Chapter 4:

Declarative Clauses and Verbal Clauses

In this chapter, we will continue the principal theme that has occupied us in the previous two chapters: What do we, as speakers of English, know about English grammar that makes it possible for us to produce and understand English sentences? In Chapter 3, we focused on classifying words into formal categories called parts of speech and on looking at the patterns that govern how those parts of speech are arranged into English phrases. In the process of doing that, we looked closely at the internal structures of several phrase types in English. For example, we learned that a noun alone can constitute a noun phrase, functioning as its HEAD (She likes candy), or that the HEAD noun can be preceded, for example, by a DETERMINER definite article, a POST DETERMINER cardinal numeral, and a MODIFIER adjective, in that order (She ate the two green mints). In this chapter we will move up a level in the grammatical hierarchy and look at the patterns that govern how phrases of various types occupy functional positions in clause patterns.

DECLARATIVE CLAUSES

Grammatical structures in general, and declarative clauses in particular, may be compared to hands in a card game: Just as only certain arrangements of cards are playable hands, so too only certain arrangements of words qualify as phrases, and only certain arrangements of phrases qualify as clauses. Actually, it is useful to think of clauses as arrangements of groups of words (phrases). In poker, we say that a full house consists of a pair and three-of-a-kind; so too we can say that a declarative clause like The children have been napping consists of two groups of words, the children and have been napping. But we cannot call the groups simply “a pair” and “three of a kind.” Just as every word in a phrase needs two separate grammatical labels, so too does every group of words in a clause. One label states what the group does (i.e., its position in relation to other groups); this is its functional label. The other label states what the group is (i.e., its internal composition); this is its formal label. Functionally, the children, is labeled the SUBJECT (S:) of the declarative clause; formally, it is called a noun phrase (np>). Functionally, have been napping is labeled a PREDICATER (P:); formally, it is called a verb phrase (vp>).

This section reviews the principal functional positions in the declarative clause (declcl>), and describes the most common patterns into which these functional positions are arranged. The remaining sections of this chapter examine both the internal composition of verbal clauses and the functional positions that they can occupy in other clauses.

Unlike most card games, where the number of cards in a hand is fixed, there is no limit to the number and the order of groups of words that compose English declarative clauses. Below are the basic functional patterns in the declarative clause. Each pattern is first given with the full names of the positions; then the pattern is stated using abbreviations; finally one or more examples of the pattern are given and analyzed in the outline format.

4.1
SUBJECT + PREDICATER
declcl> S: + P:
deaclrative clause (Students should study.)
  SUBJECT noun phrase (students)
  PREDICATER verb phrase (should study)
4.2 SUBJECT + PREDICATER + DIRECT OBJECT
declcl> S: + P: + DO:
declarative clause (Teachers should encourage students.)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (teachers)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (should encourage)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (students)

4.3 SUBJECT + PREDICATER + INDIRECT OBJECT + DIRECT OBJECT
declcl> S: + P: + IO: + DO:
declarative clause (The students gave the principal their answer.)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (the students)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (gave)
   INDIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (the principal)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (their answer)

4.4 SUBJECT + PREDICATER + DIRECT OBJECT + OBJECT COMPLEMENT
declcl> S: + P: + DO: + OC:
declarative clause (They elected an athlete class president)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (they)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (elected)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (an athlete)
   OBJECT COMPLEMENT noun phrase (class president)

4.5 SUBJECT + PREDICATER + SUBJECT COMPLEMENT
declcl> S: + P: + SC:
declarative clause (The athlete may be a genius.)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (the athlete)
   PREDICATER linking verb phrase (may be)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT noun phrase (a genius)
declarative clause (The principal seems doubtful.)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (the principal)
   PREDICATER linking verb phrase (seems)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT adjective phrase (doubtful)

4.6 SUBJECT + PREDICATER + PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT
declcl> S: + P: + PC:
declarative clause (His success depends on the principal.)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (his success)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (depends)
   PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT prepositional phrase (on the principal)
declarative clause (The principal was appointed by the school board.)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (the principal)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (was appointed)
   PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT prepositional phrase (by the school board)
4.7
SUBJECT + PREDICATE + DIRECT OBJECT + PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT
declcl> S: + P: + DO: + PC:
declarative clause (The principal sent a letter to the students.)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (the principal)
   PREDICATE verb phrase (sent)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (a letter)
   PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT prepositional phrase (to the students)
declarative clause (The students were sent a letter by the principal.)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (the students)
   PREDICATE verb phrase (were sent)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (a letter)
   PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT prepositional phrase (by the principal)

Some English grammar books, both traditional and modern, divide the declarative clause into just two functional positions, labeling the one, SUBJECT and the other PREDICATE (without a final “R”). In that alternate approach, the PREDICATE verb phrase would have all of the other functional positions in the above patterns inside it, instead of directly in the declarative clause. There are some good arguments for such an analysis. Here is one such argument. In order to interpret the words did so in the sentence Her mother gave her movie money this week, but her father did so last week, one needs to have a grammatical unit containing the verb phrase gave, the INDIRECT OBJECT noun phrases her, and the DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase movie money. This is because did so conveys the idea that ‘her father gave her movie money last week.’ We have no problem, in principle, with treating gave her movie money as a unit functioning as PREDICATE (without the “R”), but we would use the formal label “extended verb phrase” for this unit and continue to reserve the term verb phrase for the verb and its auxiliaries (e.g., gave in the above example sentence). Arguments such as this one notwithstanding, we will not, in fact, divide clauses into a SUBJECT followed by a PREDICATE extended verb phrase (which would then contain within it INDIRECT OBJECTS, DIRECT OBJECTS, etc.) Instead, we will, throughout this book, treat all of the functional positions in the above seven patterns as directly part of the declarative clause. Here are a few reasons for doing this: (1) It simplifies the analysis of clauses (only very few grammatical phenomena -- like the do so phenomenon just described -- require the analysis using a PREDICATE extended verb phrase). (2) In making DIRECT OBJECTS, INDIRECT OBJECTS, SUBJECT COMPLEMENTS, etc. directly part of the clause, we will be following the practice of the two major grammar reference works that were recommended in the preface (CGEL and OEG).

Each of the seven patterns listed before the previous paragraph can be embellished by adding one or more instances of yet another type of functional group, usually at the beginning or at the end of the pattern. This other type of functional group is called a CLAUSE COMPLEMENT (CC:). Below are some examples of such expansions of the second declarative clause pattern (S: + P: + DO:).

declcl> ICC: + S: + P: + DO:
declarative clause (In this class we have been analyzing sentences.)
   INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT prepositional phrase (in this class)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (we)
   PREDICATE verb phrase (have been analyzing)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (sentences)
4.9
declcl> S: + P: + DO: + FCC:
declarative clause (We have been analyzing sentences with great care.)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (we)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (have been analyzing)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (sentences)
   FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT prepositional phrase (with great care)
declarative clause (We have been analyzing sentences very carefully.)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (we)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (have been analyzing)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (sentences)
   FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT adverb phrase (very carefully)

4.10
declcl> ICC: + S: + P: + DO: + FCC:
declarative clause (In this class we have been analyzing sentences very carefully.)
   INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT prepositional phrase (in this class)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (we)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (have been analyzing)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (sentences)
   FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT adverb phrase (very carefully)

As the above example sentences illustrate, CLAUSE COMPLEMENTS can be either prepositional phrases, e.g., *with great care*, or adverb phrases, e.g., *very carefully*. CLAUSE COMPLEMENTS can appear at either the beginning or end of any declarative clause pattern. They typically answer questions using words like how? where? when? or why? They usually give information about the manner (how), place (where), time (when), reason (why), frequency (how often), etc. of whatever is going on in the declarative clause: *The thieves removed the window very carefully / with care* (how). *In Canada / There the supply of clean water is very plentiful* (where). *I didn’t understand calculus during those years / then* (when). *For some reason, I have trouble with foreign languages* (why).

Let us now define and exemplify each of the declarative clause functions in a bit more detail. As you examine the following numbered definitions, keep in mind that the essential nature of each of the terms in all-capital letters is functional: i.e., they name positions in the declarative clause. Thus the essence of the notion “SUBJECT” is “the position immediately preceding the PREDICATER,” and the essence of the notion “PREDICATER” is “the position immediately following the SUBJECT.” Nevertheless, there are formal and meaningful dimensions to these concepts also. As to form, speakers of English know that only certain formal categories (types of phrases and clauses) can occupy a given functional position in a declarative clause: for example, noun phrases can occupy the SUBJECT but not the PREDICATER position, and verb phrases can occupy the PREDICATER but not the SUBJECT position. As to meaning, we have emphasized throughout the preceding chapters that a central fact of syntax in language is that the referents of formal categories take on relationships to the referents of other formal categories by virtue of occupying functional positions. Because of this, it has been customary in the grammatical tradition to give names to functional positions that describe the relational meaning associated with that position: e.g., the SUBJECT is what the declarative clause is about; the PREDICATER is what is going on in the clause, the DIRECT OBJECT is what the SUBJECT and PREDICATER are acting on, the SUBJECT COMPLEMENT restates or describes the SUBJECT, etc.
There are thus three important things to do in discussing declarative clause functions: (a) state the technical functional position: exactly where this position occurs in relation to other clause positions; (b) state what types of formal categories (phrases or clauses) may occupy this position; (c) state the relational meaning that the referents of those phrases or clauses take on by virtue of occupying the position. Here are definitions of the functional positions in the declarative clause, each one containing each of these three types of information:

4.11 PREDICATER (P:)

(a) Functional definition:
Every declarative clause must have a PREDICATER, and it virtually always follows the SUBJECT. In the declarative clause *The ambassador departed*, the PREDICATER verb phrase *departed* follows the SUBJECT noun phrase *the ambassador*. In the declarative clause *Beautiful flowers are growing in our garden*, the PREDICATER verb phrase *are growing* follows the SUBJECT noun phrase *beautiful flowers*. In the declarative clause *Books are tools*, the PREDICATER linking verb phrase *are* follows the SUBJECT noun phrase *books*. (In Chapter VIII we will look at some unusual cases of declarative clauses in which part of a PREDICATER precedes a SUBJECT.)

