of instability and puts the security of individual staff and students at a greater risk We would like to call upon the Western Highlands community to co-operate with us to ensure the college continues its academic activities." Brother Reyes said.

He said the college had lodged complaints but police have not started investigations as most of the Police were in the Southern Highlands for the supplementary elections.

He said students are still upset and tried to boycott classes but said they were calmed, down by local village leaders and Mt Hagen Lord Mayor Dominic Yalga.

Mr Yalga has promised to put up tight security and monitoring systems in the college.

2.3 Activity 8

Write a recount or a procedure using action verbs
Write a recount where a lot of saying verbs are used.
Construct a news article where saying verbs are used.
3. Sensing verbs

Sensing verbs describe human thoughts, opinions, beliefs, feelings, and so on. Sensing verbs can be featured in arguments and discussions texts (eg It is thought that … I believe that …) where we are interested in peoples ideas.

Sensing verbs can give us an insight into the characters of a story by describing what is going on in their mind. They are often used when characters reflect or evaluate on what is happening in the story.

"I wish the monstrous crow would come!" thought Alice.

"There's only one sword, you know," said Tweedledum to his brother; "but you can have the umbrella - it's quite as sharp. Only we must begin quick. It's getting as dark as it can."

It was getting dark so suddenly that Alice thought there must be a thunderstorm coming on. "What a thick black cloud that is!" she said. "And how fast it comes!

Why, I do believe it's got wings! ... Alice ran a little way into the wood, and stopped under a large tree. "It can never get me here," she thought. "But I wish it wouldn't flap its wings so."

By this time it was getting light. "The crow must have flown away, I think," said Alice; "I'm so glad it's gone. I thought it was the night coming on." "I wish I could manage to be that glad!" the Queen said. "Only I never can remember the rule. You must be very happy, living in this wood, and being glad whenever you like!".

Lewis Carroll

4. Relating verbs

Some verbs simply link two pieces of information. They may be referred to as linking verbs or relational processes or linking verbs.

Most common relating verbs are ‘to be’ and ‘to have’. These are found in information reports and descriptions, where the emphasis is on providing information about something.

The relating verb might link two noun phrases.

(Note: See section on adjectives.)
Or it might link a noun group to an adjectival:

```
Fishing boats are powerful
```

```
The boat ramp is in Kokopo
```

Some relating verbs show the relationship between two things (e.g. The girls become good friends. The taro tastes bad. The sky grew darker.).

**Note:** A related type of verb is where there is no action or relationship being described, simply a state (e.g. There is a hole in your jeans. There was nothing to do.).

**Tense**

Tense tells us about time-when an action takes place. The verb phrase tells us whether something is happening in the present, the past or the future.

1. **Present tense**

Most English verbs have two present tenses: the present simple and the present continuous (or present progressive).

**Present simple**

Present simple is generally formed using a single word. For example:

I cook everyday. They like chips.
She has an headache. Peter is sick today.
We like basketball. I am fine now.

**Present continuous**

Present continuous is formed by using a helping verb (the auxiliary verb ‘to be’) and present participle (ending in -ing).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Helping Verb</strong> (Auxiliary)</th>
<th><strong>Present Participle</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>were</td>
<td>finishing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>are</td>
<td>hoping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>am</td>
<td>doing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>having</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>are</td>
<td>taking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.3 Activity 9

_Construct an information report._

- Identify the action verbs used in your report.
- Construct a procedural text.
- Identify the different verbs.

2. Past tense

There are several past tenses in English. Three most common are past simple, past continuous, and past perfect.

Past simple

Past simple is generally formed by adding -ed to the stem of the verb:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem of Verb</th>
<th>Past Simple</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>walk</td>
<td>walked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>visit</td>
<td>visited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>work</td>
<td>worked</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the verb stem ends in -e, simply add -d:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>Past Simple</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>use</td>
<td>used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decide</td>
<td>decided</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the verb ends in a stressed vowel + consonant, double the consonant and add -ed:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>Past Simple</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>plan</td>
<td>planned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prefer</td>
<td>preferred</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the verb ends in a consonant + -y, change the y to an i and add -ed:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>Past Simple</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>study</td>
<td>studied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>try</td>
<td>tried</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are also irregular verbs in the past simple tense.
Some examples of irregular verbs in the past simple:

- **be**  →  **was**  **were**
- **begin**  →  **began**
- **break**  →  **broke**
- **bring**  →  **brought**
- **buy**  →  **bought**
- **catch**  →  **caught**
- **know**  →  **knew**
- **learn**  →  **learnt / learned**
- **lend**  →  **lent**
- **make**  →  **made**
- **run**  →  **ran**
- **say**  →  **said**

**Past continuous**
The past continuous tense is formed by using the past tense of a helping verb the auxiliary verb ‘to be’ - **was/ were** plus the present participle.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Helping Verb (Auxiliary)</th>
<th>Present Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>was</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>was</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she</td>
<td>was</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>were</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Past perfect tense**
The perfect tense is formed by using the helping verb ‘to have’ plus the past participle.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Helping Verb (Auxiliary)</th>
<th>Present Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>has</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she</td>
<td>has</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>have</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Other past tenses**
There are other variations on the above tense which are used to express subtle differences about when an action took place.

