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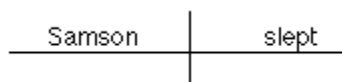
## Sample Diagrams

### 1) Simple Subject and Verb Constructions

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All sentences consist of at least one subject and one verb. The two-word sentence below is an example of a “simple” sentence. The diagram shows the subject “Samson” on the left side and the verb “slept” on the right. Notice that the vertical line that separates the subject and the verb *always pierces the base line*.

Samson slept.

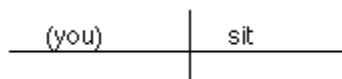


### 2) Understood Subjects (for Commands)

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Sentences in the “command” form (also known as the imperative “mood”) appear to have no subject. In fact, there is a subject, but it is hidden. In the example sentence below, the hidden subject is “you,” and we say that it is “understood.”

Sit!



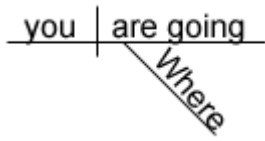
### 3) Questions

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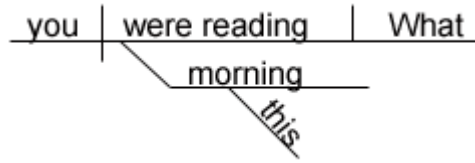
Questions often use special “question words,” such as *where*, *what*, *when*, *why* and *how*. Some of these words function like adverbs, some like adjectives, and others like nouns.

Most other questions use “helping” verbs, also called “auxiliary” verbs.

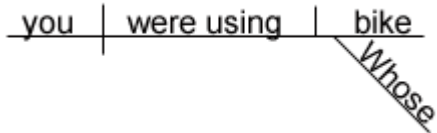
**Where** are you going?



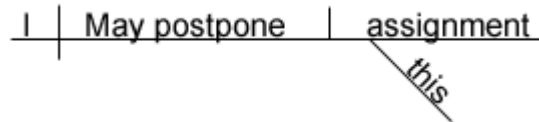
**What** were you reading this morning?



**Whose** bike were you using?



**May** I postpone this assignment?

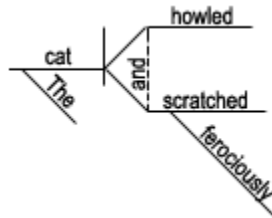


## 4) Compound Verbs

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Sentences often have more than one verb. Such verbs are called “compound” verbs. In the example sentence below, both “howled” and “scratched” are verbs.

The cat **howled and scratched** ferociously.

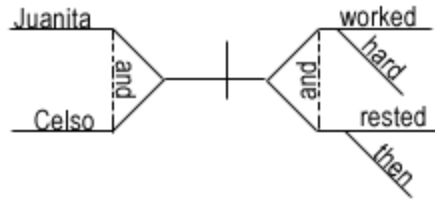


## 5) Compound Subjects and Compound Verbs

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Sentences can have both compound subjects and compounds verbs. In the example sentence below, “Juanita and Celso” is a compound subject, and “worked and rested” is a compound verb.

**Juanita and Celso worked hard and then rested.**

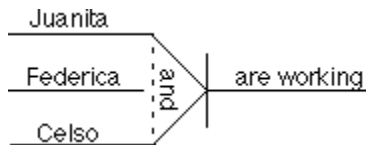


## 6) Three or More Subjects

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Sentences can, of course, have multiple subjects. The example below shows how such sentences are diagrammed.

**Juanita, Federica, and Celso** are working.

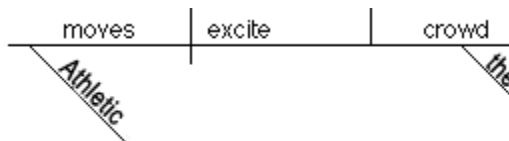


## 7) Adjectives

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Adjectives are words that modify nouns. They usually answer the questions: “What kind of?” and “How many?” or “How much?” In the sentence below, “athletic” explains *what kind of* “moves,” and “the” (a special kind of adjective, also known as an “article”) describes the crowd. When diagramming adjectives, make sure to write them on slanted lines that fall beneath the nouns they modify.

**Athletic** moves excite the crowd.

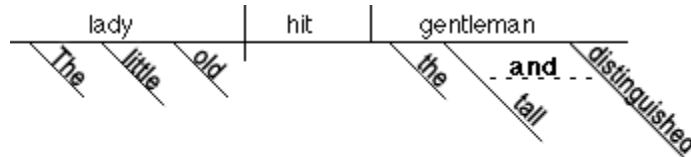


## 8) Compound Adjectives

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Sentences can also have compound adjectives. The example below shows how such sentences are diagrammed.

**The little old** lady hit **the tall and distinguished** gentleman.

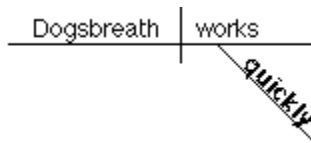


## 9) Adverbs

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Adverbs are words that modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. They usually explain *how*, *where*, *when*, *why*, or *how often*. In the example sentence below, the adverb “quickly” explains *how* dogsbreath “works,” so it modifies the verb. Just as in the case of adjectives, adverbs are also written on slanted lines underneath the words they modify.

Dogsbreath works **quickly**.

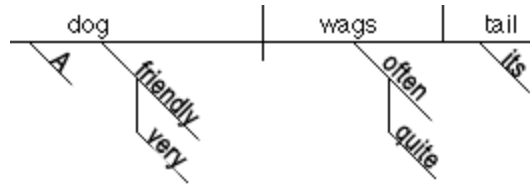


## 10) Adverbs Modifying Adjectives and Other Adverbs

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The example sentence below shows the adverb “very” modifying the adjective “friendly.” It answers the question, “*How* friendly? The sentence also shows the adverb “quite” modifying the adverb “often.” It explains *how* often.

A **very friendly** dog wags its tail **quite often**.