(b) Phrase or clause types that occupy this position:
Only verb phrases (vp>) and linking verb phrases (lvp>) can occupy the PREDICATER position in a declarative clause. The declarative clauses *The ambassador departed* and *Many flowers are growing in our garden* contain PREDICATER verb phrases, and the declarative clause *Books are tools* contains a PREDICATER linking verb phrase.

(c) Relational meaning:
The verb phrase or linking verb phrase that occupies the PREDICATER position in a declarative clause ordinarily describes actions, processes, or states of being. *The ambassador departed* (action) *Many flowers are growing in our garden* (process) *Books are tools* (state of being).

4.12 SUBJECT (S:)

(a) Functional definition:
Every declarative clause must have a SUBJECT, and it virtually always precedes the PREDICATER. (The declarative clause is, in fact, essentially defined by the fact that it must always contain both a SUBJECT and a PREDICATER, and typically in that order.) In the declarative clause *The ambassador departed*, the SUBJECT noun phrase *the ambassador* precedes the PREDICATER verb phrase *departed*. In the declarative clause *Beautiful flowers are growing in our garden*, the SUBJECT noun phrase *beautiful flowers* precedes the PREDICATER verb phrase *are growing*. In the declarative clause *Books are tools*, the SUBJECT noun phrase *books* precedes the PREDICATER linking verb phrase *are*. (In Chapter VIII we will look at some unusual cases of declarative clauses in which part of a PREDICATER precedes a SUBJECT.)

(b) Phrase or clause types that occupy this position:
Typically noun phrases occupy the SUBJECT position in declarative clauses, as in the three following examples: *The ambassador departed*.* Beautiful flowers are growing in our garden.* *Books are tools*. (We will see later in this chapter that infinitive clauses can also occupy the SUBJECT position in declarative clauses, and we will see in later chapters that several additional
types of subordinate clauses can also occupy the SUBJECT position.)

(c) Relational meaning:
The noun phrase, infinitive clause, or other subordinate clause that occupies the SUBJECT position in a declarative clause ordinarily names persons, things, or ideas that perform the action, undergo the process, or exist in the state described in the PREDICATER. In *The ambassador departed*, the SUBJECT noun phrase *the ambassador* names the person who performs the action of departing. In *Beautiful flowers are growing in our garden*, the SUBJECT noun phrase *beautiful flowers* names the thing that is undergoing the process of growing. In *Books are tools*, the SUBJECT noun phrase *books* names the things that exist in the state of being tools.

### 4.13 DIRECT OBJECT (DO:)

(a) Functional definition:
Typically, a DIRECT OBJECT immediately follows the PREDICATER. In the declarative clause *Union members build better homes*, the DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase *better homes* immediately follows the PREDICATER verb phrase *build*. However, a DIRECT OBJECT must follow an INDIRECT OBJECT if one appears in the declarative clause; in the declarative clause *You should send the bank an explanation*, the DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase *an explanation* follows the INDIRECT OBJECT noun phrase *the bank*, which in turn immediately follows the PREDICATER verb phrase *should send*. DIRECT OBJECTS follow only PREDICATER verb phrases, never PREDICATER linking verb phrases.

(b) Phrase or clause types that occupy this position:
Typically, noun phrases occupy the DIRECT OBJECT position in declarative clauses, as in the following examples: *The losers congratulated the winners*. *The judge granted Elizabeth a divorce*. *The comet amazed us*. (We will see later in this chapter that infinitive clauses can also occupy the DIRECT OBJECT position in declarative clauses, and we will see in later chapters that various types of subordinate clauses can also occupy the DIRECT OBJECT position.)

(c) Relational meaning:
The noun phrase, infinitive clause, or other subordinate clause that occupies the DIRECT OBJECT position in a declarative clause ordinarily names persons, things, or ideas that are directly affected by the action described in the PREDICATER. Consider the following declarative clauses: *Shakespeare wrote plays*. *My sister drives a sports car*. In the first declarative clause, the action in the PREDICATER is signaled by the verb phrase *wrote*, and the thing most directly affected (brought into being) by that action is named by the DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase *plays*. In the second declarative clause, the action in the PREDICATER is signaled by the verb phrase *drives*, and the thing most directly affected by that action (the thing driven) is named by the DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase *a sports car*.

### 4.14 INDIRECT OBJECT (IO:)

(a) Functional definition:
An INDIRECT OBJECT occupies the position in the clause between the PREDICATER and the DIRECT OBJECT. It is typically the first of two noun phrases immediately after a verb phrase (i.e., with no prepositions intervening), for example, *You should send the bank an explanation* or *Mary has built her family a sailboat*. There is another declarative clause pattern that allows two noun phrases to follow a verb phrase; thus you should perform the following test to assure
yourself that the first of two noun phrases following a PREDICATE is indeed an INDIRECT OBJECT. Here is how the test works. Try to paraphrase the sentence by moving the first noun phrase after the second one but with the preposition to or the preposition for preceding it. For example, you would paraphrase the first example sentence above as You should send an explanation to the bank and the second example sentence as Mary has built a sailboat for her family. If you can do this and preserve the essential relational meaning of the declarative clause, then the noun phrase in question is indeed an INDIRECT OBJECT. (Please note that in the paraphrases given immediately above, the respective noun phrases the bank and her family are no longer INDIRECT OBJECTS. The label for their functional position is OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION. The label for the functional position of the prepositional phrase containing them is PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT, which will be discussed shortly.)

(b) Phrase or clause types that occupy this position:
The INDIRECT OBJECT position is almost always occupied by a noun phrase, as in the two example sentences You should send the bank an explanation and Mary has built her family a sailboat.

(c) Relational meaning:
The INDIRECT OBJECT ordinarily names persons, things, or ideas that are indirectly affected by the action described in the PREDICATE; INDIRECT OBJECTS are typically goals, destinations, or beneficiaries. In the declarative clause You should send the bank an explanation, the INDIRECT OBJECT noun phrase the bank names a goal or destination. In the declarative clause Mary has built her family a sailboat, her family names a beneficiary (her family benefits from the fact that Mary has built a sailboat).

4.15 OBJECT COMPLEMENT (OC:)

(a) Functional definition:
An OBJECT COMPLEMENT occupies a position immediately following a DIRECT OBJECT, for example The voters elected him president, The minister called money an evil thing, The senator considers money very useful.

(b) Phrase or clause types that occupy this position:
OBJECT COMPLEMENTS are often noun phrases as in these declarative clauses: The voters elected him president and The minister called money an evil thing. An adjective phrase can also occupy the OBJECT COMPLEMENT position, for example, The senator considers money very useful. Notice that when both a DIRECT OBJECT and an OBJECT COMPLEMENT are noun phrases, there are two noun phrases in a row (without intervening prepositions) immediately after a verb phrase – the same situation that can occur when an INDIRECT OBJECT and a DIRECT OBJECT are noun phrases. But the paraphrase test for INDIRECT OBJECTS will not work with OBJECT COMPLEMENTS; one cannot paraphrase The minister called money an evil thing as *The minister called an evil thing to money or *The minister called an evil thing for money. (Other types of phrases and clauses can occupy the OBJECT COMPLEMENT position, but we will not work with them in this chapter.)

(c) Relational meaning:
Ideas conveyed by the word or group of words occupying the OBJECT COMPLEMENT position are related to the DIRECT OBJECT by an implied linking verb: The voters elected him president. (He is president.) The minister called money an evil thing. (Money is an evil thing.) The senator considers money very useful. (Money is very useful.)
4.16
SUBJECT COMPLEMENT (SC:)

(a) Functional definition:
A SUBJECT COMPLEMENT occupies the position immediately following a PREDICATER that has a linking verb phrase, for example, Little leaguers become solid citizens or Those children seem quite happy or The children are at the movies.

(b) Phrase or clause types that occupy this position:
The following phrase types can occupy the SUBJECT COMPLEMENT position: noun phrases, e.g., Electric cars will become a solution; adjective phrases, e.g., College Students are very creative; and prepositional phrases, e.g., The lead ballerina was in her best form. (We will see later in this chapter that infinitive clauses can also occupy the SUBJECT COMPLEMENT position in declarative clauses, and we will see in later chapters that various types of subordinate clauses can also occupy the SUBJECT COMPLEMENT position.)

(c) Relational meaning:
The referents of noun phrases, adjective phrases, prepositional phrases, and other phrase and clause types that occupy the SUBJECT COMPLEMENT position are closely linked to the SUBJECT by means of the linking verb phrase that functions as PREDICATER. When we say Luis is a teacher or Luis became a teacher, the linking verbs is and became equate the SUBJECT noun phrase Luis and the SUBJECT COMPLEMENT noun phrase a teacher, i.e., the SUBJECT COMPLEMENT noun phrase a teacher is a restatement of the SUBJECT noun phrase Luis. Analogously, when we say My friend is happy or My friend is in Kenya, the SUBJECT COMPLEMENT adjective phrase happy and prepositional phrase in Kenya are connected to the SUBJECT noun phrase my friend by the linking verb is. Their meaningful relationships to the SUBJECT noun phrase are similar to the relationships that a MODIFIER adjective (my happy friend) or POST MODIFIER prepositional phrase (my friend in Kenya) might have to the noun friend.

