

COLOR-CODED GRAMMAR

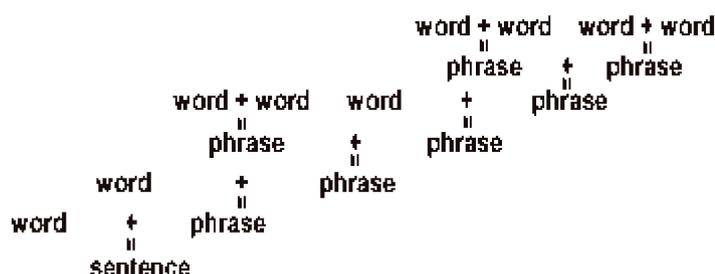
A Clear, Concise & Comprehensive Analysis of Sentence Structures

Color-Coded Grammar is a new system for showing the structures of sentences. The grammar of any language is a social agreement about how words can be combined. Words have simple individual meanings, and their combinations with other words create more complex meanings. The order of the words is related to the meaning, but the meanings of words don't always combine with the previous words, like links in a chain.

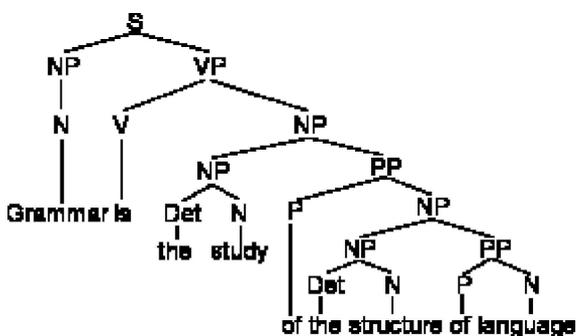
word + word



In our minds, we first combine words in phrases before we combine them with other words and with other phrases.



Linguists use diagrams to show how words combine in sentences. Consider the sentence, "Grammar is the study of the structure of language". In a tree diagram, the part of speech of each word is labeled with an abbreviation. Lines are used to connect words that form phrases. The part of speech of each phrase is also labeled with an abbreviation.



The lines resemble branches in an upside down tree. The levels of the branches within the tree correspond to the way the meanings of phrases are combined. The first noun phrase, which is just a single word, "grammar" is on the same level as the verb phrase, because it's the subject, but the next noun phrase, "the study of the structure of language" is below the verb. This noun phrase combines with the verb before the resulting verb phrase combines with the subject. However, before it does, the noun phrases which are shown as lower branches in the tree must first combine.

Color-coded text can show these same classifications and relationships. Consider a color-coded version of this sentence, "Grammar is the study (of the structure (of language))". Note that the prepositional phrases are indicated by (parentheses), and the four words which form nouns in the sentence are all coded with blue underlines.

If someone asked you what part of speech the word "study" is, you would probably say, "a verb". Most dictionaries will classify the word "study" as both a verb and a noun and list separate meanings for the two parts of speech. However, a key concept in understanding grammar is that the part of speech of a word is based on its relationships with other words in a sentence. For example, any word that combines with the determiner "the" in a sentence is usually a noun, as is

the case for the words "study" and "structure" in the color-coded sentence.

The idea that you can memorize the parts of speech that words form, and then analyze the grammatical structures of sentences based on those classifications is a common misconception. We will see that most words that we think of as verbs can form several parts of speech, including adjectives and adverbs. Color-Coded Grammar provides clear and logical principles for determining the parts of speech in any sentence.

The Color Code's Components

The color-code contains 15 color styles. There are five colors: aqua, blue, red, orange and black, and there are three line styles: solid, dotted and dashed. The color code also contains three types of marker pairs: parentheses, braces and brackets. Individual words are coded with underlines and marker pairs are used to code dependent clauses and phrases.

