CONVERTING THE WORLD TO ENGLISH

By

David Huttner

CONVERTING THE WORLD
TO ENGLISH

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Selected Works of David Huttner, Volumes 1, 2 and 3
What the Non-Chinese Peoples Must Do to Compete and End P(l)andemics
Heaven Sent

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INTRODUCTION

I taught English as a second language in China for more than ten years. In my view, there is a tremendous need to replace all of the other languages with English as part of the process of uniting humanity into one virtual and loving family. See my other books for the comprehensive, new social science that is also necessary for the unification of humanity.

I believe, furthermore, that at the present stage of our historical development, with highly developed, global, mass communications and the new social science, other languages only serve negative purposes. They promote nationalism, separatism, prejudice and espionage.

If everyone knew English at even an intermediate level, global communication would accelerate. The Five Eyes Agreement (between the US, the UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand to share intelligence) would soon lose its reason for existence. It would be easier to implement the other changes needed to

civilize, integrate and unite humanity; and the world would quickly forget the other, more difficult languages.

English evolved as the trade and port language of three western, maritime empires: the American, the British and the Trojan. See Appendix F of Volume 3 of Decoding the Deluge and Finding the Path for Civilization for more on Troy. If there is anything positive to be said for imperialism, it is this: it gave us the most modern, simple and easy to learn language, a language whose syntax (logic) maximizes the use of word order.

Pursuant to these beliefs and this philosophy, I have developed the plan –contained herein -- for teaching English to any number of beginners and making intermediate-level, English learners of them within one and one half or two years.

The in-person classes should be two hours on Saturday with a repeat of the same on Sunday, held in major auditoriums and advertised in the local newspapers and on TV. The cover charge should be minimal, just enough to cover the cleaning up and a modest income for the instructor. A website could enable everyone to download or browse the content of the course.

Here is the basic program. Teach with flash graphics projected onto a large screen. Know the phonics, syllable and accent rules thoroughly and teach them as you teach with flash cards or projected slides. Teach these in the order listed four pages below. This step should last for approximately the first year and should include the showing of periodic cartoons (to keep it interesting).

The best cartoons I know of are “Cinderella with Betty Boop,” “A Dizzy Day,” “Alice’s Egg Plant” and all of the Pink Panther cartoons. I enhance them by using movie-making software to insert text screens into the cartoons, text screens that test and instruct them on the English and the story lines. This is essential for the cartoons that have no language. It's also a good idea to have the students write narratives for the cartoons. Some cartoons are available as free downloads online.

Slowly introduce the simplest words, sentences and songs that are associated with the flash cards. After approximately one year of this, if the students learn only three flashcards per day, they will have a vocabulary of over 1000 words and know the forms of “to be,” the most basic verbs, the pronouns, the verb tenses and moods and basic sentence patterns.

The students could then start the second stage of the program: the Syntax and Sentence Diagramming outline. This outline contains the entire logic of the language. After completing it and doing all the sentence diagramming, students will be, in their English knowledge, similar to an intelligent 4 or 5 year old child that had grown up in an English-speaking country. They will no longer need an English teacher. They will be able to glean the meaning of most words the way children do – not from a dictionary but just from hearing them several times and understanding their context.

One or two movies, each shown twice in class, the first time with local-language subtitles, the second time reviewed slowly to milk it

for the English, will foster the learning habits that the students need for their continued progress in English.

Even in far eastern countries like China, where the native language is most difficult and the people are natural linguists, children learn much faster if they are encouraged by an older, foreign student/teacher. It is also a great learning experience for the student/teacher to be able to live within a different culture. (It is only by experiencing other cultures that we can objectively assess our own!) Thus, in 2004, I conceived of a program that I called "The English Teacher Invasion of China." With enough native-English-speaking college student participants, we could make it an "English Teacher Invasion of the World." Volunteering students would be required to acquire an on-line ESL certificate before going to the host country to teach ESL in the summer for two months. They would receive no monetary remuneration, only free room and board. With political support, media coverage and tax breaks, Airlines might be persuaded to donate air fares. The Shanghai Phoenix Bicycle company and/or a comparable company might create and donate for these teachers 3-speed, brush-tube, bicycle-torque-coupling, mostly-plastic, travel bikes that they could use abroad, disassemble and bring home in a bag as a souvenir. I even brought a custom-made, travel bike and left it with Shanghai Phoenix to serve as a model. This book provides the needed teaching methodology. Unfortunately, I found all the people (Big Brothers) needed to support this program to have almost no imagination and inordinate resistance to change. More than anything else, the irrational fear of change is what retards human progress. --David Huttner

THE RULES OF PHONICS, SYLLABLES AND ACCENTS

PHONICS RULES

1. The vowels are "a, e, i, o, and u"; also sometimes "y" & "w". This also includes the diphthongs "oi, oy, ou, ow, au, aw, oo" and many others.

2. The consonants are all the other letters which stop or limit the flow of air from the throat in speech. They are: "b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, qu, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z, ch, sh, th, ph, wh, ng, and gh".

3. Sometimes the rules don't work.
There are many exceptions in English because of the vastness of the language and the many languages from which it has borrowed. The rules do work however, in the majority of the words.

4. Every syllable in every word must have a vowel.
English is a "vocal" language; Every word must have a vowel.

5. "C" followed by "e, i or y" usually has the soft sound of "s". Examples: "cyst", "central", and "city".

6. "G" followed by "e, i or y" usually has the soft sound of "j". Example: "gem", "gym", and "gist".

7. When 2 consonants are joined together and form one new sound, they are a consonant digraph. They count as one sound and one letter and are never separated. Examples: "ch, sh, th, ph and wh".

8. When a syllable ends in a consonant and has only one vowel, that vowel is short. Examples: "fat, bed, fish, spot, luck".

9. When a syllable ends in a silent "e", the silent "e" is a signal that the vowel in front of it is long. Examples: "make, gene, kite, rope, and use".

10. When a syllable has 2 vowels together, the first vowel is usually long and the second is silent. Examples: "pain, eat, boat, res/cue, say, grow". NOTE: Diphthongs don't follow this rule; In a diphthong, the vowels blend together to create a single new sound. The diphthongs are: "oi, oy, ou, ow, au, aw, oo" and many others.

11. When a syllable ends in any vowel and is the only vowel, that vowel is usually long. Examples: "pa/per, me, I, o/pen, u/nit, and my".

12. When a vowel is followed by an "r" in the same syllable, that vowel is "r-controlled". It is not long or short. "R-controlled "er, ir, and ur" often sound the same (like "er"). Examples: "term, sir, fir, fur, far, for, su/gar, or/der".

BASIC SYLLABLE RULES

1. To find the number of syllables:
---count the vowels in the word,
---subtract any silent vowels, (like the silent "e" at the end of a word or the second vowel when two vowels a together in a syllable)
---subtract one vowel from every diphthong; (diphthongs only count as one vowel sound.)
---the number of vowels sounds left is the same as the number of syllables.
The number of syllables that you hear when you pronounce a word is the same as the number of vowels sounds heard. For example:
The word "came" has 2 vowels; but the "e" is silent, leaving one vowel sound and one syllable.
The word "outside" has 4 vowels, but the "e" is silent and the "ou" is a diphthong which counts as only one sound, so this word has only two vowels sounds and therefore, two syllables.

2. Divide between two middle consonants.
Split up words that have two middle consonants. For example:
hap/pen, bas/ket, let/ter, sup/per, din/ner, and Den/nis. The only exceptions are the consonant digraphs. Never split up consonant digraphs as they really

represent only one sound. The exceptions are "th", "sh", "ph", "th", "ch", and "wh."

3. Usually divide before a single middle consonant.
When there is only one syllable, you usually divide in front of it, as in: "o/pen", "i/tem", "e/vil", and "re/port". The only exceptions are those times when the first syllable has an obvious short sound, as in "cab/in".

4. Divide before the consonant before an "-le" syllable.
When you have a word that has the old-style spelling in which the "-le" sounds like "-el", divide before the consonant before the "-le". For example: "a/ble", "fum/ble", "rub/ble" "mum/ble" and "this/tle". The only exceptions to this are "ckle" words like "tick/le".

5. Divide off any compound words, prefixes, suffixes and roots which have vowel sounds.
Split off the parts of compound words like "sports/car" and "house/boat". Divide off prefixes such as "un/happy", "pre/paid", or "re/write". Also divide off suffixes as in the words "farm/er", "teach/er", "hope/less" and "care/ful". In the word "stop/ping", the suffix is actually "-ping" because this word follows the rule that when you add "-ing" to a word with one syllable, you double the last consonant and add the "-ing."

ACCENT RULES

When a word has more than one syllable, one of the syllables is always a little louder than the others. The syllable with the louder stress is the accented syllable. It may seem that the placement of accents in words is often random or accidental, but these are some rules that usually work.

1. Accents are often on the first syllable. Examples: ba'/sic, pro'/gram.

2. In words that have suffixes or prefixes, the accent is usually on the main root word. Examples: box'/es, un/tie'.

3. If de-, re-, ex-, in-,po-, pro-, or a- is the first syllable in a word, it is usually not accented. Examples: de/lay', ex/plore'.

4. Two vowel letters together in the last syllable of a word often indicate an accented last syllable. Examples: com/plain', con/ceal'.

5. When there are two like consonant letters within a word, the syllable before the double consonants is usually accented. Examples: be/gin'/ner, let'/ter.

6. The accent is usually on the syllable before the suffixes -ion, -ity, -ic, -ical, -ian, -ial, or -ious, and on the second syllable before the suffix -ate. Examples: af/fec/ta'/tion, dif/fer/en'/ti/ate.

7. In words of three or more syllables, one of the first two syllables is usually accented. Examples: ac'/ci/dent, de/ter'/mine.

THE FLASH CARD PRESENTATION SEQUENCE

A practical order is: numbers (1-20, 30, 40 etc 100, 1000, 1,000,000), colors, shapes, Sun, Earth, Oceans (4 and name and show them), continents (6 and name and show them) land (land/water, A glass of water.), animals, tree, grass, mountain (The mountain is high.), valley (The valley is low.), plain, river, spear, shield (You throw a spear. You block a spear with a shield.), arrow, bow and arrow (You launch an arrow.), gun (You shoot a gun.), family (You live in a family.), mother, father, daughter, son, grandmother, and grandfather. Show a cladogram and teach all the relationships by saying, “Tom is Mary’s nephew,” etc. Next teach “house,” rooms of the house, front and back yards, fence, sidewalk, street, car, occupations, opposite pairs of adjectives and adverbs (for example: good/bad, slow/fast). Teach vocabulary with pairs of opposites whenever possible.

Groups of flash cards can be found on many websites. These sites typically allow you to download and print the flash cards. Some sites even help you to create your own flash cards. Search “Download free ESL flash cards” for an

updated list of these sites. As I write, the site with links to the greatest number of flash card sites is http://www.freeeslmaterials.com/flashcards.html. The homepage, http://www.freeeslmaterials.com also connects you with a wealth of other, free, ESL materials.

THE GRAMMAR

If you, as a teacher, always use correct grammar and gently correct the students' grammar mistakes as they make them (without making a big issue of it), they will gradually learn it just as the children of educated people in English speaking countries do.

Beyond this, I suggest only making and showing grammar flash cards starting in the third month of study. First make and show a flash card with the table of present tense forms of "to be." In the next week, do the same for the past tense forms of "to be." Then, in each of the following weeks, make and show a flashcard for a main type of pronoun. Start with the table of subject pronouns. In the following weeks, give them the object, possessive, reflexive, and demonstrative pronouns, each card showing a table. Then make and show one flash card per week for each of the verb tenses.

For each verb tense card, give the name, the time period, the form and an example or two. For example, for the present tense card: Simple Present Tense; for states of being or actions that happen regularly or all the time; the dictionary-index form of the verb; Examples: He is six years old. The train to Honk Kong leaves at three PM. The Simple Past Tense is used for narrating stories or describing things at definite times in the past. The Present Perfect Tense is used to show the state of the subject's knowledge, experience or degree of preparation. Examples: "The butter has melted in the pan"; "He has been to Disneyland"; and "She has passed the entrance exam." The Past Perfect Tense is used to describe actions and states of being that happened or prevailed before some definite point of time in the past. Examples: I had fallen asleep when the phone rang. The buzzards had found him before we did. In the second, time section of the tense cards, include a time line with arrows at either end of the line and a short, bisecting line to indicate "now." Embolden a part of the line that is symbolic of the relevant tense time. For example, for the past tense, show an embolden dot on the past half of the line. For the present tense, embolden the whole line.

First show the Simple Present Tense. Next give them the Simple Past Tense. Then, in the next week, give them the Present Continuous Tense. In the following week, give them the Simple Future Tense using three cards. First show the simple future with “will.” Then show the simple future with “a form of to be” plus “going to” plus the present tense form of the verb. On the third card, simply show the present continuous tense with an adverb indicating the future. (For example: I am going to Shanghai on Sunday.) Explain that in everyday speech, this tweaked form of the present continuous tense is eliminating the future tense and further simplifying the language. In the fifth week of tenses, introduce the Past Perfect Tense.

Once all of the major tenses have been introduced in this manner, one week at a time, then make a game of it using a drill. Ask one student to orally give a present tense sentence. Call on the next student to change it to the simple past. Call on a third student to change it to the simple future, etc. If you have always introduced the verbs correctly, in their three principal parts, then the tenses will come easy for students.