- **Perfect continuous**
  I have been waiting now for an hour.

- **Past perfect**
  I had told him that I would wait.

- **Past perfect continuous**
  I had been waiting for two hours when he finally arrived.
2.3 Activity 10

Underline all the verbs in the text.
What tense is the text in.
Change the verbs to past tense.

Pora is a very good athlete. Whenever sports is organised in her village she likes to play. She always wins. Pora is representing her village in the town races. All her family feel proud and hope that she will win. Her two brothers, her father and her sister go with her. Pora is happy they are going to watch her run. At the starting line Pora sees many girls. Some are from town schools and have proper running shoes on. Pora feels scared even though she has never lost a race before.

The race begins and all the girls are running very fast. Pora feels like stopping because she is getting tired. But she does not give up. She runs faster and faster. When the race is almost over Pora is in second place. The girl from town, wearing the shoes is leading. Pora’s whole body hurts but she keeps going. In the very last steps, Pora uses all her energy and gets in front of the other girl. She wins the race. Everybody claps and cheers. Pora’s family is very proud.

3. Future tense
The future tense is formed by using the helping verb ‘will’ plus the main verb:

We will be on holidays in December.
I will do your work then.
I will be home by 5 pm every day.
We will also finish the gardens during the holidays.

Other ways of referring to the future in English.
I am seeing Mel on Monday.
We leave at six tomorrow
I am going to see Poiya afterwards.
I’m about to leave.

1. Modals
Modals give information about the degree of obligation or certainty involved in the action. If we feel a bit tentative about doing something, we can use low modality (eg I might go. He could be angry. You may want to look into it.).

If you want to express a high degree of certainty, we use high modality (eg We must go. He will be angry. You ought to look into it.).
2. **Negative verb forms**

Verbs can also be made negative. Negatives are formed by generally inserting the (auxiliary) helping verb.

For example: “I **will not repeat** myself since they **have not remembered** anything I said last time! This **must not happen** next time. You **are not doing** what you are told,” shouted the teacher.

With tense which do not have a helping verb we need to insert the verb ‘do/does’ when forming the negative (eg I **play** the guitar. He **does not play** the guitar. She **likes** reading. I **do not like** reading.).

Negatives, of course, can be contracted. For example:

- They have not remembered – They haven’t remembered.
- He does not like bananas. – He doesn’t like bananas.
- They did not come home. – They didn’t come home.

The contraction of the negative in the future tense is irregular. For example:

- She will not eat her lunch. – She won’t eat her dinner.

3. **Singular / plural verbs**

If the subject is singular the verb must be singular. If the subject is plural, the verb must be plural (eg The girl dances. The girl’s dance. / The student sings. The students sing.).

See verb group in ‘Texts’ in Appendix 2.

**Adverbs**

Adverbs generally consist of a single word. Adverbs are often formed by adding – *ly* to the end of an adjective.

Note: When the adjective ends in-y change the ‘y’ to ‘i’ before adding ‘ly’.

**Types of adverbs**

1. **Manner**
   How an action is done. They modify verbs (eg I ran quickly. She ate hurriedly. Mek moved swiftly.).

2. **Time**
   When an action is done (eg I ran yesterday. They came early. She gave her language lecture today.).

3. **Place**
   Where something is done (eg I ran there. Nambau worked indoors. Ennie went away.).

4. **Cause**
   Why something is done (eg I was late thus I missed the information given about the assignment.).
Other functions of adverbs
Adverbs can modify adjectives (e.g. His face was very red. I was a little scared. They were terribly tired. I was more worried.).
Note: See Appendix 3 for adverbs.

Adverbial phrases
Adverbial phrases consist of a group of words generally beginning with a preposition. Prepositions are generally single words (e.g. in, under, on, up) but can sometimes be multiple words (e.g. on top of, in front of). Examples of sentences with adverbial phrases are:

The children were playing in the water.
They heard their father calling in an angry voice.
The children came out of the water and ran towards their father.
Behind him was a little boy with his mother ...

Apart from providing information about the circumstance surrounding the action, adverbial phrases have other functions such as:

Indicating the speaker's attitude (e.g. in my opinion, you're making a mistake).
Adding emphasis (e.g. Above all don’t believe everything he says.).

Note: See Appendix 3 for adverbials and adverbs.

Adverbial roles
Main function of adverbs and adverbial phrases is to tell us more about (modifying) the verb.

He ran towards the field.

Apart from adding meaning to the verb adverbials can take on other roles in the clause.

1. Modifying an adjective
I was a little scared.

2. Modifying another adverb
She talks very much more openly these days.

3. Modifying a sentence
Sometimes adverbials phrases function to set the tone for the whole sentences. They often signal to the reader how to interpret a statement.