The marker pairs only correspond to nine of the color styles. Parentheses correspond to aqua or blue solid underlines. Braces correspond to aqua or blue dotted underlines. Brackets correspond to either aqua, blue, purple, red or black dashed underlines. After you learn to associate the underlines with parts of speech and parts of sentences, you can make the same associations with marker pairs.

The 15 Color-Styles

	Solid	Dotted	Dashed
Aqua	<u>(Determiner / Adjective)</u>	{Adjective}	[Adverb]
Blue	<u>(Noun)</u>	{Noun}	[Noun]
Red	<u>Verb</u>	<u>Verbal</u>	[Adverb]
Orange	<u>Auxiliary Verb</u>	<u>Aux. Verbal</u>	<u>Auxiliary Verb</u>
Black	<u>Preposition Sub. Conj.</u> (Parentheses)	<u>Conjunction</u> {Braces}	<u>[Adverb / Interjection]</u> [Brackets]

Notice that blue underlines always indicate nouns, and orange underlines always indicate auxiliary verbs. If dashed underlines aren't blue or orange, they indicate adverbs. The exception is dashed black underlines that indicate interjections, but interjections are typically not parts of sentences.

Prepositions and conjunctions are the easiest parts of speech to identify because they are each indicated by only one color style, solid black for prepositions and dotted black for conjunctions. Adjectives are indicated by two color styles, and Verbs are indicated by four color styles. The different color styles correspond to the different relationships that parts of speech have with other words. You need to see examples of these different types of relationships in order to understand the color code.

Distinguishing Subjects from Predicates

In order to study sentence structures, we need to distinguish subjects from predicates. Subjects have a variety of structures, but they always represent identifications. A predicate represents a possibility or a reality of an identification.

Predicates are often assumed to represent the actions of subjects, but if we consider a sentence like, "A square has four sides", it's obvious that the predicate does not represent an action. Dictionaries often define predicates as the part of a sentence that contains a verb and gives information about the subject. This is true, but modifiers also give information about subjects.

Sentences as Structures

Words can be combined in an infinite number of sentences. A sentence can contain two words or two hundred words, but all sentences have one thing in common. They are all constructed by combining a subject with a predicate.

Subject + Predicate

Modifier(s) + <u>Noun</u> <u>Mary</u>	<u>Verb</u> + Complement(s) + Modifier(s) <u>cooks.</u>
Noun Phrase = <u>Modifier(s)</u> + <u>Noun</u> <u>Her best friend</u>	<u>Verb</u> + <u>Complement</u> = Core Verb Phrase <u>cooks pizza.</u>
NP = <u>Noun Phrase</u> + <u>Mod. Phrase</u> <u>Her friend from China</u>	<u>Modifier</u> + <u>Core VP</u> = Modified Verb Phrase <u>seldom cooks pizza.</u>
NP = <u>Noun Phrase</u> + <u>Mod. Clause</u> <u>Your friend who has an oven</u>	<u>Auxiliary Verb</u> + <u>Complement</u> = Completed Verb Phrase <u>should cook pizza tonight.</u>

A subject typically includes a noun. Any modifiers of the noun are also parts of the subject. A predicate always includes a verb. Verbs can have complements as well as modifiers. Any modifiers and complements of the verb are also parts of the predicate.

In the sentence "Mary cooks." the subject is a single noun and the predicate is a single verb. A verb can actually form a sentence by itself, if the implied subject is "you". For example, if I say, "Listen!". The implied subject-verb combination is "You listen". However, most subjects and predicates are made up of phrases.

Consider the sentence "Her best friend cooks pizza". The first two words combine with the noun to form the subject. In the noun phrase, "Her friend from China" the prepositional phrase "from China" is part of the subject. In the noun phrase, "Your friend who has an oven", the clause "who has an oven" is part of the subject. In all three noun phrases the modifiers are identifying which friend is being referred to. We must make a clear identification before we can combine it with a predicate.