4.17
PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT (PC:)

(a) Functional definition:
PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENTS occupy a variety of positions, but all closely follow the PREDICATER. The most typical position is immediately following a PREDICATER, for example, The solution depends on you or We voted for Clinton or The game was won by the Steelers. Another position is immediately following a DIRECT OBJECT, for example, The coach gave flowers to the winner or The winner was given flowers by the coach. There are other positions, such as following another PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT (The batter argued with the umpire about the call) or following an INDIRECT OBJECT in a passive sentence (Flowers were given the winner by the coach), but we will not be working with them in this chapter. PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENTS never follow PREDICATERS containing linking verb phrases (as we have seen, a prepositional phrase following a linking verb phrase is given the functional label of SUBJECT COMPLEMENT).
(b) Phrase or clause types that occupy this position:
Only prepositional phrases can occupy the PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT position. Note that in every example given just above in 4.17a) the PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT (printed in boldface type) was a prepositional phrase.

(c) Relational meaning:
The prepositional phrase that occupies the position of PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT has a very close relational connection to the PREDICATER. In fact, the verb in the PREDICATER verb phrase typically “expects” the preposition in the prepositional phrase that functions as PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT. Some of these “expectations” are almost lexical in nature (e.g., we almost tend to think of depend on, vote for, and give to as lexical units). In other cases, the verb “expects” the preposition because it has a passive auxiliary accompanying it (i.e., every passive verb phrase “expects” a prepositional phrase beginning with the preposition by, e.g., was won . . . by, was given . . . by).

4.18
CLAUSE COMPLEMENT (ICC:, MCC:, FCC:)

(a) Functional definition:
INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENTS precede the SUBJECT, for example, Very carefully, the bomb squad removed the detonator or With great care the bomb squad removed the detonator. FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENTS follow all other clause elements, for example, The bomb squad removed the detonator very carefully or The bomb squad removed the detonator with great care. MEDIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENTS appear inside a verb phrase or linking verb phrase, for example The bomb squad very carefully removed the detonator. If one or more HELPING PREDICATERS appear, then the MEDIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT follows the first one, for example The bomb squad must very carefully remove the detonator. If the SENTENCE NEGATER negative not co-occurs in the verb phrase, then the MEDIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT must follow it (but still precede any HELPING PREDICATERS besides the one that precedes not), for example, The detonator has not really been defused by the bomb squad.

(b) Phrase or clause types that occupy this position:
Adverb phrases can occupy all three CLAUSE COMPLEMENT positions: INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT (Very carefully, the bomb squad removed the detonator), MEDIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT (The bomb squad very carefully removed the detonator), and FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT (The bomb squad removed the detonator very carefully). Prepositional phrases can occupy the positions of INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT (With great care the bomb squad removed the detonator) and FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT (The bomb squad removed the detonator with great care); however, unlike adverb phrases, they do not typically occupy the position of MEDIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT. Adverbial Clauses, -ing participle clauses, and -en participle clauses can also occupy the positions of INITIAL and FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT, but we will not look at examples or analyze such sentences until later in this book.

(c) Relational meaning:
The meanings of CLAUSE COMPLEMENTS, as their name suggests, relate to the entire clause. They typically provide information about the manner (how), place (where), time (when), reason (why), frequency (how often), etc. of whatever is going on in the declarative clause. Here are some examples: (manner:) The thieves were very carefully removing the window or The thieves were removing the window with care; (place:) In Canada the supply of clean water is very
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plentiful or There the supply of clean water is very plentiful; (time:) I didn’t understand calculus during those years or I didn’t understand calculus then; (reason:) For some reason, I have trouble with foreign languages; (frequency:) She often gives money to the poor.

As the above definitions of declarative clause functions indicate, terms like SUBJECT, PREDICATER, DIRECT OBJECT, and CLAUSE COMPLEMENT label word groups according to what they do in a sentence. Remember that these are functional, or positional, labels: The SUBJECT names persons, things, or ideas that perform an action or exist in a state; the PREDICATER describes that action or state; DIRECT OBJECTS name persons, things, or ideas directly affected by the PREDICATER; CLAUSE COMPLEMENTS describe how, where, when, why, or how often that action or state occurs, etc.

There are other kinds of functional groups and other functional patterns besides those we have so far discussed, but surprisingly many English declarative clauses represent some variation of one of the patterns exemplified earlier in this section. When a declarative clause has a large number of words, this usually indicates that the groups composing it are complex in their structure, not that there are many more groups than usual. Therefore, to understand fully what a declarative clause is and how words work together in declarative clause structure, you must constantly keep in mind what we have learned about that other, more complex, set of grammatical terms, the formal labels for English phrase types: np>, pp>, vp>, lvp>, adjp>, and advp>.

As just another reminder of why the distinction between functional labels and formal labels is so important, compare the following two declarative clauses, which represent the same functional pattern (S: + P: + FCC:), but in which the formal structures (phrase types) that occupy the FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT positions are very different:

4.19
Helen departed in haste.
SUBJECT noun phrase (Helen)
PREDICATER verb phrase (departed)
FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT prepositional phrase (in haste)

4.20
Helen departed quite quickly.
SUBJECT noun phrase (Helen)
PREDICATER verb phrase (departed)
FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT adverb phrase (quite quickly)

Both FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENTS above describe how Helen departed. But notice that the FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT in the first declarative clause is formally a prepositional phrase, i.e., a preposition (in) structured together with a noun phrase (haste), but in the second declarative clause, the FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT is formally an adverb phrase, i.e., an intensifier (quite) structured together with an adverb (quickly). Even though the six major phrase types discussed so far (np>, pp>, vp>, lvp>, adjp>, and advp>) are the ones that most commonly fill the various functional positions discussed in this section, we will see later that verbal clauses and several types of subordinate clauses can also fill many of those functional positions.

Here is a summary of the grammar of the declarative clause (both patterns and choices) as discussed in this chapter:
4.21

**Patterns** in the Declarative Clause

(a) declcl> (ICC:) + S: + P: + (FCC:)
(b) declcl> (ICC:) + S: + P: + DO: + (FCC:)
(c) declcl> (ICC:) + S: + P: + IO: + DO: + (FCC:)
(d) declcl> (ICC:) + S: + P: + DO: + OC: + (FCC:)
(e) declcl> (ICC:) + S: + P: + SC: + (FCC:)
(f) declcl> (ICC:) + S: + P: + PC: + (FCC:)
(g) declcl> (ICC:) + S: + P: + DO: + PC: + (FCC:)

4.22

**CHOICES:** in the Declarative Clause

(a) S: np>, infcl>
(b) P: vp>, lvp>
(c) DO: np>, infcl>
(d) IO: np>
(e) OC: np>
(f) SC: adjp>, np>, pp>, infcl>
(g) PC: pp>
(h) ICC: and FCC: pp>, advp>

PRACTICE 20

(STUDYING THE DEFINITIONS OF FUNCTIONAL POSITIONS IN THE DECLARATIVE CLAUSE)

It is extremely important for you to master the definitions of the functional positions in the declarative clause that were presented and exemplified in this section. You can probably study them effectively directly in the book itself. However, you may also want to consider making study cards like the ones you made to study parts of speech in the last chapter. It is interesting to note that, even though the concepts are in essence functional concepts (SUBJECT means the position preceding the PREDICATER; PREDICATER means the position following the SUBJECT, etc.), full understanding of each concept requires knowledge of related information about form and also meaning. For each functional position you need to know the kinds of formal structures (phrases and clauses) that typically occupy it (for example, noun phrases occupy the SUBJECT position but not the PREDICATER position, and verb phrases occupy the PREDICATER position but not the SUBJECT position). And for each functional position, you need to know the relational meaning that a phrase or clause takes on by virtue of occupying the position (for example, a noun phrase in the SUBJECT position names the entity that performs the action described in the PREDICATER position, and the verb phrase in the PREDICATER position describes the action performed by a noun phrase in the SUBJECT position and perhaps directed toward a noun phrase in the DIRECT OBJECT POSITION). Recall that each definition of a clause position in this section had three sub-parts: (a) Functional definition, (b) Phrase or clause types that occupy this position, and (c) Relational meaning. If you do decide to make study cards, then make three cards for each concept, write one of these three headers on the blank side of each card, and copy the information from the definition (including examples) on the other side of the card. You will have 24 cards, three for each of the eight clause functions discussed in this section: PREDICATER, SUBJECT, DIRECT OBJECT, INDIRECT OBJECT, OBJECT COMPLEMENT, SUBJECT COMPLEMENT, PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT, AND CLAUSE COMPLEMENT. (Recall that we treated all three types of CLAUSE
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COMPLEMENTS in one section, even though INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT and FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT are technically two separate functional positions in the declarative clause, and MEDIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT is not a clause functional position at all, but rather a position within a verb phrase or linking verb phrase).