Also make a flash card for every uncountable noun. For butter, write two lines of text. At the top write, “Butter is uncountable. Give me less butter, please.” At the bottom, write, “Tabs of butter are countable. Give me fewer tabs of butter, please.”

On the flashcards for nouns with strange changes for the plural form (e.g. leaves, children, mice, men, nuclei, etc.) be sure to add the plural form of the noun.

Although it is reviewed at the end of the syntax outline, below, you might make a flashcard for the passive voice. On it write: The passive voice describes actions wherein the active agent is unknown or unimportant. The object or receiver of the action becomes the subject and a form of “to be” is required. If the active agent is mentioned at all, it is after the preposition “by.” Examples: “The meal was cooked by Sarah”; “The dishes are stored in the cupboard.”

ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND SYNTAX MADE SIMPLE WITH SENTENCE DIAGRAMMING

Diagramming sentences was one of many arts, like art per se and music, that had to be sacrificed in curricula everywhere in order to make room for computers when they came on the scene. Sentence diagramming is becoming popular once more because, for most of us, it is the best tool for understanding how a sentence works, for understanding how the various words, types of verbs, phrases, and clauses relate to one another. It is the best tool for understanding the nuts and bolts and logic of the language.

This is called syntax. Once you understand the syntax of the language, your confidence in using the language increases tremendously; and you are more able to figure out the meaning of words even when you are unfamiliar with them.

When you diagram a sentence, you take it apart and put it back together in a corresponding, rigidly defined, geometrical pattern that graphically illustrates the syntax, that graphically illustrates how the various parts of the sentence relate to one another.

Most of you have some understanding of the eight parts of speech. Let's review them thoroughly and try to perfect our understanding of them.

part of speech	function or job	example words	example sentences
Noun Nouns ask or answer the questions Who? Whom? or What?	person, place or thing	pen, dog, work, music, town, London, teacher, John	This is my cat. He lives in my house. We live in New York.
Verb	action or state of being word	(to) be, have, do, like, work, sing, can, must	This school is a university. I like Kunming University.
Adjective Adjectives ask or answer the question, Whose? Which one? What kind of? How many? or In what condition?	describes a noun, pronoun or (rarely) another adjective	a/an, the 69, some, good, big, red, interesting	My dog is big. I like fast bikes. My best suit is at the cleaner's and is dark blue.

Adverb **Adverbs ask or answer the question, Where? When? Why? How? To what extent? or Under what condition?**	**describes a verb, adjective or adverb**	**quickly, silently, well, badly, very, really**	**My cat eats quickly. When he is very hungry, he eats really quickly.**
Pronoun	**replaces a noun**	**I, you, he, she, some**	**Ella is Chinese. She is beautiful.**
Prepositions can play the role of adjectives or adverbs.	**links a word to another word or phrase that modifies it; makes up the latter part of a phrasal verb. Phrasal verbs can be either separable or inseparable.**	**to, at, after, on, but; put off, take out, live up to**	**We went to school on Monday.**

Conjunction	**joins clauses or sentences or words. Coordinating link equals (FANBOYS); subordinating link non-equals; correlative are of > one word and show a relationship.**	**and, but when**	**I like dogs, and I like cats. I like cats and dogs. I like dogs, but I don't like cats.**
Interjection	**short exclamation, sometimes inserted into a sentence; dummy place holders.**	**Oh!, Ouch!, Hi!, well; There, It**	**Ouch! That hurts! Hi! How are you? Well, I don't know. It is raining. There are no apples.**

Note on Articles: The articles are adjectives and either definite (i.e. the) or indefinite (a or an). Use 'the' when referring to a specific member of a class. Use 'a' when referring to any member of a class, 'an' when the name for the class begins with a vowel sound. When referring to a class in general, use its plural form. For example: children are delightful; skyscrapers are awe-inspiring; employees must wash their hands before leaving the restroom.

('Employee must wash hand before leaving,' would only be appropriate if the employer had one, one-handed employee.)

Technical Note: 'It' and 'There' are also meaningless interjections when they serve as dummy parts of speech. For example:

> He found it hard to do that.
> There are no apples today.

Most of you are still very inept (unskilled) at grammar and syntax, at fitting these parts together properly and producing agreement between subject and verb and pronoun and antecedent or adjective and antecedent as required for good English. This lesson on sentence diagramming will help you with this.

In English, much more so than in other languages, the relationship between words in a sentence, their function in the sentence, is determined by word order. There are no particles (like the Chinese ma) in Standard English and less inflection (form changing) of verbs and no inflection of adjectives. This rigidity of word order makes poetry writing more difficult, but it makes Standard English very simple once you get the hang of it. And word order is one of the means by which the world's trade and port language (that we still call English) gets simpler all the time.

Middle and Old English make use of all kinds of strange combinations of parts of speech, such as what you will occasionally still find in poetry. Some British English teachers like to teach these patterns; but unless you intend to read Shakespeare, The Canterbury Tales, Beowulf or a few other linguistic relics, there is no need for you to learn these strange patterns. (Teaching them is nothing but stupid ancestor worship on their part.)

Here are the most basic rules of syntax word order.
In statements (sentences followed by a period), the verb follows the subject.

Questions are basically of two types: those requiring only a “yes” or “no” answer, and those requesting information. For yes/no questions, the first auxiliary (or helping verb) of a combination verb or –lacking a helping verb --a form of “to do” is moved to the front of the sentence. Examples:
1) “You have paper.” becomes, “Do you have
paper?” Less formal but OK is, “Have you got paper?”
2) “You agree.” becomes, “Do you agree?”
3) “We should go now.” becomes, “Should we go now?”
“To be” verbs (am, is, are, was and were) are exceptions that don’t require a form of “to do” when there is no helping verb. In those cases, just move the form of “to be” to the front of the sentence.

For information requests, the same rules apply and then a “question word” (a relative pronoun [which, who, whose, or whom] or an adverb [where, when, how, or why]) is put in front of the first verb. For all questions, the pitch of the voice (in spoken English) is raised at the end of the sentence. Examples:

Where have you put the paper?
Why do you agree?
When should we go?

In spoken English, the inflection change alone is sufficient to turn any statement into a question.
Direct objects follow the verb, and indirect objects (if there be any) go between the verb and the direct object. Example: Dick threw Jane the ball.
Direct objects are the nouns or pronouns that the action is transferred to.

An indirect object is a noun or pronoun that answers the questions…

To whom?
For whom?
To what?
Or for what?

...the action of the verb is done. A direct object has to be in the sentence for there to be an indirect object.

One-word adjectives precede the nouns they modify. Example: She wore a new, red, silk dress.

Except for one-word adjectives and participles or participle phrases followed by a comma, which can all come in front of the nouns they modify and which we will study below, noun modifiers and complements (structures that complete something) always immediately follow what they describe or complete. For example, nouns and noun phrases in apposition immediately follow their antecedents and are set off by commas. Example:

Karen, his little sister, is in the eighth grade.

Relative (adjective) clauses also immediately follow the noun that they modify. Example:
Karen, who is his little sister, is in the eighth grade.

Similarly, prepositional phrases usually come immediately after the word that they modify. The exceptions are when two or more prepositional phrases modify the same word. Then all of the prepositional phrases follow that word.

Ex: We went to the dance on Friday. Both prepositional phrases modify “went.” “To the dance” says where we went. “On Friday” says when we went. Prepositional phrases, verbals and dependent (subordinate) clauses, all of which we’ll study below, function within the sentence as nouns, adjectives or adverbs depending upon which question they ask or answer. Modifiers that don’t immediately precede or follow as closely as possible the words that they modify are called dangling modifiers. These are cardinal sins.

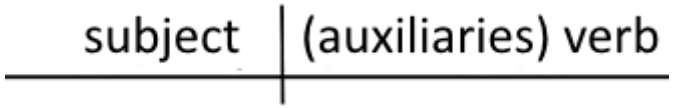
Here is the schedule of diagramming lessons that follow:

Lesson 1: Getting started (subject and verb)
Lesson 2: Modifiers (adjectives and adverbs)
Lesson 3: Types of verbs
Lesson 4: Conjunctions
Lesson 5: Prepositions
Lesson 6: Interjections
Lesson 7: Verbal Phrases
Lesson 8: Clauses
Lesson 9: Diagramming Practice Sentences

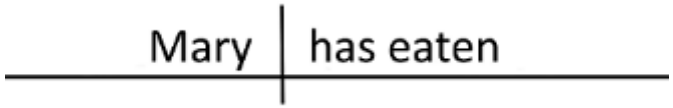
DIAGRAMMING LESSON 1: GETTING STARTED

The first step in understanding any sentence is to identify the noun(s) or pronoun(s) that is(are) the subject of the sentence. Ask, "What person(s) or thing(s) is(are) the focus of attention, the subject?" Then draw a horizontal line and bisect it with a perpendicular line as in the figure below. The simple subject (without any adjectives or other modifiers) is placed on the left side of that horizontal line.

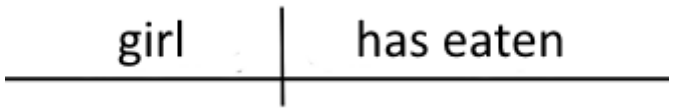
Next ask, "What action is the subject performing?" or "What state of being is being attributed to the subject?" or (for the passive voice) “What was done to the subject?” This gives you the main verb. The main verb, along with any auxiliaries (helping verbs) is called the simple predicate, and is placed on the right side of the horizontal line:



So a simple sentence like "Mary has eaten." would diagram as:



A more complicated sentence like "The girl in the corner in the blue shirt has eaten fried eggs for breakfast every day of her life." would still start the diagram with the simple subject and predicate:



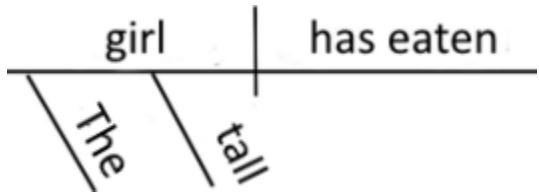
An interesting case is the command form in English, where no subject is present. In that case, the subject of the sentence is "the understood you" and is shown as such, in parentheses. So a command like "Listen!" would be diagrammed:

So what? So, you have figured out the core of the sentence, the simple subject and simple predicate. Everything else branches off those two basic pieces.

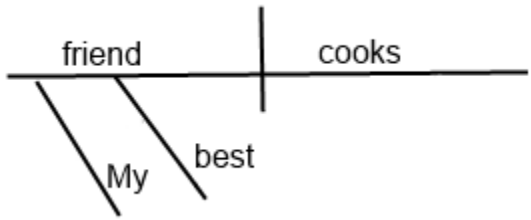
DIAGRAMMING LESSON 2: MODIFIERS

ADJECTIVES

Since adjectives describe or modify nouns, pronouns or (rarely) other adjectives, they too branch off the noun or adjective they modify. For example, in the sentence, "The tall girl has eaten." the adjectives "the" and "tall" describe the "girl." On the diagram, they are inserted on slanted lines underneath "girl."



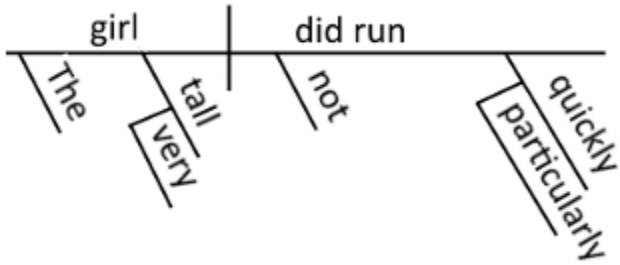
Now diagram, “My best friend cooks.”



Notice that “My” is an adjective answering “Whose best,” and “best” is an adjective answering “Which friend”?

ADVERBS

Since adverbs describe or modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, they branch off whatever they are describing. For example, in the sentence, "The very tall girl did not run particularly quickly." the adverb "very" modifies "tall"; "not" and "quickly" modify "run"; and "particularly" modifies "quickly." On the diagram, they are inserted on slanted lines underneath the words they modify.



If you are not sure what word a word is modifying, then leave out one of the candidates. If the sentence thus modified makes no sense or is changed in meaning, then you know that the word you left out is the word that the word is modifying. In the above example, “The very tall girl did not run particularly” makes no sense, so you know that “particularly” must modify “quickly.”

DIAGRAMMING LESSON 3: VERB COMPLEMENTS AND TYPES OF VERBS

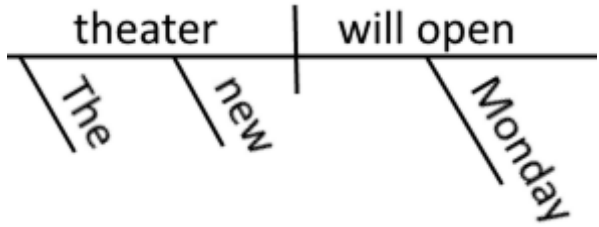
To review, the first step in understanding any sentence is to find the subject. Ask yourself "who or what is in focus?"
The second step is to identify the verb or verbs. Ask yourself, "What action is the subject performing or what state of being is being attributed to the subject or what was done to the subject?” And we’ve seen how to add modifiers like adjectives and adverbs to these simple sentences.

