

Subjects and Verbs

Subjects

Subjects are difficult to define simply. Here is one incomplete definition: the subject of a sentence is the noun, pronoun, phrase, or clause about which the sentence says or asks something.

Examples:

1. Susan finished her report and handed it in.
 - The sentence says something about Susan. It tells the reader what Susan did. “Susan” is the subject of the sentence.
2. Is patience a virtue?
 - The sentence asks the reader something about patience.

So far so good; nevertheless, this definition has its weaknesses. Let’s examine a few more sentences.

Examples:

1. Carla’s blatant impatience caused everyone in the restaurant to laugh.
 - The sentence tells the reader something about Carla and something about her impatience. Is “Carla’s” or “impatience” the subject? “Carla’s” is a possessive, so it cannot be a subject.
2. It is raining.
 - “It” is the subject. But does the sentence really tell something about “it”?
3. You know that mighty Casey struck out.
 - Is the subject of the sentence “you” or “Casey”? “You know” is the main clause (which always contains the subject of the sentence, in this case “you”), and the rest of the sentence is a dependent clause (which never contains the subject of the sentence, but like all clauses has a subject, in this case “Casey”).

As you can see, we need a better definition. So, here is a more helpful one: the subject of a sentence is the word with which the verb agrees. This definition is more helpful than you may at first realize. Consider the following:

Examples:

1. On the lake they see a sailboat.
 - What is the subject of the sentence—“lake,” “they,” or “sailboat”? It can only be “they” because “see” does not agree with either of the other words.



2. Across from the library there will be state-of-the-art tennis courts.

- If a verb is in the future tense, you may want to change it mentally to the present tense before looking for agreement. In this case, the change would be from “will be” to “are.” You can see that the verb agrees with “tennis courts,” not with “library.”

In standard prose, the subject of a sentence usually comes before the verb. There are two main exceptions:

SITUATIONS IN WHICH THE VERB COMES BEFORE THE SUBJECT

1. When “there” or “here” is used to announce the delayed appearance of the subject (e.g., “Next week there will be a birthday party at school.”)
2. With questions (e.g., “Have you seen the toys in the attic?”)

An *expletive* is a word that has a syntactic function but really doesn’t contribute to the meaning of a sentence. In the sentence, “There are two books on the table,” “there” doesn’t add anything to the meaning of the sentence, as you can prove by dropping it: “Two books are on the table.” “There” does, however, fill the usual place of the subject and announce to the reader or listener that the order of words in the sentence may be different from what is expected. So, “there” announces that the verb will precede the subject.

Verbs

Let’s consider the tenses (present, past, future, present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect), voices (active and passive), and forms (simple, progressive, and emphatic) of two *verbs*: “play” and “sell.”

ACTIVE VOICE OF THE VERB “PLAY”

1. *Simple Present*: plays, play
2. *Simple Past*: played
3. *Simple Future*: will play, shall play
4. *Simple Present Perfect*: has played, have played
5. *Simple Past Perfect*: had played
6. *Simple Future Perfect*: will have played, shall have played
7. *Present Progressive*: am playing, is playing, are playing
8. *Past Progressive*: was playing, were playing
9. *Future Progressive*: will be playing, shall be playing
10. *Present-Perfect Progressive*: has been playing, have been playing
11. *Past-Perfect Progressive*: had been playing
12. *Future-Perfect Progressive*: will have been playing, shall have been playing
13. *Present Emphatic*: does play, do play
14. *Past Emphatic*: did play

**PASSIVE VOICE OF THE VERB “PLAY”**

1. *Simple Present:* am played, is played, are played
2. *Simple Past:* was played, were played
3. *Simple Future:* will be played, shall be played
4. *Simple Present Perfect:* has been played, have been played
5. *Simple Past Perfect:* had been played
6. *Simple Future Perfect:* will have been played, shall have been played
7. *Present Progressive:* am being played, is being played, are being played
8. *Past Progressive:* was being played, were being played

ACTIVE VOICE OF THE VERB “SELL”

1. *Simple Present:* sells, sell
2. *Simple Past:* sold
3. *Simple Future:* will sell, shall sell
4. *Simple Present Perfect:* has sold, have sold
5. *Simple Past Perfect:* had sold
6. *Simple Future Perfect:* will have sold, shall have sold
7. *Present Progressive:* am selling, is selling, are selling
8. *Past Progressive:* was selling, were selling
9. *Future Progressive:* will be selling, shall be selling
10. *Present-Perfect Progressive:* has been selling, have been selling
11. *Past-Perfect Progressive:* had been selling
12. *Future-Perfect Progressive:* will have been selling, shall have been selling
13. *Present Emphatic:* does sell, do sell
14. *Past Emphatic:* did sell

PASSIVE VOICE OF THE VERB “SELL”

1. *Simple Present:* am sold, is sold, are sold
2. *Simple Past:* was sold, were sold
3. *Simple Future:* will be sold, shall be sold
4. *Simple Present Perfect:* has been sold, have been sold
5. *Simple Past Perfect:* had been sold
6. *Simple Future Perfect:* will have been sold, shall have been sold
7. *Present Progressive:* am being sold, is being sold, are being sold
8. *Past Progressive:* was being sold, were being sold

The *imperative* mood includes the verb forms used to command someone to do something.



Examples:

1. Go!
2. Run!
3. Sit!
4. Speak!

In each case, the imperative has the same form as the present infinitive (e.g., “to go,” “to run,” “to sit,” “to speak”) but without the particle “to.” This is even true of the infinitive “to be,” whose imperative form is “be” (as in “Be good!” or “Be quiet!”). Imperatives do not have to be followed by an exclamation mark, but they often are.

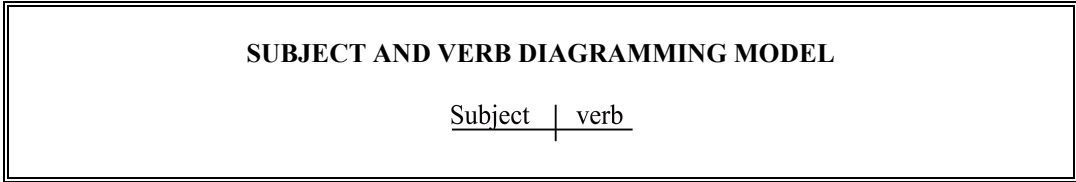
Diagramming Subjects and Verbs

Every diagram of a sentence has at least two lines. First, there is a horizontal base line, which is used for subjects, main verbs, direct objects, predicate nominatives, predicate adjectives, and objective complements. Second, there is a vertical line that passes through the base line and divides the subject of the sentence from the predicate of the sentence (the predicate is the main verb and its objects or complements).

All finite verbs (verbs that can serve as main verbs) are diagrammed in the space provided for the verb. This space starts immediately to the right of the line that divides the subject from the predicate. This is true for all finite verbs regardless of tense (present, past, future, present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect), voice (active and passive), mood (indicative, imperative, and subjunctive), and form (simple, progressive, and emphatic). This does not apply, however, to so-called “verbals,” which cannot serve as main verbs in a sentence (infinitives, gerunds, and participles).

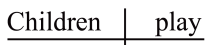
Note: As you work through the Diagramming Sentences Skills Review, you may want to check the Glossary of Grammatical Terms and Diagramming Symbols at the end of the Diagramming Sentence Skills Review (pp. 221–231) for the meanings of words and expressions that you do not understand.

In diagramming, the subject is always placed on the far left of the horizontal base line. As mentioned above, the vertical line passing through the base line serves to separate the subject from the verb. The examples that follow are very simple sentences that include only a subject and verb; these diagrams will help you to understand the basics of diagramming sentences.



Examples:

1. Children play.



The noun “children” is the subject of the sentence. The verb “play” is in the present tense.

2. They were selling.

They | were selling

The personal pronoun “they” is the subject of the sentence. The past progressive “were selling” is the verb. The nominative (subject) forms of the personal pronouns are “I,” “you,” “he,” “she,” “it,” “we,” “you,” and “they.”

3. It had been played.

It | had been played

The subject of the sentence is the personal pronoun “it.” The verb “had been played” is in the past-perfect tense, passive voice.

4. Sandwiches are being sold.

Sandwiches | are being sold.

The subject of the sentence is the plural noun “sandwiches.” The verb “are being sold” is a progressive form in the present tense, passive voice.

Modal Auxiliary Verbs

Authorities differ as to which verbs should be called *modal auxiliary verbs*. In this lesson, the list of modal auxiliary verbs will include “can,” “could,” “may,” “might,” “must,” “should,” and “would.” It is impossible to discuss modal verbs without referring to the indicative and the subjunctive moods, so let’s be sure we have a clear understanding of those terms.

Indicative

The *indicative* mood is used for pointing out, describing, or asking. Most verb forms are indicative. Here are some sentences whose verbs are in the indicative mood.

Examples:

1. It is snowing.
2. That has been my house for the last ten years.
3. When does the movie begin?
4. I had a headache.
5. Will you be my friend?

Three modal forms, “can,” “may,” and “must,” are always indicative.

Examples:

1. Ronald can run fast.
 - This sentence says simply that Ronald has the ability to run fast.
2. The children may go with us.
 - This sentence says either that the children have permission to accompany us or that it is possible they will go with us.
3. Stella must stay home this evening.
 - This sentence tells of a particular obligation incumbent upon Stella.

In the first of these examples, if we talk about Ronald’s ability to run fast in the past, we would say “When he was young, Ronald could run fast.” However, if we want to talk about the characters in the other sentences in the past, we must use altogether different verbs. For the second sentence, we would say “The children were permitted to go with us. And for the third sentence, we would say “Stella had to stay home that evening.”

Subjunctive

The modal auxiliary verb “could” is used not only in the past indicative but also in the present *subjunctive*.

Examples:

1. If Ronald had not injured his foot, he could run fast.
 - In this sentence, “could” does not refer to an actual ability. Instead, it refers to an ability Ronald would have if he hadn’t hurt himself. This sentence rules out Ronald’s ability to run fast here and now.
2. If Ronald wanted to do so, he could run fast.
 - This sentence has two possible meanings. The first meaning is that it’s impossible for Ronald to run fast because he doesn’t want to do so. The second meaning is that it’s improbable Ronald can run fast because it’s improbable he wants to do so. If you make a small change and use the indicative in this sentence, its meaning becomes less ambiguous: “Ronald can run fast if he wants to do so.”

“Might” is the present subjunctive form of “may.” Note the difference between the following sentences:

Examples:

1. If she is here, she may be able to help us.
 - In this sentence, her ability to help is possible (because it is possible that she is here).
2. If she were here, she might be able to help us.
 - In this sentence, her ability to help is purely speculative (because she is not here).

“Would” is used in unreal (contrary-to-fact) conditional sentences.

Example:

If I had time, I would help you.

Contrast the above example with a sentence containing a real condition.

Example:

If I have time, I will help you.

“Would” is also used to express habitual action in the past (e.g., “Back then, people would often sit on their front porch and talk with passing neighbors.”).

“Should” is seldom used these days as a future-tense indicator.

Example:

Next year I should like to visit my cousin in New York.

Instead, it is more widely used to express obligation and expectation.

Examples:

1. I really should do my homework.
2. You should be able to find our house.

“Must” has no past tense and no subjunctive form. If we want to use the verb “must” in the past or as a subjunctive, we have to choose another verb.

Examples:

1. They had to leave early. (past)
2. If he had to work harder, he would. (subjunctive)

All seven modals can be used with basic present-perfect forms (present-perfect infinitives without “to”).

Examples:

1. He cannot have finished so soon.
2. She could have pouted, but she didn’t.
3. If she was there, she may have been able to help them.
4. If she had been there, she might have been able to help them.
5. If I had had time, I would have helped you.
 - This is an unreal conditional sentence in past time.
6. I really should have done my homework.
7. They must have left.
 - This sentence is not the same as “They had to leave.”

Notice that in the third and fourth examples, the use of “may” and “might,” respectively, helps to distinguish between real and unreal situations.

Finally, with regard to the subjunctive mood, many grammarians claim that it is almost dead in English. They say it is used only in an occasional expression such as “If I were you.” For example, if you were asked the verb tense of “gave” and “lived,” you would likely say that both are past tense verbs. You would be half right. These verbs are past indicative forms, but they are also present subjunctive forms: “If we gave him five dollars [right now], he would be able to eat”; “If you lived closer [right now], we could get together more often.”

Diagramming Modal Auxiliary Verbs

A modal auxiliary verb and the verb it modulates are considered a single verb phrase. In a sentence diagram, this verb phrase is placed in the normal position of the verb (i.e., right after the vertical line that follows the subject):

MODAL AUXILIARY VERB DIAGRAMMING MODEL

Subject | verb

Examples:

1. This must leak.

This | must leak

The demonstrative pronoun “this” is the subject of the sentence. The complete verb consists of the modal auxiliary verb “must” and the present infinitive of the intransitive verb “leak.” Intransitive verbs have no passive voice.

2. They should have hurried.

They | should have hurried

The subject of the sentence is the personal pronoun “they.” The complete verb consists of the modal auxiliary verb “should” and the basic present perfect form of “hurry.”

3. Homes may have been destroyed.

Homes | may have been destroyed

The subject of the sentence is “homes.” The verb phrase “may have been destroyed” consists of the modal auxiliary verb “may” and the basic present perfect passive form of “destroy.”

Every sentence has a subject and a predicate. The predicate is everything in the sentence that is not the subject, modifiers of the subject, or independent elements. Up to this point, you have only been asked to diagram sentences that have unmodified subjects and predicates that consist only of a verb or verb phrase. As you proceed through this skills review, you will be asked to diagram increasingly complex sentences. Regardless of how complex the sentences become, though, remember that every diagram must include a horizontal base line and a vertical line passing through that base line.

Conjunctions

Coordinating Conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions connect words, phrases, and clauses of equal importance. Almost always, they connect words, phrases, and clauses of the same kind (i.e., nouns with nouns, verbs with verbs, etc.). Coordinating conjunctions include “and,” “but,” “or,” and “nor.”

Examples:

1. Hansel and Gretel marked the trail through the forest. (*compound subject*)
2. The children laughed and played. (*compound verb*)
3. The stepmother commanded, “Hansel and Gretel, wait here until your father and I return.” (*compound vocative*)
4. In which song is America called “the land of the free and the home of the brave”? (*compound predicate nominative*)
5. They have a mountain of money but a thimbleful of time. (*compound direct object*)
6. Would you call a tadpole a fish or a reptile? (*compound objective complement*)
7. The project manager was excited but too exhausted to think straight. (*compound predicate adjective*)
8. The students were urged to express their ideas clearly and concisely. (*compound adverb*)
9. Ours is a government by and for the people. (*compound preposition*)
10. She yearned to go to Colorado and ski all winter. (*compound infinitive phrase*)
11. She went shopping but he stayed home. (*compound sentence*)

Subordinating Conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions are conjunctions that introduce dependent clauses. Subordinating conjunctions include “because,” “since,” “although,” and “if.”

Example:

If you take Brenda, and Josh rides with Amelie, I’ll see to it that Johanna and Natalie find a way. (*compound adverb clause*)

Correlative Conjunctions

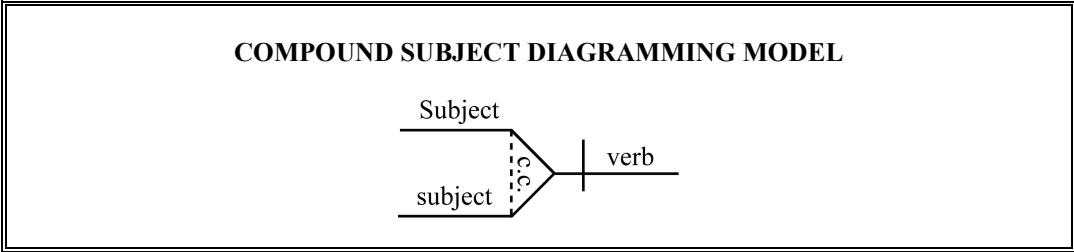
Correlative conjunctions are paired conjunctions that link balanced words, phrases, and clauses. Correlative conjunctions include “both...and,” “either...or,” “just as...so,” “neither...nor,” and “whether...or.”

Examples:

1. She likes to ride the roller coaster with either her parents or her grandparents. (*compound object of a preposition*)
2. The meet director gave both the winner and the runner-up a large trophy. (*compound indirect object*)
3. He could live neither with her nor without her. (*compound prepositional phrase*)

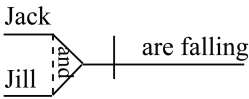
Diagramming Conjunctions

When diagramming a compound subject, place the individual subjects on parallel horizontal lines and put the coordinating conjunction on a broken vertical line between the two horizontal lines. In the diagramming model below, the “c.c.” stands for “coordinating conjunction”:



Example:

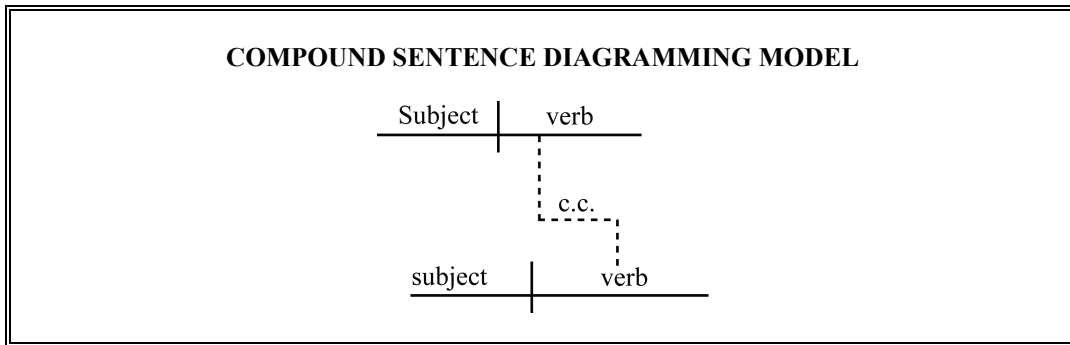
Jack and Jill are falling.



“Jack and Jill” is a compound subject. “And” is a coordinating conjunction.

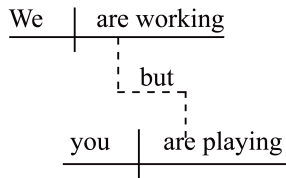
Do the same with compound verbs.

To diagram a compound sentence, diagram the first main clause above the second, and put the coordinating conjunction on a broken-line step-down between the verbs of the two diagrams:



Example:

We are working but you are playing.



“We are working” is an independent clause (i.e., it can stand alone as a complete sentence), and the same can be said of “you are playing.” These two clauses are joined in this compound sentence by the coordinating conjunction “but.”

Articles, Attributive Adjectives, and Direct Objects

Articles

Although not all languages have *articles*, English has three: “the” (definite article), “a” (indefinite article), and “an” (indefinite article).

Adjectives

Adjectives modify nouns; in other words, they describe or limit nouns in some way. If we call something “a house,” we don’t differentiate it from any other house. If we call a house “a beautiful house,” we restrict the house to that subset of houses that are beautiful. If we call the house “a beautiful white house,” we further restrict or modify it by the addition of the adjective “white”; in other words, we restrict the house to that subset of houses that are both beautiful and white.

Attributive Adjectives

Attributive adjectives usually appear right before nouns or pronouns, either following an article (“a beautiful house,” “the beautiful house”) or not preceded by an article (“beautiful houses”). Sometimes, a noun is modified by two or more attributive adjectives.

Examples:

1. We entered the beautiful white house.
2. A tall, dark, and handsome stranger approached us in the living room.

Attributive adjectives are distinguished from predicate adjectives, which come after linking verbs.

Example:

The house is white.

Occasionally, though, an attributive adjective follows its noun.

Examples:

1. There will be time enough to finish the gardening.
2. The boys were waiting for something else to happen.

Direct Objects

Direct objects receive the action of a verb directly; however, not all verbs take direct objects. Verbs that do are called transitive verbs; verbs that do not are called intransitive verbs. The following are examples of intransitive verbs: all forms of the verbs “be,” “become,” “seem,” “come,” “aspire,” and “squirm.”