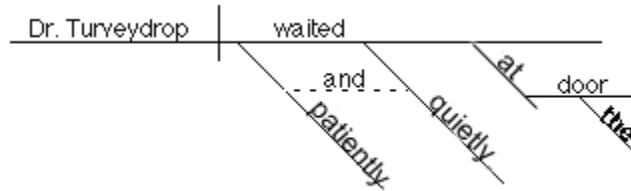


## 11) Compound Adverbs

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Just as with other parts of speech, adverbs can also be compound. Compound adverbs are diagrammed as shown below. Note the dotted lines that connect the compound adverbs.

Dr. Turveydrop waited **patiently and quietly** at the door.



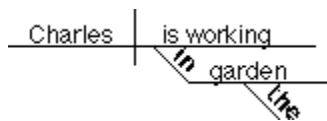
## 12) Prepositional Phrases

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Prepositional phrases are groups of words that consist of a preposition followed by at least one object noun or pronoun. Prepositional phrases may also contain other words (such as adjectives and articles) that modify the attached noun(s) or pronoun(s). All true prepositions are followed by nouns. You should take time to memorize the most common prepositions. A few examples are: *in, of, for, from, through, among, over, to, since, under, and on*.

Prepositions can be both adverbial (i.e., modifying verbs) and adjectival (i.e., modifying nouns). In the example below, the prepositional phrase “in the garden” tells us *where* Charles is *working*, so it modifies the verb. Write the preposition on the slanted line that falls beneath the word being modified and write the object noun on the horizontal line that is attached to it.

Charles is working **in the garden**.

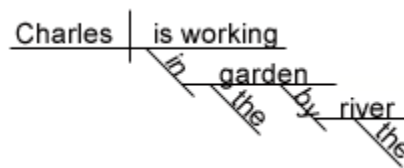


## 13) Prepositional Phrases Modifying Other Prepositional Phrases

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As stated above, prepositional phrases can also be adjectival (i.e., modifying nouns). In the example below, the prepositional phrase “by the river” describes the “garden,” so it is placed under the word “garden.”

Charles is working **in the garden by the river.**

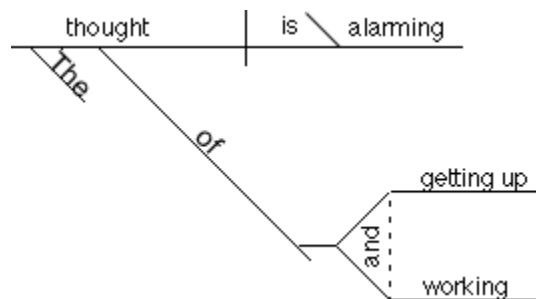


## 14) Prepositions with Compound Objects

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Prepositions can also have compound or multiple objects. In the prepositional phrase “of getting up and working,” “getting up” and “working” are objects of the preposition “of.” The prepositional phrase is adjectival. It explains *what kind of* “thought.”

The thought **of getting up and working** is alarming.



## 15) Direct Objects

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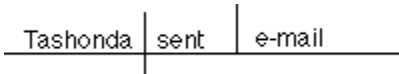
Direct objects are nouns that “receive” the action of verbs. They answer questions such as the following: “What” did someone *eat* or *drink* or *send* or *read* or *bake* etc. (Notice that all



of these verbs can receive action. They are called “transitive” verbs. Verbs that cannot receive action are called “intransitive” verbs. This idea is easy to understand. You can *eat* something or *drink* something or *send* something, but you cannot *walk* something or *happen* something or *sleep* something.

The following example shows how sentences with direct objects are diagrammed. Notice that a vertical line comes after the verb but does not pierce the base line. The direct object follows this vertical line.

Tashonda sent **e-mail**.

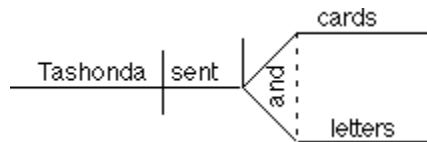


## 16) Compound Direct Objects

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Verbs can also take compound direct objects. The example below shows how such sentences are diagrammed.

Tashonda sent **cards and letters**.

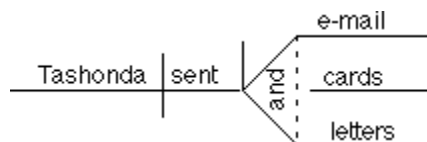


## 17) Three or More Direct Objects

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Multiple direct objects are diagrammed as seen below.

Tashonda sent **e-mail, cards, and letters**.

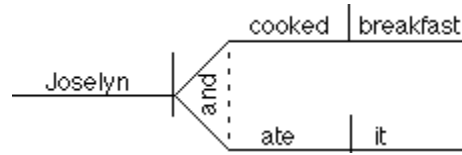


## 18) Compound Verbs with Direct Objects

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Sometimes it is possible for a sentence to contain both compound verbs and compound objects. Such sentences are diagrammed as seen below.

Joselyn **cooked breakfast** and **ate it**.



## 19) Compound Verbs with One Direct Object

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If more than one verb shares the same direct object, the diagram is written as seen below.

Samantha **proofreads and edits her essays**.



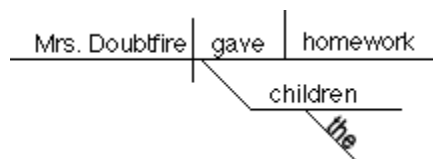
## 20) Indirect Objects

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Indirect objects are not commonly found in languages other than English. They explain *to* whom or *for* whom, but they are missing the prepositions “to” and “for.” They come immediately after the verb in the position that is usually held by direct objects. Sentences with indirect objects can usually be rewritten to include the missing preposition simply by putting the direct object in its usual position. For example, in the sentence, “Mrs. Doubtfire gave the children homework,” we can also say, “Mrs. Doubtfire gave homework *to* the children.”

Indirect objects are diagrammed in the same way that prepositional phrases are.

Mrs. Doubtfire gave **the children** homework.

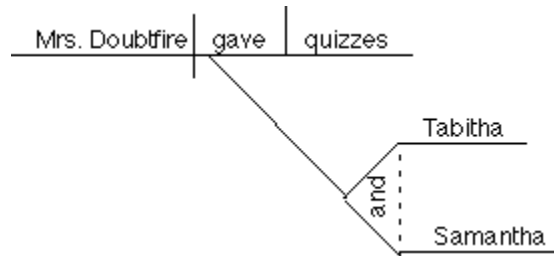


## 21) Compound Indirect Objects

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Sentences can also contain compound or multiple indirect objects. Such sentences are diagrammed as seen below.

