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Five Basic Sentence Types

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CHAPTER PREVIEW

In this chapter, we will analyze the entire predicate, focusing upon the main verb itself and any noun phrases, adjective phrases, or adverb phrases that are required to complement (complete) it. While analyzing complements, we will ignore the auxiliary (AUX), to which we gave so much attention earlier, not including it in the phrase structure trees or formulas presented. You already understand how it is structured, and no variations that occur in it affect the analysis of predicates that we are undertaking to clarify here.

CHAPTER GOALS

After studying this chapter, you should be able to

- Distinguish among *be*, *intransitive*, *linking*, and *transitive verbs*.
- Recognize the *five basic sentence types* on the basis of the verb and its complements.
- Differentiate between *adverbial* and *adjectival verb complements*.
- Recognize both *adjectival* and *nominal subject complements*.
- Distinguish among *direct objects*, *indirect objects*, and *object complements*.
- Draw phrase structure trees and Reed-Kellogg diagrams for each of the five sentence types.

Like all other languages, English consists of a potentially infinite set of sentences. If, in order to analyze English grammar, we first had to collect and study all of the possible English sentences, our task would be impossible. Fortunately, we can begin to understand how to analyze the grammatical structure of sentences without worrying about each individual one of the

billions that have already been (or that are still waiting to be) spoken and written. Learning to recognize just five simple patterns that underlie almost all of the sentences of English is a crucial first step.

BINARY STRUCTURE

The five basic sentence types of English are alike in that each reflects the binary (two-part) structure that characterizes the simplest sentences of the language. Underlying such prototype sentences, we can, as we saw in Chapter 7, discover a **noun phrase** (NP) functioning as **subject** and a **verb phrase** (VP) functioning as **predicate**. Look at these examples:

- | | | |
|-----|-------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| (1) | Jenny | purred. |
| | Our neighbor's pet | is outdoors constantly. |
| | The tomcat curled up on the cushion | seemed very friendly. |
| | The smallest kitten | became a family member. |
| | A furry female | eyed a bowl of tuna. |

In each of these simple sentences, the left-hand constituent is a noun phrase functioning as the subject. Remember that a noun phrase is either a noun or a group of words that can substitute for a noun, and as the example sentences demonstrate, any noun phrase can be the subject of a sentence. Thus, the first subject is a single noun; the others are noun phrases that could be interchanged with it.

The right-hand constituent of the sentence is a verb phrase functioning as its predicate. Like the noun phrase subjects, the verb phrases in the previous sentences are interchangeable. Any of the predicates may occur with any of the subjects to form complete sentences.

In some sentences of English, the verb phrase consists solely of a main verb phrase with its single verb constituting the entire predicate; in others, the main verb phrase may be accompanied by other words, phrases, and clauses that are called either **complements** (because they *complete* the predicate) or **modifiers** (because they *add to* or *modify* the meaning of the verb). Complements are required to complete the verb; modifiers are optional. Notice, again, that the verb phrases in the previous sentences are interchangeable: Any of the right-hand constituents may occur with any of the subjects to form complete sentences.

As we saw in Chapter 7, one of the ways linguists represent the structure of sentences is by drawing phrase structure trees. To do so, they begin with the largest category, the sentence (S), and hypothesize that all sentences in English are made up of subject noun phrases (NP) and predicate verb phrases (VP). They represent this information in the *phrase structure rule*, using a single arrow that means “can be written as” or “consists of”:

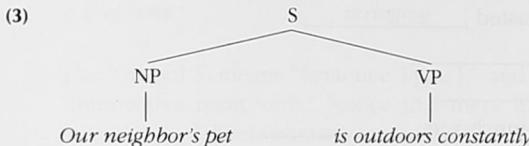
- (2) S → NP + VP

This general rule describes the basic form of all sentences of English and suggests that, to convey information in English, we create sentences that contain subjects (either explicit or implied) and predicates. If the order of the

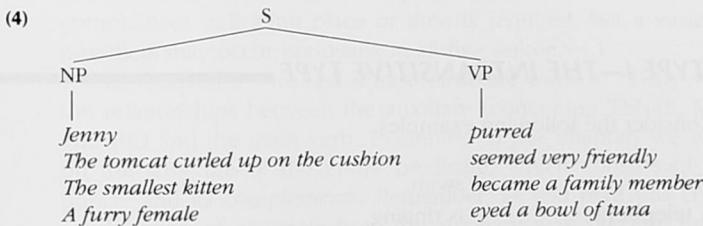
constituents is reversed (**Is outdoors all the time our neighbor's pet*), the structure is not a grammatical English sentence; if one of the constituents is missing (**Is outdoors all the time*), the structure is a sentence *fragment*.

To draw a phrase structure tree diagram, put the item to the left of the arrow at the top and branch from it to the items on the right. The branching point (*S* in this tree) is called a *node*; any terminal point in a branch can become a node for another branching, as we shall see in the following text. In a phrase structure tree (or phrase marker), each node and each terminal point is labeled with the name of the syntactic category to which it belongs.

A phrase structure tree diagram representing the subject-predicate structure of each of these prototypical sentences would look like this:



This simple phrase marker describes equally well the underlying structure of all five of our example sentences. It shows how they are alike in structure. All that needs to be changed is the specific noun phrase or verb phrase that occurs as subject or predicate.



It is, in fact, the structural differences in the verb phrase that distinguish the five basic sentence types. In the remainder of this chapter, we discuss these distinct kinds of sentences, numbering them with Roman numerals: Types I, II, III, IV, and V. However, there is nothing sacred or even traditional about our numbering scheme. Assigning each type a number simply provides us with an easy way of referring to them.

To review what you learned in Chapter 7 about identifying sentence constituents, including the constituents of the verb phrase, complete the following exercise.

EXERCISE 8.1

Each of the following strings of words contains a subject and a main verb phrase. Some of them are complete sentences as they stand. Others need additional words (complements) in order to become sentences. Add only

noun phrases (NPs), adjective phrases (ADJPs), or adverb phrases (ADVPs) that are necessary to complete each sentence and then identify what kind of phrase you have supplied. If two or more phrases are required, note what kinds they are. If the string is already complete, leave it alone.

EXAMPLE

The post office employees quickly sorted _____.

The post office employees quickly sorted the mail. (NP)

1. By noon the children were _____.
2. During their lunch hour, several opened _____.
3. Margaret's thermos of milk tasted _____.
4. Her friend Zoe offered _____.
5. Marcie and Jody sat _____.
6. In the cafeteria, the favorite lunch was _____.
7. On Thursday, they ran out of burgers _____.
8. The noise in the cafeteria seemed _____.
9. After lunch, Grumby usually wants _____.
10. During lunch, several students played _____.

TYPE I—THE INTRANSITIVE TYPE

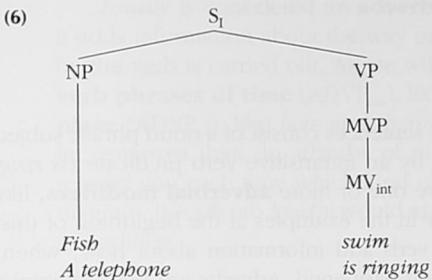
Consider the following examples:

(5)	Fish	swim.
	A telephone	is ringing.
	Jan	snores loudly.
	The customer	complained persistently.
	Carla	must have enrolled rather early.

If you divide each of these sentences to show its constituent structure, you will find that each contains a noun phrase subject and a main verb followed either by nothing at all or else by an adverb phrase. Notice that the adverb phrases are optional, and there are no noun phrases or adjective phrases functioning as constituents in the predicates of these sentences. The verbs are complete by themselves.

The simplest Type I sentences consist of a subject followed by a predicate in which there is only a main verb followed by optional adverb phrases. The technical name of the type of verb that can stand alone in the verb phrase and function as the entire predicate is **intransitive**. The sentence type gets its name from the intransitive verb that is its distinguishing feature.

By extending the branches of the phrase marker, we get a representation of the constituent structure of sentences with intransitive verbs like the following:



The symbol S_I means "Sentence Type I," and MV with the subscript $_{int}$ means "intransitive main verb." Notice that there is no mention of adverb phrases in this tree. Adverb phrases are optional in Types I, III, IV, and V; their presence or absence does not distinguish one of these four types from another. For example, omitting *loudly* from *Jan snores loudly* does not change the structural type of the sentence; *Jan snores* still contains an intransitive verb. Similarly, *The customer complained* and *The customer complained persistently* both contain intransitive verbs, as do *Carla must have enrolled* and *Carla must have enrolled rather early*. (In Type II sentences, as we will see, one adverbial complement indicating place or time is required, but a variety of adverbial modifiers may occur optionally in all five sentences.)

In Chapter 7 we used phrase structure trees to clarify visually for you the relationships between the auxiliary (containing TENSE, MODAL, HAVE, and BE) and the main verb. Beginning in this chapter, we will be focusing on the structure of the entire predicate, which consists of the main verb phrase and its complements. Remember, as you read this chapter, that any combination of elements from the auxiliary may precede the main verb in the sentences we are discussing without affecting the basic structure of the predicate. Whether the verb in sentence (6) is *swim*, *are swimming*, or *must have swum*, for example, makes no difference in the basic sentence type of the predicate. Consequently, in order that students can concentrate visually on the verb complements—the topic of this chapter—we will branch only to the MVP and not to its parts. The main verb itself, and not its tense or aspect, determines the sentence type.

In drawing trees for the sentence prototypes, we will include only essential constituents of the structural formulas. Remember that one or more adverbial modifiers can occur in the predicates of any of the five basic sentence types. In the discussion that follows each sentence type, we show how optional adverb phrases are added to the tree or formula.

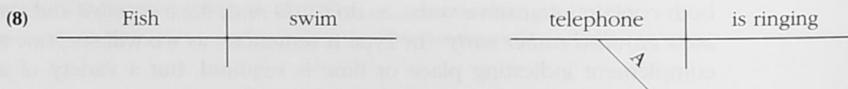
A linear method of representing the constituent structure of sentence types is by means of the **structural formulas** just referred to, in which the sentence

constituents are arranged in the same order as they occur in the basic form of the sentence. The structural formula for prototypical Type I sentences (like the ones displayed in the previous phrase marker) is the following:

- (7) $S_I = NP + MV_{int}$
 A telephone + is ringing.