Here is a way to identify direct objects: as you read a sentence, ask “whom?” or “what?” immediately after a non-linking verb. The answer, if you get one, is a direct object.

Examples:

1. That is a tree.
 - If you ask “what?” right after “is,” you get the answer “tree”; however, “tree” is a predicate nominative since it follows the linking verb “is.”
2. They saw a tree.
 - If you ask “what?” right after “saw,” the answer is “tree.” “Saw” is not a linking verb, so “tree” is a direct object.
3. In college she studied economics.
 - Is there a direct object in this sentence? To find out, ask “what?” right after “studied” (i.e., “In college she studied what?” ⇒ “In college she studied economics.”). “Studied” is not a linking verb, so “economics” is a direct object.
4. In college she sometimes studied until two in the morning.
 - Is there a direct object in this sentence? If you ask “She sometimes studied whom?” or “She sometimes studied what?”, you see that the answer is not present in the sentence; therefore, the sentence has no direct object. Not every non-linking verb will have a direct object.
5. They like Amy but dislike her friend.
 - Are there direct objects in this sentence? To find out, ask “whom?” right after the verb “like” (i.e., “They like whom?” ⇒ “They like Amy.”). Similarly, ask “whom?” right after the verb “dislike” (i.e., “They dislike whom?” ⇒ “They dislike her friend.”). Neither “like” nor “dislike” is a linking verb, so both “Amy” and “her friend” are direct objects (the noun that serves as the direct object is “friend”; “her friend” is referred to as the complete direct object).
6. He has been an accountant for nine years.
 - If you ask “what?” right after the verb “has been,” the answer is “accountant”; however, “accountant” is a predicate nominative since it follows the linking verb “has been,” a form of “be.”
7. They hiked out into the country and enjoyed the sights.
 - There are two verbs in this sentence: “hiked” and “enjoyed.” Does either have a direct object? If you ask “They hiked what?” or “They hiked whom?”, you see that the answer is not present in the sentence. In contrast, if you ask “They enjoyed what?”, the answer to the question is “sights”; so, “sights” is a direct object.



8. We planted flowers and vegetables in our garden.

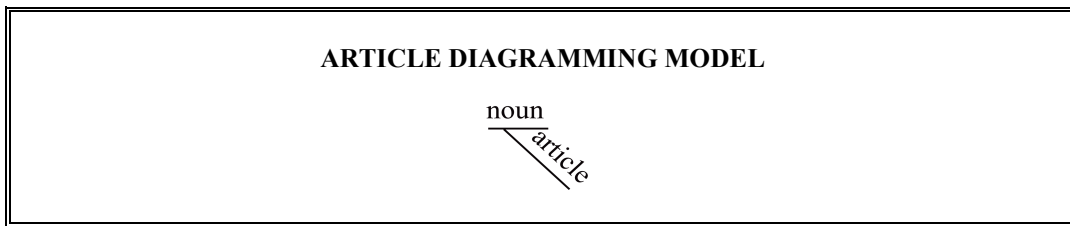
- If you ask “what?” after the verb “planted,” the answer is “flowers and vegetables.” “Planted” is not a linking verb, so “flowers and vegetables” is a direct object.

9. She can read and write French, but she does not speak the language well.

- There are three verbs in this sentence: “read,” “write,” and “speak.” Do they all have direct objects? If you ask “She can read and write what?”, you see that the answer is present in the sentence (i.e., “She can read and write French.”). Similarly, if you ask “She does not speak what?”, you see that the answer is “language.” None of the verbs are linking verbs, so “French” and “language” are direct objects.

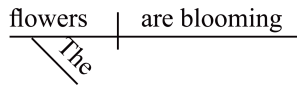
Diagramming Articles, Attributive Adjectives, and Direct Objects

An article is diagrammed on a slanted line below the noun it modifies. The top of the slanted line touches the horizontal line underneath the noun:

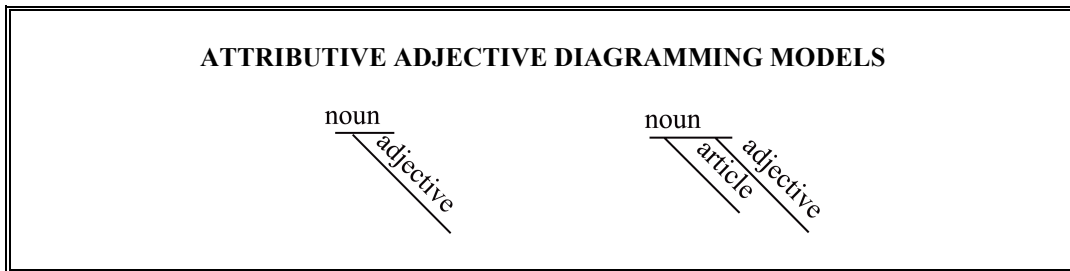


Example:

The flowers are blooming.

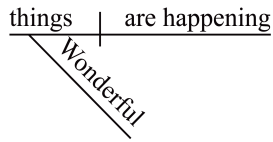


An attributive adjective is diagrammed on a slanted line below the noun it modifies. It is placed to the right of an article:

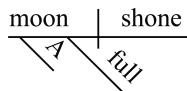


Examples:

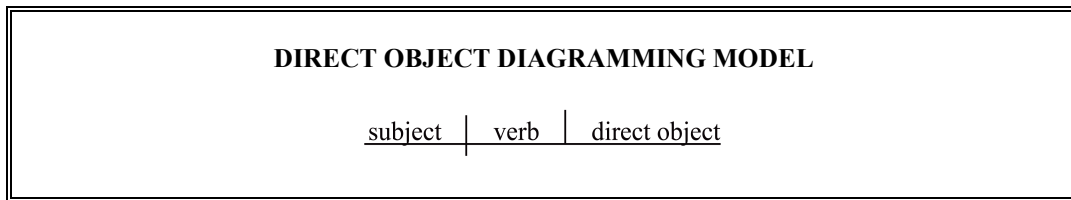
1. Wonderful things are happening.



2. A full moon shone.

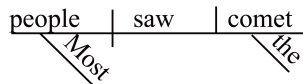


A direct object is diagrammed after its verb. A vertical line touching the base line from above separates the verb from the direct object:

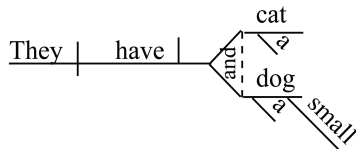


Examples:

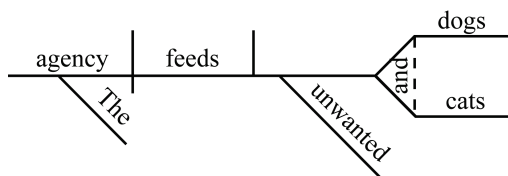
1. Most people saw the comet.



2. They have a cat and a small dog.



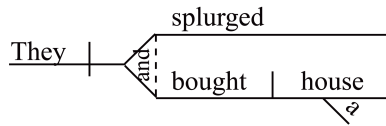
3. The agency feeds unwanted dogs and cats.



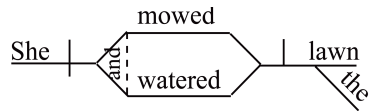
“Unwanted” modifies both “dogs” and “cats.” Therefore, it must be placed on a segment of the direct object line that pertains to both direct objects.



4. They splurged and bought a house.



5. She mowed and watered the lawn.



Both verbs have the same direct object.



Adverbs

In general, **adverbs** modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. Less frequently, they are also used to modify prepositions, prepositional phrases, conjunctions, clauses, and sentences. There are transitional adverbs, which function both as conjunctions and as adverbs, and there are independent adverbs, which modify nothing at all. So, how does one recognize an adverb?

Adverbs that End in “-ly”

The list of **adverbs that end in “-ly”** extends into the thousands. Here are just a few: “thoroughly,” “pleasantly,” “helpfully,” “dearly,” “horribly,” and “astutely.” However, some words that end in “-ly” aren’t adverbs at all but are adjectives (e.g., “manly,” “costly,” and “portly”), as illustrated in the first three of the following examples:

Examples:

1. She speaks friendly to everyone. ✘
She is a friendly person. ✓
2. He smiles manly. ✘
They admire his manly qualities. ✓
3. She listens to her patients motherly. ✘
She shows a motherly concern for her patients. ✓
4. The assistant principal spoke softly, patiently, and supportively to the troubled student.
 - The adverbs “softly,” “patiently,” and “supportively” modify the verb “spoke.” They tell how the assistant principal spoke.
5. Honestly, I don’t care.
 - “Honestly” is an independent adverb; it does not modify any word in the sentence.

Adverbs that Do Not End in “-ly”

And then there are **adverbs that do not end in “-ly,”** e.g., “also,” “too,” “quite,” “very,” “here,” and “there.”

Examples:

1. The motives of the exceedingly gracious hostess were quite political.
 - The adverb “exceedingly” modifies the attributive adjective “gracious.” The adverb “quite” modifies the predicate adjective “political.”
2. Ray answered the question quite hastily and altogether incorrectly.
 - The adverb “quite” modifies the adverb “hastily.” The adverb “altogether” modifies the adverb “incorrectly.”

Adjectives that Also Function as Adverbs

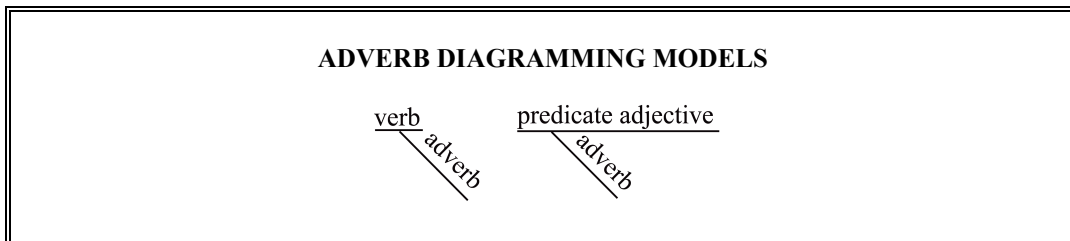
What’s more, there are quite a few *adjectives that also function as adverbs*, e.g., “fast,” “high,” “low,” “long,” “right,” “left,” “late,” and “early.”

Examples:

1. Only racecar drivers need fast cars. ✓ (adjective)
He drives too fast. ✓ (adverb)
2. It was a long wait. ✓ (adjective)
They had to wait long. ✓ (adverb)
3. She made a right turn. ✓ (adjective)
She turned right. ✓ (adverb)
4. The early bird gets the worm. ✓ (adjective)
That bird arrives early. ✓ (adverb)

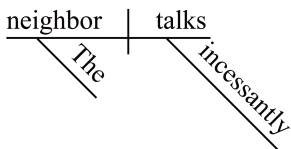
Diagramming Adverbs

Every adverb is diagrammed on a slanted line. If the adverb modifies a verb or a predicate adjective (predicate adjectives are introduced in the next lesson), the slanted line is extended down from the horizontal line under the verb or predicate adjective:

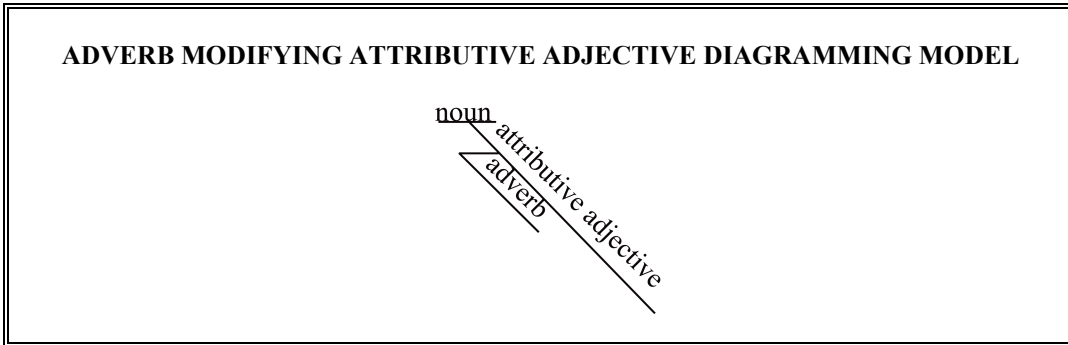


Example:

The neighbor talks incessantly.

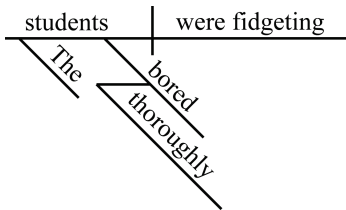


If the adverb modifies an attributive adjective or another adverb, the slanted line underneath the adverb is placed on the left of and parallel to the slanted line of the attributive adjective or of the adverb and is hooked at the top onto this line:

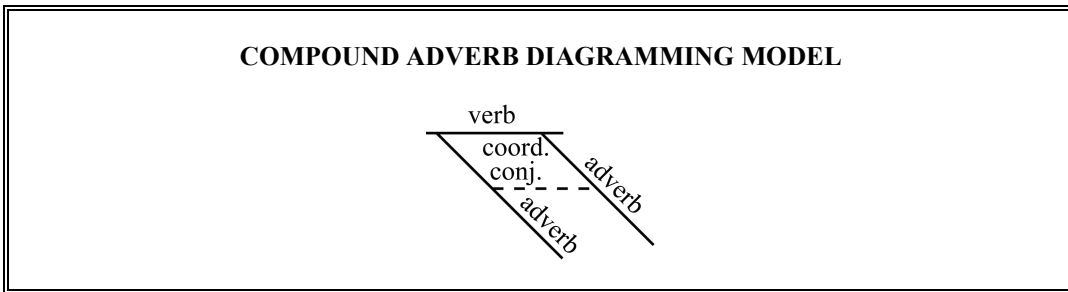


Example:

The thoroughly bored students were fidgeting.

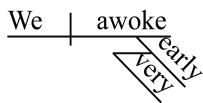


If two adverbs or a compound adverb modify a verb, two slanted lines are extended down from the horizontal line underneath the verb:

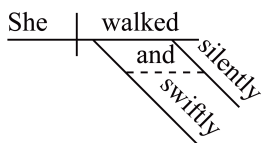


Examples:

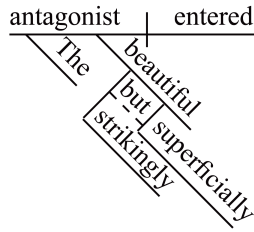
1. We awoke very early.



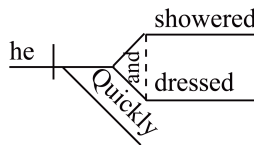
2. She walked swiftly and silently.



3. The strikingly but superficially beautiful antagonist entered.



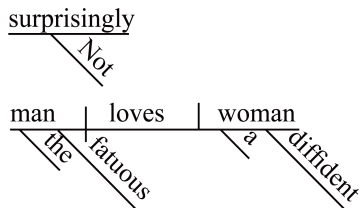
4. Quickly he showered and dressed.



Some adverbs are independent words, modifying nothing at all. Such an adverb is placed on a horizontal line above and separate from the rest of the sentence, as in the following example:

Example:

Not surprisingly, the fatuous man loves a diffident woman.



Adverbs

DIRECTIONS: Create a diagram for each of the following sentences. Answers are on page 766.

1. Angrily and inexorably the storm devastated the coastal regions.

2. Not all Americans favor bigger and more expensive cars.

3. I did the assignment fast and inattentively.

4. She wrote an exceedingly but unexpectedly beautiful poem.

5. This subdivision has about fifty residences.

Subjective Complements: Predicate Nominatives and Predicate Adjectives

Subjective complements are nouns or adjectives (or the equivalent of either) that complete linking verbs. Such nouns and equivalent expressions are called *predicate nominatives*; such adjectives and equivalent expressions are called *predicate adjectives*. Subjective complements can also follow certain intransitive verbs as well as passive-voice forms of factitive verbs.

Predicate Nominatives

Examples:

1. The woman in the blue dress is my sister.
 - The predicate nominative is the noun “sister,” which follows a form of the verb “be.”
2. It is I.
 - The predicate nominative is the personal pronoun “I.”
3. Have you ever been a lifeguard?
 - The predicate nominative is “lifeguard.” The verb “have been” is a present-perfect form of the verb “be.”
4. This could be an important clue.
 - As you would probably expect, modal forms of the verb “be” (such as “may be,” “should be,” “could have been,” and “must have been”) can take subjective complements.
5. She was elected president.
 - “President,” a predicate nominative, follows a passive-voice form of the factitive verb “elect.” Factitive verbs, such as “make,” “choose,” “appoint,” and “designate,” are used to make someone something. Predicate nominatives can also be preceded by the expletive “as” (e.g., “He was chosen as leader of the small delegation.”). (An expletive is a word with a function but with little or no meaning.)

Predicate Adjectives

Examples:

1. I had been sick for a week.
 - “Sick” is a predicate adjective. “Had been” is a past-perfect form of the verb “be.”



2. She felt sad.

- “Sad” is a predicate adjective. In addition to “feel,” the verbs “seem,” “become,” “look,” “remain,” “taste,” and other similar verbs can be followed by predicate adjectives. You can test them with the adjective “good” (e.g., “it seems good,” “he is becoming good,” “you look good,” “we want to remain good,” or “the water tastes good”).

3. Blackberries grow wild along the south edge of the woods.

- “Wild” is a predicate adjective. In this sentence, the verb “grow” is intransitive; in other words, it has a meaning in this sentence (“to thrive” or “to become larger”) that does not take a direct object. In other contexts, “grow” can function as a transitive verb meaning “to cause to grow” (e.g., “She likes to grow green beans and tomatoes.”).

4. They left angry but arrived happy.

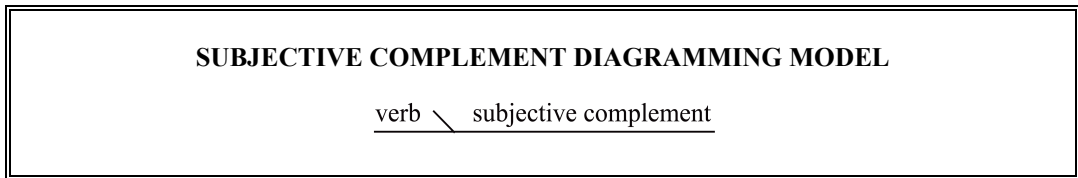
- “Angry” and “happy” are predicate adjectives; each follows an intransitive verb. “Arrive” is always intransitive. “Leave” can be either intransitive or transitive depending on the context. For example, it is transitive in the sentence “Most customers and employees have already left the building.”

5. Tom was made livid by the derogatory remark about his daughter.

- The predicate adjective “livid” follows a passive form of the factitive verb “make.”

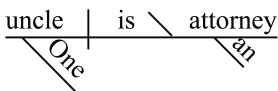
Diagramming Subjective Complements

In a sentence diagram, a back slash is used to separate verbs from subjective complements (predicate nominatives and predicate adjectives):

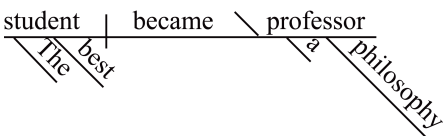


Examples:

1. One uncle is an attorney.

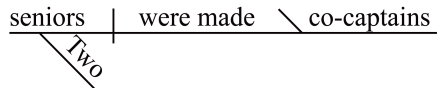


2. The best student became a philosophy professor.



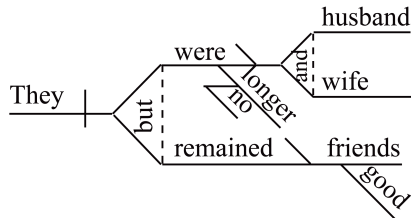
“Became” is a linking verb. “Philosophy” is a noun used as an adjective.