Mrs. Doubtfire gave **Tabitha and Samantha** quizzes.

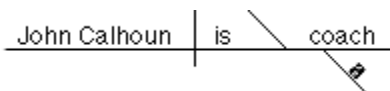


## 22) Predicate Nouns and Predicate Adjectives

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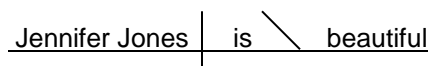
Predicate adjectives and predicate nouns (also known as predicate nominatives) are nouns or adjectives that follow the “be-verb” or other linking verbs, such as “feel” and “seem.” Notice that the noun or adjective that follows the verb is written after a *slanted* line. Be careful not to confuse this with the vertical line that indicates a direct object.

John Calhoun is a **coach**.



**Another Example:**

Jennifer Jones is **beautiful**.



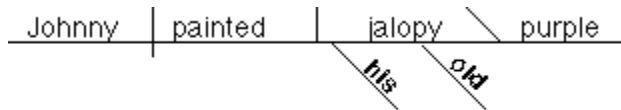
## 23) Objective Complements

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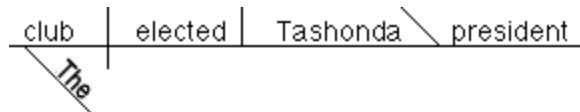
Objective complements are nouns or adjectives that “complement” an object noun. They often sound like adverbs, but they are a little different. In the sentence below, the “jalopy” is the *thing/object* that Johnny *ainted*, so it is a direct object of the verb “painted.” “Purple” is not *how* he painted it but *what* he painted it, so it complements the object “jalopy.” It is, therefore, called an objective complement.

An objective complement is written after a slanted line that follows the direct object.

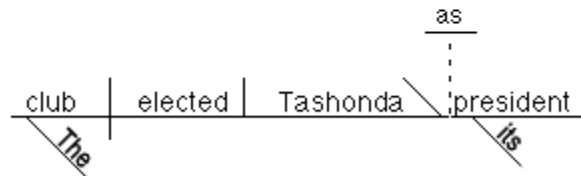
Johnny painted his old jalopy purple.



The club elected Tashonda president.  
 The club elected Tashonda as its president.  
 (with "as" as expletive)



**OR**



## 24) Nouns of Direct Address

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Nouns of direct address are nouns (often names) that are used in speech in order to get someone’s attention. Since they are not true subjects, they “float” above the subject noun in a diagram. Notice that the true subject in the example sentence below is “you,” which is understood but not stated.

**Heitor**, address the class now.

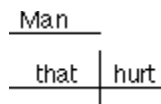


## 25) Interjections

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Interjections are words that express emotion or reaction. They can stand alone to form one-word sentences, or they can be inserted in regular sentences where they are set off by commas. They are diagrammed in the same way as nouns of direct address.

**Man**, that hurt!



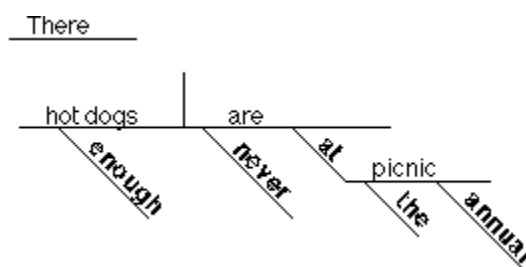
## 26) Expletive Constructions (There is/are)

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As in the sentence seen below, English often makes use of expletive constructions. In these constructions, the word “there” has no actual meaning. The expression refers to the existence (or nonexistence) of something. It has nothing to do with the idea of place.

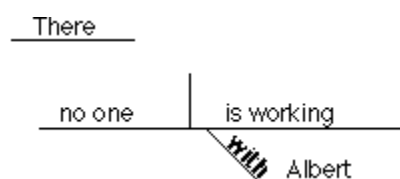
Since the word there has no real meaning in such sentences, it is often written in a diagram as if it were “floating” above the subject. (Another diagramming alternative is to write the word as an adverb modifying the “be-verb.”)

**There are never enough hot dogs at the annual picnic.**



**Another Example:**

**There is no one working with Albert.**

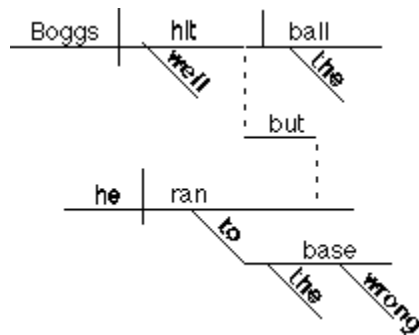


## 27) Compound Sentences

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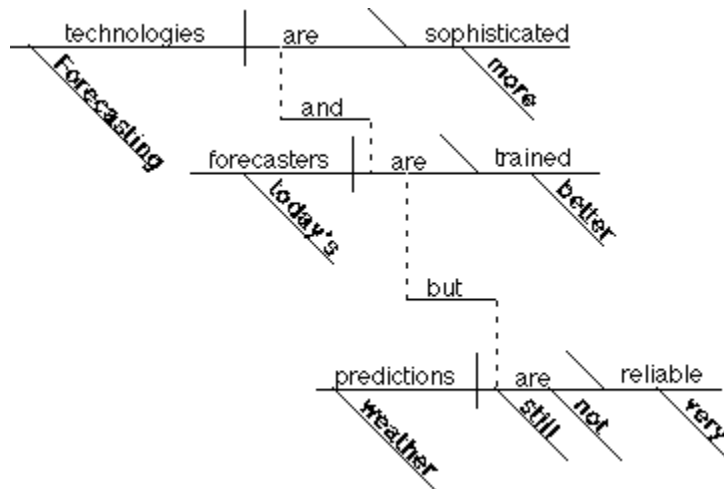
Compound sentences are really just two sentences (independent clauses) joined by a conjunction. In order to diagram such sentences, create two diagrams and connect them as demonstrated below. (Note the use of two dotted lines to connect the conjunction, written on a solid horizontal line, with the verbs of each independent clause.)