From my point of view, he's wrong.
According to her, they were all quite satisfied.
In my opinion, we should just forget about it.
In a strange way, I really respect him.
2.3 Activity 11

In the texts below identify the different types of adverbs and adverbial phrases.

In groups construct a narrative or information report. Identify the adverbs and adverbials.

Text 1
Last Saturday Kevu was feeling very sick. His head was hurting horribly. He was very cold. He could not help his mother do the drains in the garden. Instead he went to the hospital. The nurse checked Kevu. The nurse told Kevu that he had malaria. She gave Kevu some malaria medicine. Kevu took three tablets the first day. The second day he took three more tablets. On the third day the nurse gave Kevu the last three tablets. After Kevu had finished all the tablets he was feeling much better. Kevu could work in the garden again.

Text 2
Other parts of speech

Preposition

What is a preposition?
The common use of prepositions is to show position and time. Prepositions mean ‘placed in front’ so they are usually found in front of nouns or pronouns (e.g. Position: The water is in the pot. Time: They arrived in the morning).

Common prepositions

- across
- beneath
- into
- over
- after
- between
- with
- of
- past
- among
- during
- to
- in
- on
- around
- from
- near
- up
- before
- as

Prepositions are also used in different language expressions such as idiomatic and metaphorical language (e.g. The power behind the throne.).

Note, it is important not to confuse adverbs with preposition. You will know the difference in the way the word is used. For example:

I fell down. (adverb)

She walked down the pathway. (preposition)

Conjunction

What is a conjunction?
A conjunction is a joining word. For example:

The children and the teacher wrote the text together. One little girl in the class not only was contributing to this joint construction but also writing things down herself. While most of the children were only talking when the teacher asked questions and probed when answers were not clear, this girl was almost a teacher helper.

Types of conjunctions

1. Co-ordinate conjunctions
Conjunctions which form a link between one word and another. The words they join are usually the same or similar part of the speech. For example:

She was wet and tired.

He was tired but happy.

Do you want the banana or fruit.
Common co-ordinate conjunctions are:

- and
- but
- for
- nor
- or
- so
- yet

Co-ordinate conjunctions can also join groups of words. For example:

- They walked towards the trees and the bushes.
- I saw the grade 8 girls but not their teacher.
- This is her book and that is his book.

2. Correlative conjunctions
Conjunctions that exist in pairs. Common correlative conjunctions are:

- both … and
- either … or
- neither… nor
- not only … but also
- weather … or
- not … but
- as … as

Examples:

- The thief was not only caught but also sent to jail.
- Both Poiya and Kuri came as soon as Pat arrived.

3. Subordinate conjunctions
Conjunction that join parts of sentences.

- I want to be a teacher when I grow up.

'I want to be a teacher' is the main part of the sentence, and 'when I grow up' tells us when the person wants this to happen. The conjunction that joins the two parts of the sentences 'when' is called the subordinate conjunction.

Most common subordinate conjunctions are:

- after
- before
- though
- whenever
- although
- once
- unless
- where
- as
- since
- until
- wherever
- because
- than
- when
- while

Note: See Appendix 4 for more information on conjunctions

Articles

What is an article?
There are only four kinds of articles: the and some. Articles describe nouns. Articles belong to the determiners in an adjectival group. Adjectivals describe nouns and are part of the noun phrase. (See information on noun phrase.)

Note: See the table in the previous section on adjectives about determiners.
1. **Definite article**

‘The’ is the definite article because it is referring to a particular thing or things (e.g. *The bus is here*).

2. **Indefinite article**

A, an and some are indefinite article because they do not refer to particular things. For example:

- It’s raining so wear a coat.
- An ant is strong for its size.
- Some children are coming.

---

**2.3 Activity 12**

*Construct a group text identify the articles, conjunctions and prepositions in your texts.*

*Using a newspaper text identify the different types of conjunctions and prepositions.*
Section 3: Phrase, Clause and Sentences

Phrase

What is a phrase?

A phrase is a group of words which function as a unit in a sentence. They stand together in a sentences as different parts of speech. They do the work of the different parts of speech. A phrase cannot be complete sentences.

In the sentence below the different phrases are separated by '/'.

The old man / is sleeping / under the tree.

Types of phrases

1. Noun phrase

Phrase that do the work of a noun are called noun phrases. A noun phrases stands in place of a noun or pronoun. The noun phrase can consist simply of a noun (e.g. ‘house’) or a pronoun (e.g. ‘they) or it can be expanded to include a very lengthy description.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun Phrase</th>
<th>Verb Phrase</th>
<th>Noun Phrase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mole and Ratty</td>
<td>were rowing</td>
<td>the tiny wooden boat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>noticed</td>
<td>a handsome, dignified old house of mellowed brick, with well kept lawns reaching down to the river's edge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>one of the nicest houses in these parts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The rat</td>
<td>disembarked</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toad</td>
<td>had bought</td>
<td>a shinning new canary yellow gipsy caravan with red wheels.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The phrases in bold below are noun phrases because they are doing the job of nouns. The noun phrases answer the question ‘who?’ or ‘what?’