3. Two seniors were made co-captains.



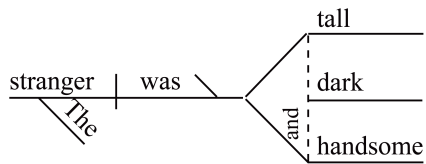
“Were made” is a passive form of a factitive verb.

4. They were no longer husband and wife but remained good friends.



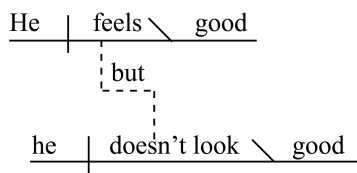
This sentence has a compound predicate and a compound predicate nominative.

5. The stranger was tall, dark, and handsome.



Note the tripartite predicate adjective.

6. He feels good, but he doesn't look good.

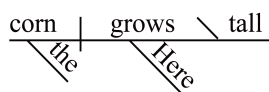


7. I am getting sick.



When “get” means “become,” as it does in this sentence, it is a linking verb.

8. Here the corn grows tall.



The intransitive verb “grows” is followed in this sentence by a predicate adjective, “tall.”



9. She is just playing stupid.

She | is playing \ stupid
just

When “play” means “pretend to be,” it can be followed by a subjective complement.

EXERCISE 6

**Subjective Complements: Predicate
Nominatives and Predicate Adjectives**

DIRECTIONS: Create a diagram for each of the following sentences. Answers are on page 767.

1. Our waiter was both efficient and courteous.

2. She was feeling happy, but he was feeling sad.

3. He is a truly remarkable scholar but a lousy poet.

4. He became angry and silent and left the room.

5. She has been, is, and will be a very effective mayor.

Appositives

Appositives are words, phrases, or clauses that identify or explain other words in the same sentence. Appositives are said to be in apposition with the words they identify or explain. Most appositives are nouns in apposition with preceding nouns; however, they can also be pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, phrases, or clauses. Occasionally, they can also precede the word or words with which they are in apposition. Appositives are set off with parentheses or commas.

Examples:

1. We planned to travel (fly) to Seattle.
 - This sentence contains a verb in apposition with a verb.
2. These flowers are for my best friend, you.
 - This sentence contains a personal pronoun in apposition with a noun.
3. She regrets the disappearance of many feral (wild) animals.
 - This sentence contains an adjective in apposition with an adjective.
4. He removed the books clandestinely (secretly).
 - This sentence contains an adverb in apposition with an adverb.
5. We live on (beside) a river.
 - This sentence contains a preposition in apposition with a preposition.
6. The office workers were told to be less officious (to mind their own business).
 - This sentence contains an infinitive phrase in apposition with an infinitive phrase.
7. On Friday evenings we go out to eat (the only excitement of the week), and then we work all weekend.
 - This sentence contains a noun phrase in apposition with a clause.

In English, when a proper name is in apposition with a possessive noun, only the proper name has a possessive ending.

Example:

I borrowed my friend Melvin's car.

Restrictive and Non-Restrictive Appositives

There is an important distinction between *restrictive and non-restrictive appositives*: the former are necessary for identification, and the latter are unnecessary for identification.

RESTRICTIVE VERSUS NON-RESTRICTIVE APPOSITIVES

Restrictive: “My cousin Alan broke his arm.” (noun in apposition with a noun)

Non-restrictive: “My father, a skiing instructor, broke his arm.” (noun in apposition with a noun)

Intensifying Pronouns

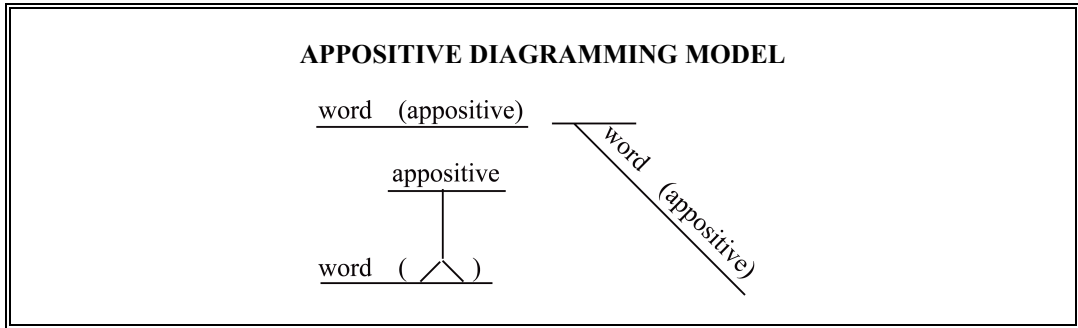
Certain pronouns are both reflexive and intensifying. As *intensifying pronouns*, they are appositives: “myself,” “yourself,” “himself,” “herself,” “itself,” “ourselves,” “yourselves,” and “themselves.”

Examples:

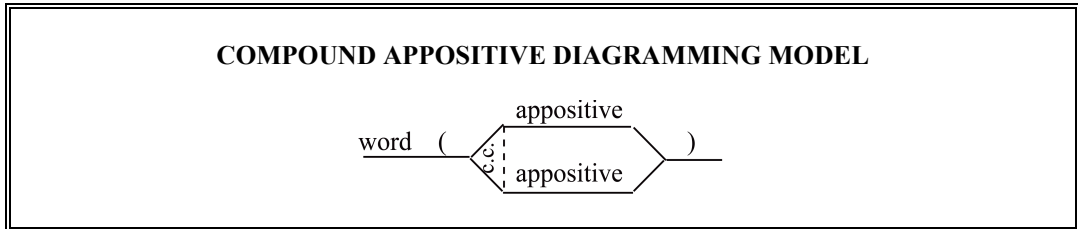
1. The author herself will be there to sign copies of her new book.
 - This sentence contains an intensifying pronoun (“herself”) in apposition with a noun (“the author”).
2. They themselves will be there.
 - This sentence contains an intensifying pronoun (“themselves”) in apposition with a pronoun (“they”).

Diagramming Appositives

Appositives are placed in parentheses immediately after the word or words with which they are in apposition:



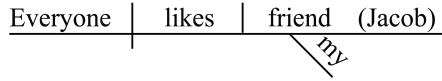
You can disregard the appositive on a pedestal for now. It is a topic for later consideration.





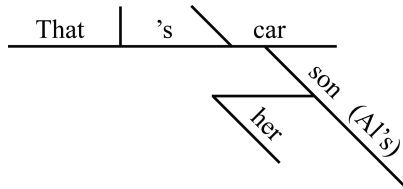
Examples:

1. Everyone likes my friend Jacob.



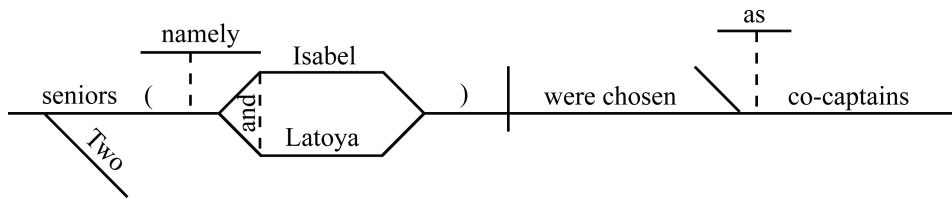
“Jacob” is in apposition with the direct object, “friend.”

2. That’s her son Al’s car.



The sentence has two possessives: the pronoun “her” and the noun “Al’s.” If the appositive “Al’s” is omitted, one says “her son’s car.”

3. Two seniors, namely Isabel and Latoya, were chosen as co-captains.



The sentence has two expletives: “namely,” which introduces the compound appositive “Isabel and Latoya,” and “as,” which introduces the predicate nominative “co-captains.”



Prepositional Phrases

Prepositions

Prepositions are particles (small, uninflected words) that show relationships between their objects and other words. You can name many prepositions by thinking of any place a mouse can go: “in,” “into,” “around,” “up,” “down,” “over,” “under,” and “through.” Many prepositions, however, have nothing to do with place: “with,” “without,” “for,” “besides,” “since,” “of,” and “except.”

When used in a sentence, a preposition must have an object. If a particular word does not have an object, it is not a preposition. It may look exactly like a preposition (i.e., it may be spelled the same), but without an object it functions as an adverb, a conjunction, or as part of a phrasal verb.

Examples:

1. Jack Horner was sitting in a corner.

➤ The preposition “in” has the object “corner.”

They just walked in.

➤ Here, “in” is an adverb. Adverbs do not have objects.

2. Poor Jethro had to stay after school.

➤ The preposition “after” has the object “school.”

He stayed for an hour after the other students had left.

➤ Here, “after” is a subordinating conjunction, introducing an entire clause (“the other students had left”).

3. The dog chased the cat around the house.

➤ The object of the preposition “around” is “house.”

The flu is going around.

➤ Here, “around” is an adverb.

4. There is no one here but us.

➤ The object of the preposition “but” is the pronoun “us.”

She went to school but her brother stayed home.

➤ Here, “but” is a coordinating conjunction.

For now, only nouns and pronouns will be used as objects of prepositions; later, however, you will see how gerunds and gerund phrases, infinitives and infinitive phrases, as well as noun clauses can be objects of prepositions. It is even possible for prepositional phrases to be used as objects of prepositions.

Some prepositions consist of more than one word. Examples of these phrasal prepositions are “out of,” “along with,” “as for,” and “by means of.”

Adverbs, too, can modify prepositions and prepositional phrases.

Examples:

1. The fireworks display will begin right after the game.
 - The adverb “right” modifies the preposition “after.”
2. The food arrived just in time for the party.
 - The adverb “just” modifies the prepositional phrase “in time.”

Adverbial Prepositional Phrases

Most prepositional phrases are adverbial or adjectival. *Adverbial prepositional phrases* modify verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

Examples:

1. Carolyn and Barbara strolled through the park.
 - The prepositional phrase “through the park” modifies the verb “strolled.” It tells where Carolyn and Barbara strolled.
2. Transparent in the middle, the glass is increasingly opaque as it approaches the frame.
 - The prepositional phrase “in the middle” modifies the adjective “transparent.”
3. Everyone moved closer to the storyteller.
 - The prepositional phrase “to the storyteller” modifies the adverb “closer.”

Adjectival Prepositional Phrases

Adjectival prepositional phrases modify nouns and pronouns.

Examples:

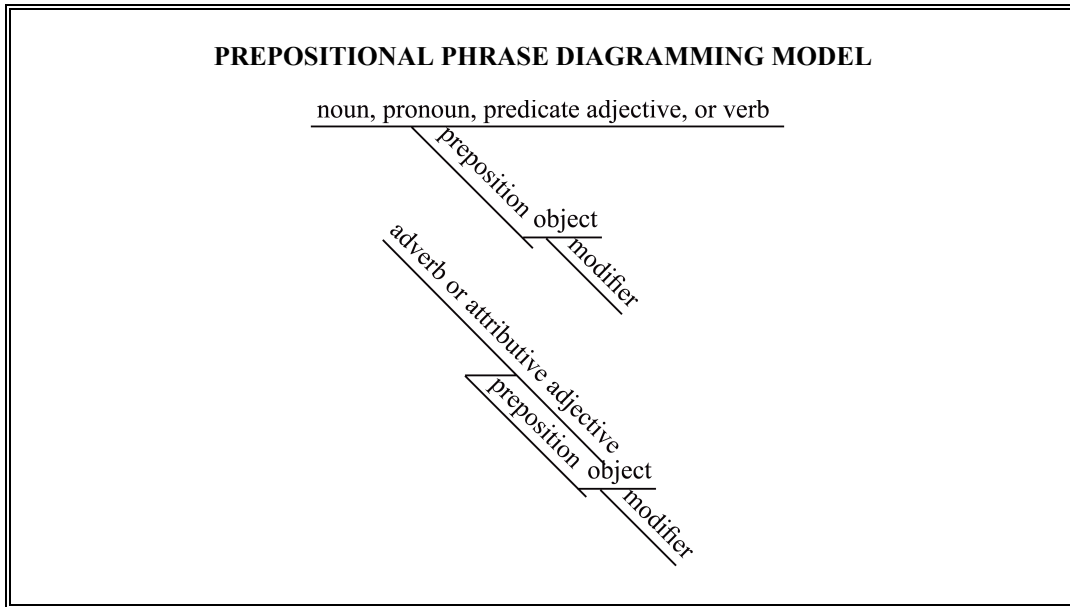
1. All eyes were focused on the woman on the tightrope.
 - The prepositional phrase “on the tightrope” modifies the noun “woman.”
2. Someone in the corner stood up.
 - The prepositional phrase “in the corner” modifies the pronoun “someone.”

3. As far as anyone knew, he was in good health.

- The prepositional phrase “in good health” functions as a predicate adjective, modifying the pronoun “he.”

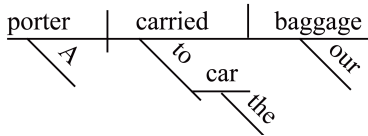
Diagramming Prepositional Phrases

To diagram a prepositional phrase, place the preposition on a diagonal line connected to the horizontal or diagonal line of the word or words modified. From a point near the bottom of this diagonal line, draw a horizontal line to the right, and put the object of the preposition on this line. Any modifiers of the object are diagrammed in the expected manner:



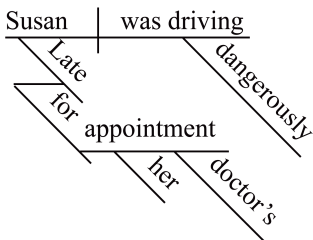
Examples:

1. A porter carried our baggage to the car.



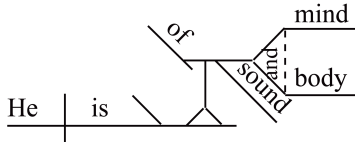
The prepositional phrase “to the car” is adverbial; it modifies the verb “carried.”

2. Late for her doctor’s appointment, Susan was driving dangerously.



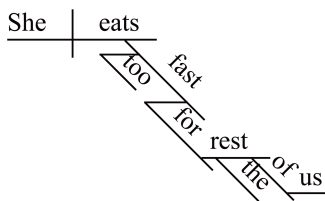
The adverbial prepositional phrase “for her doctor’s appointment” modifies the attributive adjective “late.”

3. He is of sound mind and body.



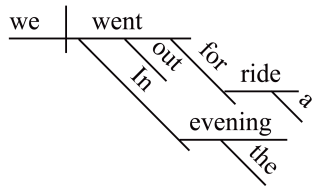
“Of sound mind and body,” a prepositional phrase with a compound object, serves in this sentence as a predicate adjective, modifying the pronoun “he.”

4. She eats too fast for the rest of us.



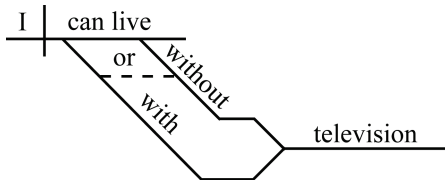
The adverbial prepositional phrase “for the rest of us” modifies the adverb “fast.” The adjectival prepositional phrase “of us” modifies the noun “rest.”

5. In the evening we went out for a ride.



“In the evening” and “for a ride” are prepositional phrases modifying the verb “went.” “Out,” which looks like a preposition, is an adverb in this sentence.

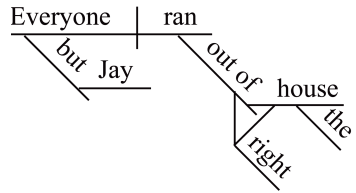
6. I can live with or without television.



The adverbial prepositional phrase “with or without television” features two prepositions and a single prepositional object.



7. Everyone but Jay ran right out of the house.



In this sentence, “but” is a preposition. “Out of” is a phrasal preposition. The adverb “right” modifies the prepositional phrase “out of the house.”

EXERCISE 8

Prepositional Phrases

DIRECTIONS: Create a diagram for each of the following sentences. Answers are on page 770.

1. Early in the week, friends of ours are coming for dinner.

2. They approach every new challenge with enthusiasm and determination.

3. We can go through the narrow tunnel or over the narrow bridge.

4. The principal is taking a group of teachers out for lunch.

5. She acted in accordance with the express wishes of her clients.

Indirect Objects and Objective Complements

Indirect Objects

Indirect objects tell to whom or for whom direct objects are given, said, or shown. In the sentence “He showed them the picture,” the direct object is “picture.” The indirect object (i.e., the people to whom the picture was shown) is “them.” An indirect object is not preceded by a preposition. “He showed them the picture” means the same thing as “He showed the picture to them.” However, in the latter sentence, “them” is not an indirect object; instead, it is the object of the preposition “to.”

Examples:

1. Fred gave his sister a present.
 - “Present” is a direct object. The indirect object is “sister.”
2. Will you lend me a dollar?
 - “Dollar” is a direct object. The indirect object is “me.”
3. She is telling her students a story.
 - “Story” is a direct object. The indirect object is “students.”

Remember: Not every sentence that has a direct object has an indirect object as well. Indirect objects are found only in sentences that have verbs of giving, telling, or showing, such as “offer,” “hand,” “teach,” “lend,” “promise,” “bring,” and “get.” Even verbs like “sing” and “find” can take indirect objects if they imply a kind of giving or offering, as in “Will you sing us a song?” and “Find me a pretty flower!” In the previous sentences, the indirect objects are “us” and “me.” “Do” doesn’t seem to be a verb of giving, but it is in a sentence like “Please do me a favor.”

Objective Complements

Objective complements are nouns or adjectives (or the equivalent of nouns or adjectives, like pronouns or participles) that complete verbs with respect to direct objects. The verb in a sentence with an objective complement is often factitive (i.e., it makes someone or something someone or something else): “elect,” “appoint,” “choose,” “render,” “name,” “call,” “entitle,” “color,” “dye,” and “make.”

Examples:

1. They called their mascot Herbie.
 - The noun “Herbie” is an objective complement; the verb “called” is factitive.
2. The summer job will make him strong.
 - The adjective “strong” is an objective complement; the verb “make” is factitive.

3. The shock of standing in front of the class has rendered the poor boy speechless.
 - The adjective “speechless” is an objective complement; the verb “rendered” is factitive.
4. The parents named their daughter Aphrodite.
 - The noun “Aphrodite” is an objective complement; the verb “named” is factitive.
5. One of my classmates dyed his hair purple.
 - The adjective “purple” is an objective complement; the verb “dyed” is factitive.

Like predicate nominatives, some objective complements are introduced by the expletive “as.”

Example:

The European travelers chose a bilingual woman as their spokesperson.

Objective complements appear only in active sentences. To change a sentence with an objective complement into its corresponding passive sentence, one takes the direct object of the sentence and makes it the subject. The passive factitive verb acts as a linking verb, and the objective complement of the original sentence becomes a subjective complement (either a predicate nominative or a predicate adjective). To see how this works, let’s change the five example sentences above into their corresponding passive forms.

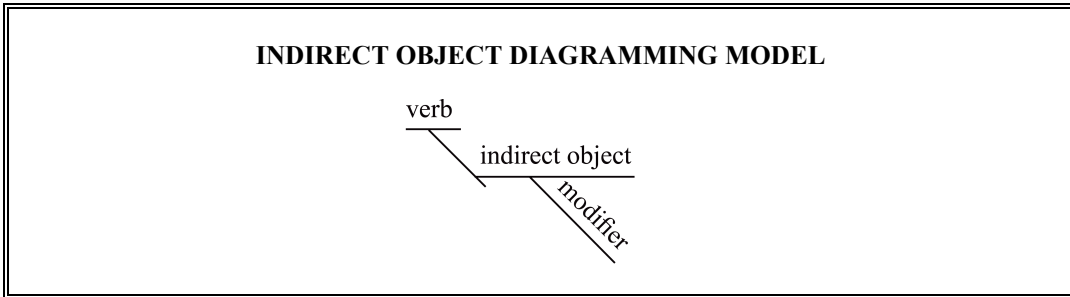
Examples:

1. Their mascot was called Herbie.
 - “Herbie” is a predicate nominative.
2. He will be made strong by the summer job.
 - “Strong” is a predicate adjective.
3. The poor boy has been rendered speechless by the shock of standing in front of the class.
 - “Speechless” is a predicate adjective.
4. The hair of one of my classmates was dyed purple.
 - “Purple” is a predicate adjective.
5. A bilingual woman was chosen as spokesperson by the European travelers.
 - “Spokesperson” is a predicate nominative.