PRACTICE 21 (WORKING WITH DECLARATIVE CLAUSE PATTERNS)

Below you will find 25 declarative clauses in which we have bracketed the phrases that occupy positions in the clause. For each lettered item, list the clause pattern that describes the functional positions of each bracketed phrase. All answers will represent some version of the patterns listed in 4.21. Here are the answers to (a), (b), and (c):

(a) S: + P: + SC:
(b) S: + P: + DO:
(c) S: + P: + PC:

(a) [Some students] [are] [natural leaders].
(b) [We] [have been studying] [functional grammar].
(c) [The Cuban people] [are being prepared] [for difficult times].
(d) [Those secrets] [should have been being guarded] [by those officials].
(e) [We] [have not elected] [you] [our leader].
(f) [The books] [should not have been taken] [from the table].
(g) [John] [did not read] [the directive from headquarters].
(h) [The size of your bank account] [does not have] [any relation to your creativity].
(i) [The third choice] [was] [correct].
(j) [Three brilliant researchers] [decoded] [the complex structure of that molecule].
(k) [Her class] [challenged] [my previous assumptions].
(l) [Her supportive methods] [are giving] [her students] [new confidence].
(m) [The pipeline in Alaska] [crosses] [fields of thick ice].
(n) [After the accident], [the driver][felt] [very guilty].
(o) [My plans] [are] [quite similar to yours].
(p) [I] [am not] [very sure of their commitment to energy conservation].
(q) [My neighbors] [seemed] [happy about the price of their new car].
(r) [Advertisers] [should plan] [their commercials] [carefully].
(s) [Just yesterday], [some burglars] [stole] [my toothbrush].
(t) [The cost of food] [has quite literally doubled] [in recent years].
(u) [Throughout the centuries], [the creative talents of many women] [must surely have been wasted].
(v) [Quite secretly], [his coworkers] [have been listening] [to propaganda from the opposition].
(w) [After the end of this session], [the senator] [will have been] [a loyal member of Congress] [for a long time].
(x) [Earlier], [the coach] [had been showing] [the team] [some new plays].
(y) [A teacher of young children] [should be] [very receptive to their ideas].

PRACTICE 22 (ANALYZING DECLARATIVE CLAUSE PATTERNS)

In PRACTICE 21, I asked you to label the clause functions of phrases that we had already identified for you and bracketed. This practice exercise is a bit more challenging because we would like you to identify the phrases and provide both their functional and formal labels. The task is doable because the 26 sentences that propose for analysis in this way are the same ones in
which you labeled the parts of speech and their phrase functions at the end of Chapter 4 (cf. PRACTICE 19 on p. 74 above). Immediately below are the answers to sentences (a) and (b) in the outline format of grammatical analysis. Do the same for the remaining 24 sentences on p. 74.

(a) I have been buying some books recently.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (I)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (have been buying)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (some books)
   FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT adverb phrase (recently)

(b) They are my favorite kind of books.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (They)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (are)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT noun phrase (my favorite kind of books)

FEEDBACK TO PRACTICE 20
(STUDYING THE DEFINITIONS OF FUNCTIONAL POSITIONS IN THE DECLARATIVE CLAUSE)

In motivating you to make and study the cards about parts of speech in the last chapter, I mentioned that “the world” expects English professionals, especially English teachers, to know how to define parts of speech. Well, it is probably true that the same expectations relate to clause functions like SUBJECT, PREDICATER, DIRECT OBJECT, INDIRECT OBJECT, etc. These are exceptionally basic concepts that you simply must know in the sense that you will never forget them. And here is another motivation for you to spend the time studying these concepts: They are not just relevant to the declarative clause. Throughout this book, we will be discussing more than a dozen additional clause types, and these same functional positions appear in all of them. It is essential that you master these concepts if you are going to be able to focus on the myriad of details that characterize what makes those various clause types different from the declarative clause and from one another. Mastering these concepts will help you see the similarities among those clause types so that you can focus on the differences among them. So, please, take the time; learn everything that you can about clause functions now.

FEEDBACK TO PRACTICE 21
(WORKING WITH DECLARATIVE CLAUSE PATTERNS)

(a) S: + P: + SC:
(b) S: + P: + DO:
(c) S: + P: + PC:
(d) S: + P: + PC:
(e) S: + P: + DO: + OC
(f) S: + P: + PC:
(g) S: + P: + DO:
(h) S: + P: + DO:
(i) S: + P: + SC:
(j) S: + P: + DO:
(k) S: + P: + DO:
(l) S: + P: + IO: + DO:
(m) S: + P: + DO:
(n) ICC: + S: + P: + SC:
(o) S: + P: + SC:
(p) S: + P: + SC:
(q) S: + P: + SC:
(r) S: + P: + DO: + FCC:
(s) ICC: + S: + P: + DO:
(t) S: + P: + FCC:
(u) ICC: + S: + P
(v) ICC: + S: + P: + PC:
(w) ICC: + S: + P: + SC: + FCC:
(x) ICC: + S: + P: + IO: + DO:
(y) S: + P: + SC:

FEEDBACK TO PRACTICE 22
(ANALYZING DECLARATIVE CLAUSE PATTERNS)

(a) I have been buying some books recently.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (I)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (have been buying)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (some books)
   FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT adverb phrase (recently)

(b) They are my favorite kind of books.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (They)
   PREDICATER LINKING verb phrase (are)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT noun phrase (my favorite kind of books)

(c) They are inexpensive paperbacks.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (they)
   PREDICATER linking verb phrase (are)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT noun phrase (inexpensive paperbacks)

(d) Paperbacks are not so heavy.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (paperbacks)
   PREDICATER linking verb phrase (are not)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT adjective phrase (so heavy)

(e) One quality is very peculiar about paperbacks.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (one quality)
   PREDICATER linking verb phrase (is)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT adjective phrase (very peculiar about paperbacks)

(f) They never lie flat.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (they)
   PREDICATER linking verb phrase (never lie)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT (flat)

(g) Yesterday, I was reading two paperbacks from the library simultaneously.
   INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT adverb phrase (yesterday)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (I)
DECLARATIVE CLAUSES AND VERBAL CLAUSES

PREDICATER verb phrase (was reading)
DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (two paperbacks from the library)
FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT adverb phrase (simultaneously)

(h) That inspired me.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (that)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (inspired)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (me)

(i) I should become more comfortable with visits to libraries.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (I)
   PREDICATER linking verb phrase (should become)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT adjective phrase (more comfortable with visits to libraries)

(j) Hardback books do not understand my system of values.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (hardback books)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (do not understand)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (my system of values)

(k) Rigidity is their first attribute.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (Rigidity)
   PREDICATER linking verb phrase (is)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT noun phrase (their first attribute)

(l) They are always too big for my biggest pocket.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (they)
   PREDICATER linking verb phrase (are always)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT adjective phrase (too big for my biggest pocket)

(m) Their square corners seem arrogant.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (their square corners)
   PREDICATER linking verb phrase (seem)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT adjective phrase (arrogant)

(n) Excessive thickness is their next attribute.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (excessive thickness)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (is)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT noun phrase (their next attribute)

(o) Occasionally, I have felt uncomfortable about hardback books.
   INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT adverb phrase (occasionally)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (I)
   PREDICATER linking verb phrase (have felt)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT adjective phrase (uncomfortable about hardback books)

(p) Quite frequently, I read the paperbacks in my backpack.
   INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT adverb phrase (quite frequently)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (I)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (read)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (the paperbacks in my backpack)
(q) Some paperbacks in my possession may have been borrowed.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (some paperbacks in my possession)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (may have been borrowed)

(r) Often, funny comments have been scribbled in them.
   INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT adverb phrase (often)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (funny comments)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (have been scribbled)
   PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT (in them)

(s) Mine are full of coffee marks.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (mine)
   PREDICATER linking verb phrase (are)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT adjective phrase (full of coffee marks)

(t) Little pieces of coconut sometimes appear in the pages of my paperback books.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (little pieces of coconut)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (sometimes appear)
   FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT prepositional phrase (in the pages of my paperback books)

(u) Those hardback books are hopeless
   SUBJECT noun phrase (those hardback books)
   PREDICATER linking verb phrase (are)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT adjective phrase (hopeless)

(v) You never become familiar with them.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (you)
   PREDICATER linking verb phrase (never become)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT adjective phrase (familiar with them)

(w) Quite arrogantly, they do not tolerate the swinish multitudes.
   INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT adverb phrase (quite arrogantly)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (they)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (do not tolerate)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (the swinish multitudes)

(x) I know one important thing.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (I)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (know)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (one important thing)

(y) My paperbacks have a huge amount of fun.
   SUBJECT noun phrase (my paperbacks)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (have)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (a huge amount of fun)
**-ing PARTICIPLE CLAUSES**  (-ingparcl>)

One type of -ing participle has traditionally been given the label “gerund,” and has been defined as a word that has the form of a verb but the function of a noun. To put it more precisely, a “gerund” would thus be a verb or linking verb, with the -ing inflectional suffix attached that seems to be able to go where nouns go and do what nouns do. For example, given the sentence *Exercise improved my health*, one could replace the noun *exercise* with the “gerund” *swimming* and produce a perfectly grammatical sentence: *Swimming improved my health.*

“Gerunds” have traditionally been distinguished from “present participles,” i.e., -ing participles, which have non-noun-like functions, e.g., POST MODIFIER of a noun in *The person swimming is my friend,* or INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT in *Swimming, John felt as relaxed as a dolphin.* We begin this section by arguing against such a distinction and for the labeling of both “gerunds” and “present participles” as -ing participles. In doing so, we are following the lead of both grammar reference works cited in the Preface of this book.

The first point to be made is that “gerunds” do not ever occupy the same position as nouns. In fact, their function would be PREDICATERS in “gerund clauses” (whereas nouns are HEADS of noun phrases); we will argue that it is the clause in which the “gerund” is PREDICATER that occupies the same positions as nouns. For example, even though the “gerund” *swimming* seems to be doing what a noun does in filling the SUBJECT position in *Swimming improved my health,* it still can behave very much like a verb. For example, it can have its own DIRECT OBJECT: *Swimming laps improved my health.* It can also have its own CLAUSE COMPLEMENT: *Swimming laps daily improved my health.* *Swimming* thus seems to have a PREDICATER function in relation to the DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase *laps* and the CLAUSE COMPLEMENT adverb phrase *daily.* How can it be SUBJECT in relation to *improved my health* and PREDICATER in relation to *laps* and *daily*? Its grammar is further complicated by the fact that English grammar allows *My swimming improved my health.* Now, *swimming,* like a noun again, seems to be functioning as a HEAD in relation to the DETERMINER possessive article *my.* Surely, the traditional definition of a “gerund” only begins to hint at the complexities of its grammar.