The old man was moving the table all by himself.
Some children did not go to the school.
Playing football can be dangerous.

Nouns and noun phrases and pronouns as the subject of sentences

The subject of sentences is normally a noun phrase. The subject usually comes before the verb and has number and person concord with the verb (e.g. The old man likes him.).

Noun phrase as the object of sentences
Like the subject the object of a sentence is also a noun phrases. The object usually follows the verb and does not concord with the verb. For example:

The students do not like eating **cabbages**.

Some children brought **a few hibiscus flowers**.

### Noun phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Some children</td>
<td>ate</td>
<td>the ripe bananas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The old man</td>
<td>took</td>
<td>the kaukau bag.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The class of 2003</td>
<td>wrote</td>
<td>the script</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.3 Activity 13

In the text below identify the subject noun phrases and objects noun phrases of the sentences.

Within the noun phrase identify the article determiners.

Write a text and let your peer identify the different noun phrases in the text.

---

The doctor came to our school last week. She gave immunisation to the children in grades three, four, five and six. Some of the children did not want an injection. One boy cried very loudly.

This made the other children laugh. After the doctor finished the headmaster gave each of us a bun with butter. We enjoyed our lunch.

Michael Topa  Grade 6 HTDS

---

### 2. Adjectival phrases

Adjectival phrases do the work of adjectives. They also add meaning to, describe or modify nouns or pronouns. Adjectives which **come before** the noun have been described in the section on adjectives and articles.

Adjectival phrases that **come after** the noun can take the form of:

- adjectival phrase  and
- adjectival clause.

For example:

She wears a watch with a gold band. (adjectival phrase)

This is the biro that Paul bought in Papindo. (adjectival clause)

These are found in text types such as stories and information reports where additional information is needed. They are sometimes referred to as embedded phrases/clauses, qualifiers or post modifiers.
Adjectival phrase

Adjectival phrases in a noun group are preceded by a preposition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun Group</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjectival Phrase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the most famous books</td>
<td>of ancient China</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>those silly girls</td>
<td>without raincoats</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the traditional dress</td>
<td>for Japanese men</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples:

- The student took the books with the covers.
- Get the bucket with the green lid.
- The young girl washed the floor in Ross Meer Hall.
- The girl in the next room was not feeling well. She left her clinic book with the green cover behind in her room. When she got to the hospital she saw the patient in front of her giving her book to the nurse. She then remembered that she had left her book at college. She quietly approached the nurse in the blue uniform …

Adjectival clause

Like adjectives, adjectival clauses provide extra information about the noun. An adjectival clause identifies which things we are referring to. Unlike adjectival phrase, adjectival clauses contain a verb. For example:

- The women who cleaned the church left to go home.
- People looking for students during school hours should not be entertained.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun Group</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjectival Phrase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>an old lady</td>
<td>who swallowed a fly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the person</td>
<td>to whom I am writing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the unfortunate woman</td>
<td>whose bilum was stolen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the ancient bones</td>
<td>that archaeologists have found</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the house</td>
<td>which Jack built</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the historic town</td>
<td>were Lincoln was born</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3 Activity 14

Identify adjectival phrases and adjectival clause from a text done in your previous units.

Discuss what kind of text that is.

Construct a information report as a group.

Highlight all the noun phrases, then identify the adjectival phrases and adjectival clause.
3. Adverbial phrases

Adverbial phrase adds meaning to verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. They are those words which provide extra details about what is going on (where? when? how? why? with whom? by what means? and for how long?). Examples:

- The dog was barking in a threatening way. (how)
- Over the weekend, all the young people played sports. (when)
- We often eat our lunch on the PMV buses. (where)
- They played hard to win the game. (why)

Adverbial phrases are often prepositional phrases. Prepositional phrases are noun phrases introduced by prepositions. For example:

- We worked in the garden.
- Near the river I saw the girls.

Note: See Appendix 3 for adverbs and adverbial phrases.

2.3 Activity 15

Analyse sentences as subjects, objects, verbs and adverbs.

In pairs identify all the adverbs and adverbials in the text below.

Construct an information report about an animal. Notice the different adverbs and adverbial phrases being used.

“Hello! My name is Pupu. I am a baby butterfly,” said the Pupa. “I am in my house. My house is called a cocoon. My cocoon protects me from my enemies.” “Well, my name is Lemon Fruit,” said the Lemon Fruit. “I am hanging on my mother, Lemon Tree - just like you are.” “What do you do?” asked Pupa. “I have lemon seeds inside me,” replied Lemon Fruit. “I cover them to protect them from their enemies.”

Lasa Korepa Env. Studies
2.3 Activity 16

In the text above identify all the saying verbs.
In the text identify the adverbs and adverbial phrases.
Identify the mistakes in the child's text.
Discuss with your peer how you could help this student in his mistakes.