The above rules hold when the objective complement is a noun, a pronoun, or an adjective. We will see in the next lesson that it does not apply when the objective complement is an infinitive.

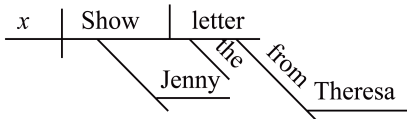
Diagramming Indirect Objects and Objective Complements

An indirect object is diagrammed like an object of a preposition, on a horizontal line that extends to the right from a point near the bottom of a diagonal line whose top touches the base line under the verb. Leave the diagonal line empty:



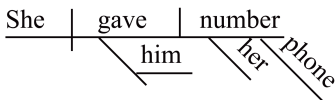
Examples:

1. Show Jenny the letter from Theresa.



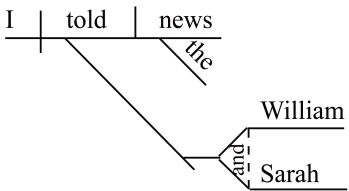
The noun “Jenny,” which indicates the person to whom something is to be shown, is an indirect object. The “x” represents the unexpressed subject “you.” The prepositional phrase “from Theresa” is adjectival.

2. She gave him her phone number.



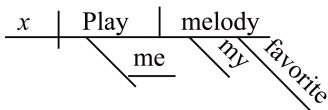
The personal pronoun “him” is an indirect object. “Phone” is a noun used as an adjective.

3. I told William and Sarah the news.



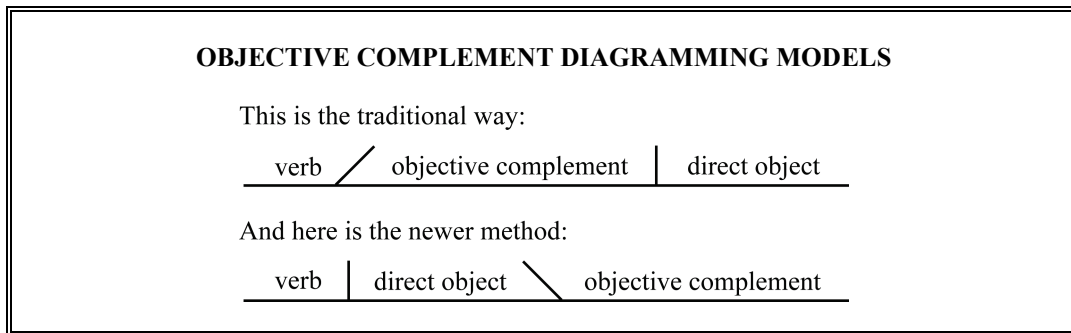
“William and Sarah” is a compound indirect object.

4. Play me my favorite melody.



In this context, playing is a kind of giving; thus the verb “play” can have an indirect object.

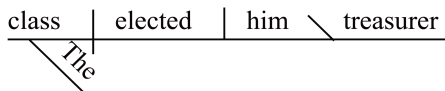
There are two acceptable ways of diagramming objective complements. The one has tradition on its side, while the other is more appealing to most people today:



The following examples utilize the newer method:

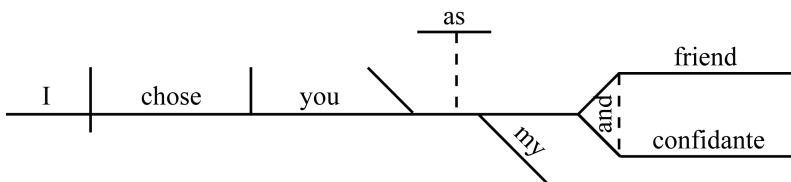
Examples:

1. The class elected him treasurer.



The noun “treasurer” is an objective complement.

2. I chose you as my friend and confidante.



“Friend and confidante” is a compound objective complement. “As” is an expletive.

Infinitives

Transitive Infinitives

The basic form of a verb—the form that is usually preceded by the particle “to”—is called an infinitive. All *infinitives* have tense, and *transitive infinitives* have voice as well as progressivity; however, they do not have person and number.

INFINITIVES OF THE TRANSITIVE VERB “FIND”

1. *Present Active*: to find
2. *Present Passive*: to be found
3. *Present-Perfect Active*: to have found
4. *Present-Perfect Passive*: to have been found
5. *Progressivity*: to be finding, to have been finding

An infinitive with its modifiers and objects is called an infinitive phrase. Like simple infinitives, infinitive phrases can be used as adverbs, adjectives, or nouns.

Examples:

1. They are playing to win. (as an *adverb*)
2. We drove fifty miles to see the performance. (as an *adverb*)
3. You have nothing to do. (as an *adjective*)
4. I am looking for something to read on vacation. (as an *adjective*)
5. Who doesn't want to succeed? (as a *noun*)
6. The children are learning to write correctly. (as a *noun*)

When used as nouns, infinitives and infinitive phrases can be subjects, direct objects, predicate nominatives, appositives, objects of prepositions, and objective complements.

Examples:

1. To die is our common destiny. (as a *subject*)
2. To fly is fun for a while. (as a *subject*)
3. To stand up for the rights of the underprivileged is admirable. (as a *subject*)
4. To drive a car properly requires practice and a respect for the rights of others. (as a *subject*)

5. Do you want to rest? (as a *direct object*)
6. Children like to run and play. (as a *direct object*)
7. She tried to read a good book. (as a *direct object*)
8. Would you prefer to go to a movie today or to eat out tomorrow? (as a *direct object*)
9. Their goal will be to survive. (as a *predicate nominative*)
10. Her job was to hire the best people available. (as a *predicate nominative*)
11. To strive is to succeed. (as a *predicate nominative*)
12. It was not my idea to leave early. (as an *appositive*)
13. Sometimes it is necessary to stand and fight. (as an *appositive*)
14. Nothing remained except to fold our tents and go home. (as the *object of the preposition "except"*)
15. The waiter did everything but pay the bill. (a "to-less" infinitive as the *object of the preposition "but"*)
16. Do you really have nothing to do except disturb others? (a "to-less" infinitive as the *object of the preposition "except"*)
17. She made them stay after school. (a "to-less" infinitive as an *objective complement*)
18. He heard someone come in the back door. (a "to-less" infinitive as an *objective complement*)
19. We watched the red sun sink below the horizon. (a "to-less" infinitive as an *objective complement*)

In these cases where the infinitive is used as an objective complement, the infinitive is quite often "to-less."

One might consider the phrase "to be honest" as an objective complement in the sentence "I believe him to be honest." However, a better analysis of this sentence might be to consider the phrase "him to be honest" as an objective-case subject with a verb in the infinitive form (a construction akin to the subject accusative with infinitive in Latin). The sentence can be restated as "I believe that he is honest" (i.e., with the indirect statement underlined), which is precisely the kind of construction that is rendered as a subject accusative with infinitive in Latin.

Complementary Infinitives

The modal auxiliary verbs "may," "might," "can," "could," "should," and "must" are so closely tied to their complements (the verbs that complete them) that the two (modal auxiliary and complement) are considered single verb forms ("may arrive," "can help," "should wait," "must have seen," etc.) and are so diagrammed. Other verbs achieve this same closeness with their complements ("ought to hurry," "am going to meet," "used to watch," etc.). In such constructions, the infinitives that complement the introductory words are usually preceded by the particle "to" and are called *complementary infinitives*.

Examples:

1. Students have to stay in their homerooms until the bell rings.

2. Students ought to stay in their homerooms until the bell rings.
3. Students are to stay in their homerooms until the bell rings.
4. Students are going to stay in their homerooms until the bell rings.
5. Students used to stay in their homerooms until the bell rang.

Do not confuse complementary infinitives with direct objects. In general, sentences that contain transitive verbs (i.e., verbs that take direct objects) are able to be restated in the passive voice. Even though “have” and “used” can take direct objects, they can’t do so in the above sentences because their meanings there do not allow them to be used passively. If you try to express these sentences in the passive voice, you get nonsense.

Example:

To stay in homerooms until the bell rings is had by students. (Nonsense, right?)

Above, you were introduced to infinitives and infinitive phrases used as predicate nominatives; now, you will meet infinitives and infinitive phrases used as predicate adjectives. The infinitives may be preceded by forms of the verb “to be,” but they can also follow other linking verbs (e.g., “seem,” “appear,” and certain passive verbs).

Examples:

1. He seemed to have all his ducks in a row. (as a *predicate adjective*)
2. One contestant appears to lack self-confidence. (as a *predicate adjective*)
3. The Royal Library of Alexandria is thought to have contained more than 500,000 books. (as a *predicate adjective*)
4. This is said to be the best Vietnamese restaurant in town. (as a *predicate adjective*)

In a peculiar construction, the particle “for” is used as an expletive to introduce an infinitive phrase used as a subject, a direct object, a predicate nominative, or an appositive. Such infinitive phrases have subjects.

Examples:

1. For us to deny our common humanity would be harmful to society. (subject of infinitive: “us”)
2. The old man does not like for others to do his work for him. (subject of infinitive: “others”)
3. The plan was for him to read the script first. (subject of infinitive: “him”)
4. It is essential to the success of the company for all employees to contribute their time and talents. (subject of infinitive: “employees”)

An infinitive phrase can also be used as the object of the preposition “for.”

Examples:

1. The salespeople were itching for the last customers to leave the store. (subject of infinitive: “customers”)
2. The boss bought a second car for the staff to use. (subject of infinitive: “staff”)

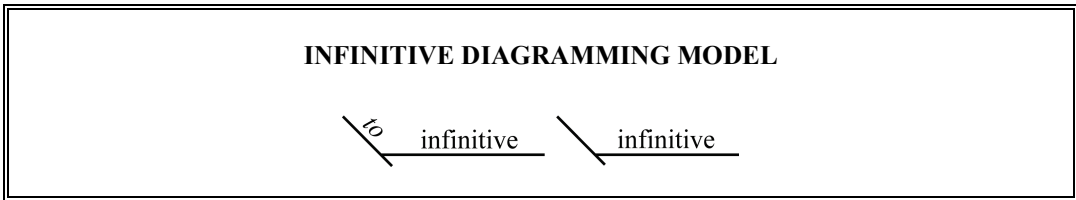
Finally, infinitives and infinitive phrases can also be used as independent expressions.

Examples:

1. To tell the truth, I've never caught a really big fish in my life.
2. Kay made a good impression, to say the least.

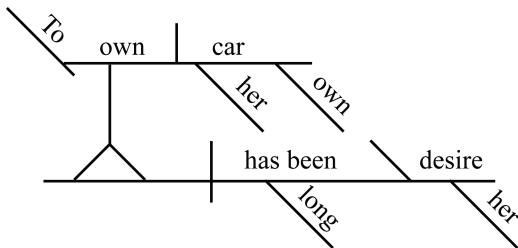
Diagramming Infinitives

Most infinitives are preceded by the particle “to”; however, some are “to-less”:



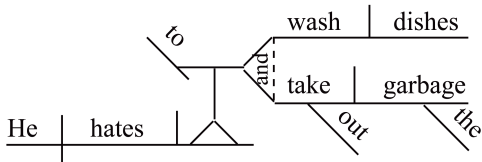
Examples:

1. To own her own car has long been her desire.



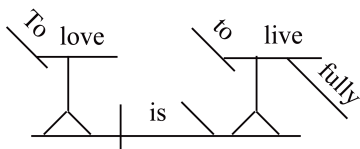
The infinitive phrase “to own her own car” is the subject of the sentence.

2. He hates to wash dishes and take out the garbage.



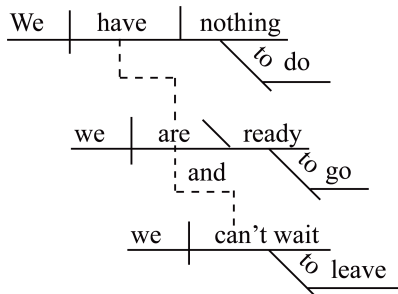
This sentence features a compound infinitive phrase used as a direct object.

3. To love is to live fully.



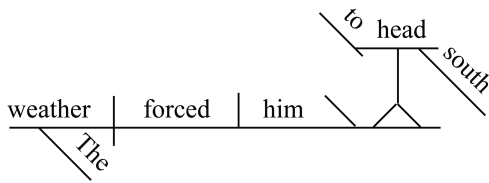
The subject of the sentence is the infinitive “to love”; the infinitive phrase “to live fully” is a predicate nominative.

4. We have nothing to do, we are ready to go, and we can't wait to leave.

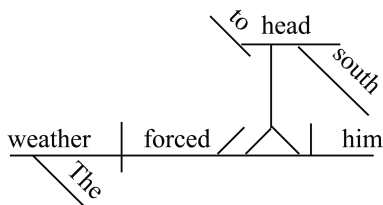


“To do” is an adjectival infinitive; it modifies the noun “nothing.” “To go” is an adverbial infinitive; it modifies the adjective “ready.” “To leave” is an adverbial infinitive; it modifies the verb “can’t wait.”

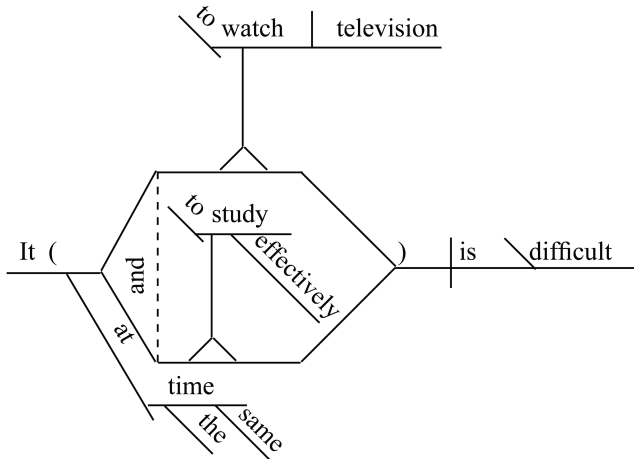
5. The weather forced him to head south.



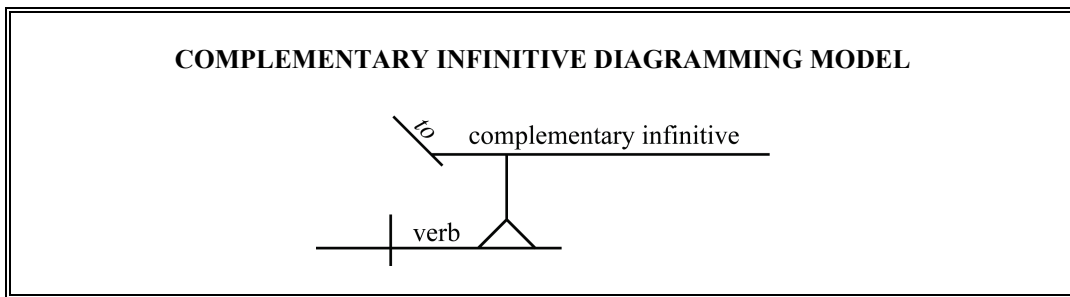
The infinitive phrase “to head south” is an objective complement. Don’t forget the other way of diagramming objective complements, as follows:



6. It is difficult to watch television and to study effectively at the same time.

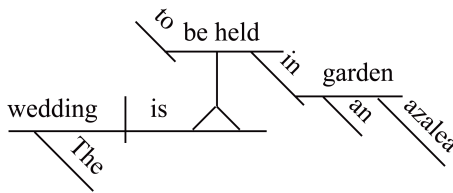


The compound infinitive phrase “to watch television and to study effectively at the same time” is in apposition with the subject of the sentence, “it.”



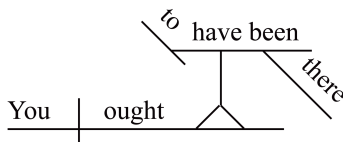
Examples:

1. The wedding is to be held in an azalea garden.



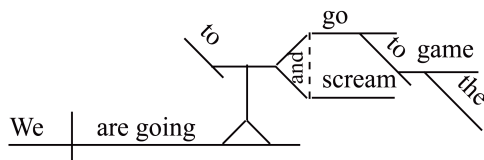
The complementary infinitive “to be held” is in the present tense, passive voice.

2. You ought to have been there.



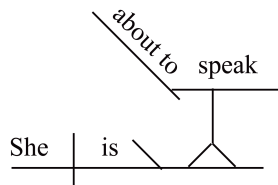
“To have been” is a complementary infinitive. It is in the present perfect tense.

3. We are going to go to the game and scream.



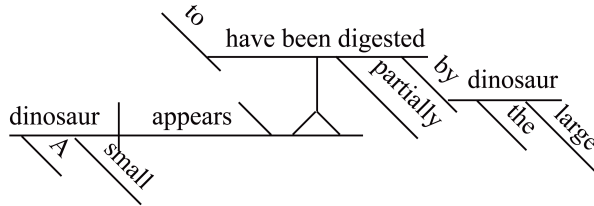
“To go to the game and scream” is a compound complementary infinitive phrase.

4. She is about to speak.



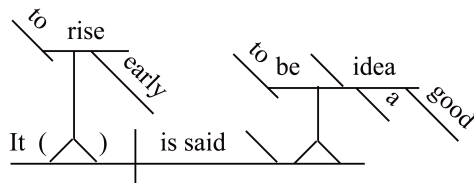
“About to” is a phrasal particle.

5. A small dinosaur appears to have been partially digested by the large dinosaur.



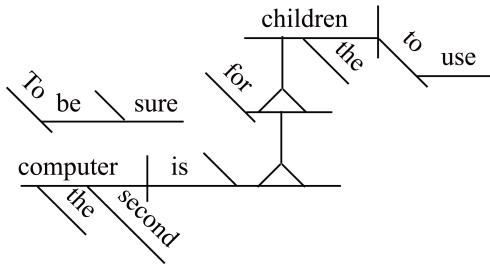
The infinitive phrase introduced by the present perfect passive infinitive “to have been digested” functions as a predicate adjective after the linking verb “appears.”

6. It is said to be a good idea to rise early.



The passive verb “is said” functions as a linking verb. The infinitive phrase “to rise early” is in apposition with the subject, “it.”

7. To be sure, the second computer is for the children to use.



“To be sure” is an independent infinitive phrase; therefore, its diagram is completely separate from the rest of the diagram. “For the children to use” is a prepositional phrase that functions as a predicate adjective. “Children” is the subject of the infinitive “to use.”

Gerunds

Gerunds are verbal nouns; in other words, they are both nouns and verbs. As a noun, a gerund can function as other nouns function (i.e., as the subject of a sentence, as a direct object, as a predicate nominative, etc.). As a verb, a gerund can have several different functions. If the gerund is a linking verb, it can be followed by a predicate nominative or a predicate adjective. A transitive gerund can take a direct object. Finally, if it is a verb of saying, giving, or showing, a gerund can take an indirect object. With regard to how a gerund can be modified, again there are two different possibilities. As a noun, a gerund can be modified by adjectives and by words functioning as adjectives (i.e., nouns, prepositional phrases, etc.). As a verb, a gerund can be modified by adverbs and by words functioning as adverbs (i.e., adverbial objectives, prepositional phrases, etc.).

Like infinitives, gerunds have tense and (in the case of transitive gerunds) voice; however, gerunds do not have person or number. If a verb is intransitive (i.e., a verb that does NOT transfer action to an object), it has only two gerund forms. For example, the intransitive verb “be” has only two gerund forms: present (“being”) and present-perfect (“having been”). These two gerunds could be used in a sentence like “Being in love is better than having been in love.” If a verb is transitive (i.e., a verb that does transfer action to an object), it has two active forms and two corresponding passive forms. For example, the transitive verb “to see” has not only a present active gerund (“seeing”) and a present-perfect active gerund (“having seen”) but also a present passive gerund (“being seen”) as well as a present-perfect passive gerund (“having been seen”).