In 4.23 is a sentence (*Our paying taxes to the government does not improve the economy*) in which the -ing participle (alias “gerund”) *paying* seems to function simultaneously as HEAD (having a DETERMINER possessive article *our* preceding it) and also as PREDICATER (having a DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase *higher taxes* and a PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT prepositional phrase *to the government* following it). How can we analyze such sentences grammatically in such a way that all of these functional relationships can be explained? Here is a tree diagram analysis of this sentence that seems to do the trick:
Our paying higher taxes to the government does not improve the economy.

In the diagram, 4.23, paying higher taxes to the government is analyzed as an -ing participle clause (-ingparcl>, within which paying is a PREDICATER that has higher taxes as its DIRECT OBJECT and to the government as its PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT. The possessive article our is given the functional label of DETERMINER in a noun phrase of which the entire –ing participle clause is the HEAD.

If such an -ing participle (alias, “gerund”) occurred in such a sentence without complements (as in the sentence Swimming improved my health), it would be analyzed as in 4.24. We must analyze the sentence in this way to allow for swimming (as the entire content of the -ing participle clause) to be labeled simultaneously as the HEAD (thus showing that a potential DETERMINER possessive article like my could be added) and also (as a constituent within the -ing participle clause) to be labeled as a PREDICATER, thus showing that a potential DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase like laps could be added. In sum, the -ing participle in its “gerund alias” acts like a verb within its clause, but the whole gerund clause acts like a noun, functioning as HEAD of a noun phrase.
Now, what about those -ing forms that have traditionally been called present participles? Superficially, they differ from traditional “gerunds” in that they cannot be preceded by possessive articles (or possessive noun phrases, for that matter). How can we account for this difference? Very simply. Traditional “present participle clauses” are simply -ing participle clauses that occupy functional positions other than HEAD of a noun phrase. For example, they can function as POST MODIFIERS in noun phrases: In the sentence, *The woman selling books is my friend*, the words *selling books* POST MODIFY *woman*. Traditional “present participle clauses” also function as INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENTS: *Selling books, Helen witnessed the accident*. In 4.25 and 4.26, you will find diagrams of these two sentences:
To restate my argument so far: In contemporary English, there is no formal (i.e., internal structural) difference between the clauses in which so-called “gerunds” and so-called “present participles” appear. More specifically, DETERMINER possessive articles in grammatical sequences such as my swimming or our giving do not directly DETERMINE the -ing form that they accompany; rather, they determine the entire -ing participle clause, within which the -ing participle functions as PREDICATER.

Both types of -ing participle clauses belong to a class of subordinate clauses in English that, as a group, have been called “verbal” clauses, because the key word in them is like a verb (hence the term “verbal”), but not fully a verb, as we have seen in the case of the -ing participle. The term “verbal clause” has traditionally been applied to what may more technically be called “non-finite” or “tenseless” clauses. They typically, but not always, occur without a SUBJECT, as in the examples of sentences with -ing participle clauses given so far in this section. Unlike “finite” clauses, which are bounded in time by the present or past tense inflectional suffix that always occurs on the first word in their verb or linking verb phrases, verbal clauses never have a present or past tense suffix attached to any word in them. In fact, if the so-called “verbal” is an infinitive, it has no suffix of any kind attached. If it is an -ing participle, it has the -ing inflectional suffix attached. If it is a -en participle, it has the -en inflectional suffix attached.

There are three types of verbal clauses: (1) -ing participle clauses (-ingparcl>, (2) -en participle clauses (-enparcl>, and (3) infinitive clauses (infcl>). Some grammar books call them phrases; however, the label clause is more appropriate because each one will always have a PREDICATER, and that PREDICATER can be followed by all of the functional elements listed in the patterns of the declarative clause in the preceding section (i.e., DIRECT OBJECTS, INDIRECT OBJECTS, SUBJECT COMPLEMENTS, etc.).

Those -ing participle clauses that were traditionally called “gerund clauses” because they occupy the functional position of HEAD of a noun phrase, can, in principal, occupy any functional position that a noun phrase headed by a noun might occupy. We’ve just looked at some sentences in which a noun phrase headed by an -ing participle clause occupied the SUBJECT position. Here is another sentence in which the noun phrase headed by an -ing participle clause functions as SUBJECT: Selling books is profitable. Here are examples of sentences where a noun phrase headed by the same -ing participle clause occupies other positions that noun-headed noun phrases can also occupy: DIRECT OBJECT: She likes selling books;
INDIRECT OBJECT: She gave selling books priority; SUBJECT COMPLEMENT: Her hobby is selling books; OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION: She became rich by selling books.

Here is a brief definition of the -ing participle (-ingpar...) as a part of speech:

4.27
-ing participles (-ingpar...)

(a) Form: -ing participles are defined formally by listing (pure form): arriving, building, carving, being, becoming, etc. The list of -ing participles in fact parallels the list of all verbs and linking verbs (and even some auxiliaries) that can have the -ing inflectional suffix attached. -ing participles can have the same array of derivational suffixes that verbs have, e.g., symbolizing. All -ing participles must have one but only that one inflectional suffix attached; that is, -ing.

(b) Function: -ing participles function as PREDICATER (P:) in an -ing participle clause (-ingparcl>, e.g., Our paying higher taxes to the government will not improve the economy; The woman selling books is my friend; Selling books, Helen witnessed the accident.

(c) Meaning: -ing participles typically express actions (building, running, saying), processes (growing, becoming), or states (owning, being), etc. However, that action, process, or state tends to have a noun-like meaning, a meaning that could be paraphrased, for example, as “the action of running,” “the process of growing,” or “the state of being.”

Here are the patterns and choices that constitute the internal grammar of the -ing participle clause:

4.28
Patterns> (in the -ing participle clause)
(a) -ingparcl> P:
(b) -ingparcl> P: + . . . [ The same as patterns in the declcl>, but without S:]

4.29
Choices: (in the -ing participle clause)
(a) P: -ingpar...
(b) [Other choices, such as those for DO:, IO:, etc., are the same as the declcl>, except that the choices listed with S: are not relevant.]

PRACTICE 23 (ANALYZING -ing PARTICIPLE CLAUSES)

This practice and practice 24 focus on -ing participle clauses that function as HEAD of a noun phrase (those traditionally called “gerund clauses”).

For any noun phrases containing -ing participle clauses in each of the following sentences, (1) list the noun phrase containing the -ing participle clause, (2) list the -ing participle clause contained within that noun phrase, and then (3) list the -ing participle within that -ing participle clause. Here is the answer to item (a):

(a) Discussing problems is essential for young couples.
   (1) np> discussing problems
   (2) -ingparcl> discussing problems
   (3) -ingpar... discussing
(a) Discussing problems is essential for young couples.
(b) My boss really appreciated my doing two jobs in one day.
(c) Children like building sand castles.
(d) In developing the budget, the President should give protecting the environment high priority.

**PRACTICE 24 (ANALYZING -ing PARTICIPLE CLAUSES II)**

Prepare complete grammatical analyses in either the outline format or the tree-diagram format of each of the following sentences, which were given as examples in this section. Here is the answer to item (a):

(a) declarative clause (selling books is profitable)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (selling books)
   HEAD -ing participle clause (selling books)
   PREDICATERS linking verb phrase (is)
   MAIN PREDICATERS linking verb (is)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT adjective phrase (profitable)
   HEAD adjective (profitable)

(a) Selling books is profitable.
(b) She likes selling books.
(c) She gave selling books priority
(d) Her hobby is selling books
(e) She became rich by selling books.

**FEEDBACK TO PRACTICE 23 (ANALYZING -ing PARTICIPLE CLAUSES)**

(a) Discussing problems is essential for young couples.
   (1) np> discussing problems
   (2) -ingparcl> discussing problems
   (3) -ingpar... discussing

(b) My boss really appreciated my doing two jobs in one day.
   (1) np> my doing two jobs in one day
   (2) -ingparcl> doing two jobs in one day
   (3) -ingpar... doing

(c) Children like building sand castles.
   (1) np> building sand castles
   (2) -ingparcl> building sand castles
   (3) -ingpar... building

(d) In developing the budget, the President should give protecting the environment high priority.
   (1) np> developing the budget
   (2) -ingparcl> developing the budget
   (3) -ingpar... developing
DECLARATIVE CLAUSES AND VERBAL CLAUSES

(1) np> protecting the environment
(2) -ingparcl> protecting the environment
(3) -ingpar... protecting

FEEDBACK TO PRACTICE 24 (ANALYZING -ing PARTICIPLE CLAUSES II)

(a) declarative clause (selling books is profitable)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (selling books)
      HEAD -ing participle clause (selling books)
         PREDICATER -ing participle (selling)
         DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (books)
            HEAD noun (books)
   PREDICATER linking verb phrase (is)
   MAIN PREDICATER linking verb (is)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT adjective phrase (profitable)
      HEAD adjective (profitable)

(b) declarative clause (she likes selling books)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (she)
      HEAD personal pronoun (she)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (likes)
      MAIN PREDICATER verb (likes)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (selling books)
      HEAD -ing participle clause (selling books)
         PREDICATER -ing participle (selling)
         DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (books)
            HEAD noun (books)

(c) declarative clause (she gave selling books priority)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (she)
      HEAD personal pronoun (she)
   PREDICATER verb phrase (gave)
      MAIN PREDICATER verb (gave)
   INDIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (selling books)
      HEAD -ing participle clause (selling books)
         PREDICATER -ing participle (selling)
         DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (books)
            HEAD noun (books)
   DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (priority)
      HEAD noun (priority)