The third major step is to find any verb complements and what type of verb you have. Verb complements follow and “complete” the verb. You already know about helping verbs (auxiliaries). The other three types of verbs are “intransitive,” “linking,” and “transitive.” They each have a different type of complement or no complement. So to figure out what kind of verb you have, find the complement, if there is one. To do this, ask yourself “[subject] [verb] what or whom?”Anything that answers that question is a verb complement of some kind.

In a diagram, verb complements go on the main line after the verb.

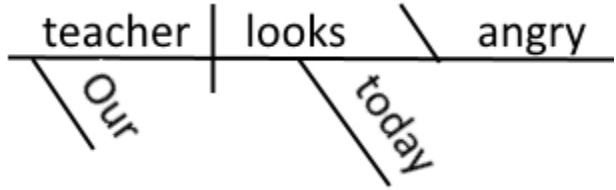
INTRANSITIVE VERBS (verbs that describe the subject’s action):

(a) The new theater opened yesterday.
(1) What person or thing is in focus?: theater. Theater is the subject.
(2) What is happening: OPEN – "open" is the main verb, "will" is a helping verb
(3) Theater will open what? Huh? That doesn't make sense; there is no answer to the question. So there is no verb complement.



If there is no verb complement, the main verb is an INTRANSITIVE verb. Intransitive verbs are verbs that stand alone, with no complement. So in example (a), the verb "open" is intransitive.

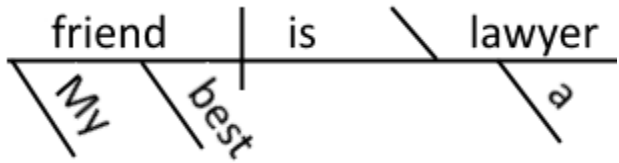
LINKING VERBS (verbs that describe the subject's state of being):
(b) Our teacher looks angry today.
(1) Who or what is in focus? Our teacher. Teacher is the subject. "Our" describes teacher.
(2) What is happening: LOOKS – "looks" is the verb.
(3) Teacher looks what?: ANGRY – "angry" is some kind of verb complement



If there is a complement, you need to figure out if the complement describes or renames the subject. If it does, the verb is a LINKING verb. Linking verbs "link" the subject with a verb complement that describes the subject. They are like the equals sign (=) in a math equation. In example (b), "angry" describes "teacher," so the verb "looks" is a linking verb. On a diagram, we show the link by using a line that slants back towards the subject.

“Angry” is an adjective describing the subject, but comes after the verb (simple predicate). This type of complement is called a predicate adjective.

(c) My best friend is a lawyer.
(1) Who or what is the focus?: FRIEND—“friend” is the subject; “My” and “best” are adjectives, “My” describing friend and “best” describing “My.”
(2) What is happening: IS – “is” is the verb
(3) Friend is what?: LAWYER – “lawyer” is some kind of verb complement, “a” describes it.



In example (c), “lawyer” describes or renames “friend,” so the verb “is” is a linking verb.

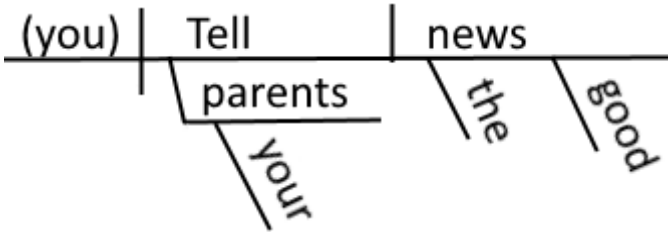
Since “lawyer” is a noun instead of an adjective, it is called a predicate noun (sometimes called predicate nominative). Linking verbs are always followed by a predicate noun or predicate adjective.

Common linking verbs:
The most common linking verb is the verb “to be” – and all its forms: is, am, are, was, were, etc. Other common linking verbs are: seem, become, appears to be, and sense verbs like: smells, looks, feels, tastes, sounds.

TRANSITIVE VERBS (verbs that describe the subject’s interaction with the world):
(d) Joe plays baseball.
(1) Who or what is the focus? Joe – “Joe” is the subject.
(2) What is happening: plays – “plays” is the verb
(3) Joe plays what? Baseball – “baseball” is some kind of verb complement

If there is a complement, but it is not linked to the subject, the verb is TRANSITIVE. Transitive verbs transfer action to the complement. Since the complement is not related to the subject, the line separating it from the verb is not slanted back to the subject.

So in example (d), “plays” happens to the game of “baseball,” and “plays” is a transitive verb. “Baseball” is the object that the verb happens to, and is called the direct object. Transitive verbs are followed by direct objects. If there is also an indirect object, the indirect object gets diagrammed as follows.



Here, “parents” is the indirect object and the possessive pronoun “your” is an adjective modifying the indirect object.

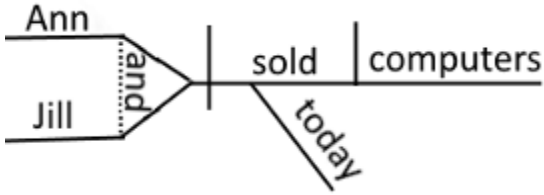
DIAGRAMMING LESSON 4: CONJUNCTIONS -- COMPOUND SENTENCES

As you remember, a conjunction is a word that joins words or groups of words. The most common conjunctions are “and,” “but” and “or.” There are altogether seven coordinating conjunctions: for, and, nor, but, or, yet and so. Remember them by the acronym, FANBOYS and the fact that all of them are two or three letter words.

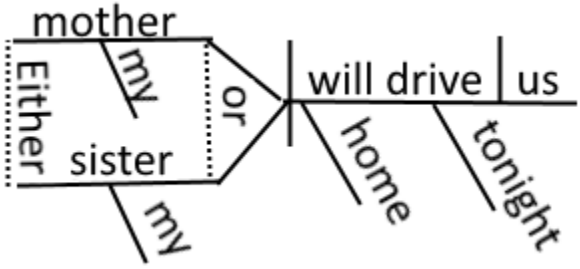
Correlative conjunctions come in pairs, like “either...or,” “neither...nor,” “more…than” and “not only...but also.”

A sentence with two or more subjects, verbs or independent clauses is called a compound sentence.

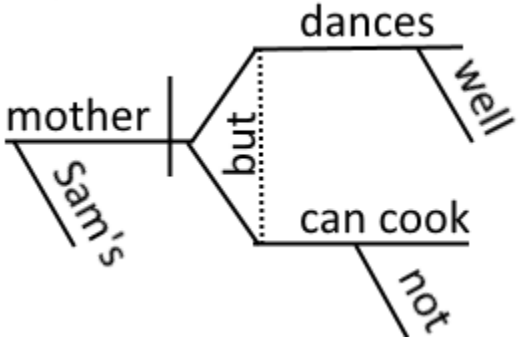
In a diagram, when there is a conjunction, the line branches; and the branches are connected by dotted line(s) on which the conjunction is shown:
(a) Ann and Jill sold computers today.



(b) Either my mother or my sister will drive us home tonight.



(c) Sam's mother dances well but cannot cook.



“Can cook” is an example of a verb phrase. Verb phrases are verbs with at least one helping verb. “Verb phrase” can also refer to the verb, its auxiliary verbs and its complements. Similarly, predicate can refer either to just the verb and its auxiliary verbs or to the verb, its auxiliary verbs and all of its complements.

DIAGRAMMING LESSON 5: PREPOSITIONS AND PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

Prepositions are small words such as "with" and "into" that themselves are difficult to define in words. Prepositions link a word to another word or phrase that modifies it. Prepositions can be found virtually anywhere in the sentence. They are always followed by an object (noun or pronoun). Together, the preposition and its object are called a prepositional phrase.

Prepositional phrases often indicate location or time.
Common prepositions of space/location include the following:

against	behind	by	off	through
around	between	down	on	to
above	below	from	out	toward
at	beneath	in	outside	under
across	beside	into	over	underneath
among	beyond	inside	past	up

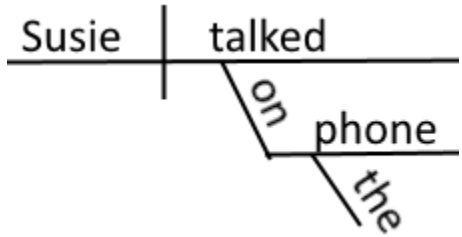
Other common prepositions include:

about	but	except	of	until
after	concerning	for	regarding	with
before	during	like	since	without

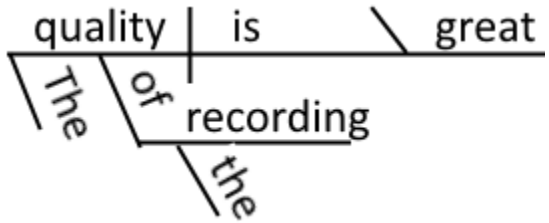
To diagram a prepositional phrase, the preposition is written on a line slanting down from whatever the phrase modifies. Then the object is written on a

horizontal line branching off the preposition. Any adjectives then hang below the object:

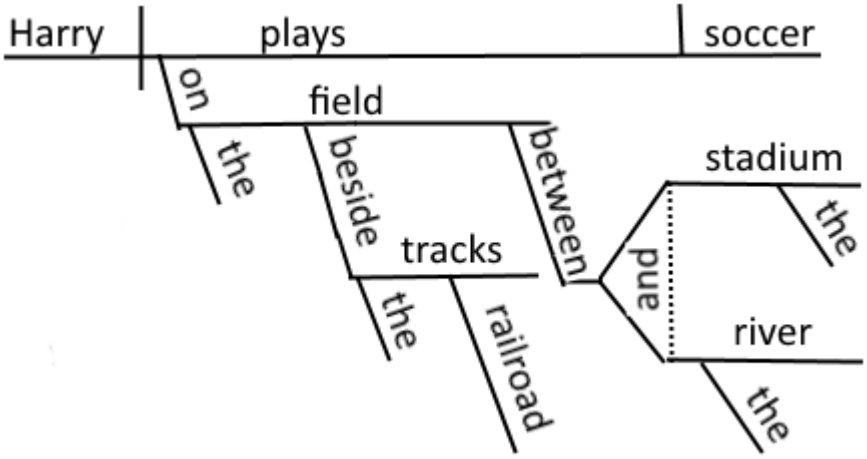
Example (a): Susie talked on the phone.



Example (b): The quality of the recording is great.



Example (c) Harry plays soccer on the field beside the railroad tracks between the stadium and the river.



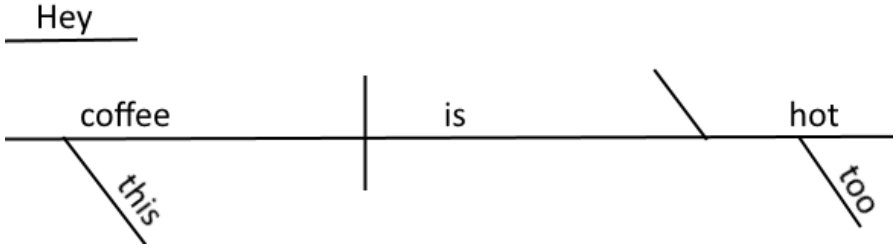
DIAGRAMMING LESSON 6: INTERJECTIONS

As you remember, interjections express emotion or feelings and are basically unconnected to the rest of the sentence. They are usually set apart from the sentence by an exclamation mark or a comma. Interjections usually occur at the beginning (or occasionally the end) of a sentence. Most of them are expletives, words that vent emotion. Examples of interjections include:

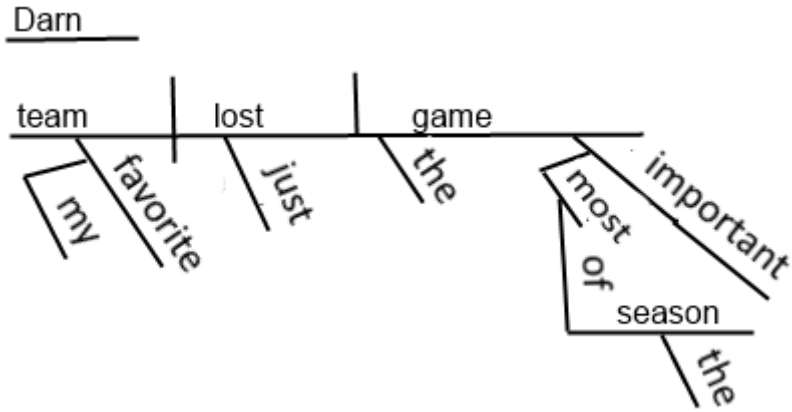
Oh	Oh my	Gosh	Oops	Darn
Hey	Hooray	Eek	Shoot	Rats

To diagram interjections, place them on a separate line above the sentence, usually above and to the left of the subject:

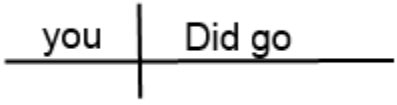
Example (a): Hey! This coffee is too hot.



Example (b): Darn, my favorite team just lost the most important game of the season.



Note. Always capitalize the word in your diagram that is the first word in the sentence. That way, you know whether the sentence is a statement or a question (commands have the understood subject, you, in parentheses). Example:



DIAGRAMMING LESSON 7: VERBAL PHRASES
(HERE "VERBAL" DOES NOT MEAN "SPOKEN.")

DEFINITION: PHRASES ARE GROUPS OF WORDS WITHOUT A SUBJECT AND A VERB THAT FUNCTION AS A SINGLE PART OF SPEECH. THE VARIOUS TYPES OF PHRASES (OTHER THAN PREPOSITIONAL AND VERB PHRASES THAT WE'VE COVERED ABOVE) ARE ALL CALLED VERBALS.