Gerund Phrases

A gerund with its complements, objects, and modifiers constitutes a gerund phrase. **Gerund phrases** can, like simple gerunds, function as subjects, predicate nominatives, appositives, direct objects, objects of prepositions, objective complements, and adverbial objectives (the last of which are mostly limited to modifiers of “worth”).

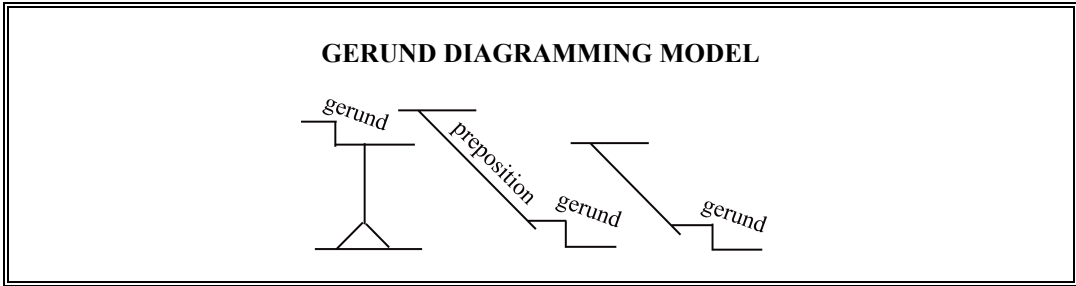
Examples:

1. Waiting is not fun. (as a **subject**)
2. Walking for at least thirty minutes daily is healthy. (as a **subject**)
3. Eating out can get boring. (as a **subject**)
4. Her hobby is running. (as a **predicate nominative**)
5. Giving free food to friends is regarded by the manager as stealing. (as a **predicate nominative**)
6. Learning to walk is putting one foot in front of the other. (as a **predicate nominative**)
7. These are a few of my grandchildren’s favorite things: coloring, listening to stories, and watching videos. (as an **appositive**)
8. It was a pleasure getting to know you. (as an **appositive**)
9. This is the life for me, just lying on the sand and soaking up the sun. (as an **appositive**)
10. She doesn’t like hitting. (as a **direct object**)
11. Do you enjoy their ranting and raving? (as a **direct object**)



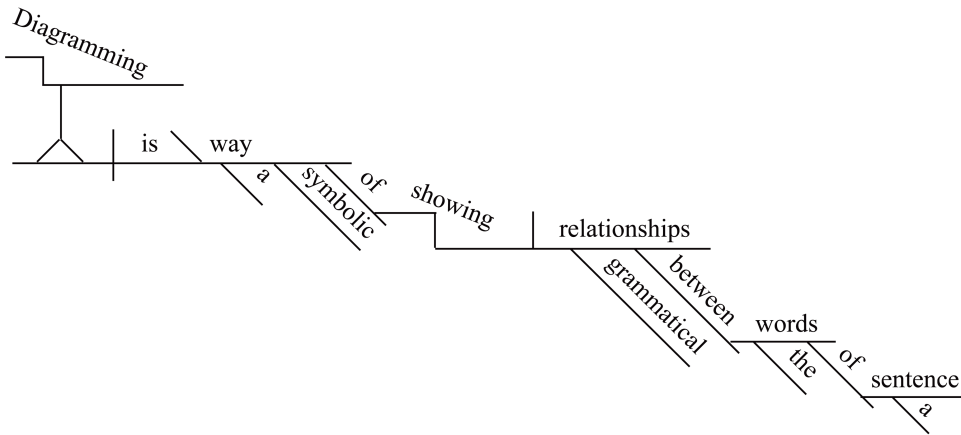
12. Have you tried starting at the beginning? (as a *direct object*)
13. In the wintertime you can lower your heating bill by freezing. (as the *object of a preposition*)
14. Sunday afternoons are reserved for doing fun things with their children. (as the *object of a preposition*)
15. Since his heart surgery, he has given much thought to eating and drinking healthfully. (as the *object of a preposition*)
16. Do you call that dancing? (as an *objective complement*)
17. The judge condemned their door-to-door sales as taking advantage of the elderly. (as an *objective complement*)
18. Anyone in his right mind would consider that strategy manipulating the books. (as an *objective complement*)
19. Anything worth doing is worth doing right. (as an *adverbial objective*)

Diagramming Gerunds



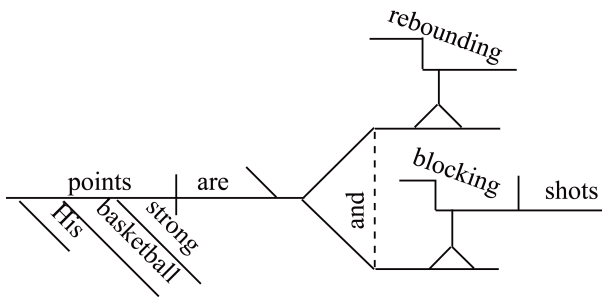
Examples:

1. Diagramming is a symbolic way of showing relationships between words of sentence.



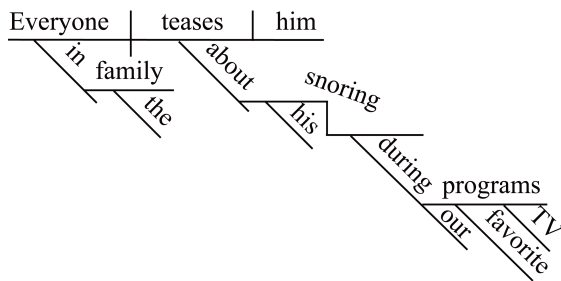
In this sentence, the gerund “diagramming” is the subject. Another gerund, “showing,” introduces a gerund phrase that serves as the object of the preposition “of.”

2. His basketball strong points are rebounding and blocking shots.



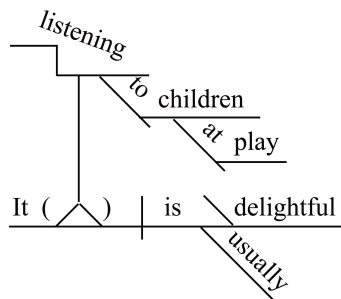
The compound predicate nominative comprises a gerund and a gerund phrase. Because gerunds are not only nouns but also verbs, some of them take direct objects.

3. Everyone in the family teases him about his snoring during our favorite TV programs.



Adjective modifiers of gerunds (i.e., "his") hang from the upper horizontal line of the gerund step-down, whereas adverbial modifiers (i.e., the prepositional phrase "during our favorite TV programs") hang from the lower line.

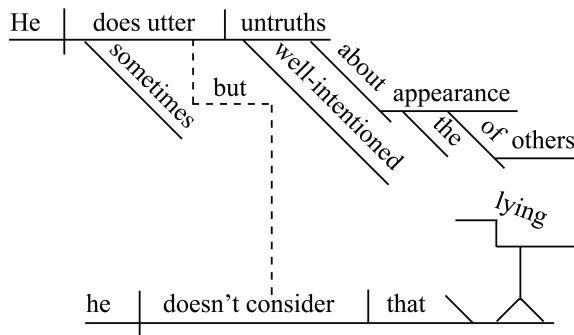
4. It is usually delightful listening to children at play.



The gerund phrase "listening to children at play" is in apposition with the subject of the sentence, "it."



5. He does sometimes utter well-intentioned untruths about the appearance of others, but he doesn't consider that lying.



“That” is a demonstrative pronoun that functions as a direct object while the gerund “lying” is an objective complement.

EXERCISE 11

Gerunds

DIRECTIONS: Create a diagram for each of the following sentences. Answers are on page 776.

1. Ms. Shelby, a teacher at our school, calls her friendship with Mr. Moss, a teacher at a rival school, “fraternizing with the enemy.”
2. Something worth quoting is worth quoting accurately.
3. The landlord increased his profit by raising the rent and reducing the amenities.
4. The men are playing golf and the women are going shopping.
5. The joylessness in Mudville is the result of Casey’s not having hit a home run.

Participles

Participles are verbal adjectives; in other words, they are both verbs and adjectives. Like infinitives and gerunds, participles have tense and voice but no person and number. There are five participial forms of most transitive verbs:

PARTICIPIAL FORMS OF THE VERB “CARRY”

1. *Present Active*: carrying
2. *Present Passive*: being carried
3. *Present-Perfect Active*: having carried
4. *Present-Perfect Passive*: having been carried
5. *Simple Past*: carried

Participles can function both as attributive adjectives and as predicate adjectives. They can also serve as objective complements. They have an essential role in nominative absolutes, and they have an independent use.

Participles and participial phrases can modify subjects, predicate nominatives, direct objects, indirect objects, objects of prepositions, appositives, objective complements, and adverbial objectives.

Examples:

1. Lost, the puppy wandered from house to house in search of food. (as an *attributive adjective*)
 - A past participle modifies a subject.
2. Having run all the way from Marathon to Athens, the messenger died. (as an *attributive adjective*)
 - A participial phrase introduced by a present-perfect participle modifies a subject.
3. Having been shot, he was rushed to a nearby hospital. (as an *attributive adjective*)
 - A present-perfect passive participle modifies a subject.
4. The first thing they saw was a uniformed man riding a white horse. (as an *attributive adjective*)
 - A participial phrase introduced by a present active participle modifies a predicate nominative.
5. Do you know the person being arrested? (as an *attributive adjective*)
 - A present passive participle modifies a direct object.
6. They gave the girl sleeping in the corner an award for honesty. (as an *attributive adjective*)
 - A participial phrase introduced by a present participle modifies an indirect object.

7. The children found all the eggs except the one hidden in an old flower pot. (as an *attributive adjective*)
 - A participial phrase introduced by a past participle modifies an object of a preposition.
8. Mary’s life was saved by her sister, the woman standing next to her. (as an *attributive adjective*)
 - A participial phrase introduced by a present participle modifies an appositive.
9. Thomas Heywood considered Mistress Frankford a woman killed with kindness and so titled his play. (as an *attributive adjective*)
 - A participial phrase introduced by a past participle modifies an objective complement.
10. The finished product did not seem to be worth the time and effort invested in it. (as an *attributive adjective*)
 - A participial phrase introduced by a past participle modifies a compound adverbial objective.
11. The children came running. (as a *predicate adjective*)
 - The intransitive verb “came” functions as a linking verb in this sentence.
12. You were seen lying on a park bench across from the train station. (as a *predicate adjective*)
 - The passive verb “were seen” acts as a linking verb.
13. They feel themselves being drawn through a tunnel. (as an *objective complement*)
14. Each morning, the neighbors heard him whistling the same tune. (as an *objective complement*)

Nominative Absolutes

Nominative absolutes are grammatically independent expressions consisting of nouns or pronouns modified by participles.

Examples:

1. Their funds exhausted, they knew one of them had to find a job fast.
2. Victory having been accomplished at a terrible price, the homecoming was bittersweet at best.

Dangling Participles

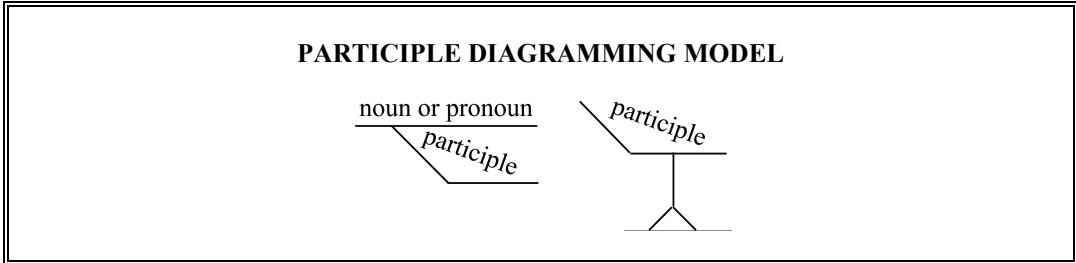
While careful speakers of English avoid *dangling participles* like the plague, they typically allow themselves to dangle the present participle “speaking.”

Example:

Speaking of food, it’s time to head home and light the grill.

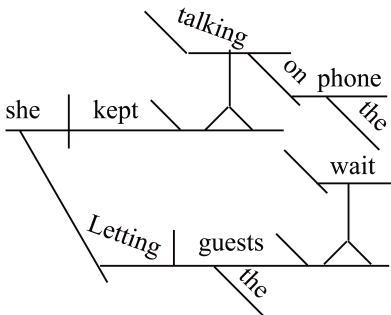
- The participle “speaking” is used independently with nothing to modify; one can argue that it functions here as a preposition.

Diagramming Participles



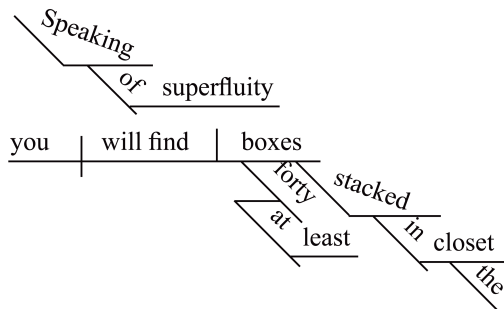
Examples:

1. Letting the guests wait, she kept talking on the phone.



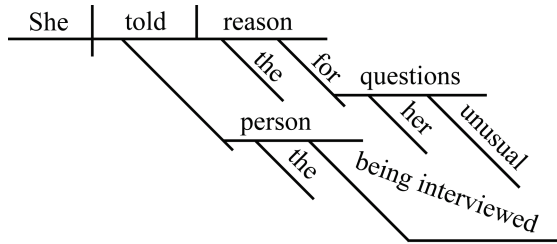
“Letting” and “talking” are present participles. The former serves as an attributive adjective, the latter as a predicate adjective after the verb “kept,” which in this sentence is a linking verb. The “to-less” infinitive “wait” is an objective complement.

2. Speaking of superfluity, you will find at least forty boxes stacked in the closet.



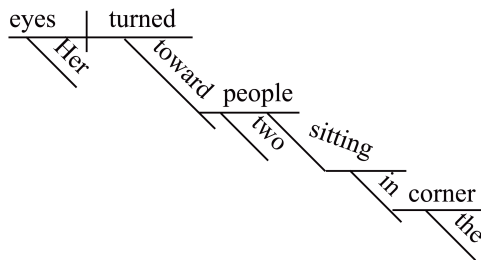
“Speaking of superfluity” is an independent participial phrase. “Stacked” is a past participle. The participial phrase “stacked in the closet” modifies “boxes,” a direct object.

3. She told the person being interviewed the reason for her unusual questions.



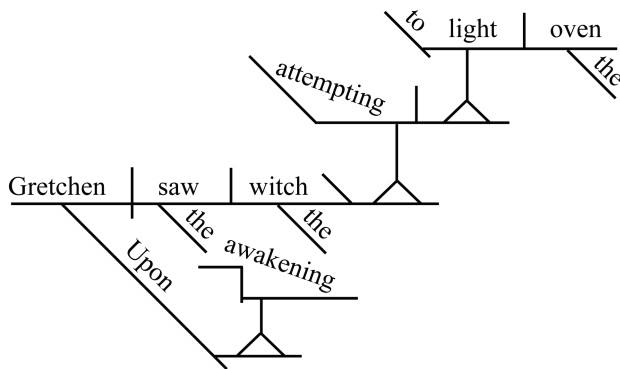
The present passive participle “being interviewed” modifies the indirect object, “person.”

4. Her eyes turned toward two people sitting in the corner.



“Sitting” is a present participle. The participial phrase “sitting in the corner” modifies “people,” the object of the preposition “toward.”

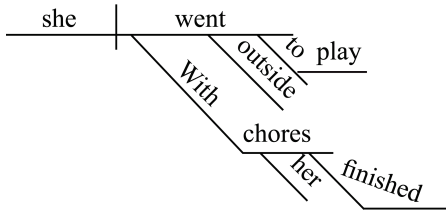
5. Upon awakening, Gretchen saw the witch attempting to light the oven.



“Awakening,” the object of the preposition “upon,” is a gerund, not a participle. The participial phrase “attempting to light the oven” is an objective complement. Within this phrase, the infinitive phrase “to light the oven” functions as the direct object of the present active participle “attempting.”



6. With her chores finished, she went outside to play.



“With her chores” is a prepositional phrase modifying the verb. “Finished” is a past participle modifying “chores.”

EXERCISE 12

Participles

DIRECTIONS: Create a diagram for each of the following sentences. Answers are on page 777.

1. Still running smoothly after twenty-five miles, she left the park and headed for the finish line.
2. Chewing, spitting, and occasionally talking, the three old-timers watched the people and the trains go by.
3. Having reached the end of her twelve-hour shift, the exhausted nurse heaved a sigh of relief.
4. The bridge having collapsed, some interstate commuters were forced to drive much farther each day.
5. Speaking of rascals, Oscar just knocked at the door.

Adverb Clauses

A clause is a group of words that has a subject and a predicate (i.e., the verb, its objects, and the modifiers of the verb and of its objects). An independent, or main, clause is a clause that can stand alone as a complete sentence. Every sentence must have at least one main clause. A dependent, or subordinate, clause cannot stand alone as a complete sentence but is dependent upon another clause.

Up until now, we have been considering (and diagramming) only independent clauses. There are three types of dependent clauses: **adverb clauses**, adjective clauses, and noun clauses. In this lesson, you will be introduced to adverb clauses.

Subordinating Conjunctions

Some adverb clauses are introduced by subordinating conjunctions (e.g., “because,” “since,” “although,” and “if”).

Examples:

1. Stacy stayed home on Derby day because it was raining.
2. Since none of us has a basketball, we can’t play basketball.
 - For “since” to be a subordinating conjunction, it must be causal (i.e., it must mean “because”).
3. Although she had just bought a new dress, she decided to wear an old one.
4. I would have left earlier if I hadn’t had to clean my room.
 - “If” is a subordinating conjunction only when it is conditional.

Relative Adverbs

Other adverb clauses are introduced by **relative adverbs** (e.g., “when,” “where,” “after,” “before,” “while,” “since,” and “as”). Relative adverbs are adverbs because they modify the kinds of words that adverbs modify. They are called relative adverbs because, in part, they function as prepositions with relative-pronoun objects. This will become clear as you examine the following examples:

Examples:

1. We can do our homework when we return.
 - The relative adverb “when” can be expressed as “at the time at which.” This expression comprises two prepositional phrases: “at the time” and “at which,” the former modifying the verb “do” and the latter modifying the verb “return.” “Which” in “at which” is a relative pronoun. Relative pronouns and relative clauses are discussed in the lesson that immediately precedes Exercise 14.
2. Dorothy wanted to go where her friends were going.
 - The relative adverb “where” is the equivalent of “to the place to which.”

3. When we retire, we can go hiking whenever the weather is accommodating.
 - Both “when” and “whenever” are relative adverbs. The latter is the equivalent to “at any time at which.” “When” and “where” can also be interrogative adverbs and, as such, introduce direct and indirect questions (the latter being noun clauses, which is the topic of the lesson that immediately precedes Exercise 15).
4. Make hay while the sun shines.
 - “While,” a relative adverb, can be restated as “during the time at which.”
5. After he had worked in the garden for an hour, he sat down and fell asleep.
 - The relative adverb “after” can be restated as “after the time at which.” Notice that “after” in the expression “after the time at which” is not a relative adverb but a preposition.
6. He hasn’t stopped talking since he got here.
 - The relative adverb “since” is temporal, not causal. It is the equivalent of “since the time at which.” The latter “since” is a preposition.

Equal and Unequal Comparisons

There are two types of comparison: equal and unequal. Both are expressed by using relative adverbs and (often elliptical) subordinate clauses. *Equal comparisons* require the positive (or basic) form of an adjective or adverb preceded by “as” or “so” (ordinary adverbs) and followed by “as” (a relative adverb). *Unequal comparisons* require the comparative form of an adjective or adverb followed by the relative adverb “than.”