Boggs hit the ball well, **but** he ran to the wrong base.



### Another Example:

Forecasting technologies are more sophisticated, **and** today's forecasters are better trained, **but** weather predictions are still not very reliable.

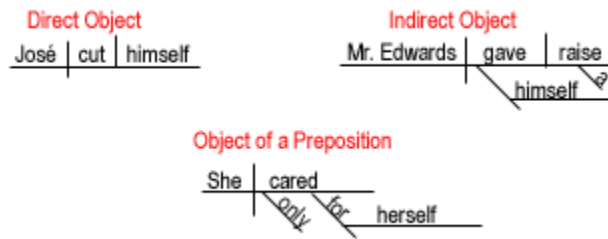


## 28) Reflexive Pronouns

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The following diagrams show examples of reflexive pronouns used direct objects, indirect objects, and objects of prepositions.

[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**.



## 29) “Intensive” Reflexive Pronouns

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Sometimes reflexive pronouns are used to show intensity or emphasis. The reflexive pronoun can be removed without changing the essential meaning of the sentence. The “myself” in the example sentence below is an “appositive.” Appositives restate nouns and are placed in parentheses next to the nouns they restate in diagrams. (Appositives are explained in more detail in another section below.)

I **myself** prefer basketball. [or]  
I prefer basketball **myself**.



## 30) Passive Verbs

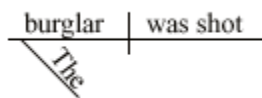
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Passive “voice” is created by taking the direct object of an “active” voice sentence and making it the subject. Passive voice is used most frequently when we want to emphasize the importance of an object. For instance, we say, “*I was born* in 1985.” We rarely want to say, “My *mother* bore me in 1985.” We already know that the mother bore the speaker, and we don’t care to hear about the mother. “I” should be the subject. The passive voice in English is formed by connecting the appropriate tense of the “be-verb” to the past participle of the main verb.

In general, the passive voice in English can only be formed by changing direct objects into subjects. So-called “indirect” passives in English are very rare. Japanese and some other languages, on the other hand, can make use of an indirect passive in order to express the idea that something bad has happened to someone. A literal translation of an example would be, “**I was stolen my bicycle.**” This construction in English is incorrect. The “bicycle” is the object that was stolen; not the person speaking. Therefore, the sentence correctly stated in English would simply be, “My bicycle was stolen.”

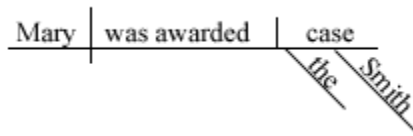
There is no real trick to diagramming passive verbs. Just as in the case of verbs in other voices, the entire verb (both the “be-verb” and the past participle) is placed on the right side of the line that separates the subject and verb.

The burglar **was shot.**



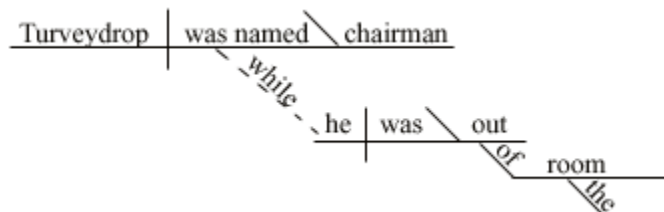
**Another Example:**

Mary **was awarded** the Smith Case.



**Another Example:**

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



## 31) Noun Clauses

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Noun clauses are clauses that act like nouns. As such, they can act as subjects and predicate nouns as well as direct and indirect objects of verbs and objects of prepositions.

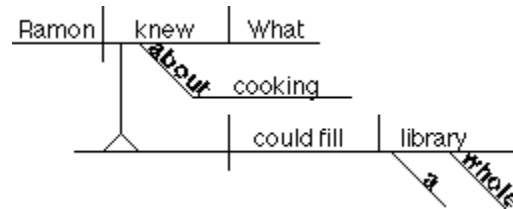
### 31 a) Noun Clauses Acting as Sentence Subjects

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Noun clauses are clauses that act like nouns. In the example sentence below, “What Ramon knew about cooking” is a subject. Inside the noun clause itself, “Ramon” is the subject, “knew” is the verb, and “What” is a direct object. The entire noun clause taken together forms the subject of the sentence. It is the thing/subject that *could fill a whole library*.

**What Ramon knew about cooking** could fill a whole library.

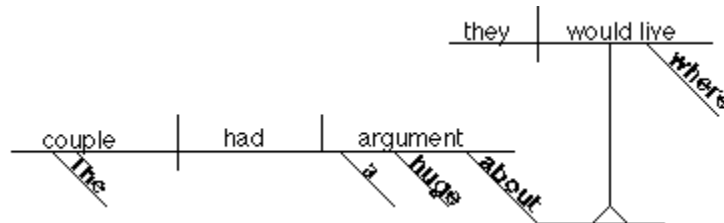


### 31 b) Noun Clauses as Objects of Prepositions

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Since noun clauses act like nouns, they can fill all the positions that nouns do. They can be used as both subjects and objects. In the example sentence below, the noun clause “where they would live” is used as the object of the preposition “about.”

The couple had a huge argument **about where they would live**.

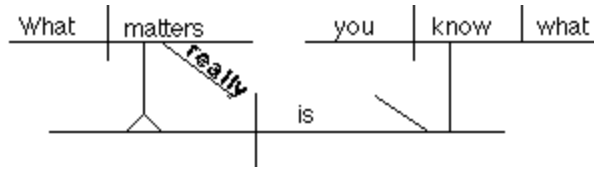


### 31 c) Noun Clauses as Predicate Nouns

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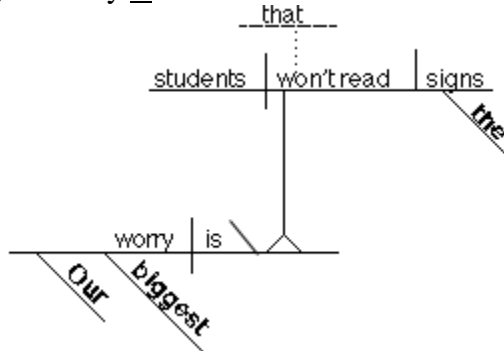
The example sentence below shows one noun clause being used as a subject and another being used as a predicate noun.