The formula says that Type I sentences consist of a noun phrase subject (in this case, *a telephone*) followed by an intransitive verb predicate (*is ringing*). Intransitive verbs can also have one or more **adverbial modifiers**, like *loudly*, *persistent*, and *rather early* in the examples at the beginning of this section. Adverbial modifiers of the verb add information about how, when, where, why, or how much something happened. Adverbs are the prototypical modifiers of verbs, but as we saw in Chapter 7, a variety of phrases and clauses may also function as adverbial modifiers, supplying the same sorts of additional meaning to the verb.

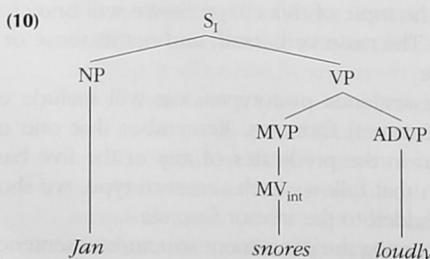
To draw a Reed-Kellogg diagram of the structures in (6), put the subject noun and the main verb phrase on a horizontal line bisected by a vertical line. Modifiers go on a line slanting away from the word they modify. Thus, the determiner *a* goes on a line slanting away from *telephone*:



In representing the constituent structure of sentences that contain optional adverbial modifiers, we simply add an adverb phrase (ADVP) branch to the tree in the predicate or an optional ADVP to the structural formula. A structural formula for the same sentence, showing the optional adverbial phrase in parentheses, would look like this:

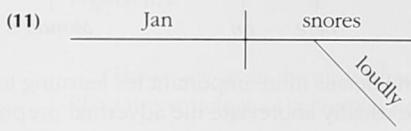
- (9) $S_I = NP + MV_{int} + (ADVP)$

The phrase marker of *Jan snores loudly* would be:



You can read the sentence directly from the phrase marker: *Jan* is the noun phrase subject; *snores* is the intransitive main verb; *loudly* is an adverb phrase; and together, *snores loudly* constitutes the entire predicate verb phrase.

Loudly is considered an **adverb phrase of manner** (ADVP_{man}) because it adds information about the way or manner in which the action represented by the verb is carried out. As we will see when we look at Type II verbs, **adverb phrases of time** (ADVP_{tm}), like *soon* and *now*, and **adverb phrases of place** (ADVP_{pl}), like *here* and *there*, sometimes behave somewhat differently in sentences than do adverbs of manner, so we will include a subscript to remind you each time which kind of adverb is being used. In a Reed-Kellogg diagram, the adverb *loudly* would appear on a line slanted away from the verb it modifies:



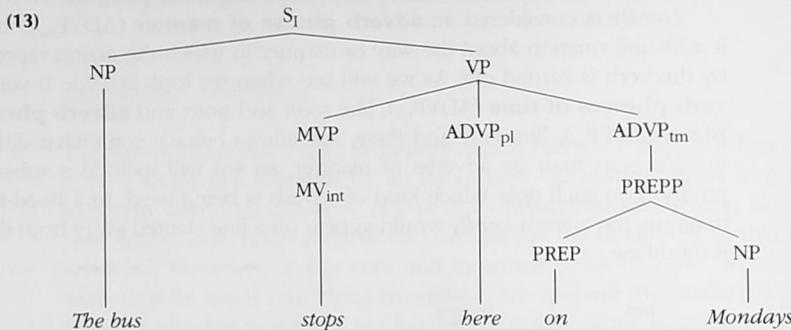
Prepositional phrases (PREPP), like *to the manager* in *The customer complained to the manager*, frequently function adverbially in a sentence in the same way that adverbs do, and they, too, can express information of time, place, or manner. Remember, the *form* of a prepositional phrase consists of a preposition (such as *in*, *on*, *under*, *with*, *to*, *through*, *between*, *at*, and others) followed by a noun phrase (like *the manager* in the previous example). The noun phrase following the preposition functions as the *object* of the preposition. Some examples of other prepositional phrases are *on Mondays*, *under the table*, *with great speed*, *through the night*, *between innings*, and *at the movies*.

When prepositional phrases function adverbially, you might find it helpful to think of them as having been substituted for an adverb. For example, the prepositional phrase in *Sarah shoots with exceptional accuracy* has the same function as the adverb modifier in *Sarah shoots accurately* and occupies the same position in the sentence. There is, in fact, a phrase structure rule that specifies that any kind of adverbial constituent of a sentence can be a prepositional phrase:

- (12) ADVP → PREPP

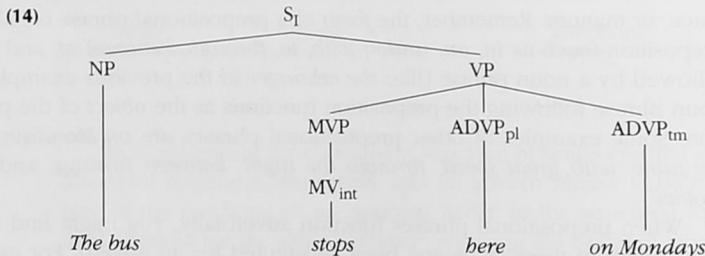
In the phrase structure rule in (12), ADVP represents a *function*, and PREPP represents one of the *forms* that can fulfill that function. As we have seen, other forms, such as simple adverbs or subordinate clauses, can also fulfill the adverb phrase function. A prepositional phrase is a form that can serve other functions, as well. Prepositional phrases are widely used as adjectival modifiers, as is the case in *My complaint to the manager got immediate results*.

The phrase marker for a sentence with a prepositional phrase functioning as an adverbial modifier would be:



In order to focus on structural details more important for learning to distinguish among sentence types, we usually abbreviate the adverbial prepositional phrase part of the phrase marker by simply showing the words of the prepositional phrase directly beneath ADVP.

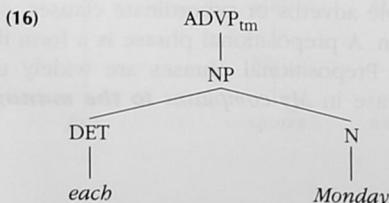
The abbreviated phrase marker would look like this:



A related form that frequently functions as an adverbial modifier is a noun phrase without a preceding preposition:

- (15) The bus stops here *each Monday*.
Hans called *three times*.

In these examples, the noun phrases *each Monday* and *three times* function as adverbial modifiers, the equivalent of adverbs of time like *soon* or *often*. A complete phrase marker would represent such adverbial noun phrases like this:



RULES OF THUMB

Tests for Identifying Type I Sentences

Intransitive Verb

1. You can test whether a verb is intransitive by dividing the predicate into phrases. If all the phrases except the main verb phrase are optional adverbial modifiers, then the verb is intransitive.
 2. If you can substitute a prototypical adverb (like *here*, *then*, or *slowly*) for the phrase, it is an adverbial phrase.

Figure 8.1

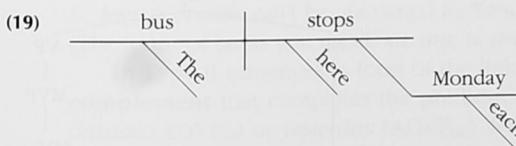
However, as in the case of adverbial prepositional phrases, we can abbreviate the structure of adverbial noun phrases as:



Remember, from Chapter 6, the diagramming of the prepositional phrase? In a Reed-Kellogg diagram, the preposition goes on a line slanting away from the word it modifies—in this case, the verb *stops*:



When there is no preposition, a blank line slants downward toward the noun phrase used as an adverbial modifier:



The Rules of Thumb in Figure 8.1 and the Summary in Figure 8.2 can help you to identify Type I sentences.

■ EXERCISE 8.2

First, divide the following sentences into subject noun phrases and predicate verb phrases. Then label the main verb phrases, noun phrases, adjective

phrases, and adverb phrases you find in the predicates. Finally, indicate which sentences are examples of the intransitive Type I pattern and which are not examples of the pattern.

EXAMPLE

Vera's instructor brought doughnuts to class today.

Subject	Predicate			
<i>Vera's instructor</i>	<i>brought</i>	<i>doughnuts</i>	<i>to class</i>	<i>today</i>
NP	MVP	NP	ADVP	ADVP
<i>Not Type I-Intransitive</i>	(Can you figure out why?)			

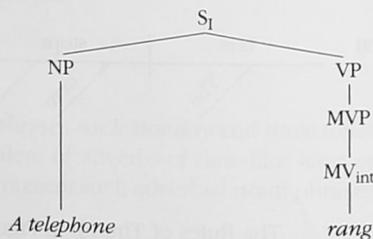
1. Sue's birthday party occurred on Saturday this year.
2. Pink balloons hung above the mailbox out front.
3. Children were arriving at one o'clock.
4. They wore bathing suits under their clothes.
5. The pool looked inviting in the sun.
6. A cake with seven candles sat on the table.
7. Several gifts lay nearby.
8. Cans of soda waited in a tub of ice.
9. Sue sat outside near the pool with Amanda.
10. Amanda has been Sue's best friend since first grade.

SUMMARY

Sentence Type I—Intransitive Verb

Structural Formula: $S_I = NP + MV_{int}$

Tree Diagram:



Reed-Kellogg Diagram:

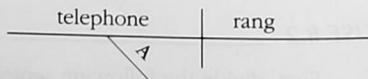


Figure 8.2

EXERCISE 8.3

Draw a phrase marker and a Reed-Kellogg diagram to show the structure of each of the following Type I sentences. In drawing phrase markers for this exercise, ignore the auxiliary portion of the main verb phrase, as we have done in our previous discussion.

1. The plane had finally arrived at the gate.
2. Some passengers were standing in the aisles.
3. Others remained in their seats.
4. No one was talking.
5. Last week, I went to Atlanta, Georgia, for a conference.
6. The opening session began Monday morning.
7. Sam's guitar twanged rhythmically at the sales party.
8. Finally, during the final ceremony, our company won.