Clause

What is a clause?
A clause is a unit containing one verb and its subject. For example:

Fish swim.

is a clause. Swim is the verb and fish is the subject.
Clause may have more words as well. For example:

Fish swim in the river.
Generally each clause must have a verb to be classed as a clause.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun Phrase</th>
<th>Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The first year students</td>
<td>have been practising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My teacher in high school</td>
<td>was</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes students</td>
<td>must work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The cooks in the mess</td>
<td>have been cooking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the dance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>very helpful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in their dorms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>since 2 o'clock this afternoon.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Clause are categorised according to their internal structure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eating in class</th>
<th>is not allowed</th>
<th>because the principal said so.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Principal or independent clause**

A clause has a single self contained message. It can stand by itself. Because they make sense they are also called sentences.

'Fish swim' is a principal clause so is 'Fish swim in the sea'.

Some sentences, however, can contain two or more principal clause. These clauses are joined by coordinate conjunctions. For example:

Fish swim in the sea and cows walk on land.

**Subordinate clause (dependent and embedded clause)**

The subordinate clause adds meaning to the principal clause. It is called subordinate clause because it is dependent on the principal clause. It cannot be by itself; it needs the principal clause. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subordinate Clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fish swim in the sea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I saw him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is the boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We know</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because they cannot walk on the land.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>when I came in.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>who won the race.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that the sky is blue.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Watch out for clauses that are in two parts. For example:

The big red car **which I drove** won the race.

**Types of subordinate clause**

1. **Adjectival clause**

   This is the cat that killed the rat

Note: See section on adjectivals.
2. Adverbial clause

You may do as you please

Note: See section on adverbs and adverbial phrases.

2.3 Activity 17

Identify the different clauses used by the student in the following text.
Develop the student’s text so that different clause are added to the original text.
Select any text provided and identify the different clause.
**Sentences**

**What is a sentence?**

A sentence is a group of words containing a verb that has a complete meaning. A simple sentence is one which contains a single clause. For example:

- We had a great time!
- Could you answer the phone?
- They went to Warakum.

Many sentences however contain more than one clause. For example:

- Possum found a safe tree and climbed to the farthest branches where he snuggled into a ball, closed his weary eyes and fell asleep.

**Different types of sentences**

1. **Compound sentences**

   Compound sentences consist of two or more independent clauses. Each of these clause is capable of standing on its own. For example:

   - He climbed into bed and he fell asleep.
   - I walked to town but the other students caught the bus.
   - You could ring him at work or you could see him at his home.

2. **Complex sentences**

   In a complex sentence, there is a clause expressing the main message and another clause which elaborates on that message. The main clause stands on its own while the independent cannot stand on its own. It's dependent on the main clause (refer to independent and sub-ordinate clause). For example:

   - Children come to school because they want to learn.
   - If you carry that box you might drop it.

Conjunctions are used to link dependent and independent clause in sentences. Relationships between ideas are expressed using different conjunctions in sentences.

**Note:** See Appendix 4 for how conjunctions are used.

**There are different forms of sentences.**

1. **Statement**

   The subject is always present and generally precedes the verb. In statements the speaker is usually giving information or stating a fact. For example:

   - The children are playing in the field.
   - She chased the cat.
2. Question

Several types of questions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question Type</th>
<th>Comments</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes - No questions</td>
<td></td>
<td>Are you going home?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tag questions</td>
<td></td>
<td>Michael works here, does he?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Declarative questions</td>
<td>They are identical in form to a statement, except for the final rising intonation (symbolised in English by a question mark).</td>
<td>You've finished your assignment?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wh- questions</td>
<td>WH –questions demand some specific information, and cannot be answered with ‘yes’ or “no”</td>
<td>Who is inside the building? How big is the college? For what reason did he propose that?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Commands

Commands do not have subjects written in the sentence. For example:

- Come here Tina.
- Open the door.

4. Exclamations

Exclamations are used sometimes when giving orders. For example:

- Watch your step!
- Come over here!

or to show irony or sarcasm. For example:

- With friends like you, who needs enemies!

or showing surprise of some form of sudden out burst. For example:

- Your out!
- Hey you!

2.3 Activity 18

In groups write a recount or a narrative as a role-play, using the different types of sentences.
Section 4: Punctuation

1. Capital letters

Capital letters are used as the first letter for letters for all proper nouns.

Brain   Madang   Pacific Ocean

Titles of special people also take capital letters.

Captain Smith   Father John   Councillor Yeung

The personal pronoun I is always written with a capital letter.

I   I’d   I’ll   I’m   I’ve

A capital letter is used as the first letter of the first word of every sentence.

My dog’s name is Bill. He’s a cocker spaniel.

The main words in the title of a book, a play, a film, a television show and many headings start with capital letters.

The Adventures of Robin Hood.

2. Full stops

Full stops are placed at the end of the sentences

Statements:   The cat chased the rat.
              The rat ran as fast as it could.

Commands:    Bring me that ball.

Sentences which report questions end with a full stop. These are called indirect questions.

Indirect question:  I asked her if she would come for a swim.

Direct Question:   “Will you come for a swim?”