Adjectives and adverbs have three gradations:

POSITIVE, COMPARATIVE, AND SUPERLATIVE ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

1. *Adjectives*: tall, taller, tallest; good, better, best; beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful
2. *Adverbs*: soon, sooner, soonest; well, better, best; awkwardly, more awkwardly, most awkwardly

The sentence “You are as tall as she” expresses an equal comparison (i.e., the two people being compared are equal in height). Every comparison contains a subordinate clause, which is usually expressed elliptically. For example, “You are as tall as she” in its expanded form is “You are as tall as she is tall.” The first “as” of the correlatives “as...as” is a regular adverb; it modifies the adjective “tall” (the first one). The second “as” is a relative adverb and modifies the second (or unexpressed) “tall.” To see why the second “as” is not an ordinary adverb but a relative adverb, consider this equivalent restatement: “You are tall in the degree in which she is tall.” The first “as” is rendered by “in the degree,” the second by “in which.” Since this “which” is a relative pronoun, the second “as” is called a relative adverb.

Examples:

1. Jessica can run as fast as her brother.
Expanded sentence: Jessica can run as fast as her brother can run fast.
Equivalent sentence: Jessica can run fast in the degree in which her brother can run fast. (“Fast” is an adverb in this sentence.)
2. The Smiths are not so wealthy as the Joneses.
Expanded sentence: The Smiths are not so wealthy as the Joneses are wealthy.
Equivalent sentence: The Smiths are not wealthy in the degree in which the Joneses are wealthy.
3. They are as honest as they are kind. (This sentence is not elliptical.)
Equivalent sentence: They are honest in the degree in which they are kind.

The sentence “You are taller than she” expresses an unequal comparison (i.e., the two people being compared are unequal in height). The expanded form of this elliptical sentence is “You are taller than she is tall.” This is equivalent to “You are tall beyond the degree in which she is tall.” In this restatement, “taller” is rendered as “tall beyond the degree,” and “than” is expressed as “in which,” a prepositional phrase containing a relative pronoun; thus, “than” is called a relative adverb.

Examples:

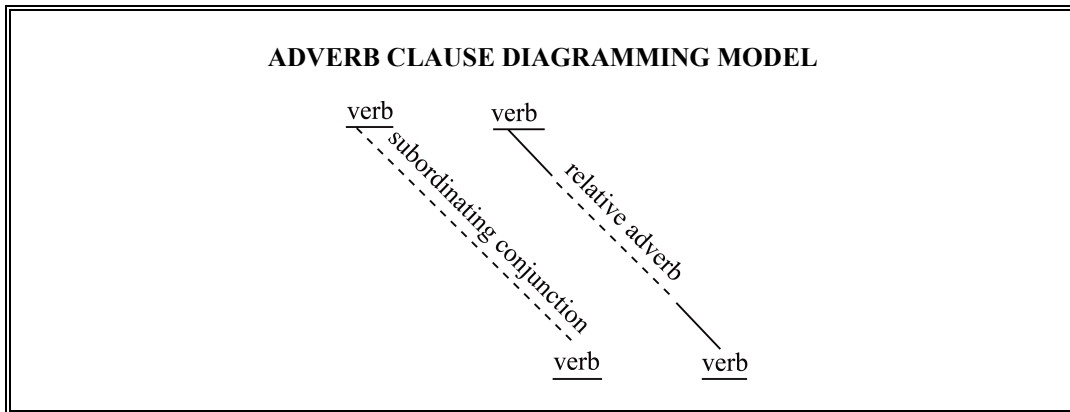
1. Her work is more difficult than his.
Expanded sentence: Her work is more difficult than his is difficult.
Equivalent sentence: Her work is difficult beyond the degree in which his is difficult.
2. Jack was hurt worse than Jill.
Expanded sentence: Jack was hurt worse than Jill was hurt badly.
Equivalent sentence: Jack was hurt badly beyond the degree in which Jill was hurt badly.
3. I would rather write a report than read one.
Expanded sentence: I would rather write a report than I would gladly read one.
Equivalent sentence: I would write a report gladly beyond the degree in which I would gladly read one.

You have been introduced to the correlatives “as...as” and “so...as” and have noted that they are used with the positive degree of adjectives and adverbs (in so-called equal comparisons). Another correlative expression, “the...the,” is used with the comparative degree. In the sentence “The bigger they are, the harder they fall,” which can be rephrased as “They fall harder in the degree in which they are bigger,” “the” in “the bigger” is a relative adverb, while “the” in “the harder” is a regular adverb.

In the sentence “We were so tired that we fell asleep right away,” “so...that” (always with an intervening word or words) is a correlative expression expressing result. It is not to be confused with “so that” (written together), which expresses purpose (e.g., “She turned off the TV so that she could study better.”); “so that” is a phrasal subordinating conjunction. In the case of “so...that,” “so” is a regular adverb and “that” is a relative adverb. The sentence “We were so tired that we fell asleep right away” can be restated as “We were tired to the degree at which we fell asleep right away.”

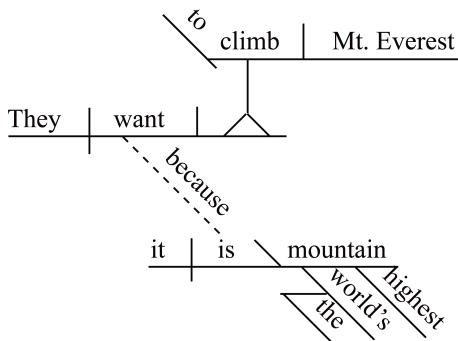
Diagramming Adverb Clauses

Adverb clauses are introduced by subordinating conjunctions and relative adverbs:



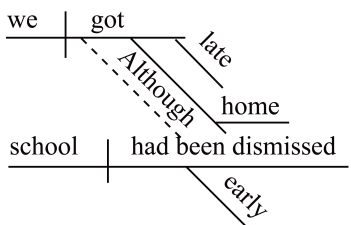
Examples:

1. They want to climb Mt. Everest because it is the world's highest mountain.



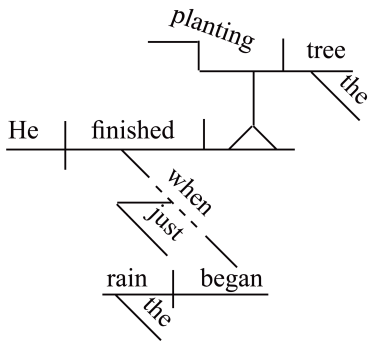
The subordinating conjunction “because” introduces a dependent clause (everything from “because” on). The infinitive phrase “to climb Mt. Everest” is a direct object. “Mountain” is a predicate nominative. “The” modifies “world’s,” not “mountain.” (For example, in the phrase “my teacher’s grade book,” “my” modifies “teacher’s,” so it must follow that “the” would also modify “teacher’s” if the phrase were changed to “the teacher’s grade book.”)

2. Although school had been dismissed early, we got home late.



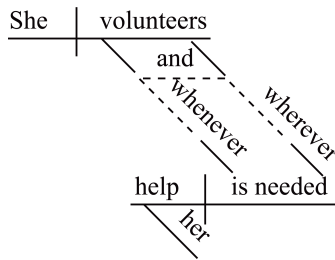
In sentence diagrams, dependent clauses are placed below independent clauses regardless of word order. “Home” is diagrammed as an adverbial objective here. It can also be construed and diagrammed as a simple adverb.

3. He finished planting the tree just when the rain began.



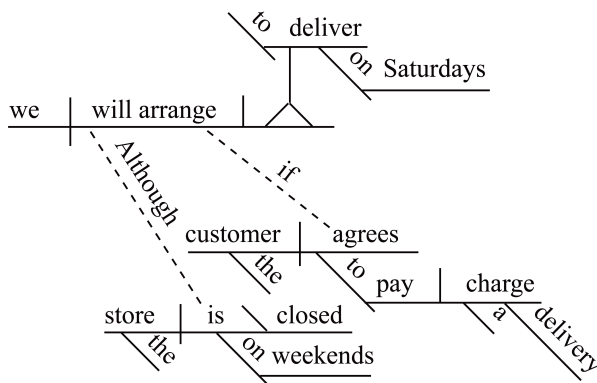
The solid lines at both ends of the broken line show that “when” modifies both “finished” and “began.” The relative adverb “when” is modified by the adverb “just.” The gerund phrase “planting a tree” functions as a direct object.

4. She volunteers whenever and wherever her help is needed.



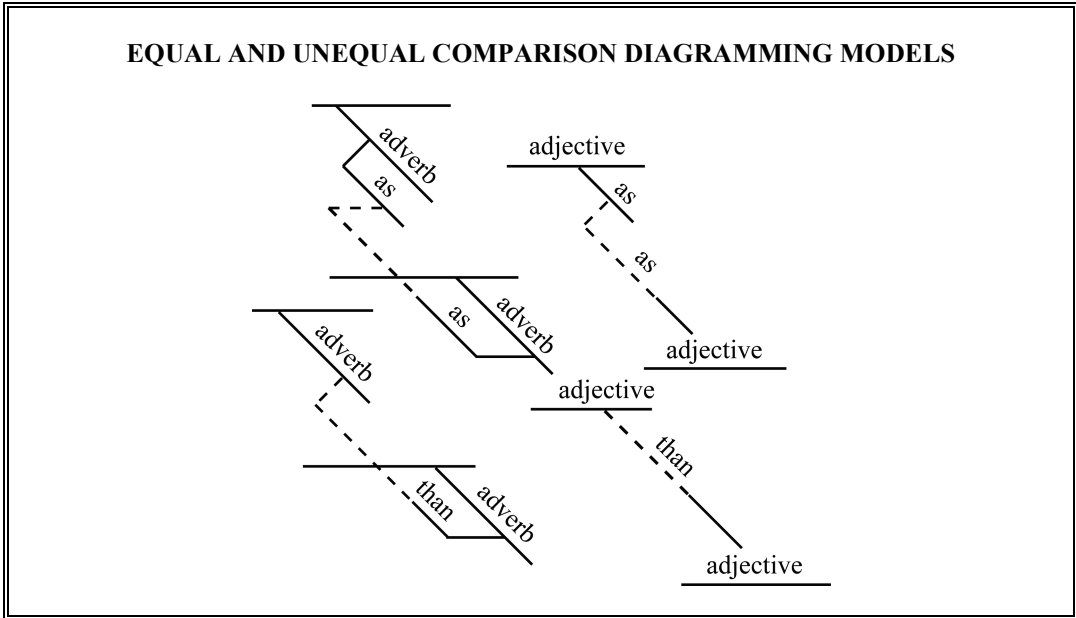
The dependent clause is introduced by the compound relative adverb “whenever and wherever.”

5. Although the store is closed on weekends, we will arrange to deliver on Saturdays if the customer agrees to pay a delivery charge.



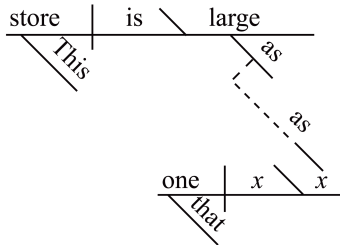
This sentence has two subordinate clauses, each introduced by a subordinating conjunction. “Closed” is not a participle in this sentence but a simple adjective.

Diagramming Equal and Unequal Comparisons



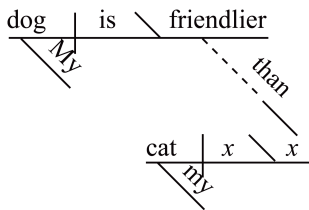
Examples:

1. This store is as large as that one.



The sentence expresses an equal comparison. Like most comparative sentences, it is elliptical. The expanded sentence is “This store is as large as that one is large.” The instances of “x” in the diagram represent the words “is” and “large.” The sentence can be restated as “This store is large in the degree in which that store is large.” The first adverb is a regular adverb; it modifies the first “large.” The second “as” is a relative adverb. In the rephrased sentence, it is expressed by “in which,” a prepositional phrase containing a relative pronoun.

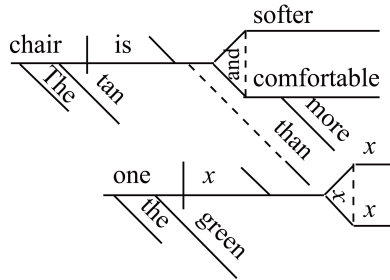
2. My dog is friendlier than my cat.





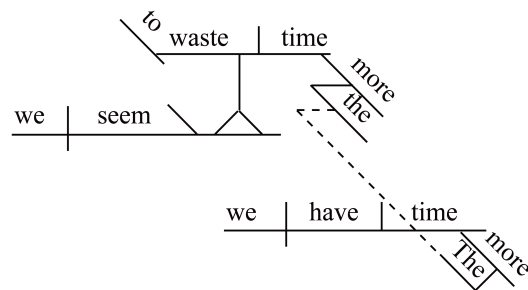
This sentence, which expresses an unequal comparison, is elliptical. The expanded sentence is “My dog is friendlier than my cat is friendly”; hence, the instances of “x” in the diagram represent the words “is” and “friendly.” An equivalent sentence is “My dog is friendly beyond the degree in which my cat is friendly.” “Than” is a relative adverb.

- 3. The tan chair is softer and more comfortable than the green one.



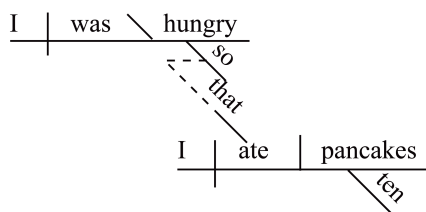
An equivalent sentence would be “The tan chair is soft and comfortable beyond the degree in which the green one is soft and comfortable.” “Than” is a relative adverb.

- 4. The more time we have, the more time we seem to waste.



This sentence can be rephrased as “We seem to waste more time in the degree in which we have more time.” “The” in “the more time we have” is a relative adverb, and “the” in “the more time we seem to waste” is a regular adverb.

- 5. I was so hungry that I ate ten pancakes.



This sentence is equivalent to “I was hungry to the degree at which I ate ten pancakes.” “So” is a regular adverb, and “that” is a relative adverb.

Adjective Clauses

Adjective clauses are clauses that modify nouns or any words that substitute for nouns. There are two kinds of adjective clauses: those introduced by relative pronouns and those introduced by relative adverbs.

Relative Clauses

Adjective clauses introduced by relative pronouns (e.g., “who,” “whom,” “whose,” “which,” and “that,” among other words) are called *relative clauses*. Every relative pronoun has an antecedent (i.e., a preceding word or words to which the relative pronoun refers). A relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in number and gender but not in case. It takes its case from its use in its own clause. A good understanding of this idea allows one to choose confidently between “who” and “whom.”

Examples:

1. That is the man whom (or that) we saw at the game.
 - The relative pronoun “whom” (or “that”) is the direct object in its clause. “Man,” the antecedent, is a predicate nominative. Careful speakers and writers do not use “who” in the objective case.
2. Do you know the person who (or that) wrote this book?
 - The relative pronoun “who” (or “that”) is the subject of its clause. Its antecedent, “person,” is a direct object. One never uses “whom” in the nominative case.
3. They are the neighbors whose cat was stolen.
 - “Neighbors,” a predicate nominative, is the antecedent of “whose,” a relative pronoun in the possessive case.
4. Distracted, Joe nearly pulled out in front of a fast-moving truck, which made him look twice at the next intersection.
 - The antecedent of the relative pronoun “which” is not “truck” but the entire clause “he nearly pulled out in front of a fast-moving truck.” In other words, it wasn’t the truck itself but instead his experience of nearly pulling out in front of the truck that made him look twice at the next intersection. “Which” is the subject of the relative clause.

Sometimes, when the relative pronoun “whom” or “that” is a direct object or the object of a preposition, we omit it. Of the previous examples, only the first can be expressed without an expressed relative pronoun: “That is the man we saw at the game.” Another example would be “Those are the tools I work with every day.” In this sentence, the relative pronoun “that,” the object of the preposition “with,” is unexpressed.

The indefinite relative pronouns “whoever,” “whomever,” “whichever,” and “whatever” (along with those with an inserted “so,” such as “whosoever”) ordinarily do not have expressed antecedents.

Examples:

1. "I'll give a bonus point to whoever can tell me what page we're on," said the frustrated French teacher.
 - Many people, even many educated people, would say "whomever" here, thinking (incorrectly) that the indefinite relative pronoun is the object of the preposition "to." It isn't. The unexpressed antecedent "anyone" is the object of the preposition; "whoever" is the subject of the relative clause.
2. They plan to give the money to whomever they find in the shelter.
 - This time "whomever" is correct because it is the direct object in its own clause. The object of the preposition "to" is the unexpressed antecedent "anyone."

The word "what" can mean "that which." When it does, it is considered a relative pronoun.

Example:

They did what the lieutenant ordered.

- In this sentence, an unexpressed "that," the direct object of the verb "did," is the antecedent of "what," a relative pronoun. "What" is the direct object of the verb "ordered."

Relative pronouns also agree with their antecedents in person. Notice the subject-verb agreement in the following:

Example:

You, who are my child, love me, and I, who am your father, love you.

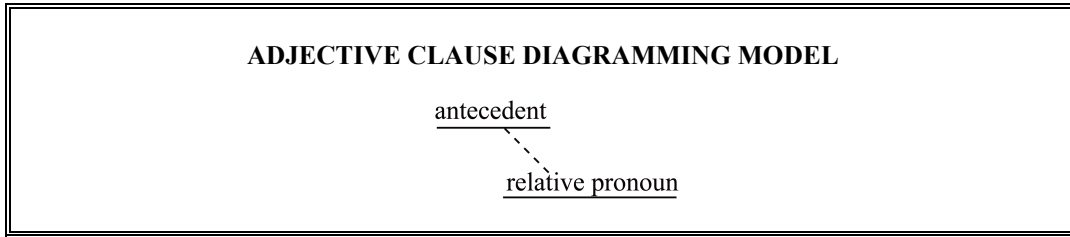
Adjective Clauses Introduced by Relative Adverbs

Examples:

1. That is the reason why I was late.
 - Since "why" is equivalent here to the prepositional phrase "for which," it is called a relative adverb. Notice that this sentence can be expressed without an expressed "why" (i.e., "That is the reason I was late.").
2. From here you can see the hospital where our children were born.
 - "Where," a relative adverb, is equivalent to "in which."
3. Clayton remembers a time when candy bars cost five cents.
 - The relative adverb "when" is equivalent to "at which."

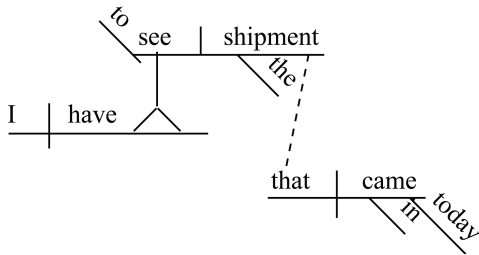
Diagramming Adjective Clauses

In diagramming, one draws a broken line between a relative pronoun and its antecedent. Like all other dependent clauses, a relative clause is diagrammed below its main clause:



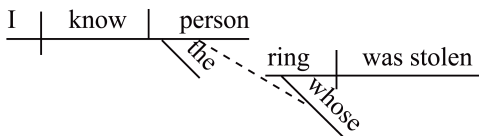
Examples:

- I have to see the shipment that came in today.



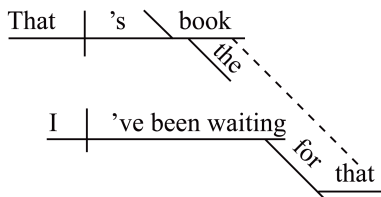
The relative pronoun “that” is the subject of its clause. Its antecedent, “shipment,” is a direct object. “To see” is a complementary infinitive.

- I know the person whose ring was stolen.

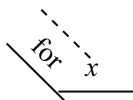


“Person,” a direct object in its clause, is the antecedent of the possessive relative pronoun “whose.”

- That’s the book that I’ve been waiting for.