(d) declarative clause (her hobby is selling books)
   SUBJECT noun phrase (her hobby)
      DETERMINER possessive article (her)
      HEAD noun (hobby)
   PREDICATER linking verb phrase (is)
   SUBJECT COMPLEMENT noun phrase (selling books)
      HEAD -ing participle clause (selling books)
         PREDICATER -ing participle (selling)
         DIRECT OBJECT noun phrase (books)
(e) declarative clause (she became rich by selling books)

- SUBJECT noun phrase (she)
  - HEAD personal pronoun (she)
- PREDICATER linking verb phrase (became)
  - MAIN PREDICATER linking verb (became)
- SUBJECT COMPLEMENT adjective phrase (rich)
  - HEAD adjective (rich)
- FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT prepositional phrase
  - RELATER preposition (by)
  - OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION noun phrase (selling books)
    - HEAD -ing participle clause (selling books)
      - PREDICATER -ing participle (selling)
      - DIRECT OBJECT noun phase (books)
      - HEAD noun (books)

-en PARTICIPLE CLAUSES (-enparcl>)

-en participle clauses always contain an -en participle (-enpar...), and the -en participle is typically the first word. -en participles end in the -en inflectional suffix, which (for most verbs) is spelled “ed” or “d,” but for many common verbs is spelled “en” or “ne”. Unlike verbs, which also take this suffix, -en participles have no passive auxiliary preceding them. -en participle clauses typically function as POST MODIFIERS in noun phrases, and will thus answer questions like “Which n...?” or “What kind of a n...?”, e.g., in The book written by that woman is good, the words written by that woman are an -en participle clause POST MODIFYING book, and the word written is an -en participle. Keep in mind that most English verbs spell the -en inflectional suffix “d” or “ed” or even “t.” -en participle clauses may also function as INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENTS: Beaten by his opponent, the loser left the arena. Here are diagrams of the two example sentences discussed in this paragraph:
The book written by that woman is good.

Beaten by his opponent, the loser left the arena.

Here are the patterns and choices that constitute the internal grammar of the -en participle clause:

**4.32**

Patterns (in the -en participle clause)
(a) -enparcl> P:
(b) -enparcl> P: + . . . [the same as patterns in the declcl>]

**4.33**

Choices: (in the -en participle clause)
(a) P: -enpar... [Other choices are the same as the declcl>]

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INFinitive clauses always contain an infinitive (inf...) or a linking infinitive (linf...), and the infinitive (or linking infinitive) is typically the second word (following the infinitive marker (infm...) to. Infinitives are bare verb stems and linking infinitives are bare linking verb stems with no inflectional suffix of any kind attached. Infinitive clauses (infcl>) may occupy the functional position of POSTMODIFIER in a noun phrase (She wants an opportunity to write books). They may also occupy functional positions otherwise occupied by noun phrases: SUBJECT: To write books was her goal; DIRECT OBJECT: She likes to write books; SUBJECT COMPLEMENT: Her goal was to write books. Infinitive clauses may also function as INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENTS: To earn her degree, Ayvonne took evening courses.

Here is a diagram of one of the sentences discussed in this paragraph (after examining it, you should try to diagram the other four example sentences in this paragraph):

4.34

Here are the patterns and choices that constitute the internal grammar of the infinitive clause:

4.35
Patterns> (in the infinitive clause)
(a) infcl> R: + P:
(b) infcl> R: + P: + . . . [ The same as patterns in the declcl>]

4.36
Choices: (in the infinitive clause)
(a) R: infm...
(b) P: inf..., linf... [Other choices are the same as the declcl>]

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PRACTICE 25 (LABELING VERBAL CLAUSES)

I have inserted pairs of square brackets at various places in the sentences lettered (a) through (m) below to indicate that the words within a set of brackets are a verbal clause of one of the three types described in this chapter. (In a few instances, one verbal clause is inside another one.) Copy each sentence, along with the square brackets, onto a sheet of lined paper, leaving two empty lines between each sentence. Then, above each bracketed sequence, write the abbreviation of the type of verbal clause that it represents. Refer to the sections in this chapter that describe and exemplify each type of verbal clause for help.

(a) [Discussing problems] is essential for young couples.
(b) Children like [building sand castles].
(c) [To strengthen the rule of law] should be a legislator's goal.
(d) We gave Kathy some models [to build for her brother].
(e) The car hit a woman [wearing dark glasses].
(f) A car [stolen in Texas] was found in Maryland.
(g) In [developing the budget], the President should give [protecting the environment] high priority.
(h) Some professional athletes want [to earn millions of dollars].
(i) A book [written by our professor] is available in the bookstore.
(j) That woman [sitting in the rear of the auditorium] may be our next president.
(k) Students with the job of [planning the ceremony] hope [to give those selected for awards recognition [matching their achievements]].
(l) Some states [weakened by the recession] have sent the Congress an ultimatum [demanding new attempts [to find solutions]].
(m) The teacher [planning [to teach her students the views of Thoreau]] is fond of [recounting stories [told by his contemporaries]].

FEEDBACK TO PRACTICE 25 (LABELING VERBAL CLAUSES)

Before each bracketed verbal clause, we have inserted both its functional and formal labels in boldface type:

(a) **H:-ingparcl>**[Discussing problems] is essential for young couples.
(b) Children like **H:-ingparcl>**[building sand castles].
(c) **S:infcl>**[To strengthen the rule of law] should be a legislator's goal.
(d) We gave Kathy some models **PM:infcl>**[to build for her brother].
(e) The car hit a woman **PM:ingparcl>**[wearing dark glasses].
(f) A car **PM:-enparcl>**[stolen in Texas] was found in Maryland.
(g) In **H:-ingparcl>**[developing the budget], the President should give **H:-ingparcl>**[protecting the environment] high priority.
(h) Some professional athletes want **DO:infcl>**[to earn millions of dollars].
(i) A book **PM:-enparcl>**[written by our professor] is available in the bookstore.
(j) That woman **PM: -ingparcl>**[sitting in the rear of the auditorium] may be our next president.
(k) Students with the job of **H:-ingparcl>**[planning the ceremony] hope **DO:infcl>**[to give those selected for awards recognition **PM:-ingparcl>**[matching their achievements]].
(l) Some states **PM:-enparcl>**[weakened by the recession] have sent the Congress an ultimatum **PM:-enparcl>**[demanding new attempts **PM:infcl>**[to find solutions]].
(m) The teacher **PM:-ingparcl>**[planning **DO:infcl>**[to teach her students the views of Thoreau]] is fond of **H:-ingparcl>**[recounting stories **PM:-enparcl>**[told by his contemporaries]].

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Chapter 3 and 4 have looked very closely at the internal structures of various types of English phrases and of the English declarative clause, in the process defining in some detail more than two dozen parts of speech. This section of chapter 4 aims to bring the conceptual material in chapters 3 and 4 together into one coherent whole and to give you the opportunity to work with the ideas in those chapters by applying them to sentence analysis. The aim is to have you experience not only the complexity but also the consistency of English grammar. Future chapters will point out that, as coherent and consistent as English grammar may seem when it is as neatly packaged as we have so far made it, in reality English grammar is as wondrously complex as the human mind and the human cultures within which the mind operates. But first, let us spend one last chapter section indulging in the illusion of order.

4.37
The Declarative Clause: Analytical Strategies

Even if a sentence you are assigned to diagram is relatively short, I advise you to allocate one whole side of a sheet of paper to its analysis. Many of my students prefer to work on lined paper with a red line about an inch in from the left margin. They turn the paper sideways so that the red line is toward the bottom, and they write the sentence on the line. This leaves plenty of room above the sentence to draw the tree diagram and also some space below the sentence to make some of the analytical notations we will suggest in this section.

There is no guaranteed step-by-step approach to grammatical analysis; even experts often fail to notice grammatical categories and relationships until they are well into the task of analysis. Thus it is good to use a pencil and to be comfortable erasing. Keep going over every part of the diagram. Consult the procedures described in the following six analytical steps over and over again. Consult relevant numbered lines in the summary grammar in the next section of this chapter. Look at other sentences that you have already diagrammed in your notes, and ask yourself if parts of them feel similar to parts of the sentence you are working on. Skill comes from practice. One of the best ways to practice is to keep doing over again (without looking) the sentences that have been done in class and that you have copied correctly into your notes; you can then check for correctness as soon as you finish diagramming a sentence.

The six analytical steps I am about to describe represent only one approach to sentence analysis. I urge you to work through the steps in analyzing several sentences. (I present some sentences for analysis at the end of the chapter.) In the process of practicing, you may decide to revise my procedure or work out an entirely different procedure. No matter how you end up going about it, the experience of grammatical analysis will help you to internalize your understanding of English grammar in ways that classroom interaction and reading the course text cannot.

(Preliminary) Step One: Identify and label any verbals.

The purpose of this step is to identify any -ing participles, -en participles, or infinitives in the sentence and then (a) draw a double line under them and (b) write their part-of-speech label below the double line. (This will assure that you do not mistake one of them for the PREDICATER of the declarative clause itself.) After you have thus marked them all, there will be only one verb or linking verb remaining, and it is the MAIN PREDICATER in the declarative
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clause. (There may, of course, also be auxiliaries accompanying the MAIN PREDICATe verb or linking verb in the declarative clause vp> or lvp>.)

(Step 1a: -ing participles)

Examine the sentence, carefully looking for words ending with the -ing inflectional suffix. If you find such a word, check to see whether it has a form of the progressive auxiliary be (am, is, are, was, were, be, been) preceding it and related to it (remember, the word not or an adverb phrase may occur between the progressive auxiliary and the word with -ing). If you cannot find a progressive auxiliary related to the word with -ing, then that word is an -ing participle (-ingpar...). Remember, the -ing participle can be of the type alternatively called a “gerund,” e.g., Selling books is my hobby, or it could be of the type alternatively called a “present participle,” e.g., The woman selling books is my friend.