To Indicate Abbreviations

Some words are written in shortened form. If the first letter and only part of the word is included, a full stop is used to show there is part of the word missing. For example:

Reverend   Rev.
Major      Maj.
Captain    Capt.
etcetera   etc.

If the first letter and other letters, as well as the last letter of the word are included in the abbreviation, no full stop is necessary. For example:

Mister     Mr
Doctor     Dr
If a name which is made up of more than one word is shortened, the first letter of each word is used without full stops in between. For example:

- Papua New Guinea → PNG
- Member of Parliament → MP

Acronyms (words made up of the first letter of each word forming the name). Full stops are not used between the letters. For example:

- Papua and New Guinea United → PANGU

3. Question marks

Question mark is used at the end of a sentence which is a question. For example:

- Is the student sick?

A question mark is used in direct or reported speech where a question is asked. The question mark is placed straight after the question. A full stop is used at the end of the sentences. For example:

- “Why are you late?” asked the teacher.

4. Exclamation marks

Exclamation mark is used when the writer wants to show some feeling about the person or event to which he or she is referring. The feeling might be excitement, surprise, anger, disappointment—strong feelings. For example:

- What a surprise!
- Thank heavens!
- The favourite has fallen!

2.3 Activity 19

Help the student to identify his mistakes in his text

Put in the correct punctuation marks.
5. Commas

Commas are used in sentences to give a short pause. Commas make the meaning clearer by separating parts of the sentence. They are also used to separate items in a list. For example:

- Pina bought some bananas, greens, oranges, cucumbers and some corn.

The and is not necessary if the list is short.

Commas are used when we have two or more adjectives modifying a noun or two or more adverbs modifying a verb. For example:

- Yana is a bright, happy, cheerful student.
- Mel silently, slowly, carefully moved towards the door.

Commas are used when two principal clauses are joined by a co-ordinate conjunction (and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet) to form compound sentence a comma can be used to join the clauses. For example:

- I was going to come early, but I had to finish my homework.

If the two principal clauses are short, there is no need for a comma. For example:

- I missed the class so I didn't do the work.

Some sentences begin with connectives such as so or however. Use a comma to separate the connective from the rest of the sentences. For example:

- However, I still think you are wrong.

Sentences often begin with a phrase or clause. Comma is placed after a phrase or a clause in the sentences. For example:

- In the cool of the morning, we will start our climb to Kum Cave.
- Although Bella was very late, Richard decided he would wait for her.

Commas are used to separate words, phrases or clauses that occur within the sentences. For example:

- I let my dog, Tico, out of his cage.
- Willie, our cousin from Enga, used to play with Enga Mioks.

Commas used in direct speech. Where quotation is a statement, a comma is used at the end of the quotation but before the quotation mark (invented comma). For example:

- 'I'm all right,' I said.

Where a statement is interrupted by the words used to explain direct speech, those words are enclosed by commas. For example:

- 'I am ready,' he said, 'to do what you asked me to do.'
6. Quotation, direct speech marks
One use of quotation marks, direct speech marks, is to indicate direct speech. Direct speech is what someone actually says. For example:

‘I like ripe bananas,’ said Pere.

You may use single or double quotation marks. For example:

“I like ripe bananas,” said Pere.

7. Apostrophes
The apostrophe is used to show that something has been left out (contraction). For example:

Can’t     I’ll     he’s

It is used to show ownership with nouns. For example:

The man’s hat
The ladies’ lunches

8. Semicolons
Semicolon is mostly used between two connected or balanced ideas in a sentence. For example:

I do like swimming; it’s such fun.

9. Colons
The colon introduces more information. The information can be a list, words, phrases, or clause; or a quotation. For example

The following clothes should be taken on the trip: a warm jacket, pullover, three pairs of socks, a pair of trousers, a change of underwear and a strong pair of shoes.

10. Brackets
Brackets are always used in pairs. They enclosed extra information in the form of examples, a comment or an explanation. For example:

Buy a kilogram of rice (RootRice) and …

Anna (a classmate) was there.
11. Dashes
Dashes are like brackets; they enclose extra information. For example:

   Have a banana- or would you prefer an orange.

Dashes and brackets are used to show sudden change in though. For example:

   It was a great Easter-oops, there is the bell- what did you say?

12. Hyphens
Hyphens link two or more words or word parts that have to do the job of one. For example:

   Reddish- brown coat
   Ten-year-old girl

13. Ellipses
The points of ellipsis (…) mark that something is left out. For example:

   There were many arguments … and this final one …

2.3 Activity 20

Construct a group recount applying the correct punctuation marks.
In the texts below help put in the correct punctuation marks and fix any other grammatical errors identified.
Title: THE DUMBEST BOY IN THE CLASS

Once upon a time there lived a young boy boy with his mother. His father died in a plane crash. He was a very clever boy but when his father died he began to get dumber. After a few years later he was the dumbest boy in the class. The boys and girls didn't like him very much because he was the dumbest in the class. His mother kept on reminding him to work hard in class. At last he forgot about his dead father and keep on with his school work. Slowly he caught up with his school work. After a few years later he was the cleverest boy in the class. Then he became a pilot. His mother said no for him to become a pilot because his father died in a plane crash. But the boy told his mother that for his father he should handle a plane until he dies. Two months later his mother died. He married his mother and stayed for financial service. After one year he got married and had two children. He named the children plane and crash. They lived happily ever after............THE END
References