What really matters is **what you know**.



Another example:

Our biggest worry is **that students won't read the signs.**

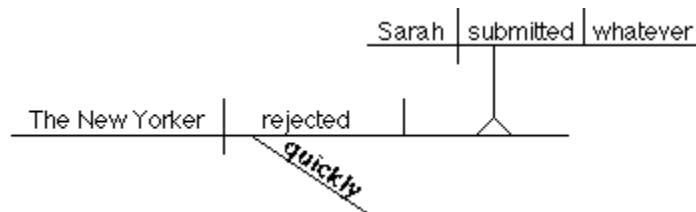


### 31 d) Noun Clauses as Direct Objects

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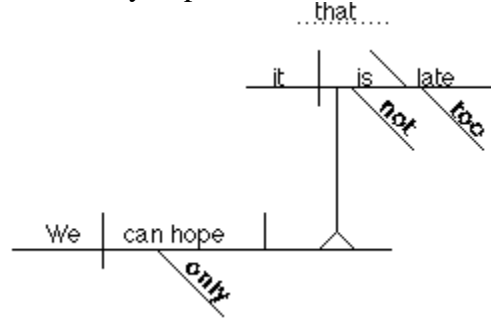
Noun clauses can also be used as direct objects. In the example sentence below, “whatever Sarah submitted” is a direct object of the verb “rejected.” It is the thing/object that The New Yorker *rejected*.

*The New Yorker* quickly rejected **whatever Sarah submitted.**



Another example:

We can only hope **[that] it is not too late.**



## 32) Adjective Clauses

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Adjective clauses (also known as “relative” clauses) are clauses that act as adjectives. In other words, they modify nouns. Special words called “relative pronouns” (or in some cases “relative adverbs”) are used to connect adjective clauses to the words they modify.

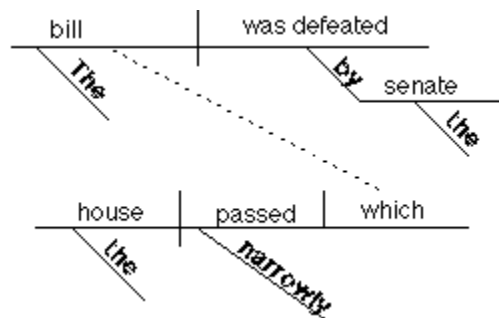
### 32 a) Adjective Clauses and Relative Pronouns

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In the example sentence below, “which narrowly passed the House” is an adjective clause. The clause tells us *what kind of* “bill.” The relative pronoun “which” functions as a direct object inside the adjective clause. Ask yourself the question, “*What* did the House narrowly *pass*?” The only word inside the adjective clause that can answer that question is the word “which,” so “which” is a direct object. (Other relative pronouns include who, whom, whose, and that.)

When diagramming, a dotted line is drawn from the relative pronoun to the noun it modifies.

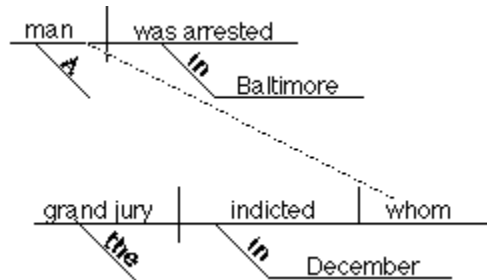
The bill, **which the House narrowly passed**, was defeated by the senate.



**Another Example:**

In the example sentence below, “whom the grand jury indicted in December” is an adjective clause that explains *what kind of* “man.” Inside the adjective clause itself, the word “whom” acts as a direct object. Ask yourself the question, “*Who* did the grand jury *indict*?” The answer is “whom,” so “whom” is the direct object of the verb “indicted.”

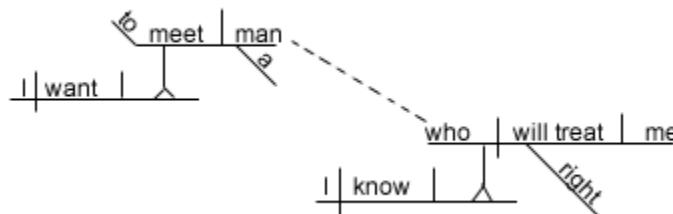
A man **whom the grand jury indicted in December** was arrested in Baltimore.



### Another Example:

In the example sentence below, “who I know will treat me right” is a noun clause. Noun clauses are explained in detail in another section of this book. “Who I know will treat me right” is the thing/object that *I know*. The clause is, therefore, a direct of the verb “know.” The relative pronoun “who” refers to the *kind of* “man” that *I want to meet*, so a dotted line connecting the two words is drawn in the diagram.

I want to meet a man **who I know will treat me right**.

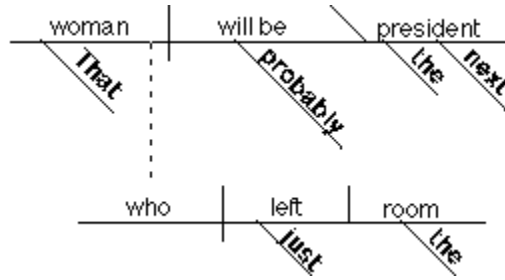


## 32 b) Adjective Clauses Introduced by "Who"

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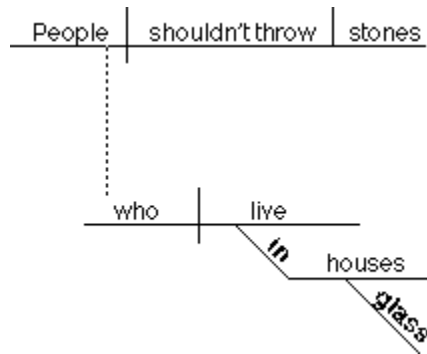
In the two following example sentences, the relative pronoun “who” functions as the subject of each of the adjective clauses.