TYPES II, III, AND IV—LINKING (COPULAR) VERBS**Type II—The Verb *Be* Requiring Adverbs of Time or Place**

Look at the following examples:

- (20) Jesse is outside.
 Her job interviews were yesterday.
 Cheryl's notebook must have been on the desk.
 The reception will be at noon.

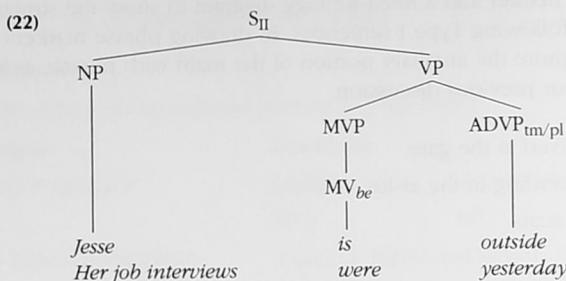
If you divide these sentences into their constituents, you will see that they all contain a noun phrase subject, a main verb *be*, and an obligatory adverb phrase. That is, *Jesse is outside* can't be shortened to **Jesse is*. The adverb *outside* is essential. (The forms of *be*, as you recall, are *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *be*, *being*, and *been*.)

In Type II sentences, a form of the linking verb *be* requires an **adverbial complement** that completes the predicate and expresses place or time, like *outside* (ADV_{pl}) or *yesterday* (ADV_{tm}). Such complements refer to the place or time of the *subject*, not of the *verb*. Contrast the following:

- (21) a. The train departs at noon.
 b. The reception will be at noon.

In (21a), *at noon* tells the time of the action represented by the verb (departure). In (21b), *at noon* tells the time of the reception (expressed by the subject). Because *be* links the subject with its adverbial complement, it is called a **linking (or copular) verb**.

Type II sentences can be represented with a phrase marker like this one:



The adverb phrase symbol *ADVP* is written with a subscript *tm/pl* to indicate that it must be an adverbial constituent expressing either time or place. If the adverbial is one of place (*outside*, for instance), it would simply be labeled *ADVP_{pl}*. If the adverbial constituent is one of time (*yesterday*), the label would be *ADVP_{tm}*.

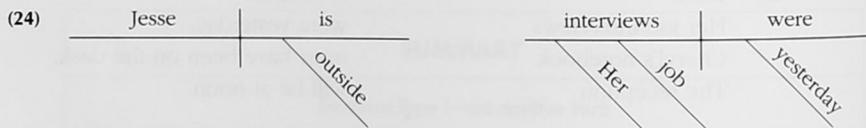
The structural formula for Type II sentences is:

$$(23) \quad S_{II} = NP + MV_{be} + ADVP_{tm/pl}$$

Jesse + is + outside.

Her job interviews + were + yesterday.

The Reed-Kellogg diagram for Type II sentences is:

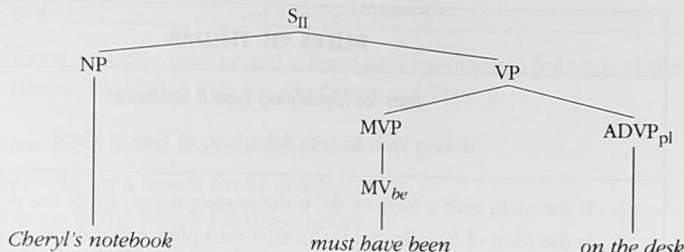


Adverb phrases of place and time include such adverbs as *inside*, *upstairs*, *here*, *away*, *nearby*, *then*, *now*, *today*, *tomorrow*. Prepositional phrases of time (*in the evening*) or place (*at the post office*) and noun phrases (*next week*, *Sunday*) can also function adverbially. For example, in Type II sentences like the following, a prepositional phrase of time or place, instead of a simple adverb, follows the verb and functions as an adverb phrase, the first one of place and the second one of time.

- (25) Cheryl's notebook must have been *on the desk*.
The reception will be *at noon*.

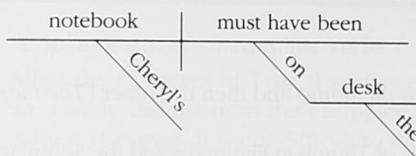
A Type II sentence with a prepositional phrase following the linking verb *be* looks like this when displayed in a phrase marker:

(26)



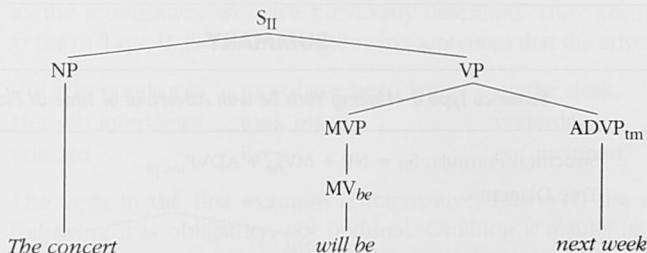
The Reed-Kellogg diagram would be:

(27)



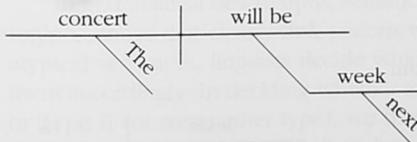
If the linking verb *be* is followed by a noun phrase functioning adverbially, the sentence has a phrase marker tree like this one:

(28)



The Reed-Kellogg diagram for the same sentence is:

(29)



In the Type II sentence *The money was in my wallet all along*, which of the adverbial phrases is the required adverbial complement, and which is an optional adverbial modifier? To decide which phrase is necessary, try omitting

RULES OF THUMB
Tests for Identifying Type II Sentences
Linking Verb Be with Adverbials of Time or Place

1. Is the main verb a form of *be*? If the answer is yes, apply the next test.
2. Is the form of *be* followed by an adverbial phrase that expresses location or time? If the answer is yes, the sentence is Type II.

Figure 8.3

first one (**The money was all along*) and then the other (*The money was in my wallet*).

You can use the Rules of Thumb in Figure 8.3 and the Summary in Figure 8.4 to help you to recognize Type II sentences.

SUMMARY
Sentence Type II—Linking Verb Be with Adverbial of Time or Place
Structural Formula: $S_{II} = NP + MV_{be} + ADVP_{tm/pl}$
Tree Diagram:
$\begin{array}{c} S_{II} \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ NP \qquad VP \\ \qquad \quad \\ Jesse \qquad \begin{array}{c} MVP \\ \\ MV_{be} \\ \\ is \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} ADVP_{tm/pl} \\ \\ outside \end{array} \end{array}$
Reed-Kellogg Diagram:
$\begin{array}{c} \hline \text{Jesse} & & \text{is} \\ & \hline & \diagdown \\ & & \text{outside} \end{array}$

Figure 8.4

EXERCISE 8.4

Draw a phrase marker and a Reed-Kellogg diagram for each of the following sentences. Notice that not all of them are Type II.

1. The children were in the shallow water.
2. The mother was on a beach towel nearby.
3. They had been at the beach for three hours.
4. A few people were still swimming.
5. The lifeguard should have been in the tower.
6. Instead, the beach staff was in the break room.

Peripheral Cases—Intransitive Verbs

All of the examples of Type II sentences given so far involve the verb *be* and are clearly distinct from the examples of Type I sentences that we provided earlier. However, it is not difficult to think of sentences that seem to resemble Type I in some respects and Type II in others.

We have characterized the prototypical Type I verbs as intransitive verbs, for which an adverbial modifier is optional. However, a number of verbs are not quite so self-sufficient. These verbs are like intransitive verbs in that they are followed only by adverb phrases; however, they are not as able to stand alone as the intransitives we have previously described. They are more like the *be* verbs of Type II. Notice in the following sentences that the adverbial is required:

- (30) Cheryl's notebook must have been lying on the desk.
Her job interviews took place yesterday.
Edward lives in Cincinnati.

The verb in the first example is intransitive; however, the adverb of place following it is obligatory, not optional. Omitting it results in a sentence that sounds unnatural: *?Cheryl's notebook must have been lying*. The remaining examples are more problematic. Although we can think of contexts in which a speaker might say *Her job interviews took place* or *Edward lives*, such verbs usually require an adverb of time or place to complete their meaning.

In grammatical descriptions, sentence types are defined on the basis of prototypes, those that clearly fit a pattern without complication or ambiguity. For atypical sentences, linguists decide which group they are *most* like and assign them accordingly. In deciding whether to treat the previous sentences as Type I or Type II (or some other type), we have to consider which pattern they most closely resemble, as they don't fit into any category perfectly. Because their verbs are incomplete by themselves and their complements are adverbial, like those required by the intransitive *be* verbs of Type II, the evidence suggests that we consider them a subclass of intransitives closely related to the *be* verbs of Type II, for which an adverbial complement is necessary rather than optional.

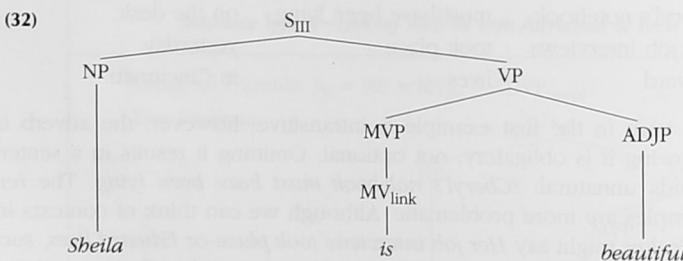
Type III—The Linking Verb Type with Adjectival Subject Complement

Study the following examples:

- (31) Sheila is beautiful.
 His parties were very lavish.
 Bill is becoming friendly.
 Your uncle has seemed happy in the past.