Verb phrases can also contain prepositional phrases and dependent clauses. In our minds, we first combine verbs with their complements. The most typical complement is a noun phrase or single noun, like "pizza" in "Her friend cooks pizza". A verb and its complements form the core verb phrase.

We then combine verb modifiers with the core phrase. An example of a modifier is "seldom" in "Her friend from China seldom cooks pizza". Note that the sentence doesn't mean that the person seldom cooks. She might cook soup every day. It's just pizza that she SELDOM cooks.

Next, we combine auxiliary verbs with verb phrases. If I say "Your friend who has an oven should cook pizza tonight", and you say "No, she shouldn't", the meaning of the auxiliary "should" in your sentence has been completed by the verb phrase in my sentence, You are clearly saying that, in your opinion, "She shouldn't cook pizza tonight." The dependent clause contains its own predicate, "has an oven". That's why we need to use marker pairs. In order to show the complete sentence structure. you must be able to see both the relationships between groups of words and the relationships between each individual word.

Grammatical Concepts

The key concept for understanding sentence structures is grammatical units. The structures of sentences are determined by the parts, functions, forms and sequences of their grammatical units. Grammatical units are units of meaning. There are five kinds of units: sentences, clauses, phrases, words and suffixes.

Grammatical units are determined by their parts. Some parts are essential; others are not. Sentences must contain one or more clauses. If they contain more than one clause, they often contain connectors to combine the clauses. Sentences can also contain subordinates that modify or complement a clause. Clauses contain a subject and a predicate. If a clause is dependent on another clause, it can also contain a connector.

Phrases contain a head and one or more subordinates. Phrasal subordinates can be particles, complements or modifiers. Words are formed by syllables. When a syllable or a combination of syllables has meaning it is called a morpheme. Suffixes are morphemes that modify the meaning of a word and enable the word to be combined with other words in phrases and clauses.

Units	Functions
Clause, Phrase or Word =	Subject
Phrase or Word =	Predicate
Phrase or Word =	Head
Word =	Particle
Clause, Phrase or Word =	Complement
Clause, Phrase or Word =	Modifier
Phrase or Word =	Connector

The functions of grammatical units are determined by the relationships between the units in a sentence. We use the traditional classification of parts of sentences to identify functions. Individual words can function as any of the parts of a sentence. These parts are the subject, the predicate, the head of a phrase, a particle, a complement, a modifier, and a connector. Phrases can function as all of the parts except particles. Dependent clauses can function as subjects, complements and modifiers.

The forms of grammatical units refer to the traditional classifications of parts of speech. They are determined by the meaning of the grammatical unit. Meaning not only refers to what the unit represents, but its function in the sentence. We say that words function as parts of sentences and form parts of speech.

The sequences of grammatical units form a limited number of patterns. These patterns are based on the combinations and positions of parts of speech. The movement of grammatical units to alternate positions is primarily used to ask questions and to combine clauses in phrases.

Parts of Speech

Words, phrases and dependent clauses all form parts of speech. The number of parts of speech is either seven or nine depending on whether similar classifications are considered subclassifications or separate parts. Parts of speech are based on what the grammatical unit represents in the sentence.

1. Noun = **People, Places, Physical & Abstract Things**
2. Pronoun = **Noun** or **Noun Phrase** or **Noun Clause**:
3. Determiner = Universal **Property** of a Noun
4. Adjective = Descriptive **Property** of a Noun
Adverb = **Property** of an Adjective
5. Adverb = **Property** of a Verb Phrase or an Adverb
6. Verb = **Processes**
6. Auxiliary Verb = **Aspect** of a Verb Phrase
6. Non-finite Verb (Verbal) = **Abstract Things** / Nouns, Adjectives & Adverbs
Infinitives & Gerunds
7. Preposition = **Relationship**: leave before the end (of the movie)
8. Conjunction = **Relationship**: We left before the movie ended
8. Conjunction = **Relationship** boys and girls
9. Interjection & Adverb = **Point of View** of the speaker Wow / Anyway

Nouns represent people and places and physical and abstract things. Pronouns represent what has already been represented or could be represented by a noun, noun phrase or noun clause. Determiners and adjectives represent the properties of nouns. Determiners represent the universal properties of all nouns. Some grammars consider determiners to be just a specific type of adjective. and pronouns to be a specific type of noun. Notice that they are color-coded the same way. One type of adverb represents the properties of adjectives. It's coded with dashed aqua underlines. Our eyes naturally group aqua and blue underlines because of their cool color temperature, and this reflects the relationships between words in noun phrases.