Definition: Words that are made of verbs but don't act like verbs are called verbals. They are of three types: gerunds, participles and infinitives. Infinitives usually begin with the word "to," so they are usually phrases. Gerunds and participles can stand alone or have complements (be at the start of a phrase).

GERUND PHRASES. WHAT ARE GERUNDS?

Gerunds are words that look like verbs and act like nouns. You can spot them because they will always be a verb + ing and act as a noun.

Example:
Swimming is fun.
The word swim is a verb. Swimming is a verb with an –ing ending acting as a noun (the subject of this sentence).

Gerund phrases consist of a gerund and the words that modify and complement it.

Example:
Swimming in the ocean is fun.

Gerund	Gerund Phrase
Running is my favorite activity.	**Running marathons** is my favorite activity.
I love **listening**.	I love **listening to my favorite singer**.
Reading is great fun.	**Reading books at Starbucks** is great fun.

THEIR MODIFIERS AND COMPLEMENTS

Remember what these act as? NOUNS, right?
Let's look at that example phrase above.

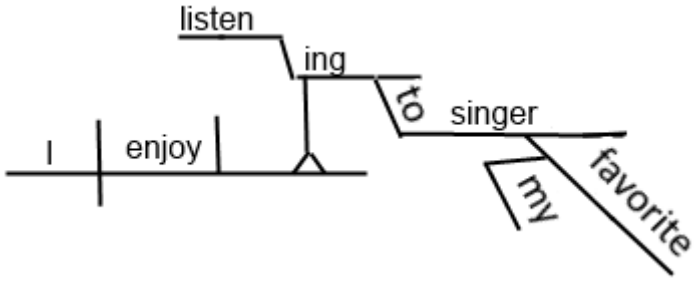
Example: Swimming in the ocean is fun.

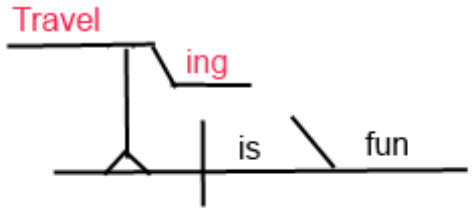
Now, you may have noticed that “in the ocean” is an adverbial prepositional phrase. It is telling us where the swimming happened. But, nouns can only be modified with adjectives, right?
Well, remember how we talked about a gerund being a verb form acting as a noun? Even though it's an official noun, it still carries some of the attributes of a verb. The verb part allows it to take adverbial modifiers just like any other verb- even though it's acting as a noun. (By the way, it can still take adjectival modifiers - just like other nouns.) They can even take complements (like direct objects), just like verbs can.

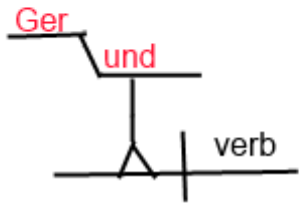
In a Sentence	Gerund Acting As...	Its Complement/Modifier
Diagramming sentences is fun!	Subject	***Sentences*** is the direct object of ***diagramming***.
I enjoy **listening to my favorite singer**.	Direct Object	***To my favorite singer*** is a prepositional phrase modifying ***listening***.
Lee's constant complaining really annoys me!	Subject	***Lee's*** is an adjective modifying ***constant***, which is an adjective modifying ***complaining***.

BASIC DIAGRAMMING OF GERUNDS

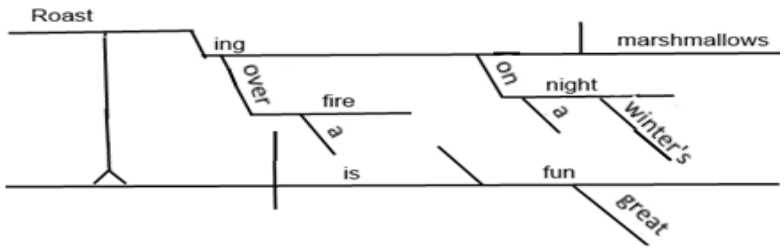
They sit on little steps when you diagram them. The verb part goes on the top part of the step, and on the –ing goes on the bottom part of the step.
Diagram: I enjoy listening to my favorite singer.

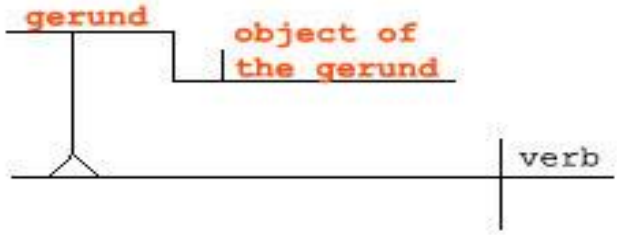


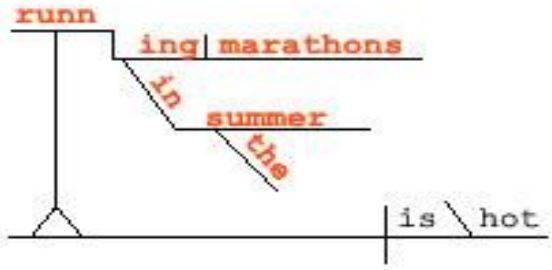




After that, you diagram the modifiers and complements just as you would with any verb. Here is an example of a gerund phrase with a direct object. Diagram: Roasting marshmallows over a fire on a winter's night is great fun.

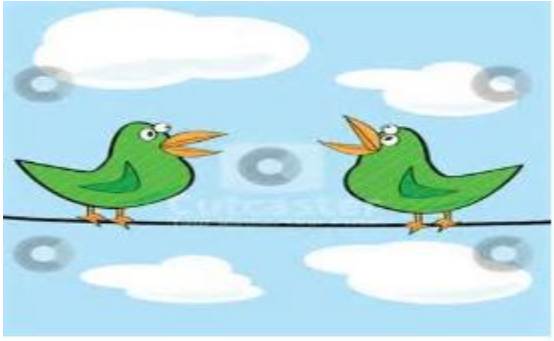






PARTICIPLES & PARTICIPIAL PHRASES

Participles are words that look like verbs and act like adjectives or (rarely) adverbs. Example:



Chirping birds

PARTICIPLES

Like I said, these are made of verbs but act like adjectives. They end in -ing, -d, -t, or -n.

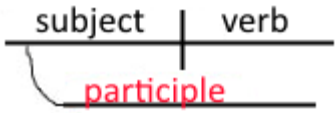
Review: Adjectives are words that describe nouns, pronouns and (rarely) other adjectives. Here are some examples of participles. Notice that each one is made of a verb but is modifying a noun.

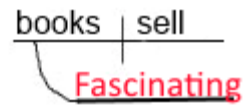
Chirping birds (chirp = verb)
Crying babies (cry = verb)
Spilled milk (spill = verb)
Burned toast (burn = verb)

The present tense verb + ing indicates action that is ongoing and is called the present participle.
The others are past participles and indicate action that already been completed.

DIAGRAMMING PARTICIPLES

Since participles usually act as adjectives, they are diagrammed in a very similar way to how adjectives are diagrammed; but instead of their slanted line being straight, it is curved. Like the adjective straight, slanted line, the curved and slanted participle line goes beneath the noun or pronoun that it modifies.





PARTICIPLE PHRASES

Participial phrases consist of a participle along with all of its modifiers and complements. Here are four examples. Notice that the first three phrases

modify nouns. The last modifies an adverb and is an adverbial, participial phrase.

Example 1
Babies crying in the night bother me.
The participial phrase is crying in the night.
It modifies the noun babies.

Example 2
Milk spilled in a car smells awful.
The participial phrase is spilled in a car.
It modifies the noun milk.

Example 3
Burned on each side, the toast was inedible.
The participial phrase is burned on each side.
It modifies the noun toast.

Example 4
You performed miserably, considering all your preparation.
The participial phrase is considering all your preparation.
It modifies the adverb miserably. It answers the question, “Under what condition.”

Now, before I show you the diagrams, try to diagram the four examples above.

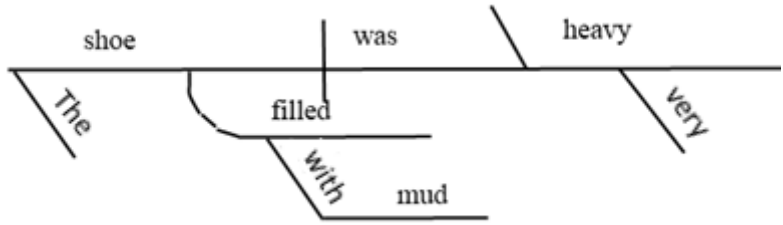
DIAGRAMMING PARTICIPIAL PHRASES

When diagramming these, start by identifying the participle and the noun that it is modifying. You already know that you diagram it by putting it on curved, slanted line under the noun that it modifies. After that, find out what the rest of the phrase consists of and diagram it accordingly.

I'll walk you through the steps using this sentence:

The shoe filled with mud was very heavy.
Step 1: Find the participle. (filled)
Step 2: Find the noun that it modifies. (shoe)
Step 3: Find the rest of the phrase. (with mud)
Step 4: Figure out what the rest of the phrase is doing.

This is where your other grammar knowledge comes into play. In order to diagram this, you need to know that with mud is a prepositional phrase. This prepositional phrase is modifying filled. That means that we diagram the prepositional phrase underneath filled. Try to get it right before I show you.



INFINITIVE PHRASES. WHAT IS AN INFINITIVE?

An infinitive is a word that looks like a verb but doesn't act like a verb. They are actually made up of two words: to + a verb. These two words act together as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs. (Recall that words that are made of verbs but don't act like verbs are called verbals. Recall that there are two other types of verbals: gerunds and participles.)

Examples:
We love to golf.
The person to contact is Sally.
I can't wait to go!

WHERE'S THE TO?

Sometimes, finding infinitives can be tricky because the word “to” is omitted. That's not very nice is it?
This usually happens when it follows certain verbs like feel, hear, help, let, make, see, and watch. Here are some examples of infinitives that are missing the word to. These special verbs are underlined and the infinitives are emboldened, below
.
They watched the ship sail.
I heard the doorbell ring.
When Margo slammed the door, she made the painting fall.

INFINITIVE PHRASES
Example:
I love to swim in the ocean.
These are made up of an infinitive and the words that modify and complement it.

Infinitive	**Infinitive Phrase**
Edward loves **to run**.	Edward loves **to run marathons**.
Esme used the binoculars **to see**.	Esme used the binoculars **to see her favorite band**.
Jack waited **to eat.**	Jack waited **to eat the cupcake**.

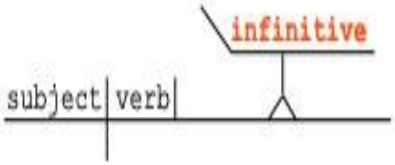
THEIR MODIFIERS AND COMPLEMENTS
Remember that infinitives act as NOUNS, ADJECTIVES, and ADVERBS. Look at that example of an infinitive phrase above: I love to swim in the ocean.

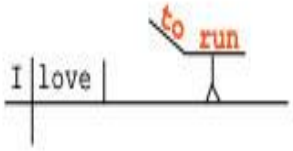
Again, the whole phrase together is acting as a noun (the direct object of love), but you may have noticed that in the ocean is an adverbial prepositional phrase. It is telling us where you like to swim. Does that mean that an adverb (in the ocean) is modifying a noun (to swim)? Yes! Remember that verbals, whether they are acting as a nouns, adjectives or adverbs, are made up of verbs and retain their verb character. So even when one is acting as a noun, it can be modified by an adverb like any other verb. (But a gerund or an infinitive acting as a noun can still take adjectival modifiers just like other nouns.) They can even take complements (like direct objects), just like verbs can.

In the Sentence the infinitive phrase is	It's acting as a(n)	Its Complement/Modifier
Cats hate **to take a bath.**	Direct Object	***Bath*** is the direct object of ***take***.
Esme used the binoculars **to see her favorite band.**	Adverb	***Band*** is the direct object of ***see***, and ***her*** is an adjective modifying the adjective ***favorite***, which modifies ***band***.

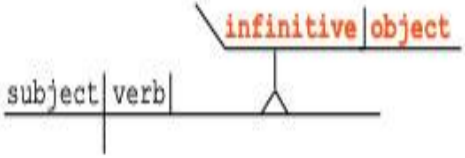
DIAGRAMMING INFINITIVES

Place the infinitive or infinitive phrase on a stand like the one we use for gerunds. Put the word to on an angled line, and write the verb on a horizontal line coming off of the angled line. With a forked line, connect this to the rest of the sentence wherever it should go. (Infinitives can be nouns, adjectives, or adverbs.) Try this example: I love to run.

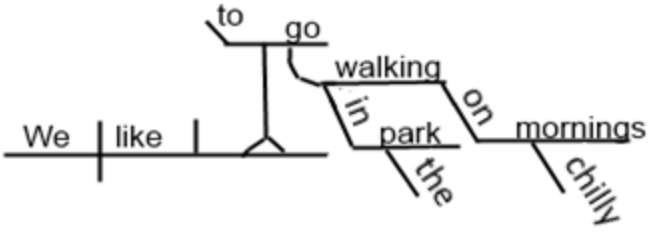




After that, you can add any complements or modifiers.
Diagram this example: I love to run marathons.