Notice that the predicate in each sentence contains an adjective phrase following the main verb, which may or may not be a form of *be*. In Type III sentences, the verb is unable to stand alone as a complete predicate but requires an adjective phrase following it: in prototypical sentences, either an adjective (like *beautiful*) or an adjective with an intensifier or qualifier (like *very lavish*). The adjective phrase follows the verb and describes the noun phrase functioning as subject (as *very lavish* describes *his parties*). Again, because the verbs serve to join or link the subject to the descriptive word or phrase in the predicate, they are called *linking verbs* (or in some scholarly grammars, *copulative verbs*). The adjective phrase that follows them functions as an adjectival **subject complement**. (Some grammars also use the term **predicate adjective** for this function.) One meaning of the word *complement*, as we have previously seen, is “something that completes.” The adjective phrase that functions as a subject complement in Type III sentences is required; it completes the predicate while providing descriptive information about the subject.

The phrase marker representation of Type III sentences looks like this:



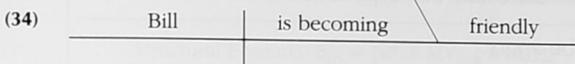
The symbol *MV* with a subscript *link* stands for a linking verb, *is*, in (32), and *ADJP* refers to the adjective phrase *beautiful* that functions as the subject complement.

The structural formula for Type III sentences is the following:

- (33) $S_{III} = NP + MV_{link} + ADJP$
 Bill + is becoming + friendly.

In the Reed-Kellogg diagram for Type III sentences, we encounter a new convention: a slanting line above the horizontal. It appears in the predicate

and points back toward a noun the predicate adjective modifies. In (33) the predicate adjective modifies (tells something about) the subject; the diagram looks like this:



One important linking verb is *be* in its various forms. In fact, the linking function of Type III verbs can be seen most clearly in the forms of *be*. These come closest to playing a completely neutral, linking role in the sentence, simply joining the subject to its subject complement without adding additional meaning other than tense. Other linking verbs (like *is becoming* and *seemed* in the example sentences) perform the same linking function as *be* but add their own individual meanings to the sentence.

The verbs of *sense* are frequently used as linking verbs, as in the following examples:

- (35) The milk *tastes* sweet.
 Your corsage *smells* wonderful.
 Bill *sounds* hoarse today.
 His cashmere sweater *feels* silky.
 Pat *looked* surprised after her victory.

Notice that adverb phrases (like *today* and *after her victory* in the previous examples) are entirely optional in this sentence pattern. Their presence or absence does not change the basic sentence pattern of verb plus adjectival complement.

The adjectival complement after linking verbs may or may not contain an adjective. Compare the following sentences:

- (36) a. He looked *weary*.
 b. He looked *as though he had been up all night*.
 c. He looked *like a zombie*.

All three sentences in (36) contain an example of *look* used as a linking verb. *Weary* is a prototypical adjectival subject complement. To understand the second and third sentences as exemplifying the same structure, it helps to perceive that *as though he had been up all night* and *like a zombie* are possible paraphrases of *weary*. Because they can substitute for an adjective in this sentence, they are functioning as adjective phrases. The form of the constituent in (36b) is a dependent clause and in (36c), a prepositional phrase. However, their functions are exactly the same as the adjective *weary*, for which they can be substituted.

By trying to replace the longer constituent with a single adjective and then evaluating the results, you are employing a *substitution test*, the method used by linguists seeking the best possible explanation of the data. In the previous

example, the analysis of *as though he had been up all night* and *like a zombie* as adjectival subject complements best explains the equivalent function of different forms.

Another alternative form that Type III sentences occasionally take is as follows:

- (37) Fred seems to be angry.

Here, the structure following the linking verb *seems* is the infinitive phrase *to be angry*, discussed in Chapter 12. Notice that *to be angry* can be replaced by the adjective *angry*:

- (38) Fred seems angry.

Fred is angry.

As we did in the case of the examples in (36), we can apply the substitution test in this way to demonstrate that *to be angry* and *angry* are equivalent, both functioning as adjectival subject complements.

Sometimes the same verb can be either intransitive or linking, as the following sentences with the verb *grow* illustrate:

- (39) Eddie grew *listless* during the summer. (Type III–Linking Verb)
Eddie grew *slowly* during the summer. (Type I–Intransitive Verb)

Notice that *listless* describes the subject, *Eddie* (the sentence can be paraphrased *Eddie was listless*). *Slowly*, on the other hand, is an adverb of manner, modifying the verb *grew* by indicating *how* Eddie grew.

RULES OF THUMB

Tests for Identifying Type III Sentences

Linking Verb with Adjectival Subject Complement

1. Is the main verb followed by an adjective phrase that refers back to and describes the subject? If the answer is yes, the sentence is Type III. For example, in the sentence *Pat looks great*, the adjective *great* describes *Pat*.
2. If the main verb in the sentence is not already a form of *be*, can the verb be replaced with a form of *be* without a major change in the meaning of the sentence? If the answer is yes, the sentence is probably Type III. For example, *His cashmere sweater feels silky* can be changed to *His cashmere sweater is silky* without greatly altering its meaning.
3. Is it among the most important linking verbs: *appear, become, seem, grow, prove, remain, turn, feel, look, smell, taste, sound?*

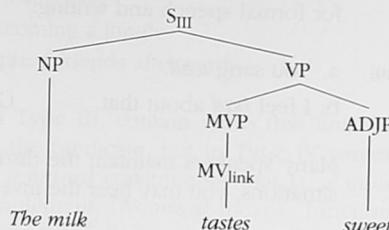
Figure 8.5

SUMMARY

Sentence Type III—Linking Verb with Adjectival Subject Complement

Structural Formula: $S_{III} = NP + MV_{i-1} + ADP$

Tree Diagram:



Reed-Kellogg Diagram:

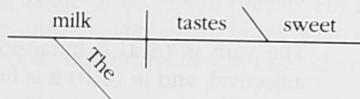


Figure 8.6

To help yourself in recognizing Type III sentences—linking verb with adjectival subject complement—follow the Rules of Thumb in Figure 8.5 and review the Summary in Figure 8.6.

■ EXERCISE 8.5

Draw a phrase marker for each of the following sentences. Not all are Type III.

1. Anders was always very careful.
 2. Its bright red paint was flawless.
 3. He usually parked far away.
 4. Only a few cars were nearby.
 5. The car looked beautiful in the sunlight.
 6. Lately, I have grown very angry.
 7. This fresh bread smells incredible!

WHAT'S THE USAGE? Adjectives and Adverbs

As a general rule, adjectives modify nouns and adverbs modify verbs. As a result, we expect adverbs to follow verbs as complements and modifiers. As you

will see in our discussion of sentence patterns, this is usually the case. However, complicating the pattern is a relatively small number of verbs in English that are followed by adjective complements.

Speakers must in some way remind themselves that Type III sentences are exceptions to the rule that verbs are usually followed by adverbs. In careful usage, most speakers monitor their speech to preserve the distinction prescribed for formal speech and writing:

- (40) a. You sang *well*. (**Type I—Adverbial modifier**)
b. I feel *bad* about that. (**Type III—Adjectival complement**)

Many speakers maintain the distinction in all contexts. However, in informal situations, you may hear the inverse of these:

- (41) a. You sang *good*. (**Type ?—Adjectival modifier**)
 b. I feel *badly* about that. (**Type ?—Adverbial complement**)

The verb in (41a) is intransitive (Type I), even though the modifier used is adjectival, and in (41b) it is linking (Type III), even though its complement is adverbial. We have no difficulty interpreting the two sentences, even though they do not conform to the usage prescribed by contemporary handbooks. Many speakers of English—often people in positions of power and authority—look on both (41a) and (41b) as errors of usage. Both are interpreted as non-standard, with (41b) viewed as a hypercorrection, a failed attempt to conform to standard usage.

In your own class, you will probably find some students who are quite sensitive to the distinction between adjectives and adverbs and who flinch when it is not observed. Others may maintain the distinction in writing but not in speech. Still others may be unaware of the differences in usage discussed here.

■ USAGE EXERCISE 8.6

For the following examples, identify the verb type (intransitive or linking) and select the adverbial or adjectival form that would be appropriate in formal usage.

1. Traditionally, the dollar has looked very (**good/well**) to foreign investors.
 2. However, foreign currency has been doing (**good/well**) against the dollar.
 3. Prices for imports have risen (**quick/quickly**) since the first of the year.
 4. Julia feels (**miserable/miserably**) about the rise in the cost of gasoline.
 5. Her bank balance looks (**terrible/terribly**) at the moment.
 6. The government has been sitting by (**quiet/quietly**) during the price rises.

Type IV—The Linking Verb Type with Nominal Subject Complement

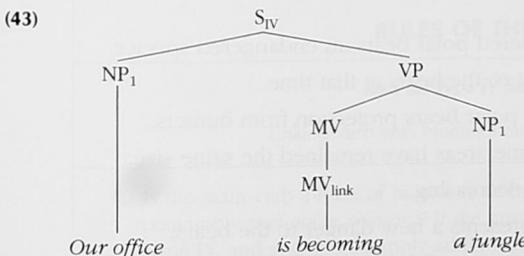
Analyze these sentences, focusing on the verbs and the phrase types in the predicates:

- (42) Those men are brutes.
 The auction was a success.
 Our office is becoming a jungle.
 My three sisters remained friends afterwards.

These sentences, like those of Type III, contain verbs that link the subject with a subject complement in the predicate, but in Type IV sentences, the linking verb is followed by a *nominal* constituent—that is, a noun phrase functioning as the subject complement. (*Nominal* means “functioning as a noun.”) The noun or noun phrase that follows a linking verb in Type IV sentences always has the same **referent** as the subject—that is, it always refers to the same person, place, or thing as the subject noun phrase. For instance, both the subject *those men* and the subject complement *brutes* have the same referent. They refer to the same people, and *brutes* describes or characterizes *those men*.

Some grammars call nominal subject complements (like *brutes*) **predicate nominatives** because in languages like Spanish and German, these nouns occur in the same case (the nominative) as the subject noun. The terms *predicate adjective* and *predicate nominative* are useful in English for distinguishing adjectival subject complements in Type III sentences from nominal subject complements in Type IV sentences.

Type IV sentences can be represented by a phrase marker in the following way:

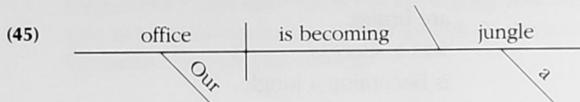


The structural formula for Type IV sentences is the following:

- (44) $S_{IV} = NP_1 + MV_{link} + NP_1$
 Our office + is becoming + a jungle.