(Step 1b: -en participles)

Now, examine the sentence again, carefully looking for words ending with the -en inflectional suffix. If you find such a word (and it is not obviously a past-tense form), check to see whether it has a form of the passive auxiliary be (am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been) preceding it and related to it (remember, the word not or an adverb phrase may occur between the passive auxiliary and the word with the -en participle suffix attached). If you cannot find a passive auxiliary related to the word with the -en participle suffix attached (and it is not obviously a past-tense form) then that word is indeed an -en participle (-enpar...). -en participle clauses function as POST MODIFIERS in noun phrases, and can thus answer questions like “Which N...?” or “What kind of a N...?”, e.g., in The book written by that woman is good, the words written by that woman are an -en participle clause POST MODIFYING book, and the word written is an -en participle. -en participle clauses can also function as INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENTS, e.g., Written by Sheri, the book was a best seller. Keep in mind that, for most English verbs, the -en inflectional suffix is spelled d or ed or even t. Draw a double line under the word and, below the double line, write the label -enpar... 

(Step 1c: infinitives)

Now, examine the sentence again, this time carefully looking for any uninflected verbs or linking verbs with the infinitive marker (inf...). to immediately preceding the verb or linking verb. Whenever to precedes an uninflected verb or linking verb, we apply the part-of-speech label, infinitive (inf...), not v... or lv..., to the verb or linking verb. Clauses beginning with an infinitive marker and an infinitive are called infinitive clauses (infcl>) and may occupy either the functional position of POSTMODIFIER in a noun phrase (She wants an opportunity to write books) or functional positions otherwise occupied by noun phrases: SUBJECT: To write books was her goal; DIRECT OBJECT: She likes to write books; SUBJECT COMPLEMENT: Her goal was to write books. Draw a double line under the word and, below the double line, write the label inf...

(Preliminary) Step Two: Identify and label any prepositional phrases.

Look for any prepositional phrases in your sentence, underline them with a single underline, and then work through the sub-steps listed immediately after this paragraph to help you make a preliminary assessment of the function of each pp>. It is best to move from right to left (from the back to the front of the sentence) in doing this initial assessment. When you find a preposition (e.g., for, in, and with in the first line of this paragraph) you have also found a prepositional
phrase (e.g., for any prepositional phrases, in your sentence, and with a single underline in the first two lines of this paragraph). For each pp> apply as many of the various sub-tests on the following list as are needed to help you determine its function. As you finish each one, write immediately below it the abbreviation for the functional label you expect to assign it when the time comes to locate it in the tree diagram; every pp> will be assigned one of these six functional labels: PM:, ADJC:, SC:, ICC:, FCC: or PC:.

(Step 2a: POST MODIFIER prepositional phrase)

If the underlined pp> immediately follows a noun and answers questions like, Which [noun]? or What kind of a [noun]? then it is a POST MODIFIER (PM:) inside of a noun phrase (np>): The author from France wrote a book of poetry.

(Step 2b: ADJECTIVE COMPLEMENT prepositional phrase)

If the underlined pp> immediately follows an adjective and seems to fulfill an "expectation" of the adjective, then it is an ADJECTIVE COMPLEMENT (ADJC:) inside of an adjective phrase (adjp>): Mary was happy about the news. John is very fond of sweets.

(Step 2c: SUBJECT COMPLEMENT prepositional phrase)

If the underlined prepositional phrase immediately follows a linking verb and is linked to the SUBJECT by the linking verb, then it is a SUBJECT COMPLEMENT (SC:): That athlete is in top form. Their comments seemed on target.

(Step 2d: INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT prepositional phrase)

If the underlined prepositional phrase is at the very beginning of the sentence (with its preposition the first word in the sentence, it is an INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT (ICC): With care, the thieves removes the window. In Canada, the supply of clean water is very plentiful during those years. I didn't understand calculus. For some reason, I have trouble with foreign languages (Note that these four example INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT prepositional phrases, respectively, answer the questions, how? where? when? and why?).

(Step 2e: FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT prepositional phrase)

If the underlined prepositional phrase is just as likely to appear at the beginning as at the end of a clause, it is a FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT (FCC): (Note how the following four example sentences paraphrase the four in examples of INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT prepositional phrases given in the previous paragraph: The thieves removed the window with care. The supply of clean water is very plentiful in Canada. I didn't understand calculus during those years. I have trouble with foreign languages for some reason. FINAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT prepositional phrases, like INITIAL CLAUSE COMPLEMENT prepositional phrases typically answers questions using words like how? (with care) where? (in Canada) when? (during those years) or why? (for some reason).

(Step 2f: PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT prepositional phrase)

The underlined prepositional phrase is a PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT (PC:) if the following three criteria apply:
(a) It is likely to appear only at the end of a clause (and can appear at the beginning only with
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extra emphasis—i.e., extra loudness on the HEAD noun in the np>—John talked to Mary but not *To Mary John talked. / The solution depends on cooperation but not *On cooperation the solution depends. / They voted for Clinton but not *For Clinton they voted.

(b) It typically answers questions using words like “p... who(m)?” (They talked to whom? They talked to Mary) or “p... what?” (It depends on what? It depends on cooperation).

(c) The verb in the vp> “expects” the preposition: talk . . . to, about; depend . . . on; vote . . . for; look . . . at, for; . . . . Note especially that any passive vp> expects by: was stolen . . . by; was eaten . . . by.

Step Three: Identify and diagram the P:vp> or P:lvp>

Review the definition of a PREDICATER on p. 82, and in light of it, identify the PREDICATER verb phrase or PREDICATER linking verb phrase and enclose it in square brackets.

Now, we actually begin to diagram the sentence. First, write the label declcl> in the center at the top of the space above the sentence, and draw a short solid line from declcl> to P:, which should be placed high in the space and directly above the bracketed PREDICATER. Write the label vp> directly under the P: (you may later decide to change vp> to lvp>). (Remember, the verb-phrase or linking-verb-phrase sequence will end with the only verb or linking verb in the sentence that you did not draw a double line under in Step One.) When you have finished doing that, determine the functional and formal label of every word in the vp> or lvp> and draw the solid and dotted lines as appropriate. Here is an analytical procedure that can help you do that until it becomes second nature (in doing steps 3.1 to 3.5, ignore the word not if it appears):

(Step 3a: Bracket the vp> or lvp>.)

Begin the analysis by copying the declarative clause onto a separate sheet of paper leaving a few inches of blank working space above it. Then place square brackets around the whole phrase. The verb phrase or linking verb phrase may be composed simply of a verb or linking verb without any accompanying words. It may also have one or more auxiliaries preceding it (after the first of which, the word not might appear). Or it could consist of a present or past tensed form of the linking verb be followed by not.

As we saw in Chapter 3, every verb phrase or linking verb phrase functions as a PREDICATER (P:) in its clause, and so we will place that label above the vp> or lvp> label that we assign to the verb phrase or linking verb phrase.

Begin the actual diagram by writing P: high in the space and directly above the bracketed words. Write the label vp> directly under the P: (you may later decide to change vp> to lvp>). When you have finished doing that, determine the functional and formal label of every word in the vp> or lvp> and draw the solid and dotted lines as appropriate. Here are some additional steps that can help you do that until it becomes second nature (in doing steps two to five, ignore the word not if it appears):

(Step 3b: Diagram any modal auxiliaries that may appear.)

Is the first word inside the left bracket a modal auxiliary (modaux... can, may, will, shall, could, might, would, should, or must)? If so, it is a MODAL HELPING PREDICATER modal auxiliary; diagram as follows:
(Step 3c: Diagram any perfect auxiliaries that may appear.)

Do *have*, *has*, or *had* appear **followed by a word with the -en participle inflectional suffix attached to it**? (For many common verbs, linking verbs, and auxiliaries that suffix is spelled "en" or "ne"; for most verbs, it is spelled the same as the past tense inflectional suffix -- with "d" or "ed" or even "t." ) If so, it is a PERFECT HELPING PREDICATE perfect auxiliary; diagram as follows:

(Step 3d: Diagram any progressive auxiliaries that may appear.)

Do *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *be*, or *been* appear **followed by a word with the present participle inflectional suffix attached to it**? (For all English verbs, linking verbs, and auxiliaries, this suffix is spelled "ing.") If so, it is a PROGRESSIVE HELPING PREDICATE progressive auxiliary; diagram as follows:

(Step 3e: Diagram any passive auxiliaries that may appear.)

Do *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *be*, *being*, or *been* appear **followed by a word with the -en participle inflectional suffix attached to it**? (For many common verbs, that suffix is spelled "en" or "ne"; for most verbs, it is spelled the same as the past tense inflectional suffix -- with "d" or "ed" or even "t." ) If so, it is a PASSIVE HELPING PREDICATE passive auxiliary; diagram
as follows:

(Step 3f: Diagram the verb or linking verb.)

Now focus on the last word inside the right bracket. Its functional label is MAIN PREDICATER (MP:), and its part-of-speech label is either verb (v...) or linking verb (lv...). Decide which (by referring to the definitions of verb and linking verb), and diagram as appropriate in one of the following ways (there may or may not be one or more auxiliaries already in the diagram). If the MAIN PREDICATER is indeed a linking verb (lv...), be sure to change the phrase label under P: from vp> to lvp>.

(Step 3g: Diagram the negative if it appears.)

In negative declarative clauses not appears after the first auxiliary; its functional label is SENTENCE NEGATER (SN:), and its part-of-speech label is negative (neg...):
(Step 3h: Diagram the proauxiliary if it appears.)