# Appendix 1: Adjectives

## Noun Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article</th>
<th>Pointing word</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
<th>Quantity adjective</th>
<th>Opinion adjective</th>
<th>Factual adjective</th>
<th>Comparing adjective</th>
<th>Classifier</th>
<th>Noun or pronoun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>shoes</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>they</td>
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<tr>
<td>her</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>dancing shoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>some</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>some shoes</td>
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<td>a hundred</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>some shoes</td>
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<tr>
<td>two</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>shoes</td>
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<td>Martin's</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>shoes</td>
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<tr>
<td>this</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>business shoes</td>
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<tr>
<td>those</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>shoes</td>
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<tr>
<td>the</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tennis shoes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These groups are sometimes referred to as nominal groups or noun phrases. In functional grammar they are described in terms of participants in a process.

## Adjectivals (Noun Describers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article</th>
<th>Pointing word</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
<th>Quantity adjective</th>
<th>Opinion adjective</th>
<th>Factual adjective</th>
<th>Comparing adjective</th>
<th>Classifying adjective</th>
<th>Noun or pronoun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eg</td>
<td>a/an</td>
<td>some</td>
<td>some</td>
<td>eg two</td>
<td>eg elegant</td>
<td>eg smoother</td>
<td>eg African</td>
<td>shoes</td>
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<tr>
<td>eg</td>
<td>this</td>
<td>these</td>
<td>a dozen</td>
<td>my</td>
<td>grotty</td>
<td>more pretty</td>
<td>geese</td>
<td>geese</td>
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<tr>
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<td>this</td>
<td>these</td>
<td>a dozen</td>
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<td>poor</td>
<td>the worst</td>
<td>Maria</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>eg</td>
<td>this</td>
<td>these</td>
<td>a dozen</td>
<td>your,</td>
<td>scary</td>
<td></td>
<td>Islam</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>eg</td>
<td>this</td>
<td>these</td>
<td>a dozen</td>
<td>Diana's</td>
<td>difficult</td>
<td></td>
<td>Nucleus</td>
<td>Nucleus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOW MUCH?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Student Support Material
Appendix 2: Verb groups in a text

**Text 1: Narrative**

relating verb

It **was** a lovely pool, in a large, glassed-in room **existing verb**

with windows facing a garden. There **were** floating toys **action verb**

and big plastic balls in the water. She **cleared** them to one side **relating verb**

and **enjoyed** the luxury of **having** a whole indoor pool to herself. **(possessive)**

**She swam about grandly, pretending she was Megan.**

**Megan’s mother had never had to go out to work in her life.**

**Megan had** everything. **relating verb**

Half an hour later she **became** aware of a tapping on the centre **action verb**

window. Ben **was** out in the garden, **peering** worriedly at her, **action verb**

his face against the glass. She **ignored** him, but he **didn’t go away,** **sensing verb**

and the tapping **became** louder. She **scowled,** **got out of** the pool **action verb**

and **opened** the window. **action verb**

**“Listen, you!” she said. “I won’t drown** in this dumb pool!** saying verb**

The water’s hardly over my head, even down the deep end.

**Now nick off!”**

Robin Klein

**Text 2: Information report**

relating verb

Guinea pigs **belong to** the family Caviidae and **are** native to South America. **relating verb**

They **are** small, plump rodents and **have** short ears, short legs and no tail. **relating verb**

In many ways, they **are** like their cousins, the hamsters. **existing verb**

There **are** three main types of guinea pig: the English, which **has** short hair; **relating verb**

the Peruvian, which **has** long hair; and the Abyssinian, **relating verb**

which **has** swirled hair. **relating verb**

The colours **may be** solid white, grey, brown or black. In the wild, **relating verb**

guinea pigs **are** sociable animals. In captivity, they **make** good pets **relating verb**

and **have become** popular throughout the world.
## Appendix 3: Adverbs and Adverbial Phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place WHERE?</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
<th>Adverbial phrase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>here</td>
<td>indoors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>there</td>
<td>upstairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>backwards</td>
<td>inside out</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>forwards</td>
<td>nearby</td>
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<td></td>
<td>away</td>
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<td></td>
<td>already</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overnight</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>frequently</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>hardly ever</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>often</td>
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<td>at weekends</td>
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<td>always</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>usually</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Manner IN WHAT WAY?</th>
<th>Cause WHY?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IN WHAT WAY?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(including qualities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and feelings)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sad</td>
<td>thus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quietly</td>
<td>therefore</td>
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<tr>
<td>fast</td>
<td>consequently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hard</td>
<td>accordingly</td>
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<td>angrily</td>
<td>hence</td>
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<tr>
<td>thereby</td>
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<tr>
<td>similarly</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>differently</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>swiftly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>violently</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>politely</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gently</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>with a sigh</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>in a strange way</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>without trying</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by car</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by way of contrast</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in comparison</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>like a dream</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>for that reason</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because of bad weather</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>from old age / of old age</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>through mismanagement</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>as a result of his pleading</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>due to her efforts</td>
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<table>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>by himself</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with her mother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 4 Conjunctions