Here's a sentence to challenge your present knowledge of verbals: “We like to go walking in the park on chilly mornings.” Diagram it.



Note: “Walking,” above, may be thought of as either a gerund (answering the question What? or as a participle (answering the question How?).

APPOSITIVE PHRASES.
Recall that these are nouns that rename another noun or pronoun. We use them to add more information about someone or something that we have already named. They save you having to use a form of “to be” repeatedly.

_____

Review: Remember that nouns are words that name people, places, things, or ideas, and pronouns are words that take the place of nouns.

_____

Examples of appositives:
Miss Jones, the drama teacher, gave me the leading role!
My wife, a lovely woman, makes cheesecake on my birthday.
Mugsy, our dog, ate a whole stick of butter while we were gone.

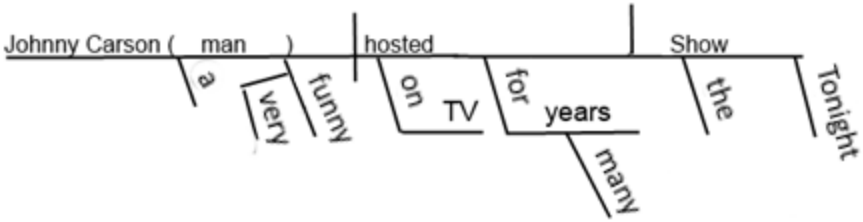
RENAMING?
I said that these are nouns that rename another noun or pronoun. What does that mean? Look at the first example again.

Miss Jones, the drama teacher, gave me the leading role!
Miss Jones is the subject of the sentence. It is also a noun.
The phrase the drama teacher is renaming Miss Jones. It is a noun that gives us more information about Miss Jones, and we could even substitute the drama teacher for Miss Jones because they are both referring to the same person. Hence, the drama teacher, a noun phrase, renames another noun, Miss Jones.

APPOSITIVE PHRASES
The appositive is the single word that is doing the renaming.
In this example
Miss Jones, the drama teacher, gave me the leading role!
it would be “teacher.” The phrase is that single word plus all of the words that are modifying it. In this same example, the phrase is “the drama teacher.”
Here are the two other examples from above:
My wife, a lovely woman, makes cheesecake on my birthday.
Mugsy, our dog, ate a whole stick of butter while we were gone.

DIAGRAMMING APPOSITIVES
Diagram the sentence as usual and add the appositive in parenthesis after the noun that it renames.
Add any words that modify it on slanted lines just like other modifiers.

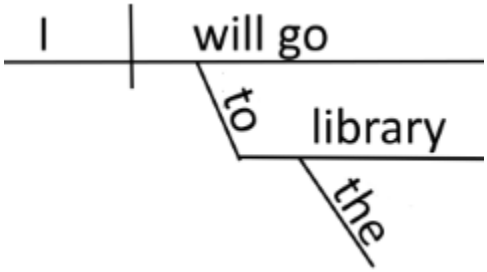
For example, diagram the sentence:
Johnny Carson, a very funny man, hosted the Tonight Show on TV for many years.



DIAGRAMMING LESSON 8: CLAUSES

Clauses are phrases with a subject and a verb. Don't forget this definition. There are two main types:

1. INDEPENDENT
These can stand alone. They express a complete thought. Ex: I will go to the library.



2. DEPENDENT (OR SUBORDINATE)
These cannot stand alone. They don't express a complete thought. Example: that I will go to the library
They cannot stand alone as a sentence because they make up only part of a sentence. They are sentence fragments. They are of three types: adjective, adverb and noun clauses. They are always introduced by a relative pronoun (that, which, who, whom and whose) or a subordinating conjunction. Sometimes the relative pronoun “that” is understood, as in the first noun clause in section 3, below. A subordinating conjunction joins a subordinate clause to a main clause.

The following is a list of the most common subordinating conjunctions.

after	**how**	**till (or 'til)**
although	**if**	**unless**
as	**inasmuch**	**until**
as if	**in order that**	**when**
as long as	**lest**	**whenever**
as much as	**now that**	**where**
as soon as	**provided (that)**	**wherever**
as though	**since**	**while**
because	**so that**	
before	**than**	
even if	**that**	
even though	**though**	

An adverb clause is always introduced by a subordinating conjunction. A noun clause and adjective clause sometimes are.

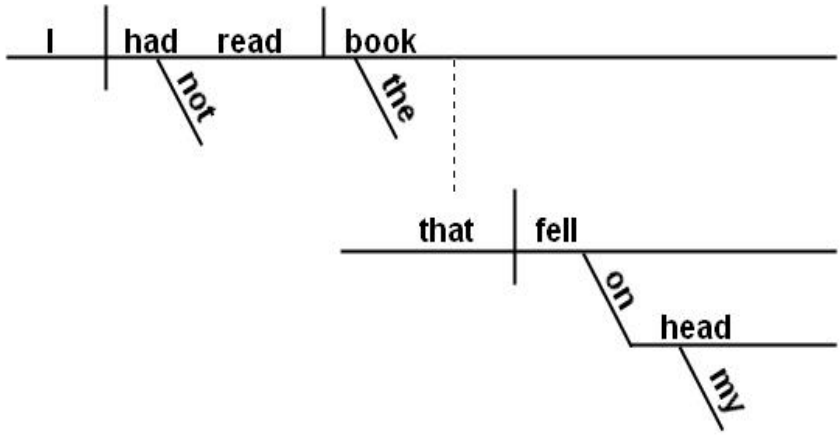
Adverb clause: Before you go, sign the logbook.
Noun clause: He asked if he could leave early.
Adjective clause: That is the place where he was last seen.

A subordinating conjunction is always followed by a clause. Many subordinating conjunctions can be other parts of speech. A good example is the word “after”:

Adverb: Jill came tumbling after.
Preposition: Jill came tumbling after Jack.
Subordinating Conjunction: Jill came tumbling after Jack had fallen.

There are three different types of subordinate (or dependent) clauses:

1. ADJECTIVE (OR RELATIVE) CLAUSES
Adjective clauses (or relative clauses) are subordinate clauses that act as adjectives. They answer the adjective questions “whose,” “which,” “what kind of,” “in what condition” or “how many.” Here’s an example of how we diagram them:



Note how a dotted line connects the adjective or relative clause with the noun that it modifies.

The whole clause does the job of an adjective. Review: Adjectives modify nouns, pronouns and (rarely) other adjectives. Clauses are phrases with a subject and a verb, and subordinate clauses cannot stand alone.

EXAMPLES OF ADJECTIVE (OR RELATIVE) CLAUSES
Take a look at this sentence:
The happy woman danced across the street.
Happy is an adjective modifying the noun woman. It tells us which woman. (Remember that Which one? is one of the adjective questions.) Which woman? The happy woman. Now, we can replace the adjective happy with an adjective (or relative) clause:
The woman who looks happy danced across the street.
This time, a whole clause is modifying the noun woman. The clause is still telling us which woman. Which woman? The woman who looks happy. This clause is an adjective clause. It is a group of words with a subject and a verb, and it is acting as one part of speech - an adjective.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS INTRODUCE THEM
Most of the time, relative clauses are introduced by relative pronouns. There are only five relative pronouns: who, whom, whose (the relative possessive pronoun), that and which.

Here are examples using these relative pronouns:

The person who made the mess needs to clean it. (modifying “person”)

The girl whom you teach is my sister. (modifying “girl”)

People whose cats shed need to vacuum often. (modifying “people”)

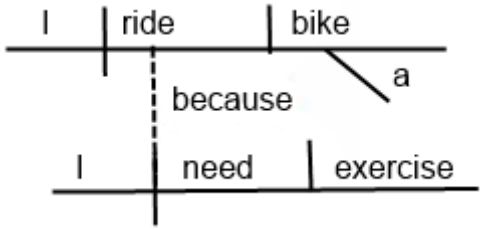
This is the dress that Susan designed. (modifying “dress”)

The virus, which may have come from pigs, spread rapidly throughout the country. (modifying “virus”)

Relative pronouns link the clause with the word that the clause is modifying. Notice how “that,” two sentences above, introduces information that is necessary to complete the sentence, to restrict the class of dresses to just one. “That” is called the restrictive relative pronoun and is not preceded by a comma. “Which,” in the sentence immediately above, introduces information that is not necessary to the main, independent clause. “Which” is called the nonrestrictive relative pronoun and is preceded by a comma. Notice too that the noun that comes directly before the clause is the noun that the clause is modifying. Again, if misplaced, modifiers become “dangling modifiers” – major insults to the English language. Relative pronouns act as the subject, an object or some kind of modifier within the adjective clause.

Look at this sentence:
This is the dress that Susan designed.
The independent clause is “This is the dress.” The relative clause is “that Susan designed.” (Notice that both clauses have a subject and a verb.) “That” is introducing the relative clause. It is linking the word dress with the whole clause. “That” is also acting as the direct object within the clause. Susan = subject; designed = verb; that = direct object. Here’s the diagram:

2. ADVERB CLAUSES
ARE ALWAYS INTRODUCED BY A SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTION (NEVER A RELATIVE PRONOUN)
Adverb clauses are subordinate (or dependent) clauses that act as... adverbs! They answer the adverb questions: how, where, when, why, under what condition or to what extent. Diagram “I ride a bike because I need exercise.” As always, try to do it without looking below.



“Because I need exercise” is the adverbial subordinate clause. The whole subordinate clause is used as one adverb modifying the verb of the independent clause (ride). That means that a whole group of words is acting as one of the eight parts of speech. Remember: clauses are groups of words with a subject and a verb. Subordinate clauses are also called dependent clauses. They cannot stand alone. They need independent clauses in order to make a complete sentence. Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

ADVERB CLAUSES ACT AS ADVERBS
Take a look at this sentence: I walked today.
“Today” is an adverb modifying the verb “walked.” It is telling us when I walked.

Now, look at this sentence: Many taxi drivers start work before the sun comes up.
This time, a whole clause is modifying the verb “start.” The clause is still telling us when they start work. When do taxi drivers start work? They start “before the sun comes up.” This clause is an adverbial clause. It is a group of words with a subject and a verb, and it is acting as one part of speech - an adverb.

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS
Adverbial clauses are introduced by subordinating conjunctions. Subordinating conjunctions link dependent clauses with the word in the independent clause that the dependent clause is modifying.

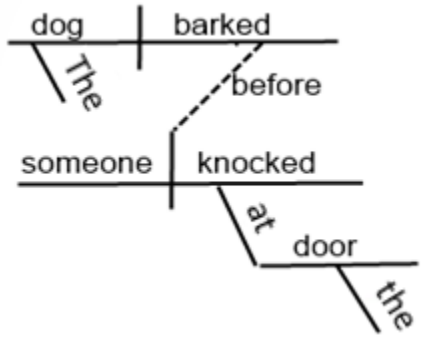
Look at that example again: Many taxi drivers start work before the sun comes up.

The independent clause is “Many taxi drivers start work.” The adverbial clause is “before the sun comes up.” “Before” is a subordinating conjunction introducing the adverb clause. It is linking the word start from the independent clause with the whole dependent adverbial clause.

Other subordinating conjunctions include after, if, whenever, until and many more. Recall that conjunctions link two or more words, phrases or clauses. The other two types of conjunctions are coordinating conjunctions and correlative conjunctions. Coordinating conjunctions join things that are equal or playing the same role. There are seven of them, and they are all two or three letter words. To remember them, remember FANBOYS (for, and, nor, but, or, yet and so). Correlative conjunctions come in pairs and show a relationship between the things they link. Examples include: “both/and,” “whether/or,” “either/or,” “neither/nor,” “not/but,” more/than” and “not only/but also.”

The great thing about sentence diagramming is that it enables you to SEE how things relate to each other. The great thing about diagramming adverbial dependent clauses is that you can see that the subordinating conjunction links the adverbial dependent clause with the independent clause.

Look at this sentence: The dog barked before someone knocked at the door. In the following sentence diagram, you can see that the dependent adverbial clause (before someone knocked at the door) is modifying the verb of the independent clause (barked). Also notice that “before” is the subordinating conjunction. It is diagrammed on a slanted, dotted line from the independent clause to the dependent clause:



If you are not confident about any of these lessons, go to Google search and enter the search string “How to diagram (the name of the part of speech or structure).” You’ll find plenty of free practice exercises on the web. Because English, the simplest language, has to become the world language, if you didn’t have the benefit of having it as your native language, consider yourself entitled to free lessons. ESL students are the best “fair use(r)” exceptions to the copyright law.

Here are some more examples of adverb clauses:
until I fall asleep
whenever my teacher yells
after I walk the dog

All of those groups of words are clauses, having a subject and a verb; but none of them express a complete thought. In each of those examples, we are left waiting for more information. We need to attach an independent clause before or after the adverb clause to get a complete sentence that makes sense.

For example:
I read novels until I fall asleep.
Whenever my teacher yells, I know she's having a bad day.
I will take out the trash after I walk the dog.

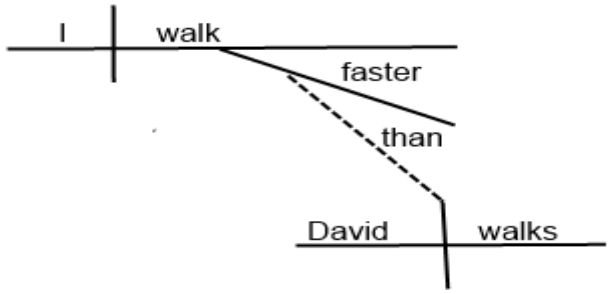
Adverbial clauses need to be attached to independent clauses in order to make a complete sentence. Notice that the adverb clause only gets separated from the main clause by a comma when it comes before the main clause. The exceptions are clauses beginning with “whereas,” “wherefore” and “whereupon.”