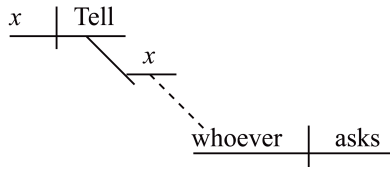


“That,” the object of the preposition “for,” is a relative pronoun. Its antecedent is “book,” a predicate nominative. The second “that” could be omitted (i.e., “That’s the book I’ve been waiting for.”). In diagramming this sentence, one would represent the missing relative pronoun with an “x”:



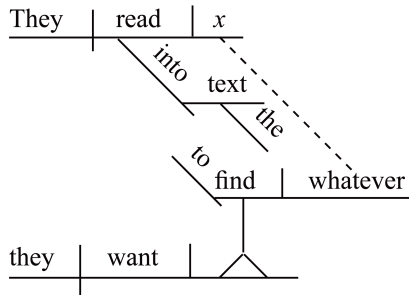


4. Tell whoever asks.



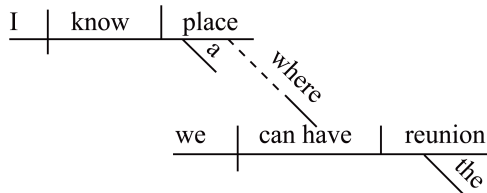
The first “x” stands for the unexpressed subject, “you.” The second “x” stands for “anyone,” the unexpressed antecedent of the indefinite relative pronoun “whoever.”

5. They read into the text whatever they want to find.



The indefinite relative pronoun “whatever” is equivalent to “anything that.” The antecedent is represented in the diagram by an “x.”

6. I know a place where we can have the reunion.



The adjective clause “where we can have the reunion” is introduced by the relative adverb “where” (the equivalent of “at which”).

EXERCISE 14

Adjective Clauses

DIRECTIONS: Create a diagram for each of the following sentences. Answers are on page 782.

1. Choose carefully the person in whom you place your full trust.

2. The guy whose car is parked illegally may soon be looking for a ride.

3. The accident happened on the day they arrived in Miami.

4. The other prizes will be given to whoever answers correctly.

5. I have already told you the reason I can't be there.

Noun Clauses

Noun clauses are clauses that function as nouns. Noun clauses are used as subjects, predicate nominatives, direct objects, objects of prepositions, adverbial objectives, and appositives. They may be introduced by the expletives “that,” “whether,” and “if” (in the sense of “whether”); by the interrogative pronouns “who,” “whom,” “whose,” “which,” and “what”; by the interrogative adjectives “which” and “what”; and by the interrogative adverbs “how,” “when,” “where,” and “why.” Some noun clauses have no special introductory word or words.

Noun Clauses Introduced by the Expletive “That”

Examples:

1. He knew that he had forgotten something.
 - The noun clause “that he had forgotten something” functions as a direct object. The same sentence can be expressed without “that”: “He knew he had forgotten something.”
2. That they scored so few points is a source of great embarrassment to the team, which prides itself on its potent offense.
 - The noun clause “that they scored so few points” is the subject of the sentence.
3. Why doesn’t it bother the teacher that most of her students are talking?
 - The noun clause “that most of her students are talking” serves as an appositive. It is in apposition with the subject “it.”
4. The answer is that she encourages group work at certain times of the day.
 - The noun clause “that she encourages group work at certain times of the day” is a predicate nominative.
5. I’m sorry that we can’t wait that long.
 - The noun clause “that we can’t wait that long” functions as an adverbial objective. It modifies the predicate adjective “sorry.” The same sentence can be expressed with an understood “that”: “I’m sorry we can’t wait that long.”

Noun Clauses Introduced by the Expletives “Whether” and “If”

Examples:

1. Whether we succeed or not often depends on how much effort we are willing to expend.
 - “Whether we succeed or not” is the subject of the sentence. “Whether or not” is a phrasal expletive.

2. Can you tell me if the Kramers live on this street?
 - “If the Kramers live on this street” is a direct object. “If” can sometimes be used as an introductory expletive instead of “whether.”
3. The big question was whether it was going to rain.
 - The noun clause “whether it was going to rain” functions as a predicate nominative. “Whether” is an expletive.
4. The two brothers disagree about whether the Pope is infallible.
 - “Whether the Pope is infallible,” a noun clause, is used here as the object of the preposition “about.”

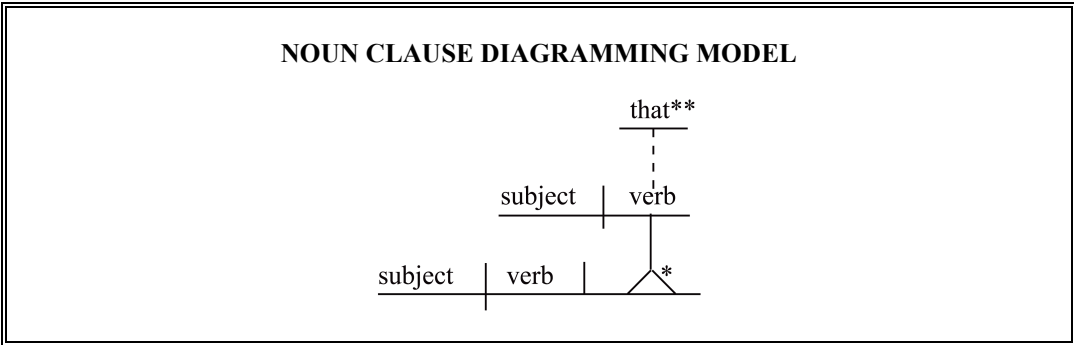
Noun Clauses Introduced by Interrogative Words

Noun clauses can be introduced by interrogative pronouns, interrogative adjectives, and interrogative adverbs.

Examples:

1. Who was required to attend the meeting had never been clarified.
 - The noun clause “who was required to attend the meeting” acts as the subject of the sentence. “Who” is an interrogative pronoun.
2. They asked what they could do to help and what tools were available.
 - The noun clauses form a compound direct object. The first “what” is an interrogative pronoun, and the second “what” is an interrogative adjective.
3. We are puzzled about why we have to stay.
 - The noun clause “why we have to stay” is the object of the preposition “about.” “Why” is an interrogative adverb.
4. It is amazing how long she can remain under water.
 - The noun clause “how long she can remain under water” is an appositive. It is in apposition with the subject of the sentence, “it.” “How” is an interrogative adverb.

Diagramming Noun Clauses

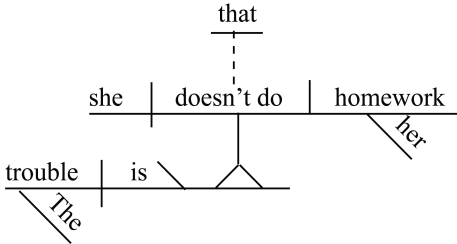


*This particular noun clause is a direct object; however, noun clauses can also function as subjects, predicate nominatives, objects of prepositions, appositives, and adverbial objectives.

**If the expletive “that” is unexpressed, an “x” represents it in a diagram. Other words that can introduce noun clauses are the expletives “whether” and “if” as well as interrogative pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs.

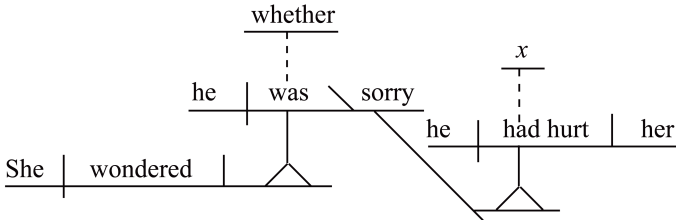
Examples:

1. The trouble is that she doesn't do her homework.



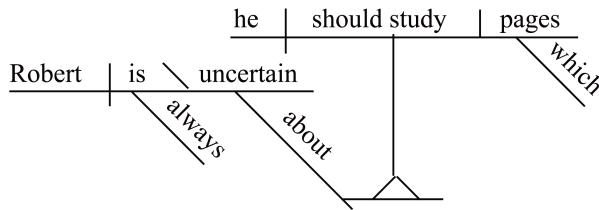
The noun clause “that she doesn't do her homework” functions as a predicate nominative. “That” is an expletive.

2. She wondered whether he was sorry he had hurt her.



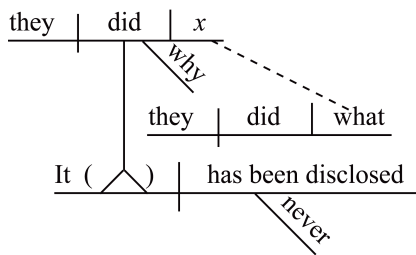
This sentence features a noun clause within a noun clause. The larger noun clause, “whether he was sorry he had hurt her,” functions as a direct object. The smaller noun clause, “he had hurt her,” is an adverbial objective. The expletive “that” is unexpressed. It is represented in the diagram by an “x.”

3. Robert is always uncertain about which pages he should study.



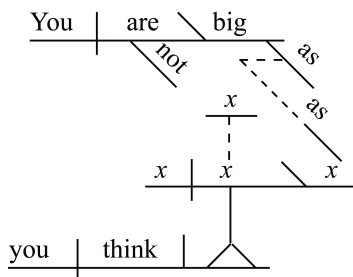
The noun clause “which pages he should study” is the object of the preposition “about.” “Which” is an interrogative adjective.

4. It has never been disclosed why they did what they did.



The noun clause “why they did what they did” is in apposition with the subject of the sentence, “it.” The relative pronoun “what” is the equivalent of “that which.”

5. You are not as big as you think.



This elliptical sentence ends with the unexpressed noun clause “that you are big.” These four words are represented by instances of “x” in the diagram. The sentence contains a so-called equal comparison. The second “as” is a relative adverb; it introduces an adverb clause, of which the unexpressed noun clause is a part.

Glossary of Grammatical Terms and Diagramming

Symbols

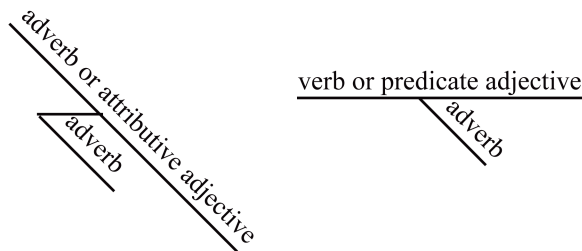
Absolute phrase – a phrase that has a logical, but not a grammatical, connection to the rest of the sentence (see “nominative absolute”).

Active voice – a characteristic of transitive verbs that indicates the relationship of the verb to the subject as doer or performer. A transitive verb is in the active voice when the subject of the sentence is the agent (i.e., when the subject is doing something).

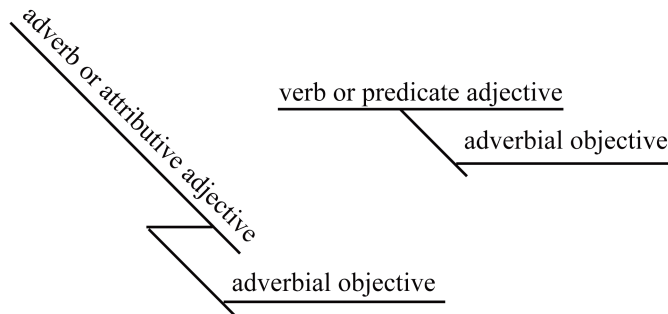
Adjective – a word that modifies (qualifies, describes, limits) a noun, pronoun, or equivalent expression. One differentiates between attributive adjectives and predicate adjectives according to their position relative to the modified nouns and pronouns.

Adjective clause – a clause that functions as an adjective by modifying (qualifying, describing, limiting) a noun, pronoun, or equivalent expression. There are two types of adjective clauses: 1) relative clauses and 2) clauses linked to nouns in other clauses by means of a relative adverb.

Adverb – a word that modifies verbs, adjectives, other adverbs, prepositions, prepositional phrases, conjunctions, clauses, and sentences.



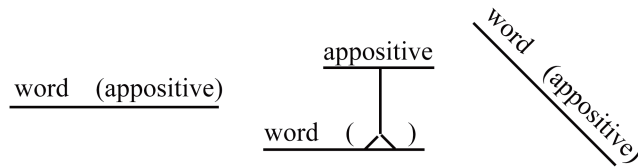
Adverbial objective – a noun or pronoun used as an adverb (indirect objects are included among adverbial objectives).



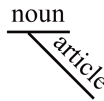
Antecedent – a word, phrase, or clause to which a pronoun refers (for which a pronoun stands).

Appositive – a word or group of words whose purpose is to identify or explain another word or group of words in the same sentence. The appositive usually follows the word(s) with which it is in apposition. Appositives can be restrictive or non-restrictive. An example of a restrictive appositive is the word “John” in “his brother John.” In this first example, there is more than one brother (e.g., “His brother John, his brother Sam, and his brother Will are all tall”); so, no comma is used between “brother” and “John.” An example of a non-restrictive appositive is the word “John” in “his brother,

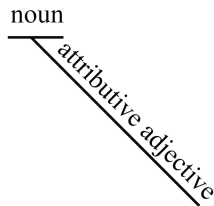
John” (e.g., “His brother, John, is a good man.”). In this second example, John is the only brother; so, a comma separates “brother” and “John.”



Article – definite (“the”) and indefinite (“a,” “an”).



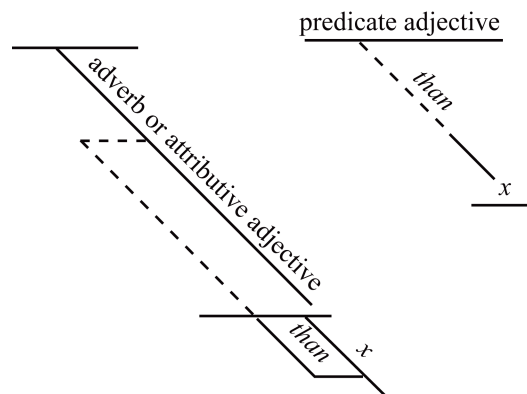
Attributive adjective – an adjective that either precedes the noun or pronoun it modifies (e.g., “a pleasant evening,” “a certain someone”) or comes immediately after it (e.g., “there will be time enough for that tomorrow” or “let’s do something different”).



Auxiliary verb – a helping verb. Auxiliary verbs help to form such things as tense, voice, emphasis, and mood. They are underlined in the following examples: the present progressive “am seeing,” “are seeing,” and “is seeing”; the emphatic “do see” and “did see”; the perfect tenses “has seen,” “had seen,” and “will have seen”; the future “will see” and “shall see”; the passive “is seen,” “was seen,” and “will be seen”; and the modal forms “must see,” “can see,” and “may see.”

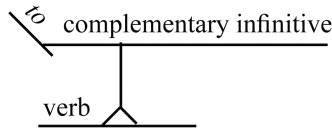
Clause – a group of words with a subject and predicate.

Comparative degree – forms of adjectives and adverbs with the suffix “-(e)r” or with a preceding “more” (e.g., “larger,” “more beautiful,” “faster,” and “more abundantly”). “Worse” is also an adjective of comparative degree. Comparisons using the comparative degree and the relative adverb “than” are called unequal comparisons.



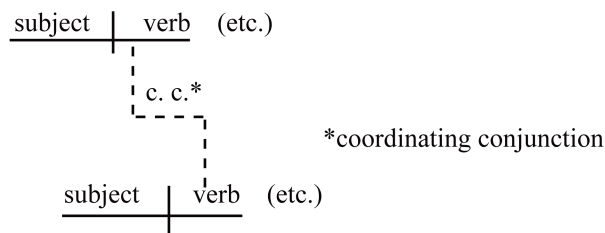
Complement – a term that includes subjective complement (predicate nominative and predicate adjective), direct object, indirect object, objective complement, and retained object.

Complementary infinitive – an infinitive used to complete certain verbs. The complementary infinitives are underlined in the following examples: “They ought to study,” “She used to collect stamps,” “I have to prepare a speech,” “He is going to announce the winners,” and “You are to travel to London.”



Complex sentence – a sentence containing at least one dependent (subordinate) clause.

Compound sentence – a sentence containing at least two independent (main) clauses.

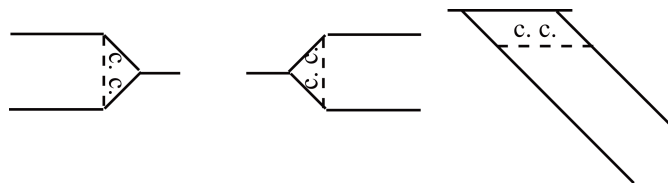


Compound-complex sentence – a sentence containing two or more independent (main) clauses and at least one dependent (subordinate) clause.

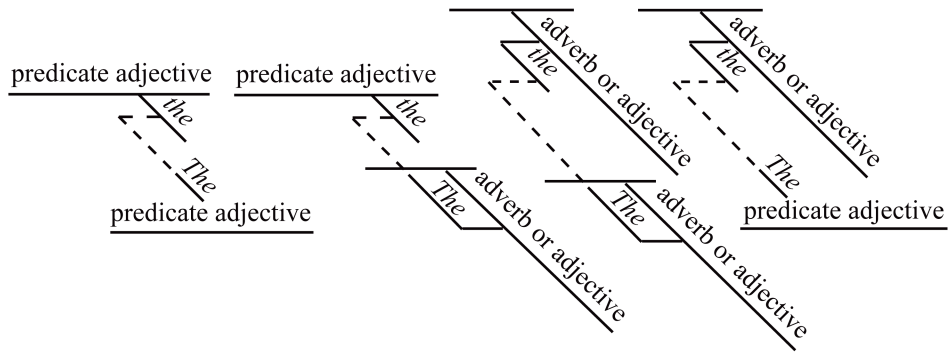
Conjunction – a word that connects words, phrases, and clauses. One distinguishes between two kinds of conjunctions: coordinating conjunctions and subordinating conjunctions.

Conjunctive adverb – a word that connects (like a conjunction) and modifies (like an adverb). There are two kinds of conjunctive adverbs: transitional adverbs (e.g., “however,” “moreover,” “therefore,” etc.) and relative adverbs (e.g., “when,” “while,” “where,” etc.).

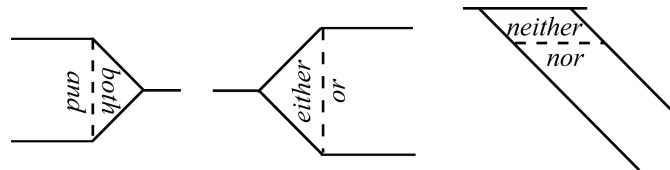
Coordinating conjunction – a word that connects words, phrases, and clauses of equal importance. The principal coordinating conjunctions are “and,” “or,” “but,” and “nor.” (See “compound sentence.”)



Correlative adverbs – the adverb pairs “as...as,” “so...as,” “so...that,” “then...when,” “there...where,” and “the...the.” Each of these adverb pairs can be restated as a pair of prepositional phrases, with the second of the two containing a relative pronoun (thus, the second adverb is called a relative adverb) and the first containing the antecedent (e.g., “as...as” can be restated as “in the degree in which”).



Correlative conjunctions – two-part conjunctions, such as “both...and,” “either...or,” and “neither...nor.”



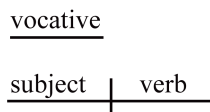
Definite article – English has only one definite article: “the.” It designates the noun it modifies as specific or as previously mentioned.

Demonstrative adjective – “this,” “that,” “these,” “those.” These adjectives are used to point out someone or something.

Demonstrative pronoun – “this,” “that,” “these,” “those.” Like all pronouns, they are used as noun substitutes.

Dependent clause – also called subordinate clause. A dependent clause functions as an adverb, an adjective, or a noun; it is dependent upon, or subordinate to, an independent (main) clause.