In addition to the four types of auxiliaries referred to in steps two to six, the proauxiliary (proaux...) may also appear in negative declarative clauses: If *do, does, or did* appears preceding SN:neg..., its functional label is PRO HELPING PREDICATER (PROHP:), its part-of-speech label is proauxiliary (proaux...), and it is diagrammed as follows:

```
P:  (l)vp>
   /   |
PROHP: proaux… SN: neg… MP: (l)y…
        do, does, did not word
```

Step Four: Identify and diagram the S: np>, or S:infcl>.

Next identify the SUBJECT immediately to the left of the P: you have just diagrammed and diagram it. (Remember that, even though it will usually be an np>, it could be an infcl>). Also remember the subject noun phrase could have an -ing participle clause as its head.) Please refer to the definition of SUBJECT on pp. 82 and 83 if you need assistance in identifying the subject. A test to help you identify the SUBJECT is to formulate a question beginning with *who, whom,* or *what* followed by the PREDICATER of the clause you are working on. Any and all words that would be part of the answer to *who, whom,* or *what* will be the subject. For example, given the sentence *The Ambassador departed,* the question *Who departed?* elicits the noun phrase *the ambassador* as the answer and therefore the SUBJECT. Given the sentence, *To become a doctor* *was her goal,* the question *What was her goal?* elicits the infinitive clause *to become a doctor* as the answer and therefore the SUBJECT.

Step Five: Identify and diagram the clause functions after S: + P:.

Now direct your attention back to the top of the diagram and begin the process of deciding which branches (if any) you will need to draw from declcl> after the branch to P:. To do this, read each of the definitions of the following clause functions on pp. 83-87: DIRECT OBJECT (DO:), INDIRECT OBJECT (IO:), OBJECT COMPLEMENT (OC:), SUBJECT COMPLEMENT (SC:), PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT (PC:), and CLAUSE COMPLEMENT (CC:). As you are reading those definitions and assessing your sentence in light of them, also consult the declarative clause patterns numbered 1 to 7 in the summary grammar in the next section. Proceed to draw the lines to the functional labels that you have decided are appropriate. The functional labels that you have already written under the pp>’s will help you plug them in at the appropriate places.

Step Six: Complete the diagramming of any verbal clauses.

You will also notice that any verbal clauses that you identified in step one above will need to be plugged in at appropriate places. When you finish diagramming the P: branch in any verbal clause, you will need to go back to Step Five and repeat the process described there, because it is
possible for any of the patterns in the declarative clause to be repeated in any of the verbal clauses (with the exception of the S: of course).

4.38

A Partial Grammar of the English Declarative Clause

This grammar includes the parts of speech and the patterns and choices discussed explicitly or implicitly in Chapters 3 and 4. As rich and detailed as it is, it still falls far short of a full description even of the English declarative clause. And it says nothing about interrogative or imperative clauses. Nor does it account for coordinated structures or subordinate clauses other than verbal clauses. Many of these other topics will be taken up in later chapters.

Patterns> in the Declarative Clause
(1) declcl> (ICC:) + S: + P: + (FCC:)
(2) declcl> (ICC:) + S: + P: + DO: + (FCC:)
(3) declcl> (ICC:) + S: + P: + IO: + DO: + (FCC:)
(4) declcl> (ICC:) + S: + P: + DO: + OC: + (FCC:)
(5) declcl> (ICC:) + S: + P: + SC: + (FCC:)
(6) declcl> (ICC:) + S: + P: + PC: + (FCC:)
(7) declcl> (ICC:) + S: + P: + DO: + PC: + (FCC:)

CHOICES: in the Declarative Clause
(8) S: np>, infcl>
(9) P: vp>, lvp>
(10) DO: np>, infcl>
(11) IO: np>
(12) OC: np>
(13) SC: adjp>, np>, pp>, infcl>
(14) PC: pp>
(15) ICC: and FCC: pp>, advp>
Patterns in the Verb Phrase and Linking Verb Phrase

(16) \(vp\) and \(lvp\) \((MCC:) + MP:\)
(17) \(vp\) and \(lvp\) \(MODHP: + (SN:) + (MCC:) + (PERFHP:) + (PROGHP:) + (PASSHP:) + MP:\)
(18) \(vp\) and \(lvp\) \(PERFHP: + (SN:) + (MCC:) + (PROGHP:) + (PASSHP:) + MP:\)
(19) \(vp\) and \(lvp\) \(PROGHP: + (SN:) + (MCC:) + (PASSHP:) + MP:\)
(20) \(vp\) \(PASSHP: + (SN:) + (MCC:) + MP:\)

(Linking verb phrases do not contain PASSIVE HELPING PREDICATER passive auxiliaries.)
(21) \(vp\) and \(lvp\) \(PROHP: + SN: + (MCC:) + MP:\)

(In negative sentences without an auxiliary, the linking verb \textit{be} does not follow pattern (21); instead, it follows pattern (21a):
(21a) \(lvp\) \(MP: lv... (be) + SN: + (MCC:)

CHOICES in the Verb Phrase and Linking Verb Phrase

(22) MP: v..., lv...
(23) MODHP: modaux... (can, may, will, shall, must, . . .)
(24) PERFHP: perfaux... (have word-en)
(25) PROGHP: progaux... (be word-ing)
(26) PASSHP: passaux... (be word-en)
(27) PROHP: proaux... (do)
(28) MCC: advp>
(29) SN: neg... (not)

Patterns in the Noun Phrase

(30) \(np\) \((D:) + (POD:) + (M:) + H: + (PM:)

CHOICES in the Noun Phrase

(31) H: n..., perspro..., dempro..., posspro..., -ingparcl>
(32) D: dart..., iart..., demart..., possart..., possnp>
(33) POD: crdnum..., ordnum..., genord...
(34) M: adj..., n...
(35) PM: pp>, -ingparcl>, -enparcl>, infcl>
The Pattern in the Prepositional Phrase
(36)
pp> R: + OP:

CHOICES: in the Prepositional Phrase
(37)
R: p...
(38)
OP: np>

Patterns in the Adjective Phrase
(39)
adjp> (M:) + H: + (ADJC:)

CHOICES: in the Adjective Phrase
(40)
H: adj...
(41)
M: int...
(42)
ADJC: pp>

Patterns in the Adverb Phrase
(43)
advp> (M:) + H:

CHOICES: in Adverb Phrase
(44)
H: adv...
(45)
M: Int...

Patterns in the -ing participle Clause
(46)
-ingparcl> P:
(47)
-ingparcl> P: + . . . (See patterns after P: in lines (2) to (7).)

CHOICES: in the -ing participle Clause
(48)
P: -ingpar...

(The CHOICES for positions following the PREDICATER are the same as for the declarative clause; please see lines (10) to (15).)
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Patterns> in the -en participle Clause
(49)
-enparcl> P:
(50)
-enparcl> P: + . . . (See patterns after P: in lines (2) to (7).)

CHOICES: in the -en participle Clause
(51)
P: -enpar...

(The CHOICES for positions following the PREDICATER are the same as for the declarative clause; please see lines (10) to (15).)

Patterns> in the Infinitive Clause
(52)
infcl> R: + P:
(53)
infcl> R: + P: + . . . (See patterns after P: in lines (2) to (7).)

CHOICES: in the Infinitive Clause
(54)
R: infm... to
(55)
P: inf...
(56)
P: linf...

(The CHOICES for positions following the PREDICATER are the same as for the declarative clause; please see lines (10) to (15).)

PRACTICE 26 (ANALYZING DECLARATIVE CLAUSES)

Use the analytical strategies described in 4.37 to work out the tree diagrams for each of the following declarative clauses.
(1) Some students are natural leaders.
(2) We have been studying functional grammar.
(3) The Cuban people are being prepared for difficult times.
(4) Those secrets should have been being guarded by those officials.
(5) We have not elected you our leader.
(6) The books should not have been taken from the table.
(7) John did not read the directive from headquarters.
(8) The size of your bank account does not have any relation to your creativity.
(9) The third choice was correct.
(10) Three brilliant researchers decoded the complex structure of that molecule.
(11) Her class challenged my previous assumptions.
(12) Her supportive methods are giving her students new confidence.
(13) The pipeline in Alaska crosses fields of thick ice.
(14) After the accident, the driver felt very guilty.
(15) My plans are quite similar to yours.
(16) I am not very sure of their commitment to energy conservation.
(17) My neighbors seemed happy about the price of their new car.
(18) Advertisers should plan their commercials carefully.
(19) Just yesterday, some burglars stole my toothbrush.
(20) The cost of food has quite literally doubled in recent years.
(21) Throughout the centuries, the creative talents of large numbers of women must surely have been wasted.
(22) Quite secretly, his coworkers have been listening to propaganda from the opposition.
(23) After the end of this session, the senator will have been a loyal member of Congress for a long time.
(24) Earlier, the coach had been showing the team some new plays.
(25) A teacher of young children should be very receptive to their ideas.
(26) Discussing problems is essential for young couples.
(27) Children like building sand castles.
(28) To strengthen the rule of law should be their goal.
(29) We gave Kathy some models to build for her brother.
(30) The car hit a woman wearing dark glasses.
(31) A car stolen in Texas was found in Maryland.
(32) In developing the budget, the President should give protecting the environment high priority.
(33) Some professional athletes want to earn millions of dollars.
(34) A book written by our professor is available in the bookstore.
(35) That woman sitting in the rear of the auditorium may be our next president.
(36) Students with the job of planning the ceremony hope to give those selected for awards recognition matching their achievements.
(37) Some states weakened by the recession have sent the Congress an ultimatum demanding new attempts to find solutions.
(38) The teacher planning to teach her students the views of Thoreau is fond of recounting stories told by his contemporaries.