Notice that two noun phrases occur in this pattern, one before and one following the verb. By placing the subscript ₁ on both NP symbols, we show

that they refer to the same person or thing. The Reed-Kellogg diagram for Type IV looks exactly like the one for Type III, except that in this case a noun, rather than an adjective, appears on the horizontal line following the verb:



EXERCISE 8.7

To identify noun phrases by number (subscript), divide the sentence into phrases and call the first noun phrase you encounter (the subject) NP_1 . Inspect the next noun phrase to see if it refers to the same thing as the subject. If it does, it is also NP_1 . If it names something new, it is NP_2 . Continue through the sentence, indexing each noun phrase constituent with a new number if it has a new referent or with the same number as the preceding one if it renames it.

Divide each of the following sentences into its constituent phrases and number the noun phrases consecutively, ignoring any, including those in prepositional phrases, that are part of adjective or adverb phrases. Which of the sentences contains a second NP_1 ? Does any contain an NP_2 ? Does any contain an NP_3 ? One has been done for you.

EXAMPLE

The frog became a prince before the astonished audience.

The frog [NP₁] became [MVP] a prince [NP₁] before the astonished audience [ADVP].

1. In the 1970s, scientists considered polar bears an endangered species.
2. Hunters were the major threat to the bears at that time.
3. A 1973 Oslo Agreement gave polar bears protection from hunters.
4. As a result, populations in some areas have remained the same size.
5. In other places, numbers are decreasing.
6. The shrinking polar ice cap presents a new danger to the bears.
7. Polar ice shelves provide a necessary fishing platform for the bears.
8. The loss of sea ice seriously reduces the polar bear's fishing capability.

Type IV sentences can frequently be paraphrased in terms of classification. For example, *Carlos is an outstanding student* might be expressed as *Carlos*

can be **classified as** an outstanding student. The nominal subject complement (*an outstanding student*) is the class or category into which the subject noun phrase (*Carlos*) falls.

Some of the linking verbs that occur in Type III sentences (for example, the forms of *be* and verbs such as *become*, *seem*, *remain*) also occur in the Type IV pattern. Compare the following:

- (46) a. Jan seemed a complete fool. (Type IV)
b. Jan seemed foolish. (Type III)
c. Jan seemed like a fool. (Type III)

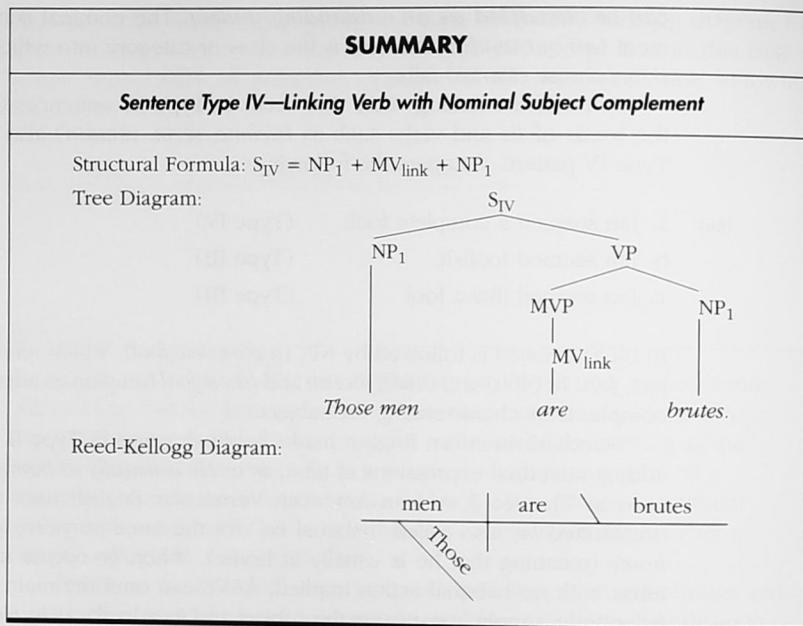
In (46a), *seemed* is followed by NP₁ (*a complete fool*), which refers to the subject, *Jan*. In (46b) and (46c), *foolish* and *like a fool* function as adjectival subject complements characterizing the subject.

Standard American English marks habitual action in Type II sentences by adding adverbial expressions of time, as in *He is usually at home*. As we have seen in Chapter 2, African American Vernacular English uses the invariant, uninflected *be*, also called “habitual *be*,” for the same purpose, as in *He be at home* (meaning that he is usually at home). When *be* occurs in the present tense with no habitual action implied, AAVE can omit the main copular verb *be* entirely, simply juxtaposing the subject and its adverb, as in *He at school*. In the same way, the linking verb *be* can be omitted in AAVE: *He all right*. Similar omissions occur in Arabic, Russian, Hungarian, and Hebrew, all of which seem to feel no need for a copular verb at all.

The Rules of Thumb in Figure 8.7 will provide you with some tests to help you recognize Type IV sentences. Also review the Summary in Figure 8.8.

RULES OF THUMB
Tests for Type IV Sentences
Linking Verb with Nominal Subject Complement
<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Is the main verb a form of <i>be</i> or one of the other linking verbs (most commonly <i>become</i> or <i>remain</i>)? If the answer is yes, the sentence may be Type IV, and you should apply additional tests.2. Is the verb followed by a noun or noun phrase that refers to the same person, place, or thing as the subject NP? If the answer is yes, then the sentence is probably Type IV.3. Can the sentence be paraphrased with <i>may be classified as</i> in place of the verb? If the answer is yes, then the sentence is probably Type IV.

Figure 8.7

**Figure 8.8****■ EXERCISE 8.8**

Draw a phrase marker and a Reed-Kellogg diagram for each of the following sentences.

- Homemade pizza for lunch was a good idea.
- The pizza stone was ready in the oven.
- The mix of cheeses became a gooey mass.
- The sweet Italian sausage tasted delicious.
- Conner's pizza was the best-looking one.
- My favorite pepperoni is from the Tuscany region.
- Suzanne's mother must be the heartiest eater in town.

■ EXERCISE 8.9

Divide each of the following sentences into its subject noun phrase and predicate verb phrase. Label the sentence constituents: noun phrases, main verb phrases, adjective phrases, and adverb phrases. Underline constituents functioning as subject complements, either nominal or adjectival. Give the structural formula for each sentence, placing optional constituents in parentheses. Not all are Type IV.

EXAMPLE

That old car is an absolute wreck.

Subject Predicate

That old car *is* *an absolute wreck*

NP *MVP* *NP*

$S_V = NP_1 \text{ [subject]} + M_V \text{ [verb]} + NP_2 \text{ [subject complement]}$

1. A trip to Paris had remained James's dream for many years.
2. His hotel was a small one near the Seine.
3. His first sightseeing goal was the Eiffel Tower at night.
4. The best view of the tower is from the steps of the Trocadero.
5. His next stop was a café on the Left Bank.
6. His small coffee was the cheapest item on the menu.
7. Hundreds of people strolled along the boulevard in front of him.
8. Watching the people was a pleasure for him.
9. He sat drowsily at his table.
10. After an hour, he wandered back to his hotel.

WHAT'S THE USAGE? *It is I* versus *It is me*

The term *predicate nominative* serves as a reminder that when a pronoun occurs as a subject complement, formal usage requires the subject case—that is, the nominative case:

- (47) It was *I* who volunteered to write the report.

The use of *It was I* illustrates a prescriptive rule that has largely disappeared in spoken standard American English. Speakers at all social levels say *It was me*, although many carry around with them vestiges of the rule, saying, for example, *This is she* on the telephone—a relatively formal situation where one is often speaking with strangers—but *I knew it was her all along* when speaking informally about a murder mystery. Handbooks on usage have generally stopped prescribing the use of the subject (nominative) pronoun in this context.

TYPE V—THE TRANSITIVE TYPE

Look at the following examples:

- | | | |
|------|---------------|-------------------------------|
| (48) | John | hit Bill. |
| | Three minnows | were nibbling her toes. |
| | Cherry pie | enlivens any meal. |
| | The man | had bought a cake for dinner. |

These prototypical Type V sentences are different from each of the preceding four types that we have studied. As an introduction to transitive verbs, answer the questions in the following exercise.

■ EXERCISE 8.10

As we have seen, intransitive verbs in Type I sentences require no complements. Linking verbs in Type II, III, and IV sentences have complements that refer in some way to the subject of the sentence. These four verb types contrast with transitive verbs (Type V) in ways illustrated by the following sentences. Compare the verb complements in all five types and answer the questions about them.

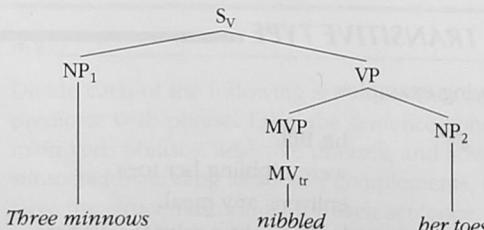
- Jenny purred. (intransitive verb, Type I)
 - Our neighbor's pet is outdoors constantly. (Linking verb, Type II)
 - The tomcat seemed very friendly. (Linking verb, Type III)
 - The smallest kitten became a family member. (Linking verb, Type IV)
 - Our neighbor's dog chased the cat outdoors. (Transitive verb, Type V)
- What is true of Type I main verbs that is not true of Type V?
 - What is the difference between the role *outdoors* plays in (b) and (e) above?
 - How do Type III verb complements differ from those of Type V?
 - What is the difference between the role of the second noun phrase in (d) and (e) above?
 - What is the distinguishing feature of Type V sentences?

Transitive verbs require a noun phrase complement that refers to something or someone other than that to which the subject noun phrase refers. None of the other sentence types have this characteristic.

The second noun phrase (NP_2) in Type V sentences functions as a **direct object**. Verbs like *hit* and *nibbled* that are followed by noun phrases like *Bill* and *her toes* functioning as direct objects are called **transitive verbs**, from which Type V sentences derive their name.