THE ADVERB QUESTIONS

Adverbial clauses, like adverbs generally, can modify not only verbs but also adjectives and adverbs. They also can answer any of the adverb questions. That means that the whole clause tells us these things...

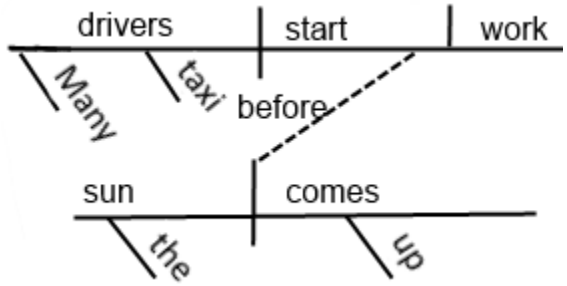
How?

I walk faster than David walks.

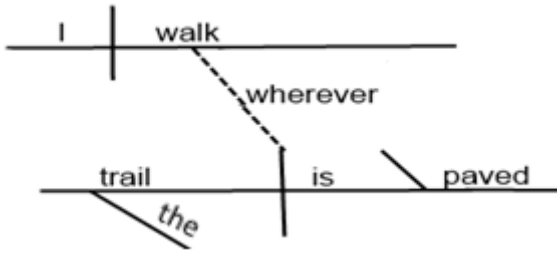


When?

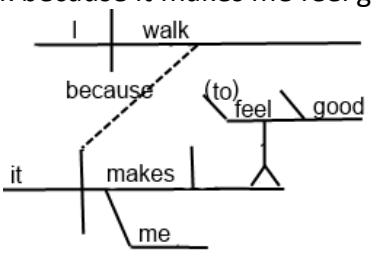
Many taxi drivers start work before the sun comes up.



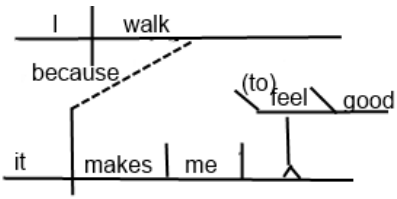
Where?
I walk wherever the trail is paved.



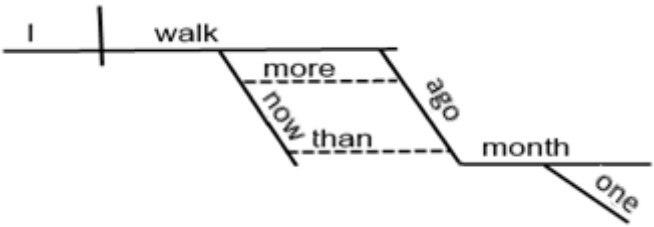
Why?
I walk because it makes me feel good.



Or



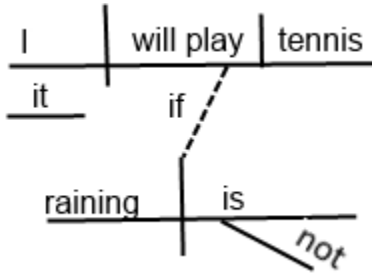
To what extent?
I walk more now than I walked one month ago. Notice that if “If walked” is omitted, the diagram simplifies as follows.



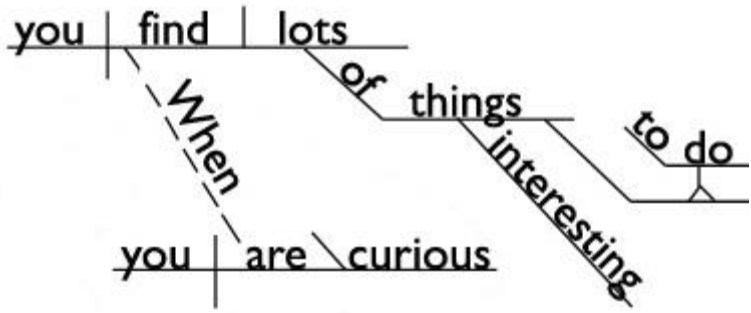
However, if “I walked” is included, you have to do something like the following.

Note also that “ago” is an old English preposition, an archaic one that comes after its object. We retain it because it is efficient. Without it, instead of “one month ago,” as above, we’d have to say, “in the past by one month.”

Under what condition?
I’ll play tennis if it's not raining.



Here's one more example. It's not easy. Try diagramming this sentence before you look at my diagram of it: When you are curious, you find lots of interesting things to do.



“When you are curious” is the adverbial, dependent clause. “When” is the subordinating conjunction. The rest is the independent clause.

3. NOUN CLAUSES

Noun clauses are subordinate clauses that act as nouns. The whole clause is used in the place of a noun. They answer the noun questions: who, whom or what.

They are introduced by pronouns and subordinating conjunctions.

They can perform any of the noun jobs, but you'll most often find them as the subject, direct object, object of the preposition or predicate noun. I'll show you examples of noun clauses playing each of the noun roles. Remember that clauses are phrases with a subject and a verb, and subordinate clauses cannot stand alone. They need independent clauses.

NOUN CLAUSES AS SUBJECTS

Recall that subjects tell us whom or what is in focus, right? Look at this sentence: Candy is fine with me.

Candy is the simple subject in that sentence. It is just one word acting as the subject.

Now, let’s substitute a noun clause for “Candy”:

Whatever you want is fine with me.

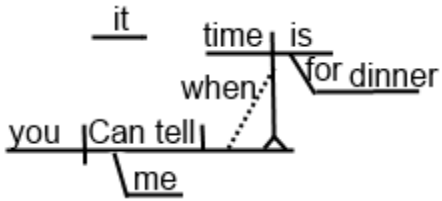
“Whatever you want” is a noun clause acting as the subject of the sentence. We know that “whatever you want” is a clause because it has a subject (you) and a verb (want). It is introduced by the indefinite pronoun whatever. We also know that it is a subordinate clause because it does not express a complete thought. [The word whatever can also function as an adjective (e.g. Whatever book you take is OK with me.).]* Here is an abstract of how you would diagram noun clauses acting as the subject.

NOUN CLAUSES AS DIRECT OBJECTS
A noun can also be a direct object. Direct objects receive the action of the verb. They are only used with transitive active verbs.

Can you tell me the time?

Time is the direct object in that sentence. It is one noun playing the noun job of direct object. Now, substitute a noun clause for “time.”

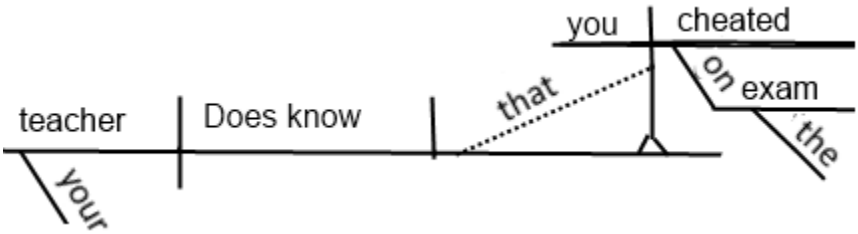
Can you tell me when it is time for dinner?



“When it is time for dinner” is now acting as the direct object. The whole clause is performing one function. When it is time for dinner is a clause

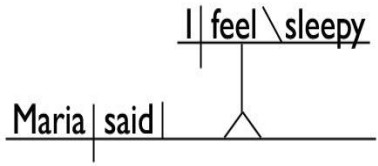
because it has a subject and a verb (time & is). It's a noun clause because it answers one of the three noun questions (who, whom and what). It says what you can tell me. "It" is a meaningless interjection. The whole noun clause is the direct object of the verb "tell." Is it introduced by a pronoun or a subordinating conjunction? Yes. ("When" is a subordinating conjunction.) Is it a subordinate clause because it does not express a complete thought.

Try diagramming the sentence, "Does your teacher know that you cheated on the exam?"



DIAGRAMMING QUOTATIONS
Quotations are the what, the direct objects, of the active, transitive verb "to say."

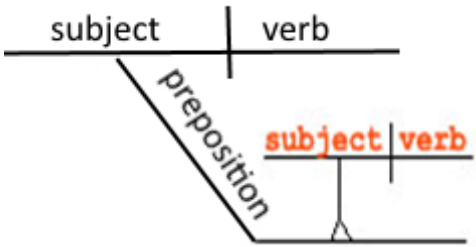
For example, you might say or write: Maria said, "I feel sleepy." I feel sleepy is a noun clause acting as the direct object of the verb said.



NOUN CLAUSES AS OBJECTS OF THE PREPOSITION
As you might have guessed, an object of the preposition is another noun job. (Recall that Prepositions create a relationship between other words in a sentence by linking phrases to the rest of the sentence.)

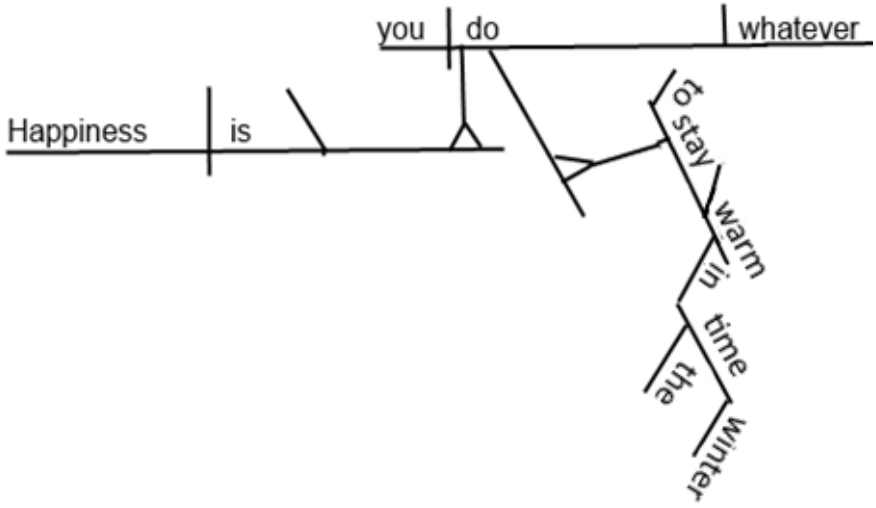
Consider this one: I talked about Freud.
“Freud” is a noun acting as the object of the preposition, “about.” We can replace “Freud” with and adverbial clause: I talked about how Freud made his discoveries.

“How Freud made his discoveries” is a noun clause acting as the object of the preposition. Freud is the subject of the clause, and made is the verb, so we know it is a clause. The clause is introduced by the subordinating conjunction “how” (acting as an adverb inside the clause), and it can't stand alone, so we know it is a subordinate clause. Here is an example of how you would diagram noun clauses acting as the object of the preposition.



NOUN CLAUSES AS PREDICATE NOUNS
And now we come to the last noun job that we'll discuss here. This last job is, of course, a predicate noun (also called predicate nominatives). Predicate nouns are the nouns that come after linking verbs. They rename the subject. Consider this one:

Happiness is a warm fire on a winter’s night.
“Fire” is the predicate noun. It is one noun performing a noun job. Happiness is “whatever you do to stay warm in the winter time.” “Whatever you do to stay warm in the winter time” is a noun clause performing the job of predicate noun. It has a subject (you) and a verb (do), so we know it is a clause. It's introduced by the pronoun “whatever,” and it does not express a complete thought. It's a subordinate clause. Try to diagram it on your own before looking below.



The whole noun clause is acting as a predicate noun. “You” is the subject; “do” is the verb, and “whatever” is the direct object of the noun clause. The infinitive phrase answers the adverb question why you do. “Warm” is the predicate adjective of the infinitive’s linking verb, “stay.” “Warm” modifies the nearest noun or pronoun in front of it, “you.” The prepositional phrase in the winter time is adverbial. It answers the question when and modifies the predicate adjective warm.
If you want to learn more about sentence diagramming, Google the search string, “sentence diagrams of (your sub topic).”

WHAT
What part of speech is the word “what”? It is a pronoun, adverb, or adjective, depending on how it is used.

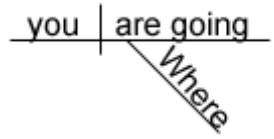
"What is that?" -- pronoun
"What does it matter?" -- adverb
"What book did you read?" – adjective

HERE IS A SUMMARY OF BASIC SENTENCE PARTS AND PATTERNS SHOWING HOW THEY ARE DIAGRAMMED

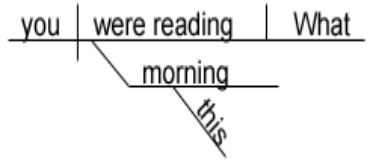
1. Simple subject and predicate: Samson slept.

2. Understood subject (for commands, directives): Sit!

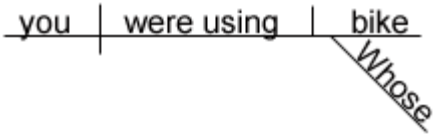
3. Questions:
Where are you going?



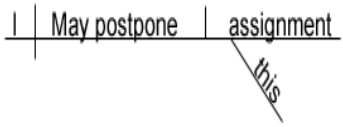
What were you reading this morning?