That woman **who just left the room** will probably be the next president.



**Another Example:**

People **who live in glass houses** shouldn't throw stones.

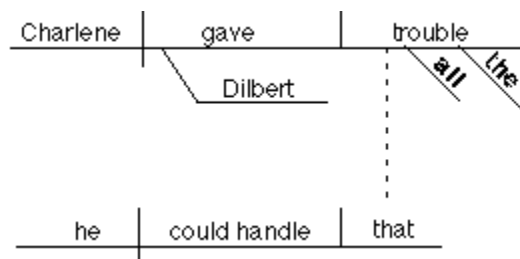


### 32 c) Adjective Clauses Introduced by "That"

---

In the following example sentence, the relative pronoun "that" functions as a direct object.

Charlene gave Dilbert all the trouble **that he could handle**.

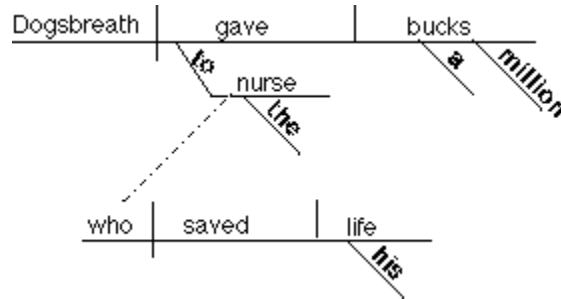


### 32 d) Adjective Clauses Modifying Objects of Prepositions

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In the following example sentence, the relative pronoun “who” functions as the subject of the adjective clause. The adjective clause modifies the prepositional object “nurse.”

Dogsbreath gave a million bucks to the nurse who saved his life.

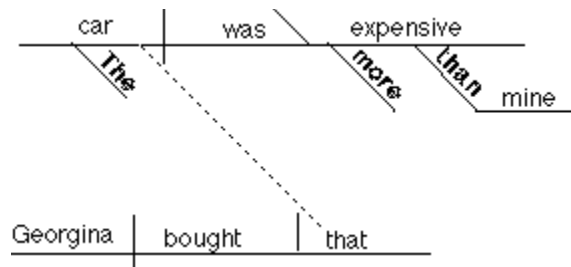


### 32 e) Adjective Clauses Modifying Sentence Subjects

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In the following example sentence, the relative pronoun “that” functions as the direct object of the adjective clause. The adjective clause modifies the subject “car.”

The car **that Georgina bought** was more expensive than mine.



### 32 f) Adjective Clauses Introduced by Relative Adverbs

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Sometimes adjective clauses are introduced by relative *adverbs* instead of relative pronouns. Relative adverbs connect adjective clauses to the nouns they modify just like relative pronouns do. The only difference is that they function as adverbs inside adjective clauses.

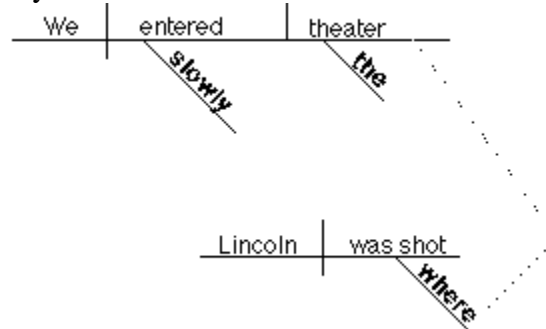
In the example sentence below “where Lincoln was shot” is an adjective clause because it describes the “theater.” “Where” is a relative adverb which connects the adjective clause to the word “theater.”

We slowly entered the theater **where Lincoln was shot**.



### OPTIONAL METHOD:

We slowly entered the theater **where Lincoln was shot**.

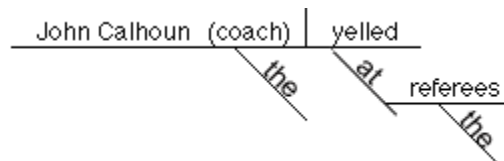


## 33) Appositives

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Appositives are nouns or noun phrases that are used to identify or rename other nouns, noun phrases, or pronouns. Look at the example sentence and diagram below. Since the appositive “coach” simply restates who “John Calhoun” is, it is placed in parentheses immediately following the name.

John Calhoun, **the coach**, yelled at the referees.



## 34) Gerunds and Gerund Phrases

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Gerunds are nominative forms of verbs. In other words, they are verbal nouns. When verbs are converted to nominative forms, they can be used just like other nouns.

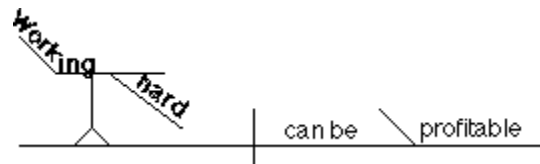
### 34 a) Gerund Phrases as Subjects

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Sometimes gerunds and gerund phrases are used as subjects; other times as objects. Consider the sentence below. “Working hard” is a gerund phrase. “Working” is a gerund, and “hard” is an adverb that modifies “working.” Together they form the subject of the sentence.

In the accompanying diagram, the gerund phrase is placed on a “stand” that rests on top of the base line. The dictionary form of the gerund is written on the slanted line, and the “ing” portion is written on the connecting horizontal line.

**Working hard** can be profitable.



### 34 b) Gerund Phrases as Direct Objects

---

As we can see below, gerunds and gerund phrases can also be used as direct objects. “Eating” is a gerund and “broccoli” is its direct object. Together, the two words form a gerund phrase that is used as the direct object of the verb “hates.” In other words, “eating broccoli” is the thing/object that Terminita hates.

Terminita hates **eating broccoli**.