The warm colored underlines indicate parts of verb phrases. Verbs represent different kinds of processes. Auxiliary verbs represent different aspects that all these processes have. Most adverbs represent the properties of verbs. Some represent the properties of other adverbs.

Prepositions and conjunctions both represent different kinds of relationships. Prepositions represent a relationship of a noun phrase with another a noun phrase or with a verb phrase or with an adjective phrase. Consider the verb phrase "sit in the chair beside the table" The preposition "beside" represents a spatial relationship between two noun phrases. The preposition "in" represents a spatial relationship between a noun phrase and a verb.

Conjunctions are classified as either coordinate or subordinate. Coordinate conjunctions represent relationships between the same types of grammatical units, for example in "boys and girls" the conjunction "and" represents a coordinating relationship between two nouns. In the complex sentence "We will leave if it rains" the conjunction "if" represents a subordinate conditional relationship between the second clause and the first predicate.

The neutral color temperature of black underlines reflects their capacity to form relationships with both noun and verb phrases. Some adverbs are coded black because they don't form relationships with either noun or verb phrases. They modify clauses. They represent the point of view of the speaker about a clause. Examples are "anyway" and "incidentally". Interjections can similarly modify clauses, but they are often used outside the structure of a sentence, such as "Wow" and "Hello".

Verbals are formed by the same words that form verbs and normally represent processes. The difference is that their function in a sentence is to represent either an abstract thing or a property of

a noun or a property of a verb. Their neutral color temperature reflects their capacity to combine with both noun and verb phrases.

Types of Nouns and Verbs

In order to associate the color code with the meanings of words and phrases, you need to read examples of color coded text. Let's start with nouns and verbs. The origin of the word noun means name. Nouns are names for things. They represent a variety of things: abstract things, physical things, man-made things, living things and human things. Examples of common nouns are "time", "river", "car", "dog", and "man". Examples of proper nouns are "Tuesday", "Nile", "Toyota", "Snoopy" and "Bob".

The things that abstract nouns represent must be experienced in time. Other examples are "job" and "happiness". All other nouns are classified as concrete because we can perceive the things they represent through one or more of our five senses. Understanding why some nouns are classified as abstract will help you to understand why verbal phrases and clauses can be classified as nouns.

The origin of the word "verb" simply means word. Verbs represent a variety of processes: These include existential, relational, mental, physical, behavioral and communicative processes. Examples of each type of process are "to be", "to have", "to like", "to fall", "to prepare" and "to talk".

Physical, behavioral and communicative processes are all types of actions. Anything represented by a concrete noun can undergo a physical process. Behavioral processes refer to the actions of living things. Communicative processes are limited to people. Animals actually do communicate and materials do have behaviors, but these are the best terms we have for classifying processes.

Noun & Verb Relationships

Nouns can function as the heads of subjects or as the heads of verb complements. Subject heads are coded with solid blue underlines. Complement heads are coded with either dashed or dotted blue underlines. Verbs have relationships of predication with subjects. Verbs have relationships of complementation with complements.

These relationships are dependent on the meanings of words. For example, we can say "Birds fly" and "Time flies", but the meaning of the verb changes because the nouns, which are functioning as subjects, represent different types of things. The first example of the verb "fly" represents a behavioral process and the second represents an existential process. Note that we cannot say "Rivers fly". A relationship of predication cannot be made between these two words because the process of "fly"ing is not a possibility or reality for rivers.