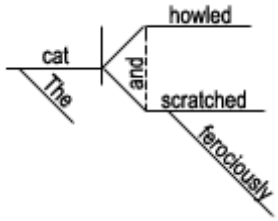
Whose bike were you using?



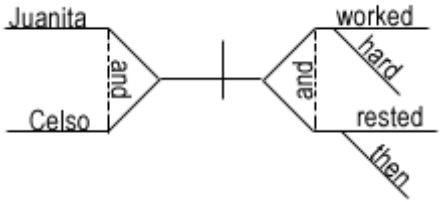
May I postpone this assignment?



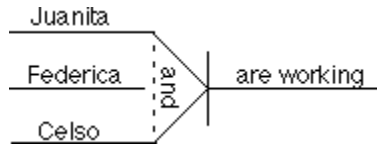
4. Compound predicate: The cat howled and scratched ferociously.



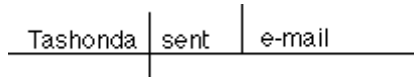
5. Compound subject and compound predicate:
Juanita and Celso worked hard and then rested.



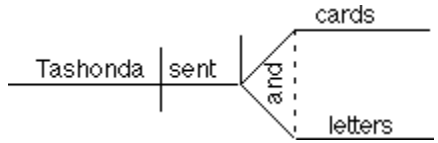
6. Three subjects: Juanita, Federica, and Celso are working.



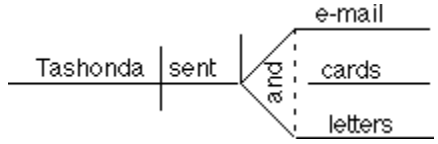
7. Direct object: Tashonda sent e-mail.



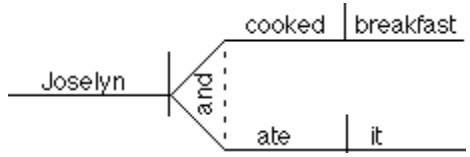
8. Compound direct objects: Tashonda sent cards and letters.



9. Three direct objects: Tashonda sent e-mail, cards, and letters.

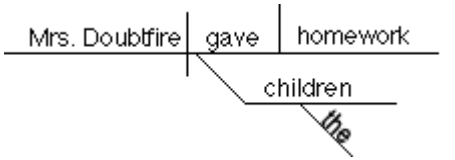


10. Compound predicate with direct objects: Joselyn cooked breakfast and ate it.

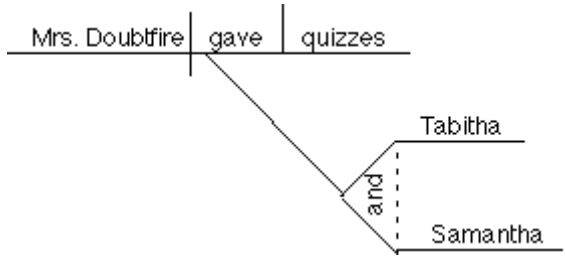


11. Compound predicate with one direct object: Samantha proofreads and edits her essays.

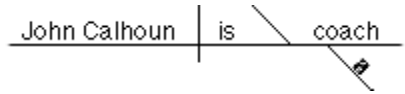
12. Indirect object: Mrs. Doubtfire gave the children homework.



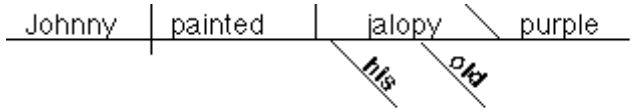
13. Compound indirect objects: Mrs. Doubtfire gave Tabitha and Samantha quizzes.



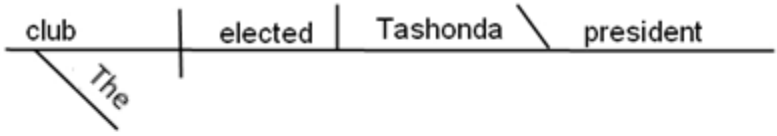
14. Predicate noun: John Calhoun is a coach.



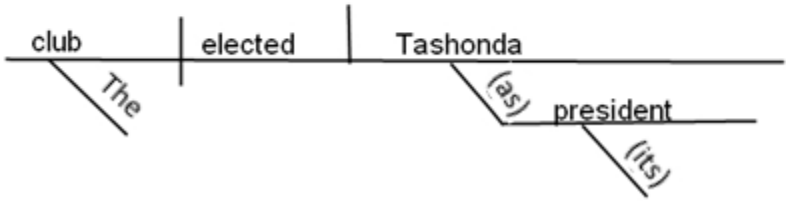
15. Objective complement: Johnny painted his old jalopy purple.



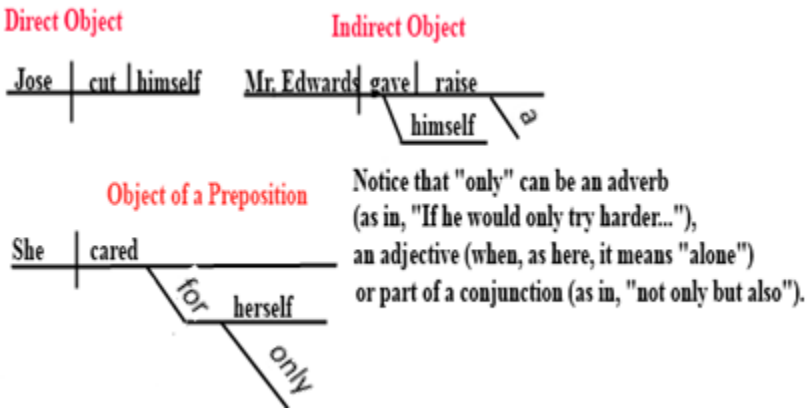
The club elected Tashonda [as its] president.



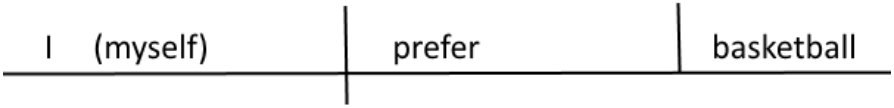
or



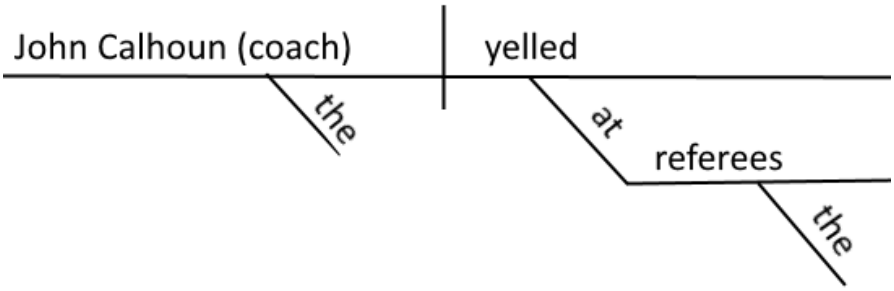
16. Reflexive Pronouns:
[as direct object] José cut himself.
[as indirect object] Mr. Edwards gave himself a raise.
[as object of a preposition] She cared only for herself.



17. Intensive Pronoun: I myself prefer basketball.

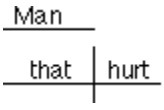


18. Appositive: John Calhoun, the coach, yelled at the referees.

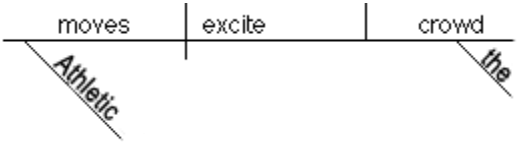


19. Direct address: Heitor, address the class now.

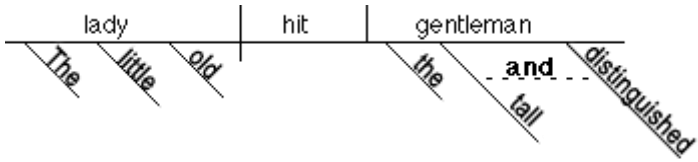
20. Interjection: Man, that hurt!



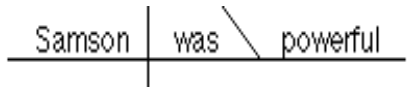
21. Adjective: Athletic moves excite the crowd.



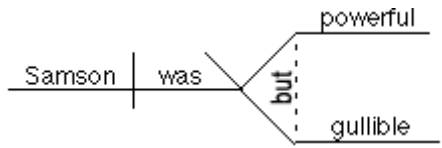
22. Compound adjectives: The little old lady hit the tall and distinguished gentleman.



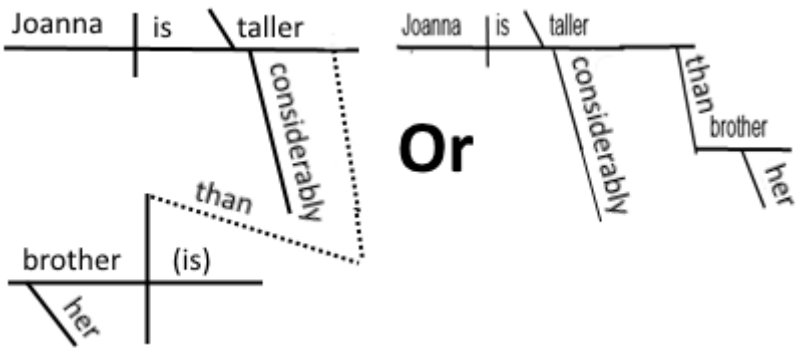
23. Predicate adjective: Samson was powerful.



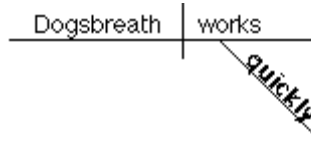
24. Compound predicate adjectives: Samson was powerful but gullible.



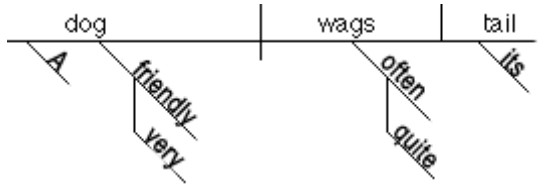
25. Comparative adjective: Joanna is considerably taller than her brother [is].



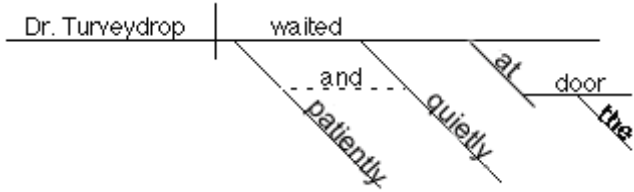
26. Adverb: Dogsbreath works quickly.



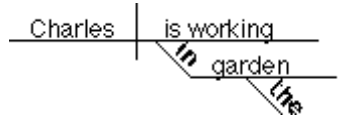
27. Adverbs modifying other adverbs: A very friendly dog wags its tail quite often.



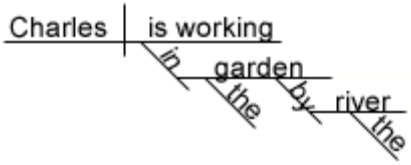
28. Compound adverbs: Dr. Turveydrop waited patiently and quietly at the door.



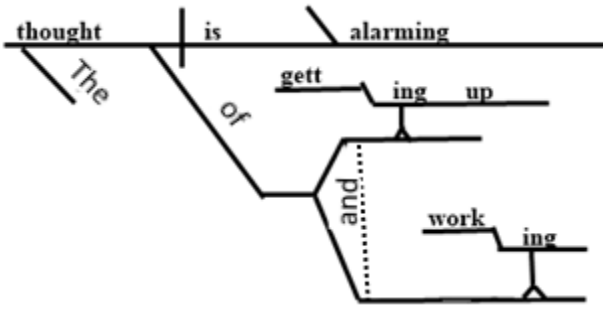
29. Prepositional phrase: Charles is working in the garden.



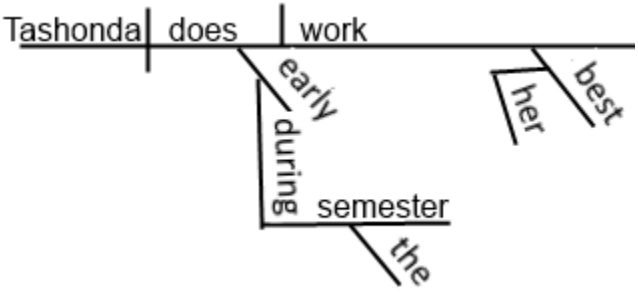
30. Prepositional phrase modifying another prepositional phrase: Charles is working in the garden by the river.



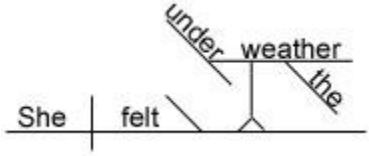
31. Preposition with compound objects: The thought of getting up and working is alarming.



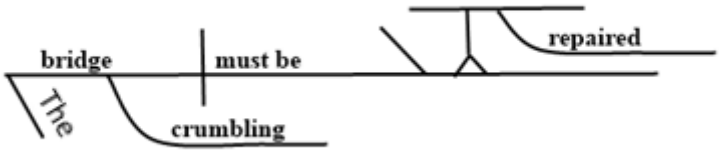
32. Prepositional phrase modifying an adverb: Tashonda does her best work early during the semester.