The structure of sentences containing transitive verbs can be represented by the phrase marker that follows:

(49)

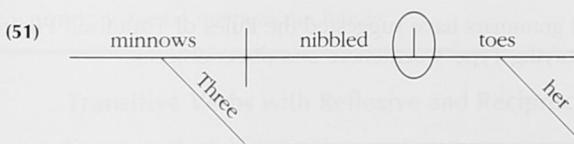


The structural formula for Type V sentences is the following:

- (50) $S_V = NP_1 + MV_{tr} + NP_2$
 Cherry pie + enlivens + any meal.

Transitive verbs, such as *nibbled* and *enlivens*, are represented by the symbol *MV* with the subscript _{tr} for *transitive*. Notice that the first NP—*three minnows* in (49) and *cherry pie* in (50)—which functions as the subject of the sentence, is identified in the phrase marker and in the formula with a subscript ₁ to distinguish it from the second NP—*her toes* and *any meal* in the same examples. The second NP functions as the direct object and is labeled with a subscript ₂. The different subscripts mean that the first NP and the second NP have separate referents—that is, they name different persons, places, or things. If, in a position directly following the verb, a sentence contains a second noun phrase with a referent different from that of the subject noun phrase, you can be sure that the verb is transitive.

The Reed-Kellogg diagram for Type V sentences involves another convention, a vertical line following the verb that comes just to, but does not cross, the horizontal:



In counting noun phrases, label only those that are sentence constituents. What seems to be an NP_2 might be the object of a preposition, as in this example:

- (52) *Fred* [NP₁] fell on *his head*.

His head is not functioning as the direct object of *fell*; rather, it is the object of the preposition *on*. The verb *fell* is intransitive, not transitive, and this is a Type I sentence followed by an optional adverb phrase (*on his head*).

If a predicate contains more than two noun phrases, the second noun phrase may or may not be a direct object. For example, (53) has three noun phrases with three different referents:

- (53) *Ms. Clark* [NP₁] gave *Evy* [NP₂] *the essay assignment* [NP₃].

In (53), NP₃, *the essay assignment*, is the direct object of the transitive verb *gave*. The noun phrase *Evy* is functioning as an **indirect object**, a structure we discuss in Chapter 9. If a sentence contains only two noun phrases—the second of which (a) immediately follows the verb and (b) has a referent different from the subject noun phrase—you are safe in analyzing it as a direct object.

RULES OF THUMB
Tests for Type V Sentences
Transitive Verb
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Are the subject NP the actor, the verb an action, and the object NP the “receiver” of the action? If the answer is yes (as in <i>John hit Bill</i>, where <i>bitting</i> is an action, <i>John</i> performs the action, and <i>Bill</i> receives the action), then the sentence is probably Type V. 2. To find the direct object, ask <i>who?</i> or <i>what?</i> after the subject noun phrase and verb: <i>John saw who/what?</i> If the answer does not rename the subject, it should be the direct object.

Figure 8.9

Further analysis is required to identify direct object noun phrases in other contexts. We will discuss multiple object noun phrases in more detail in the following text.

Traditional grammars have suggested the Rules of Thumb in Figure 8.9 to help with identifying Type V sentences and direct objects.

■ EXERCISE 8.11

Divide each of the following sentences into its subject noun phrase and predicate verb phrase. Label the sentence constituents: noun phrases, main verb phrases, adjective phrases, and adverb phrases. Identify the sentence type, and underline constituents functioning as direct objects.

EXAMPLE

Tourists in Yellowstone Park occasionally see grizzly bears near campsites.

Subject	Predicate			
<i>Tourists in Yellowstone Park</i>	<i>see</i>	<u><i>grizzly bears</i></u>	<i>occasionally</i>	<i>near campsites</i>
<i>NP</i>	<i>MVP</i>	<i>NP</i>	<i>ADVP</i>	<i>ADVP</i>
$S_V = NP_1 + MVP_{tr} + NP_2 \text{ [direct object]} + (ADVP)$				

1. Buddy is a slobbery, reddish brown bulldog.
2. He usually sleeps on his back with his tongue hanging out of his mouth.
3. His owners entered Buddy in a “Beautiful Bulldog” contest.
4. The contest honored the bulldog mascot of Drake University.
5. Fifty bulldogs from the Midwest participated in the contest.
6. One of the bulldogs had bright red toenails.

7. She wore a bikini top with a grass skirt.
8. Bulldogs may be the ugliest dogs in the world.
9. The judges awarded the “Beautiful Bulldog” first prize to Buddy.
10. Part of his prize was a ride in a golf cart before 18,000 spectators.

■ EXERCISE 8.12

Draw a phrase marker and a Reed-Kellogg diagram for each of the following sentences, numbering the noun phrases in each tree.

1. A heavy rain pelted the countryside with watery fury.
2. The river was already rising swiftly.
3. Barbara collected her most valuable possessions.
4. The family put their most important belongings into the car.
5. The heavy cloud cover looked ominous.
6. Everyone waited quietly near the front door.
7. Joey heard the warning signal first.
8. The warning was sad news to the family.

Transitive Verbs with Reflexive and Reciprocal Direct Objects

Compare the following two sentences:

- (54) a. Elmer cut *the apple* with a Swiss Army knife.
 b. Elmer cut *himself* with a Swiss Army knife.

The first example is easy to identify as a Type V sentence containing a transitive verb, but what about the second? If we assign subscripts to the noun phrases, is *himself* in (54b) NP₁ or NP₂? It clearly refers to the same person as the subject, but *cut* is a transitive verb in both instances. The form of the pronoun that ordinarily should occur in the direct object position is *him*, as in *The knife cut him*.

The **reflexive pronoun** *himself* signals that this is an *exceptional* instance of a direct object that refers back to the subject. We understand the meaning and structure of this sentence by analyzing it in terms of the prototype transitive sentences: *Himself*, even though it renames the subject, occupies the NP₂ position of the direct object of a transitive verb. Other reflexive pronouns that can function as direct objects in this same way are *myself*, *yourself*, *herself*, *itself*, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, and *themselves*.

Another case in which the direct object may have the same referent as the subject is exemplified in the following sentences:

- (55) The doctors respected *each other*.
 My friends and I phone *one another* regularly.

The **reciprocal pronouns** *each other* and *one another* function much like the reflexive pronouns to signal a direct object relationship to the verb, referring back to plural subjects that have the same referents.

Transitive Verbs with Object Complements

A few transitive verbs allow their direct objects to be followed by an **object complement**. To understand the nature of object complementation, try the following exercise.

EXERCISE 8.13

Complete each of the following sentences by adding at the end an adjective phrase or noun phrase that refers to NP₂ and seems necessary to complete the sentence. Be sure that the phrase you supply refers to NP₂ and not to the main verb. Then identify the phrase you have supplied as NP or ADJP.

EXAMPLE

Cheryl considered Carl's bean soup salty. (ADJP)

1. The judges named George _____.
2. They found his Texas Hot Ribs _____.
3. Most Texans like their ribs _____.
4. George's ribs drove most of the people _____.
5. However, hot ribs make me _____.
6. I prefer my ribs _____.
7. Everyone calls me _____.

The examples in (56) illustrate two kinds of object complements.

- (56) The students elected *Mary* [direct object] *president* [object complement].
Wool socks will keep *your feet* [direct object] *very warm* [object complement].

In these two sentences, object complements follow and complete the sense of the direct objects *Mary* and *your feet*. Object complements may be nominal, like the noun phrase *president*, or adjectival, like the adjective phrase *very warm*. In sentences like these, the object complement contains the meaning *Mary was president* and *your feet will be very warm*. Other transitive verbs—such as *consider*, *find*, *have*, *like*, *prefer*, *think*, *appoint*, *call*, *name*, *declare*, *get*, *make*, and *want*—allow their direct objects to be followed by a descriptive object complement.

These are all transitive verbs and are followed by a direct object (an NP₂). When an object complement occurs, the pattern of the predicate is one of those given in the following text:

- (57) a. $MV_{tr} + NP_2 + NP_2$
 b. $MV_{tr} + NP_2 + ADJP$

If the object complement is a nominal, its referent is the direct object (much as the predicate nominative refers back to the subject in Type III sentences). Since it has the same referent as the direct object, it, too, is NP_2 , as in (57a). If the object complement is an adjective, then the pattern is that given in (57b).

One way of visualizing the relationship between direct objects and their complements is to express the relationship between them in terms of linking verbs. For example, it is possible to paraphrase the relationship between the direct object and the object complements in the two sentences in (58):

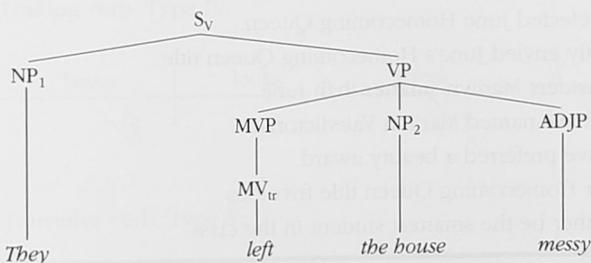
- (58) They left *the house* (NP_2) *messy* ($ADJP$).
 They left *the house* (NP_2) *a complete mess* (NP_2).

by using the linking verb *be* in (59):

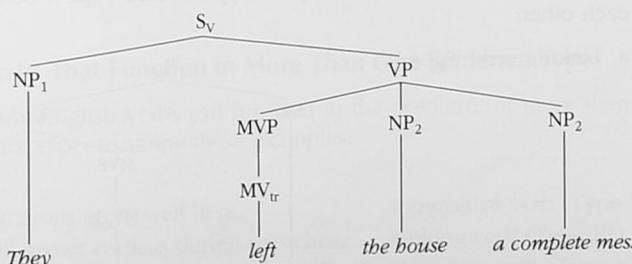
- (59) *The house* (NP_1) was *messy* ($ADJP$). (Type III)
 The house (NP_1) was *a complete mess* (NP_1). (Type IV)

Tree diagrams of the sentences in (58) may help you visualize the relationships between the direct object *the house* and its complements *messy* in (60a) and *a complete mess* in (60b):

- (60) a. Adjectival Object Complement

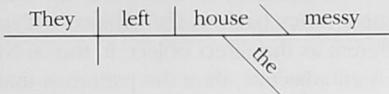


- b. Nominal Object Complement

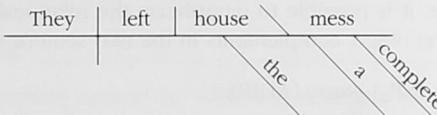


Reed-Kellogg diagrams of object complements separate the direct object and the object complement with a line slanting back toward the direct object, as in (61):

- (61) a. Adjectival Object Complement



- b. Nominal Object Complement



EXERCISE 8.14

Identify any object complements in the following sentences, and decide whether they are functioning adjectivally or nominally. It may help you to identify the object complements if you try inserting the phrase *to be* between the direct object (the NP2) and what you think is an object complement:

EXAMPLE

The judges declared the Hollyfield High team the winners.