Conjunctions are used to link dependent clauses and independent clauses. Different types of conjunctions are used to express different types of relationships between ideas. The following chart gives an indication of the ways in which conjunctions can be used.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Conjunctions</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>where, wherever</td>
<td>Wherever I go I meet my relatives. She left it where she found it.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>WHEN?</th>
<th>He realised he had lost it when he arrived home.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HOW LONG?</td>
<td>after, before, when, just as, as, while as long as, since until, while</td>
<td>Before I decide, I want to talk to Harry. I haven't seen her since she moved to Mt Hagen. Until the rash clears up you will have to stay at home. I get goosebumps whenever I hear him. Every time she rings up I pretend I'm not home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOW OFTEN?</td>
<td>whenever, every time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Manner</th>
<th>QUALITY</th>
<th>The way she spends money you'd think she'd won Lotto.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MEANS</td>
<td>by, through, with</td>
<td>By working overtime she managed to finish the project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMPARISON</td>
<td>as if, as though, as, like, the way</td>
<td>I couldn't lie like he does. She looked as if she needed a good rest.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cause</th>
<th>REASON</th>
<th>I came because he called me. Since you obviously aren't interested, let's leave it. They went outside to see what the noise was. We left early so that we could get a parking space. We were so tired that we couldn't stay awake. It was such a rainy night that we decided to stay home.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PURPOSE</td>
<td>so that, in order to, so as to, in order that</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESULT</td>
<td>so ... that such a(n) ... that</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>as long as, if, in case, unless, on condition that</th>
<th>Never sit on a nest of ants unless you're wearing cast-iron pants. If she wants to come she'll have to hurry up.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concession</th>
<th>although, even though, even if, while, whereas, despite, much as</th>
<th>Even though they weren't hungry they ate a full meal. While recognising his skill, I don't think he is right for the job.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Appendix 5: Grammatical features of English

We can group the major grammatical categories in the clause into three major 'chunks': the noun group (including adjectivals), the verb group, and adverbials.

CLAUSE

Those two big dogs from next door were barking loudly last night

WHO? WHAT?

WHAT ARE THEY DOING?

WHERE? WHEN?

HOW? WHY?

NOUN GROUP

Nouns
- living/non-living (bird/rock)
- human/non-human (baby/bird)
- masculine / feminine / neuter
general / particular (cats / Kitty)
- concrete / abstract (clock / time)
everyday / technical (food tube / oesophagus)
- objective / subjective (girl / flirt)
countable / uncountable (biscuits / butter)
- common / proper (day / Friday)
collective (flock; choir)
- singular / plural (child / children)
compound nouns (surfboard)

Adjectivals
- articles (a / an, the)
- pointing words (this, those)
possessives (their, Tom's)
- quantity adjectives (many, 3)
- opinion adjectives (sad, lovely)
factual adjectives (big, old, red, square)
- comparing adjectives (more, bigger, best)
classifiers (war plane)
- adjectival phrases* (the book on the top shelf)
- classifiers (people with curly hair)
adjectival clauses (the boys sitting up the back)
- adjectival phrases (the street where I live)

* including prepositions

Pronouns
- personal pronouns (I, us, her)
possessive pronouns (hers, mine)
relative pronouns (which, that)
question pronouns (who? what?)

VERB GROUP

Verb types
- action verbs (Ben was wriggling)
saying verbs (She murmured his name.)
sensing verbs thinking, feeling, perceiving (She remembered him well.) (They will enjoy the concert.) (Cate heard nothing.)
relating verbs 'being and having' (Frogs and toads are amphibians. Their mouths are large and they have small teeth.)
existing verbs (There are some venomous frogs.)

Tense
- present (Koalas eat gumleaves.) (Kim is eating an icreem.)
past (They ate slowly.) (They have eaten already.) (They were eating lunch.)
future (I will eat later) (I will be eating at home.)
regular / irregular verbs

Modals
- (might, could, must)

Negative forms
- (didn't, doesn't)

Multiword verbs
- (began to cry; had a cry)

ADVERBIALS

Adverbs and adverbial phrases
- place 'where?' (away, to the shops)
time 'when?' (lately; in the evening)
manner "how?" quality (sadly; with sorrow)
means (by car; with a stick)
comparison (differently; like a butterfly)
cause 'why?' (due to ill health; for his sanity)
accompaniment 'with whom?' (together; with Grandma)

Other types of adverbials
- point of view, comment (in my opinion, personally, frankly unfortunately)
degree (more loudly; most loudly; extremely loudly; far far away; almost too sweetly)
modal adverbs (perhaps; maybe; definitely)
focusing and emphasising (even; only)