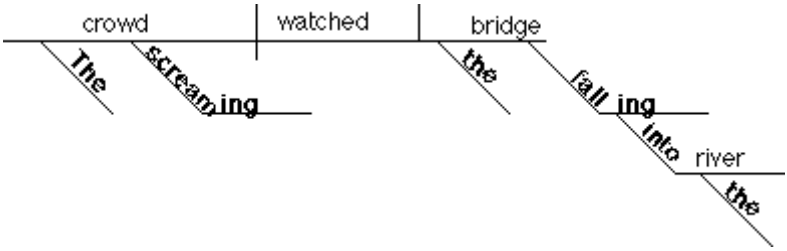
33. Prepositional phrase as predicate adjective: She felt under the weather.



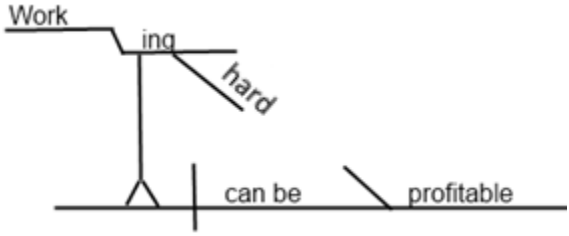
34. Participle: The crumbling bridge must be repaired.



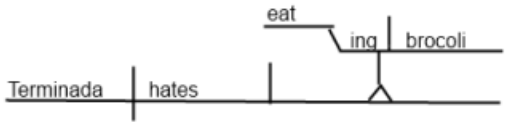
35. Participial phrase: The screaming crowd watched the bridge falling into the river.



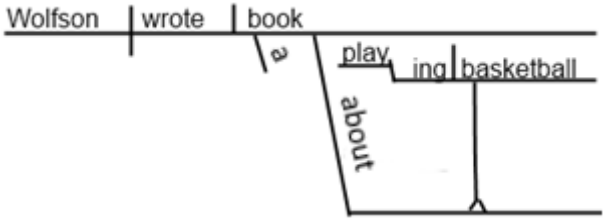
36. Gerund: Working hard can be profitable.



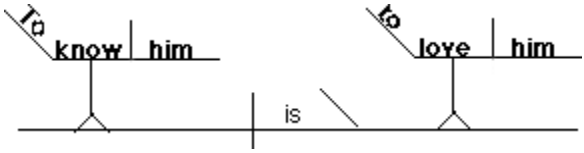
37. Gerund phrase acting as object: Terminata hates eating broccoli.



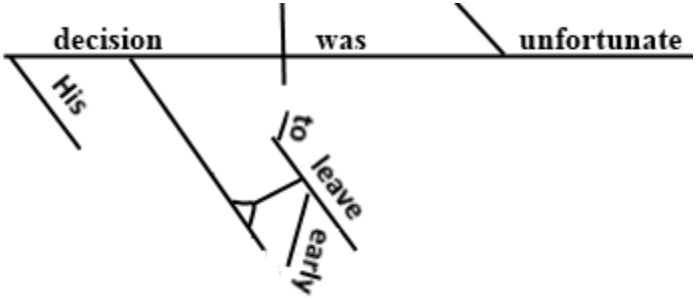
38. Gerund phrase as object of a preposition: Wolfson wrote a book about playing basketball.



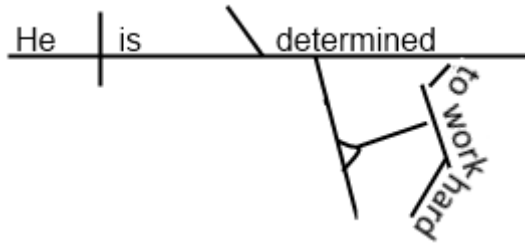
39. Infinitive as noun (subject & predicate): To know him is to love him.



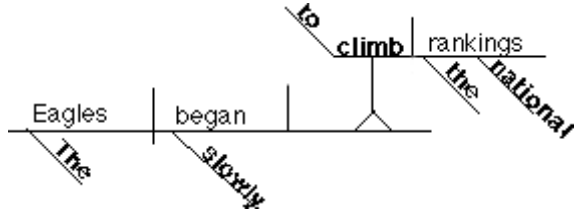
40. Infinitive acting as adjective: His decision to leave early was unfortunate.



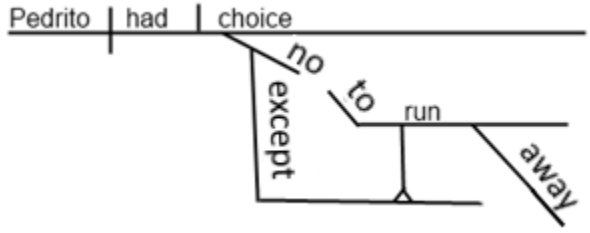
41. Infinitive acting as adverb: He is determined to work hard.



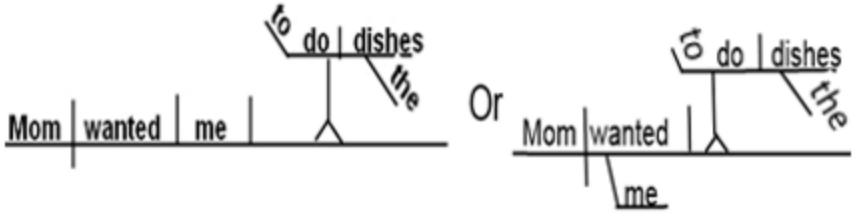
42. Infinitive as direct object: The Eagles slowly began to climb the national rankings.



43. Infinitive phrase as object of preposition: Pedrito had no choice except to run away.

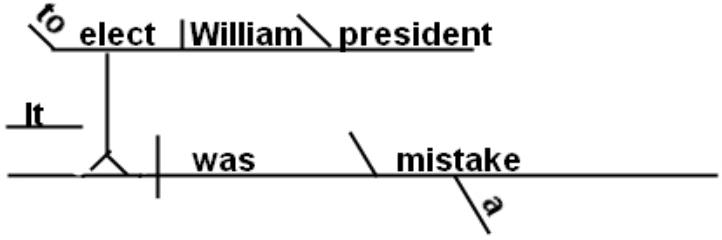


44. Infinitive phrase as objective complement: Mom wanted me to do the dishes.

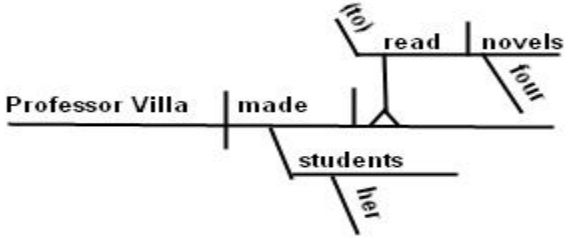


But it's simpler to think of me as an indirect object.

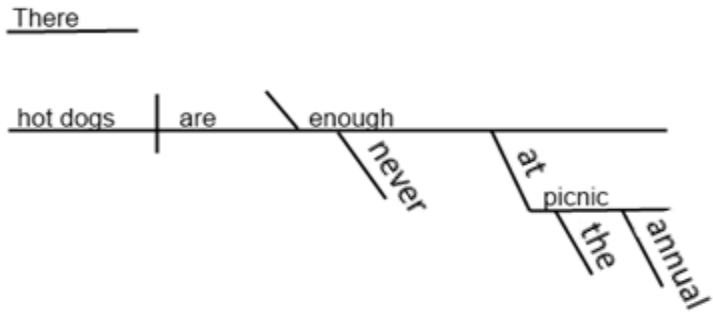
45. Infinitive phrase as subject, "It" as interjection: It was a mistake to elect William president.



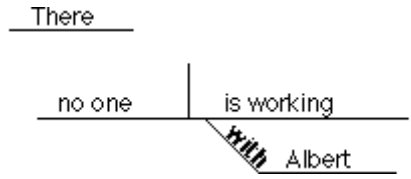
46. Causative Verb: Professor Villa made her students read four novels.



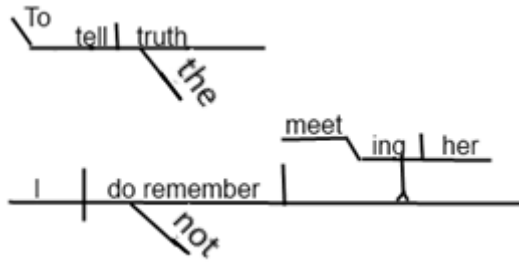
47. Interjection (dummy subject) Construction: There are never enough hot dogs at the annual picnic.



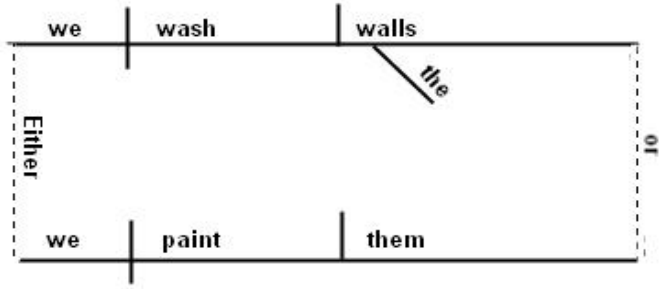
There is no one working with Albert.



48. Absolute Construction: To tell the truth, I do not remember meeting her.



49. Correlative Conjunction: Either we wash the walls, or we paint them.



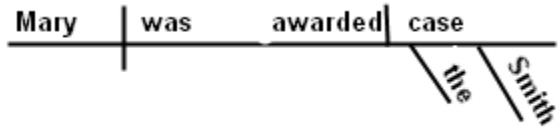
50. A passive voice verb can be most simply thought of as a linking verb and a predicate adjective: The burglar was shot.

Recall that the passive voice is used only for transitive verbs and that transitive verbs "transfer action to" or "act upon" a direct object. In the passive voice, the normal subject and the normal object trade places. The person or thing that is acted upon becomes the subject, the focus of attention. The active agent (if he, she or it is known and included at all) becomes the object of the preposition "by." A form of "to be" is also added to the verb. For example, "Tom threw the ball" becomes, "The ball was thrown by Tom." "BMW has developed autos" becomes "Autos have been developed by BMW." "Joe had fixed the pipes prior to the earthquake" becomes "The pipes had been fixed by Joe prior to the earthquake." We generally use the passive voice only when the agent actor is unknown or of lesser importance than the result of the action.

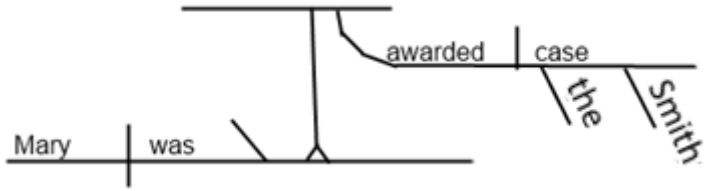
If the passive voice is followed by an object complement, then you may think of any past participle as either part of the predicate (as in the first diagrams of the two sentences below) or as a predicate adjective (as in the second

diagrams of the two sentences below). Because these predicate adjectives are also participles, they can have object compliments. Notice:

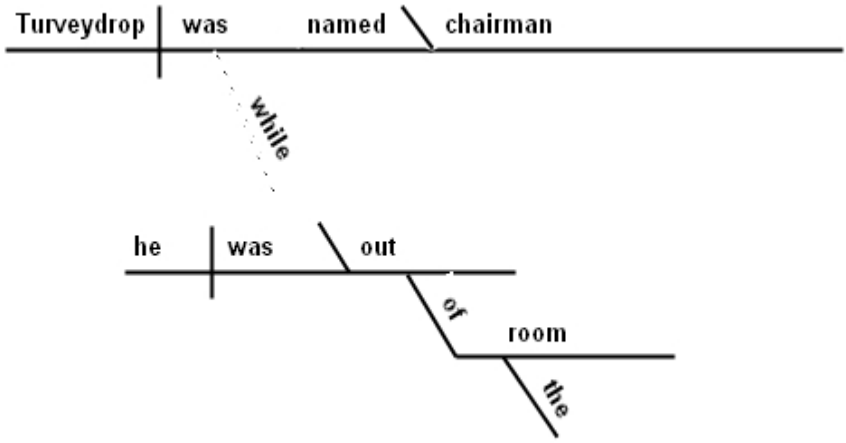
Mary was awarded the Smith Case.



Or



Turveydrop was named chairman while he was out of the room.



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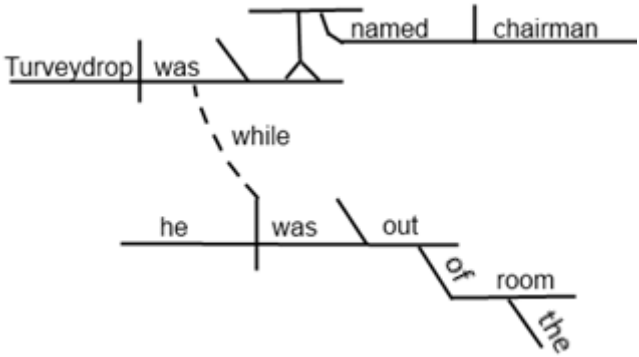

If you have completed the Converting the World to English course up to this point, you should be at the same level as an intelligent five year old child who has grown up in an English-speaking country. The logic of the language is firmly in your head. You shouldn't need a teacher now. You need only a dictionary (for occasional use) and practice. Listen to music, watch movies and TV and practice speaking and writing – all in English.

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Email me at: **drhuttner@gmail.com**