### 34 c) Gerund Phrases as Objects of Prepositions

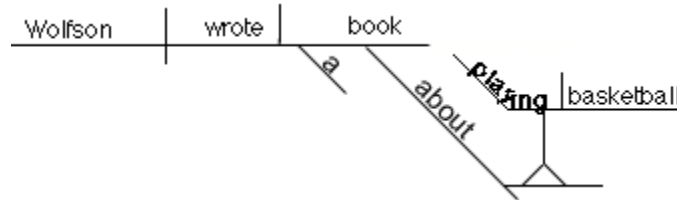
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True prepositions are always followed by object nouns (or object noun forms, such as gerunds or gerund phrases). Non-native speakers of English often have trouble distinguishing between gerunds and infinitives (i.e., noun forms of verbs that consist of “to” plus the dictionary form of a verb—e.g., *to eat*, *to drink*, *to sleep*, etc.) when choosing verbal nouns. Here is a rule that will help you: ***Always use a gerund after a preposition.***

Gerund phrases used as objects of prepositions are diagrammed as indicated below.

Wolfson wrote a book **about playing basketball.**



## 35) Infinitives and Infinitive Phrases

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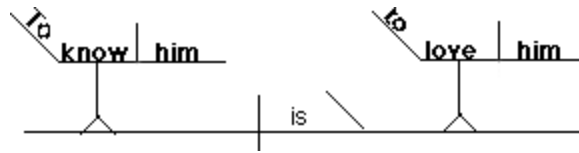
Infinitives, like gerunds, are nominative forms of verbs. They are created by adding the dictionary form of a verb to “to”—e.g., *to eat*, *to drink*, *to sleep*, etc. Take note that the “to” of an infinitive is *not* a preposition. It is simply part of the infinitive itself. Consider the sentence “I am looking forward to **meeting** your parents.” The “to” in this sentence is a preposition. Therefore, as noted in previous section, it must be followed by the gerund “meeting.” (You must **not** say “I am looking forward to *meet* your parents.”)

### 35 a) Infinitive Phrases as Subjects and as Predicate Nouns

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Just as in the case of gerunds, infinitives can be used in the same ways that other nouns are used. The sentence below shows one infinitive phrase used as a subject and another infinitive phrase used as a predicate noun. Notice that the diagramming method looks almost identical to the one used for diagramming gerunds. The infinitive is placed on a “stand.” The “to” portion of the infinitive is written on the slanted line, and the remaining portion is written on the connecting horizontal line.

**To know him is to love him.**

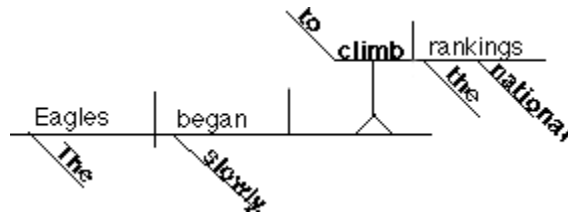


### 35 b) Infinitive Phrases as Direct Objects

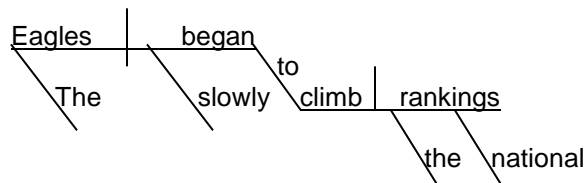
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Infinitive phrases used after main verbs can be diagrammed in two ways. The method seen below treats the infinitive phrase “to climb the national rankings” as a direct object.

The Eagles slowly began **to climb the national rankings**.



Another option is to treat the phrase as a complement of the verb. This method of diagramming is shown below.

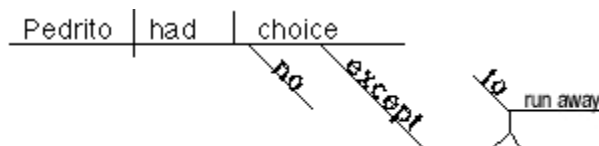


### 35 c) Infinitive Phrases as Objects of Prepositions

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Very rarely, infinitive phrases can be used as objects of prepositions. Consider the sentence below.

Pedrito had no choice **except to run away**.



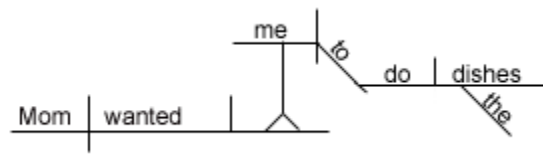
"Except" and "save" are the most common prepositions used in this construction.

### 35 d) Infinitive Phrases as Objective Complements

---

Infinitive phrases can also be used as objective complements. In the following sentence, “me to do the dishes” is the thing/object that Mom wanted. “To do the dishes” is a complement of the direct object “me.” This construction is often difficult for non-native speakers to master because it is difficult for them to see why “me” is a direct object. Nevertheless, the construction is basic to everyday conversation and must be mastered.

Mom wanted me to do the dishes.



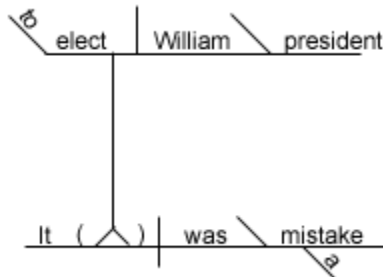
### 35 e) Infinitive Phrases as Appositives

---

Infinitive phrases can also be used as appositives. As noted earlier, appositives restate nouns. In the sentence below, “it” is the same as, or equals, “to elect William president.” While this construction is very common in English, other expressions can also be used to express the same thought. For example, we could remove the “it” and say “To elect William president was a mistake.” Or we can use a gerund phrase and say “Electing William president was a mistake.” While it is popular, the “it” in the appositive construction has no actual meaning.

The infinitive phrase used as an appositive is diagrammed as seen below.

It was a mistake to elect William president.



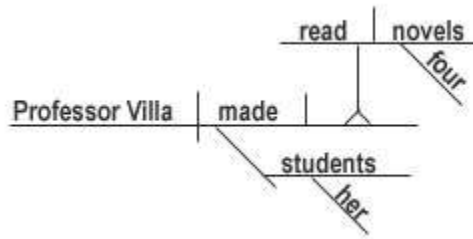
### 36) Causative Verbs

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Causative verbs show action being created. The most common causative verbs in English are “make,” “let,” “have,” and “help.” The most common causative construction is *A makes B do C*. In this pattern, A is the subject, B is an indirect object, and C is a direct object. The structures that express this meaning vary greatly from one language to another. This particular pattern is often difficult for non-native speakers of English to master, but it is an essential construction in everyday conversation.