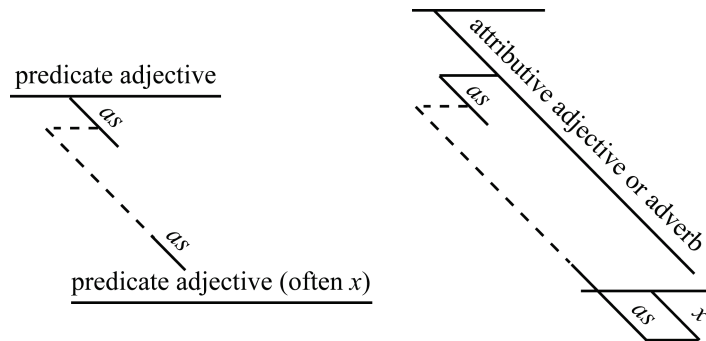
Direct address – a noun or phrase indicating the person(s) spoken to; sometimes called a vocative.



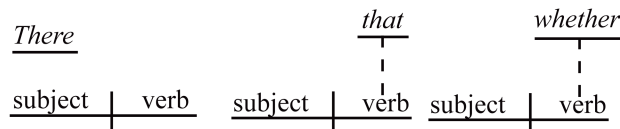
Direct object – a noun, pronoun, or equivalent expression that names the direct recipient of the action of a transitive verb. Not all sentences have direct objects. You can identify a direct object by asking “Whom?” or “What?” immediately after a non-linking verb.

Elliptical clause – a clause with an unexpressed, but understood, word or words. In diagrams, the variable *x* represents an unexpressed word or words.

Equal comparison – a comparison using the positive degree of the adjective or adverb and the correlatives “as...as” or “so...as.”



Expletive – a word with a function but with little or no meaning. For example, in the following sentences, “there,” “that,” and “whether” are expletives: “There is a cat on the roof.” “Did you hear that the game has been canceled?” “I don’t know whether she will be able to attend.”

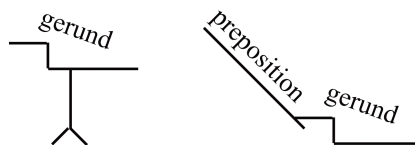


Finite verb – a verb that has person and number. Participles, gerunds, and infinitives are non-finite verbs.

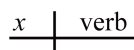
Future tense – a tense that is formed by combining the auxiliary verbs “shall” and “will” with the present infinitive (without “to”).

Future-perfect tense – a tense that is formed by combining the auxiliary verbs “shall” and “will” with the present-perfect infinitive (without “to”).

Gerund – a verbal noun; a word ending in “-ing” that is both verb and noun.



Imperative sentence – a sentence that expresses a command or a request. The subject, “you,” is usually unexpressed.



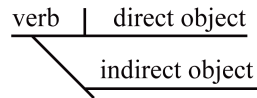
Indefinite article – English has only two forms of the indefinite article: “a” and “an.”

Indefinite pronoun – a word like “each,” “every,” “enough,” “much,” “any,” “either,” and “some.”

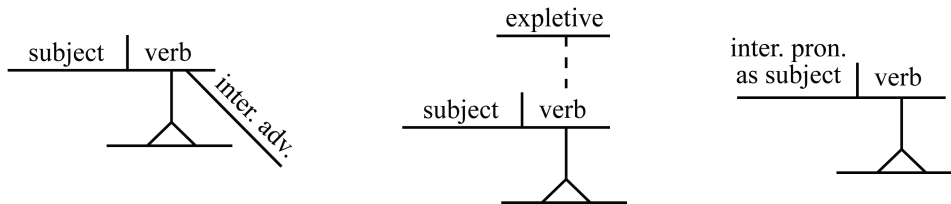
Indefinite relative pronoun – “whoever,” “whomever,” “whosoever,” “whichever,” and “whatever,” as well as “whosoever,” “whomsoever,” “whosoesoever,” “whichsoever,” “whatsoever,” and “what.” Indefinite relative pronouns refer to unexpressed indefinite antecedents, such as “anyone” or “anything.”

Independent expression – a word or group of words with no grammatical connection to the rest of the sentence. Independent expressions include vocatives, interjections, nominative absolutes, and pleonasm. Not only nouns, but also adverbs, infinitives, infinitive phrases, participles, participial phrases, and prepositional phrases can be used independently.

Indirect object – a noun or pronoun used with verbs of giving, saying, and showing to indicate to whom or for whom the direct object is intended. Indirect objects are adverbial objectives.



Indirect question – a question expressed as part of a sentence without the use of a question mark. The following sentences contain indirect questions: “He asked why we were late.” “She wondered if she had to go to school.” “The teacher wants to know who said that.”

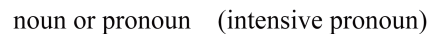


Infinitive – the basic form of any verb (usually preceded by the word “to”). Infinitives have tense and voice (present active, “to call”; present passive, “to be called”; present-perfect active, “to have called”; and present-perfect passive, “to have been called”) as well as progressivity (“to be calling,” “to have been calling”). Infinitives can function as adverbs (“they are running to win”), as adjectives (“you have nothing to do”), and as nouns (“we all want to succeed”).

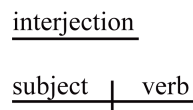


Infinitive phrase – an infinitive with its modifiers and objects. Like simple infinitives, infinitive phrases can be used as adverbs, adjectives, or nouns.

Intensive pronouns – pronouns that intensify or identify nouns and other pronouns. In form, they are indistinguishable from reflexive pronouns: “myself,” “yourself,” “himself,” “herself,” “itself,” “ourselves,” “yourselves,” and “themselves.” Intensive pronouns are appositives and are so diagrammed. Examples: “she herself made the dress” (or “she made the dress herself”), “we met with the manager herself to discuss the problem.”



Interjection – a word or group of words with no grammatical connection to the rest of the sentence, used to express feeling or emotion (e.g., “wow,” “holy Toledo,” “for crying out loud,” “hurrah”).



Interrogative adjectives – adjectives used in direct and indirect questions: “which,” “what.”

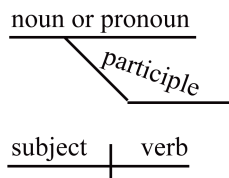
Interrogative pronouns – pronouns used to ask direct and indirect questions: “who,” “whom,” “whose,” “which,” “what.”

Intransitive verb – a verb that does not need a direct object. Some intransitive verbs are “go,” “sleep,” “grin,” and “travel.” Many intransitive verbs can also be transitive; for example, a tent can “sleep three people,” a boss can “grin his approval,” and one can “travel the world.”

Linking verb – a verb that requires a predicate nominative or a predicate adjective for completion. The most common linking verb is “be,” including the participles and gerunds “being” and “having been” as well as the finite forms “is,” “am,” “are,” “was,” “were,” etc. Some other verbs that can be linking verbs are “seem,” “become,” “feel,” “look,” “remain,” and “taste.” Factitive verbs (e.g., “make,” “call,” “elect,” etc.) can function in the passive voice as linking verbs: “He was made rich,” “She is called Kathy,” and “You will be elected president.” Some scholars put the verb “be” in a category of its own and do not include it among the linking verbs.

Modal auxiliary – a verb used with a main verb to add a note of necessity, possibility, permissibility, or the like: “can,” “could,” “may,” “might,” “must,” “should,” “would.”

Nominative absolute – a substantive (noun or noun substitute) modified by a participle or a participial phrase and having no grammatical connection to the rest of the sentence. The participle “being” is sometimes unexpressed (e.g., “His money [being] safely in the bank, he relaxed at last.”).



Noun – the name of anything (e.g., “Mr. Smith,” “John,” “woman,” “principal,” “student,” “Atlanta,” “country,” “kindness,” “hatred,” “dawn,” “darkness,” “sound,” “loudness,” “lion,” “lemur,” “book,” “computer,” “alertness,” “curiosity,” “weight,” “water,” “wish,” and thousands of others).

Noun clause – a clause that functions as a noun.

Noun phrase – a noun and its modifiers (including articles, adjectives, prepositional phrases, relative clauses, and infinitives).

Nouns as adjectives – a noun placed before another noun such that the former modifies the latter (e.g., “wastepaper basket,” “K-Mart special,” “holiday blues,” “cabin fever”).



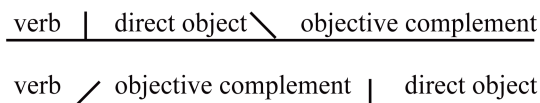
Number – singular or plural. Nouns and pronouns have number (they are singular or plural), and so do verbs. The number of the subject of a sentence must agree with the number of the verb. If one says, “They eats later,” one makes an agreement error involving number.

Objective complement – a noun, adjective, or equivalent expression (prepositional phrase, infinitive, infinitive phrase, participle, participial phrase, gerund, or gerund phrase) that completes the action of the verb and in some way either repeats (i.e., is identical with) or describes the direct object. Consider these sentences:

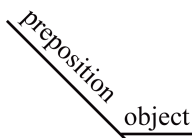
- “They named their baby daughter Estelle.”
- “That makes me angry.”
- “We found the book difficult.”
- “I saw them leaving.”
- “The weather forced him to stay at home.”
- “She asked him to help with the groceries.”

Most authorities agree that the first four sentences contain objective complements; however, there is significant disagreement concerning the last two. In this skills review, all underlined words above are considered objective

complements. One way to recognize an objective complement, when it is a substantive, is this: if a verb seems to have two direct objects, and the first of the two is not an indirect object, then the second is an objective complement.



Object of a preposition – a noun or other substantive that follows a preposition and completes it. Without an object, a particle cannot be a preposition.



Participial phrase – a participle with its objects and modifiers

Participle – a verbal adjective. Transitive verbs have five different kinds of participles: present active (“giving,” “speaking”), present passive (“being given,” “being spoken”), present-perfect active (“having given,” “having spoken”), present-perfect passive (“having been given,” “having been spoken”), and past (“given,” “spoken”).



Particle – a subordinate word that is uninflected (i.e., does not change its form to reflect changes in tense, number, or the like). In English, nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs are inflected; prepositions, conjunctions, interjections, articles, and expletives are not.

Passive voice – a characteristic of transitive verbs that indicates the relationship of the verb to the subject as receiver of the action. A transitive verb is said to be in the passive voice when the subject of the sentence is acted upon (i.e., when something is done to the subject). (See “active voice.”)

Past participle – a verb form used with various tenses of the verb “have” to form the perfect tenses (e.g., “driven,” “called,” “gone,” and “seen”).

Past tense – This tense is subdivided into three groups: 1) **simple past** (e.g., “saw,” “gave,” “hunted,” “was (were) seen,” “was (were) given,” and “was (were) hunted”; 2) **past progressive** (e.g., “was (were) seeing,” “was (were) giving,” “was (were) hunting,” “was (were) being seen,” “was (were) being given,” and “was (were) being hunted”; 3) **emphatic past** (e.g., “did see,” “did give,” and “did hunt.”)

Past-perfect tense – the tense in which verbs use “had” as an auxiliary verb (e.g., “had worked,” “had been reading,” “had been planted”).

Person – an expression used to distinguish among the speaker (or writer), the person spoken (or written) to, and the person spoken (or written) about. There is first person (“I,” “we”), second person (“you”), and third person (“he,” “she,” “it,” “they”). The person of the subject must agree with the person of the verb. If one says, “I likes him,” one makes an error in subject-verb agreement.

Personal pronouns – pronouns that denote person (first, second, third) and, in some instances, number (singular, plural), gender (masculine, feminine, neuter), and case (nominative, objective, possessive). There are nominative forms (e.g., “I,” “you,” “he,” “she,” “it,” “we,” and “they”), objective forms (e.g., “me,” “you,” “him,” “her,” “it,” “us,” and

“them”), and possessive forms (e.g., “my,” “mine,” “your,” “yours,” “his,” “her,” “hers,” “its,” “our,” “ours,” “their,” and “theirs”).

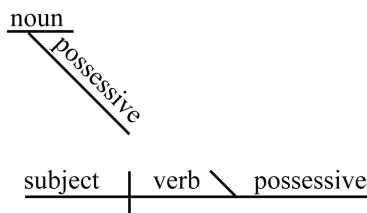
Phrasal prepositions – prepositions that consist of more than one word (e.g., “out of,” “because of,” “instead of,” “along with,” “as for,” “by means of,” “in addition to,” “in spite of,” etc.).

Phrasal verb – a verb-particle combination with an idiomatic meaning such that the meaning cannot be known from the separate meanings of the verb and the particle (e.g., “she looked up the word” or “he carried out the command”). Notice that one cannot say “the word up which she looked” or “the command out which he carried,” which shows that “up” and “out” are not prepositions here.

Phrase – a group of words in a sentence that forms a unit but that does not have a subject or a predicate.

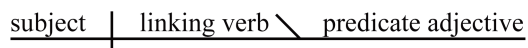
Pleonasm – the deliberate repetition within a sentence of an important element (e.g., “Coney Island, what a magical place it was.”).

Possessive – the inflected forms of nouns (e.g., “Mary’s,” “the workers’,” “the men’s”) and pronouns (e.g., “my,” “mine,” “your,” “yours,” “his,” “her,” “hers,” “its,” “our,” “ours,” “their,” “theirs”) used to show possession or the idea of belonging to.

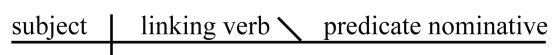


Predicate – the verb together with its modifiers and complements.

Predicate adjective – an adjective or equivalent expression that follows a linking verb and refers to the subject.



Predicate nominative – a substantive that follows a linking verb and refers to the subject.



Preposition – a particle that requires an object (noun, pronoun, or the equivalent) for completion. Prepositions usually precede their objects.

Prepositional phrase – a preposition with its object (including article and adjectives, if any). Prepositional phrases function as adverbs and as adjectives. (See “object of a preposition.”)

Present participle – a verb form ending in “-ing” that can function 1) both as a verb and as an adjective (e.g., “a woman wearing a blue skirt,” “lovers holding hands”); 2) as a verb only (e.g., “the deer were running through the woods,” “we are planning a party”); 3) as an adjective only (e.g., “a sinking ship,” “the loving mother”).

Present-perfect tense – the tense in which verbs use “has” or “have” as an auxiliary verb (e.g., “has (have) held,” “has (have) woven,” “has (have) been holding,” “has (have) been weaving,” “has (have) been held,” “has (have) been woven”).



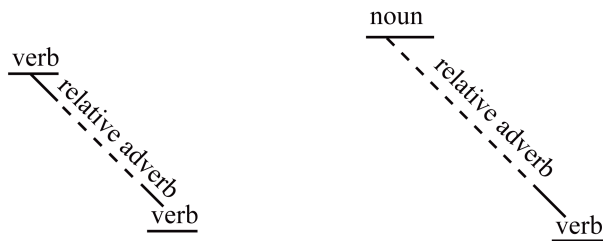
Present tense – This tense is subdivided into three groups: 1) **simple present** (e.g., “see,” “give,” “hunt,” “am (are, is) seen,” “am (are, is) given,” and “am (are, is) hunted”); 2) **present progressive** (e.g., “am (are, is) seeing,” “am (are, is) giving,” “am (are, is) hunting,” “am (are, is) being seen,” “am (are, is) being given,” and “am (are, is) being hunted”); 3) **emphatic present** (e.g., “do (does) see,” “do (does) give,” and “do (does) hunt”).

Progressive verb forms – verb forms in various tenses used to show action going on or a state continuing. These forms occur in all six tenses of finite verbs (e.g., “is showing,” “was showing,” “will be showing,” “has been showing,” “had been showing,” “will have been showing”) and in the present and past tenses of the passive voice (e.g., “is being shown,” “was being shown”). Infinitives have progressive forms in the present and present-perfect tenses (e.g., “to be showing,” “to have been showing”).

Pronoun – a word that takes the place of a noun. There are various kinds of pronouns: **personal pronouns** (e.g. “I,” “you,” “he,” “she,” “it,” etc.); **relative pronouns** (e.g., “who,” “whom,” “whose,” “which,” “that,” etc.); **interrogative pronouns** (e.g., “who,” “whom,” “whose,” “which,” “what”); **demonstrative pronouns** (e.g., “this,” “that,” “these,” “those”); **reflexive and intensive pronouns** (e.g., “myself,” “yourself,” “himself,” “herself,” etc.); **indefinite pronouns** (e.g., “someone,” “anyone,” etc.); and **reciprocal pronouns** (e.g., “each other,” “one another”).

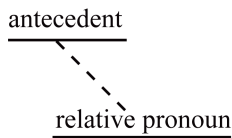
Reflexive pronouns – “myself,” “yourself,” “himself,” “herself,” “itself,” “ourselves,” “yourselves,” “themselves.” A reflexive pronoun can be used as a predicate nominative, a direct object, an indirect object, or an object of a preposition to refer to the subject of the sentence.

Relative adverb – an adverb that can be restated as a prepositional phrase containing a relative pronoun, or as two prepositional phrases, the second of which contains a relative pronoun. For example, “where” in the expression “the hotel where we are staying” can be restated as “in which”; similarly, “when” in the sentence “We can go when the light turns green” can be restated as “at the time at which.” (See “correlative adverbs.”)



Relative clause – an adjective clause introduced by a relative pronoun. (See “relative pronoun.”)

Relative pronoun – a pronoun that introduces a dependent clause and has an antecedent (a previously mentioned noun, pronoun, or the equivalent to which it refers) within the same sentence. The principal relative pronouns are “who,” “whom,” “whose,” “which,” and “that.” Additional relative pronouns include the indefinite forms “what,” “whoever,” “whomever,” “whosoever,” “whomsoever,” “whosoever,” “whosoever,” “whosoever,” “whosoever,” and “whatsoever”; these have an unexpressed antecedent. “As” can be a relative pronoun (e.g., “He liked the same songs as his parents had liked when they were young.”).

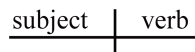


Retained object – a direct object that continues to function as a direct object when the indirect object of a sentence in the active voice becomes the subject of a corresponding sentence in the passive voice. The retained object is underlined in the following example: “Someone gave the youngster a new baseball glove” (active). “The youngster was given a new baseball glove” (passive).

Sentence – an independent clause that begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, a question mark, or an exclamation point. (See “clause.”)

Sentence modifier – a word, phrase, or clause that modifies an entire sentence or a major portion thereof, like a clause or an entire predicate.

Subject – a noun, pronoun, or equivalent word, phrase, or clause about which the sentence says something.



Subjective complement – a noun, adjective, or the equivalent of either, that completes a linking verb. Such substantives are called “predicate nominatives”; such adjectives and equivalent expressions are called “predicate adjectives.”

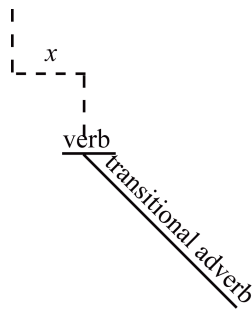
Subjunctive mood – the modification of verbs used for contrary-to-fact conditions (e.g., “if she were here,” “if I had a million dollars”), unreal wishes (e.g., “I wish I were an astronaut,” “he wishes he could fly”), and indirect commands and suggestions (e.g., “she insists that he go along”), etc. (e.g., “Be it ever so difficult”).

Subordinate clause – (See “dependent clause.”)

Substantive – a noun or a noun substitute (such as a pronoun, adjective, phrase, or clause).

Tenses – present, past, future, present perfect, past perfect, future perfect. Tense has a lot to do with time but is not synonymous with it.

Transitional adverb – an adverb used to join clauses. Examples are “consequently,” “furthermore,” “however,” “moreover,” “nevertheless,” “therefore,” etc.



Transitive verb – a verb that needs a direct object for completion. (See “intransitive verb.”)

Unequal comparison – (See “comparative degree,” “equal comparison.”)

Verb – a word expressing action or state. Most verbs end in “-s” in the third person singular of the simple (one-word) present tense. An “-ing” ending is used to express verbs as participles and gerunds. The simple past of most verbs differs in form from the present tense, as does the past participle.

Verbals – non-finite verb forms: gerunds, participles, and infinitives.

Vocative – (See “direct address.”)

Voice – a term that refers to the relation of the verb to the subject as doer of the action of the verb or as recipient of the action. A transitive verb is said to be either in the active voice (when the subject of the sentence is acting) or in the passive voice (when the subject is acted upon).