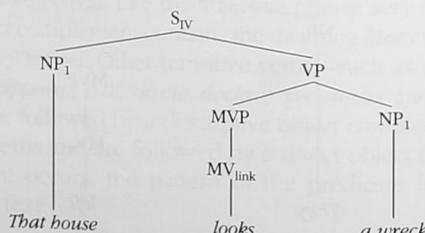
The judges declared the Hollyfield High team [direct object] (to be) the winners [nominal object complement].

1. The students elected June Homecoming Queen.
2. Marilyn secretly envied June's Homecoming Queen title.
3. Everyone considers Marilyn smarter than June.
4. The teachers have named Marilyn Valedictorian.
5. She would have preferred a beauty award.
6. June finds her Homecoming Queen title frivolous.
7. She would rather be the smartest student in the class.

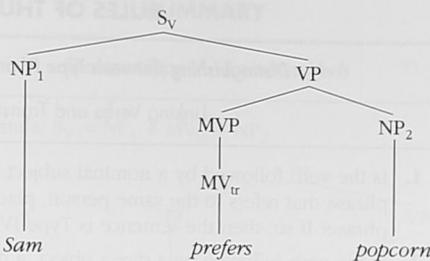
Distinguishing Between Transitive and Linking Verb Sentence Types

Notice how the trees of prototypical Type IV and Type V sentences resemble each other:

- (62) a. Linking verb, Type IV:



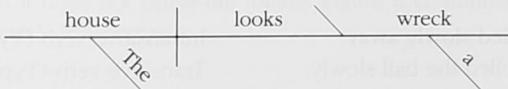
b. Transitive verb, Type V:



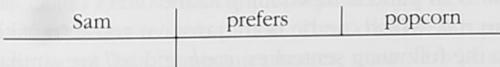
The most easily recognized feature that distinguishes them is the fact that after a linking verb (62a) in Type IV sentences, the two noun phrases have the same referent (both are symbolized with NP_1), whereas after a transitive verb (62b) in Type V sentences, the noun phrases have different referents (as is reflected in the different subscripts on the NP symbols).

Reed-Kellogg diagrams provide a visual reminder of the differences between linking verbs (Type IV) and transitive verbs (Type V) (see also Figure 8.10). The diagonal line used in the diagram of linking verb predicates slants back toward the subject, which the nominal subject complement renames in (63a). In contrast, the vertical line in the diagram of transitive verb predicates separates the direct object, with its own referent, from what has come before in (63b):

(63) a. Linking verb, Type IV:



b. Transitive verb, Type V:

**Verbs That Function in More Than One Sentence Type**

Many English verbs can function in the predicate of more than a single sentence type. Examine these examples.

- | | | |
|------|--------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| (64) | Tomatoes grow well here. | Intransitive verb (Type I) |
| | Will grows restless during speeches. | Linking verb (Type III) |
| | Our neighbors grow tomatoes. | Transitive verb (Type V) |

RULES OF THUMB
Distinguishing Between Type IV and Type V Sentences
Linking Verbs and Transitive Verbs
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Is the verb followed by a nominal subject complement, that is, a noun phrase that refers to the same person, place, or thing as the subject noun phrase? If so, then the sentence is Type IV. 2. Is the verb followed by a direct object, a noun phrase that has a referent different from that of the subject noun phrase? If so, the sentence is Type V.

Figure 8.10

The examples in (64) illustrate three uses of the verb *grow*. The transitive and intransitive versions draw on the literal meaning of the verb. As a linking verb, it is used figuratively and means “to become.”

- (65) Josh goes to Paris in June. Intransitive verb (Type I)
 Josh goes slightly crazy in July. Linking verb (Type III)
 Then Lucy goes, “I don’t think so.” Transitive verb (Type V)

Here *go* refers to the act of traveling in the intransitive sentence. As a linking verb, it is used metaphorically and means “to become.” As a transitive, it means “says.” The differences between intransitive and transitive uses of a verb do not necessarily involve a difference of meaning, however. Contrast these examples:

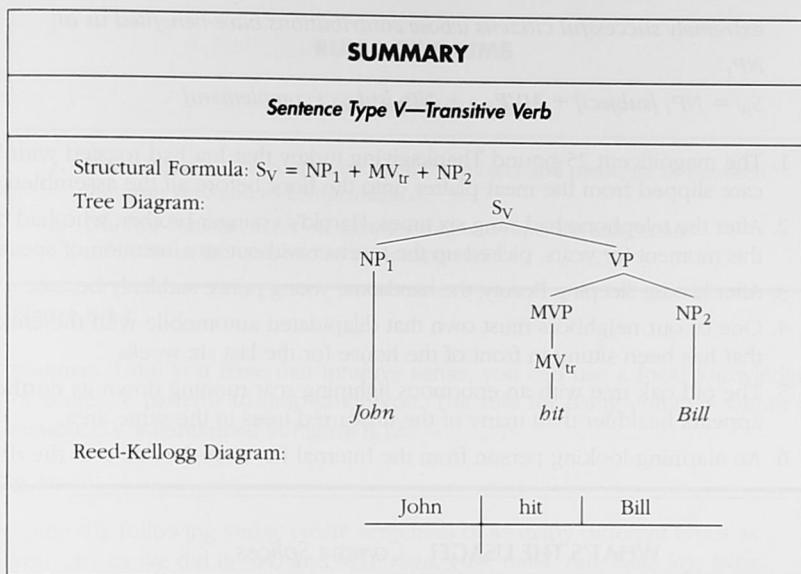
- (66) The ball rolled slowly away. Intransitive verb (Type I)
 The child rolled the ball slowly. Transitive verb (Type V)

In the first sentence, the verb is used intransitively. *The ball* is the subject, and there is no other noun phrase. In the second sentence, the noun phrase *the ball* follows the verb and has a referent different from the subject noun phrase, *the child*. *The ball* is NP₂ and is functioning as the direct object of *rolled*.

Verbs like *roll*, which can be both transitive and intransitive, are common in English. In the following sentences, *cook* and *sell* are similar examples. You will be able to think of others.

- (67) Tony is cooking the beans.
 The beans are cooking.
 Shelly sells Buicks.
 The Buicks are selling rapidly.

A characteristic of these contrasting usages is that when such verbs are used transitively in Type V sentences, their subjects are typically *agents*, actors that

**Figure 8.11**

cause the action represented by the verb. Thus, for example, the child *causes* the ball to roll, Tony *causes* the beans to cook, and so on. Used transitively, the same verbs have subjects that are not agents. Instead of acting or causing the action of cooking, the beans simply undergo the cooking process; the ball rolls, but it does not cause the rolling. Figure 8.11 summarizes the characteristics of Type V sentences.

■ EXERCISE 8.15

The sentences in this exercise include some sentence constituents that are longer and more complex than those that occurred in our prototype examples. In each sentence, first separate and label the subject noun phrase and the predicate verb phrase. Then divide each predicate into its main constituents, labeling noun phrases, main verb phrases, adjective phrases, and adverb phrases. Give the structural formula for each sentence.

EXAMPLE

Many of this country's poorest immigrants have become extremely successful citizens whose contributions to the nation have benefited us all.

Subject

Many of this country's poorest immigrants
NP₁

Predicate

have become
MVP

extremely successful citizens whose contributions have benefited us all.

NP_1

$$S_{IV} = NP_1 \text{ [subject]} + MVP_{link} + NP_1 \text{ [subject complement]}$$

1. The magnificent 25-pound Thanksgiving turkey that Ina had roasted with loving care slipped from the meat platter onto the floor before all the assembled guests.
2. After the telephone had rung six times, Harold's younger brother, who had dreamed of this moment for years, picked up the receiver without any intention of speaking into it.
3. After kissing Sleeping Beauty, the handsome young prince suddenly became a toad again.
4. One of our neighbors must own that dilapidated automobile with the crushed roof that has been sitting in front of the house for the last six weeks.
5. The old oak tree with an enormous lightning scar running down its northern side appears healthier than many of the unscarred trees in the same area.
6. An alarming-looking person from the Internal Revenue Service is at the door.

WHAT'S THE USAGE? *Comma Splices*

Although we are not conscious of sentence patterns as we use language, we expect subjects to come first, verbs to come second, complements to come third, and optional modifiers to come last. In interpreting what other people say or write, we use this expectation as a guide in assigning meaning to each segment of an utterance. If something occurs that interferes with that expectation, we usually mark it in some way to call attention to its irrelevance to the sentence pattern. Say the following out loud:

- (68) a. Yes is not a suitable answer.
b. Yes, the ground is dry.

Notice that you paused after the *yes* in (68b), calling attention to the fact that it is not the anticipated subject. Commas (and pauses) are used to separate any phrases that are not part of the sentence pattern.