The example below illustrates how such sentences are diagrammed. Notice that the verb phrase “read four novels” has no subject. It consists only of the verb “read” and the objective noun phrase “four novels.” Make sure that you the vertical line that separates the verb and the direct object does not pierce the base line.

Professor Villa made her students read four novels.

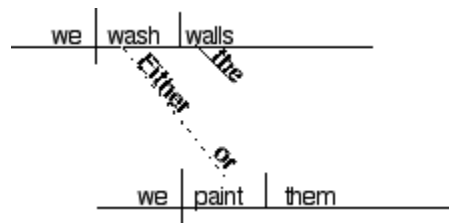


## 37) Correlative Conjunctions

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Correlative conjunctions are “paired conjunctions.” They appear most often in the following patterns: ***both A and B***; ***not only A but also B***; ***either A or B***; and ***neither A nor B***. When these conjunctions join clauses, they are diagrammed so as to link the verbs of both clauses, as seen below.

**Either** we wash the walls **or** we paint them.

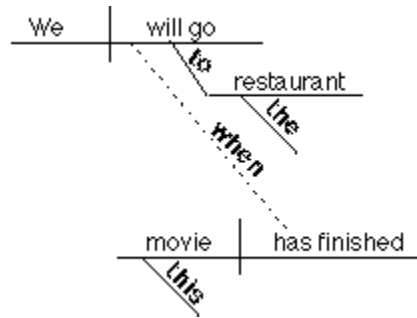


## 38) Adverb Clauses

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Adverb clauses are clauses that function as adverbs. Adverb clauses modify the verbs of main clauses. In the example sentence below, notice that the subordinate conjunction “when” connects the verbs of the adverb clause and the main clause.

We will go to the restaurant **when this movie is finished**.



Memorize the following list of subordinate conjunctions that are used to introduce adverb clauses.

<u>TIME</u>	<u>CAUSE AND EFFECT</u>	<u>CONTRAST</u>	<u>CONDITION</u>
after	because	even though	if
before	now that	although	unless
when	since	though	only if
while			whether or not
as		<u>DIRECT CONTRAST</u>	even if
as soon as		while	in case
since		whereas	just in case
until			in the event (that)

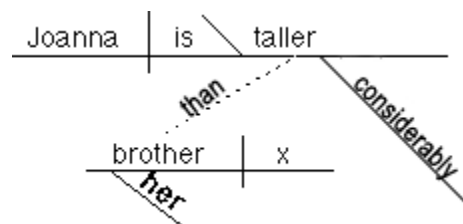
## 39) Comparative Adjectives

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Comparative adjectives often appear in sentences that are followed by clauses with understood verbs. In the sentence below the first clause is “Joanna is considerably taller.” The second clause is “Her brother (is).” The “is” of the second clause is usually not stated but understood. “Than” is a conjunction that joins both clauses.

The use of “than” as a conjunction is counterintuitive to speakers of languages in which the closest equivalent functions as an adverb or some other part of speech.

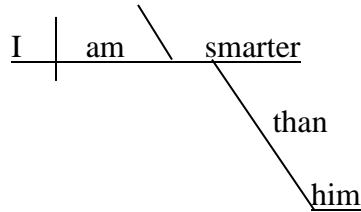
Joanna is considerably taller than her brother [is].



In informal English, many native speakers use “than” as if it were a preposition, in which case they immediately follow it with an object noun or pronoun. Consider the following example:

I am smarter than *him*.

While such sentences are common in spoken English, strictly speaking, they are not correct. Correctly stated, the above sentence should be, “I am smarter than *he*” because the verb “is” is understood. (Keep in mind that we can say “*He is,*” but we cannot say “*Him is.*”) If, however, we attempt to diagram the informal version, we can treat “than” as a preposition as follows:

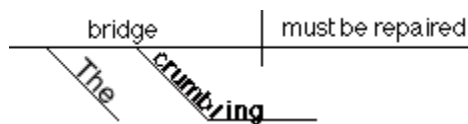


## 40) Participles

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Present participles are the “ing” forms of verbs used as adjectives. They can often be restated in the form of adjective clauses. In the sentence below, “the crumbling bridge” could be restated as “the bridge *which is crumbling.*” Look at the diagram below. Since “crumbling” modifies “bridge,” it is written underneath it. The dictionary form of the word is written on the slanted line, and the “ing” portion is written on the connecting horizontal line.

The **crumbling** bridge must be repaired.

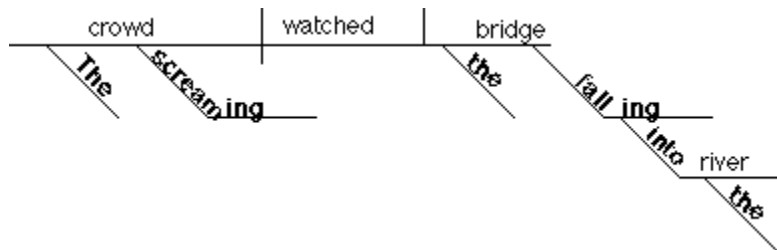


## 41) Participial Phrases

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Participial phrases are simply groups of words that contain a participle. The sentence below contains both a participle and a participial phrase. The participle “screaming” describes the “crowd.” The participial phrase “falling into the river” describes the “bridge.” (While the participial phrase “falling into the river” can be rewritten as an adjective clause, i.e., “the bridge *that was falling into the river,*” this participial phrase includes the meaning of “*as it was falling into the river.*”) “Into the river” is a prepositional phrase that modifies the participle “falling.”

The **screaming** crowd watched the bridge **falling into the river**.



## 42) Compound-complex Sentences

---

This final example sentence illustrates how to diagram a compound-complex sentence. A compound-complex sentence is one that has two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent (or subordinate) clauses. In the example sentence below, “the windows rattle noisily” and “the whole house shakes” are independent clauses. “When the train goes through” is an adverb clause. It is not necessary to try to connect the adverb clause to both independent clauses even though we realize that it modifies both of them. Just connect it to the first independent clause.

**When the train goes through,** the windows rattle noisily **and** the whole house shakes.