In writing, a single comma can mark off extra material that comes at the beginning or at the end of the sentence. (Example: *Without a moment's hesitation, the manager began cleaning up the spilled catsup.*) Within the sentence, however, commas must mark both the beginning and end of information that interrupts the subject-verb-complement pattern, signaling that what follows is neither subject, main verb phrase, nor complement. (Example: *Our whole class, with the possible exception of the nerd who sits in the front, surely failed the midterm.*) A lone comma that interrupts the sequence is traditionally called a **comma splice** (or **comma fault**). (Example: **Our whole class with a single exception, failed the midterm.*)

In speech, your tacit knowledge of sentence patterns is obvious in your intuitive use of pauses to mark off unnecessary information. People who read and write a great deal acquire that same intuitive sense of where to use

RULES OF THUMB
Avoiding Comma Faults
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Never insert a lone comma between the subject and predicate or between the main verb and its complement(s). 2. Use two commas to set off anything that interrupts the subject and predicate or the verb and its complement(s).

Figure 8.12

commas. Until you have that intuitive sense, you can use a focal knowledge of sentence patterns to help guide you. The rule for using commas within a sentence is summarized in Figure 8.12.

EXERCISE 8.16

Using the following verbs, create sentences of as many different types as you can, as we did in (64) and (65): *read, give, smell, roll, look, lay, turn*.

SUMMARY

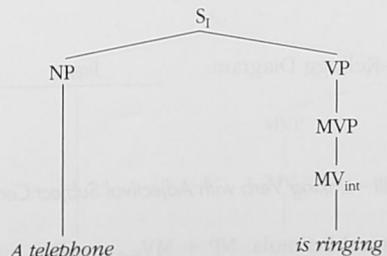
Simple English sentences have four basic positions that define their structure: the subject position, the main verb position, the position filled by a required object or complement, and the position that can be filled by one or more adverbial modifiers. Figure 8.13 differentiates five types of English sentences in terms of the constituents that occupy each of these four positions in prototype sentences. (The \emptyset in position 3 of sentence Type I is called a *null*; it indicates that this position is empty in sentences containing intransitive verbs.)

The Five Basic Sentence Types

Type I—Intransitive Verb

Structural Formula: NP + MV_{int} + (ADVP)

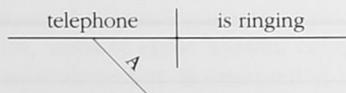
Phrase Marker:



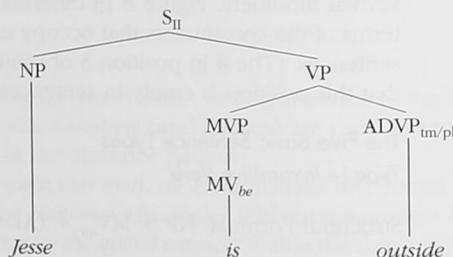
SUMMARY				
Five Basic English Sentence Types				
Type	Position			
Type	1	2	3	4
I	NP	MV _{int}	Ø	(ADVP)
II	NP	MV _{be}	ADVP _{tm/pl}	(ADVP)
III	NP	MV _{link}	ADJP	(ADVP)
IV	NP ₁	MV _{link}	NP ₁	(ADVP)
V	NP ₁	MV _{tr}	NP ₂	(ADVP)

Figure 8.13

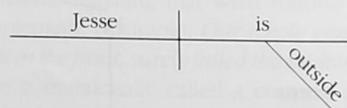
Reed-Kellogg Diagram:

*Type II—Linking Verb Be with Adverbial of Time or Place*Structural Formula: NP + MV_{be} + ADVP_{tm/pl}

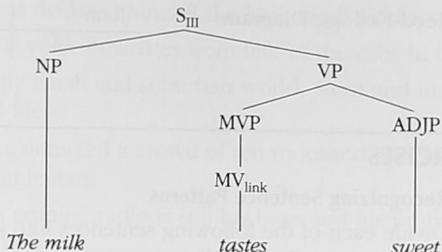
Phrase Marker:



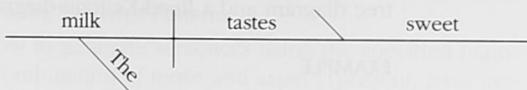
Reed-Kellogg Diagram:

*Type III—Linking Verb with Adjectival Subject Complement*Structural Formula: NP + MV_{link} + ADJP

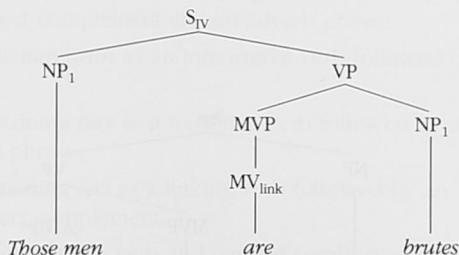
Phrase Marker:



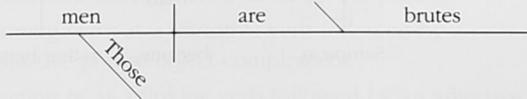
Reed-Kellogg Diagram:

**Type IV—Linking Verb with Nominal Subject Complement**Structural Formula: $NP_1 + MV_{link} + NP_1$

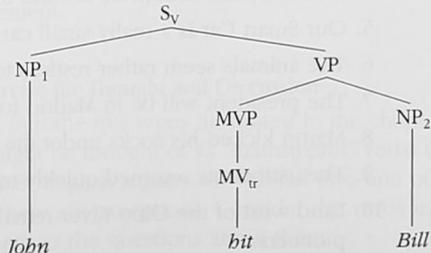
Phrase Marker:



Reed-Kellogg Diagram:

**Type V—Transitive Verb**Structural Formula: $NP_1 + MV_{tr} + NP_2$

Phrase Marker:





REVIEW EXERCISES

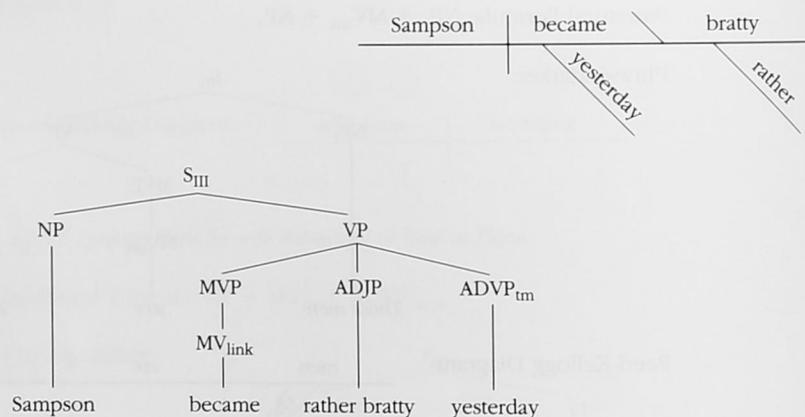
Recognizing Sentence Patterns

Divide each of the following sentences into its constituents and give the structural formula of each. Then represent the structure of each sentence using a tree diagram and a Reed-Kellogg diagram. An example has been done for you.

EXAMPLE

Sampson became rather bratty yesterday.

$S_{III} = NP_1 \text{ [subject]} + MV P_{link} + ADJP \text{ [subject complement]}$



1. The new movie theater looks rather impressive.
2. A hummingbird must eat constantly.
3. The wildfires burned many expensive homes.
4. A country inn should be around the next bend.
5. Our Smart Car is a really small car.
6. The animals seem rather restless today.
7. The president will be in Madrid for two days.
8. Martin kicked his socks under the bed.
9. The astronauts returned quickly to their craft.
10. Land west of the Ohio River remained unknown territory to the early pioneers.

11. Howard Stern has declared himself the king of all media.
12. In New York, his voice emanates from half of the cabs in town.
13. In an increasingly harsh and suburban world, Stern and his cast members provide a social life.
14. His book signing attracted a crowd of ten thousand people to a Barnes and Noble in Manhattan.
15. In Stern's media empire, radio is still his base and his profit center.

Practical Applications: Creating Sentence Patterns

Follow the directions below to generate sentences using the specified main verbs. You may use any combination of tense and aspect (present, past, perfect, or progressive), and you may use additional adverb phrases if you want.

1. Write a sentence containing *be* as a linking (copular) verb followed by an adverb phrase of place.
2. Write a sentence containing *sound* as a linking verb followed by an adjective phrase subject complement and an adverb phrase.
3. Write a sentence containing *run* as an intransitive verb followed by an adverb phrase.
4. Write a sentence containing *buy* as a transitive verb followed by a direct object and an adverb phrase.
5. Write a sentence containing *feel* as a linking verb followed by an adjective phrase subject complement.
6. Write a sentence containing the verb and particle combination *look up* as a transitive verb followed by a direct object and an adverb phrase.
7. Write a sentence containing *leave* as a transitive verb followed by a direct object and an adjective phrase object complement.
8. Write a sentence containing *be* as a linking verb followed by an adjective phrase subject complement.
9. Write a sentence containing *declare* as a transitive verb followed by a direct object and a noun phrase object complement.
10. Write a sentence containing *be* as a linking verb followed by a noun phrase subject complement.

Other Verb Types—An Exercise for Thought and Discussion

Our classification of verbs into the five types illustrated in the chapter is a conventional one. What might be thought of as "mainstream" verbs (those that appear in the majority of English sentences) will fall into one of these five categories. However, there are exceptions. Consider the verbs in the following sentences and answer the questions about them.

- Do the italicized phrases in the following sentences contain helping verbs or real verbs? If helping verbs, are they modals? If real verbs, are they transitive or intransitive?

I *used* to live in Chicago.

You *ought* to live in Chicago.

We are *going* to live in Chicago.

They *have* to visit Chicago soon.

- Are the following verbs intransitive or is there an assumed direct object?

Sue always *eats* slowly.

Someone else is *cooking* tonight.

Our designated driver isn't *drinking* tonight.

- Can you think of other reciprocal verbs like the following? Are both verbs transitive?

Jacques and Gillian *shook* hands.

Jacques and Gillian *ugged*.

- Can you think of other verbs that do not neatly fit one of the five patterns?

KEY TERMS

adverb phrase of manner
adverb phrase of place
adverb phrase of time
adverbial complement
adverbial modifier
comma splice (fault)
complement
direct object
indirect object
intransitive verb
linking (copular) verb
modifier
noun phrase

object complement
predicate
predicate adjective
predicate nominative
reciprocal pronoun
referent
reflexive pronoun
structural formula
subject
subject complement
transitive verb
verb phrase