The ability of nouns to function as objects is similarly dependent on their meaning. We can say either "A bird ate a fish" or "A fish ate a bird" but not "A bird ate a time". Objects of verbs represent an essential part of their processes. If we say that "A bird ate a seed" this would be a significantly different experience for the bird than eating a fish.

Objects can also complement prepositions. In the sentence, "A fish was eaten by a bird", the preposition "by" represents a relationship of identification. If we say, "A fish was eaten by the river", the word "by" represents a spatial relationship. Objects complete the meanings of both prepositions and verbs.

There are two types of verb objects, direct and indirect. Indirect objects always refer to living things. In the sentence, "Our teacher told us a story", the pronoun "us" is the indirect object and "story" is the direct object. Indirect objects can always be alternately placed in prepositional phrases. Compare "Our teacher told a story to us".

Verbs can also be complemented by nouns that represent things which have already been represented by a previous noun. For example in the sentence, "That bird is a duck", the nouns "bird" and "duck" refer to the same living thing. These types of complements are traditionally called predicate nouns, but they could also be called links. The verb "is" is classified as a linking verb in this sentence, as is the verb "became" in "The ugly duckling became a swan". Some verbs can be complemented with an object and a link in the same phrase. Consider "The students named the

duck Donald". The words "duck" and "Donald" refer to the same thing.

In the previous two examples, many grammars would classify the noun "swan" as a subject complement and the noun "Donald" as an object complement. These terms help distinguish links from objects, but this grammar only uses the word complement in reference to a head. In both subject and object complements, the actual head is always a verb.

Types of Adjectives

Modifiers of nouns are classified as either determiners or adjectives. There are several subclassifications for each of these parts of speech. This list is taken from the color-coded grammar charts.

Determiners: Articles: a, an, the / Demonstratives: this, that, these, those, **Which**
Distributives: every, both, all Quantifiers: one, many, any, some, **What**
Possessives: my, your, our, his, theirs, **Whose**

Adjectives: OBSERVATION: smart, beautiful, funny / interesting, worried
SIZE & SHAPE: big, short, round, thin AGE: new, young, old,
TEMPERATURE, COLOR, & STATE: hot, cold, red, blue, wet / broken
ORIGIN: American, French, & foreign MATERIAL: leather, cotton, glass
TYPE: electric, national / sports, / swimming, furnished

Determiners include the most common words in the English language, such as "a" and "the" and "this" and "that". Subclassifications of determiners include articles, demonstratives, distributives, quantifiers and possessives. Many determiners can also form pronouns, such as "those" "some" and "his". The question words "which" "what" and "whose" similarly form both determiners and pronouns. The purpose of all noun modifiers is to communicate WHICH thing is being represented: Which person, which place or which car, etc. Modifiers enable noun phrases to represent specific identifications.

Determiners represent universal properties of things, such as their location, their number and their relationships to people and to previous identifications. For example, the difference between "a car" and "the car" is that the the determiner "the" implies we have already made an identification of this car. The difference between "this car" and "that car" is that the the determiner "that" implies a location further away from the speaker than does the determiner "this".

We can contrast determiners with descriptive adjectives. Descriptive adjectives represent specific properties of things, and they are subclassified as either physical or abstract. Physical properties include size, shape, age, color and material. The abstract properties are observation, origin and type. Some nouns can form adjectives of type and material, for example, "sports" in "sports cars" and "glass" in "glass tables" and some verb forms can form adjectives of observation, state and type. Consider "worried" in "worried man", "broken" in "broken glass" and "furnished" in "furnished apartments".

Noun Phrase Modifiers

All noun phrases represent identifications, not just subjects. A common noun like the word "car" has the potential to represent hundreds of millions of cars. We add modifiers to communicate which car we are talking about. for example the phrase "that beautiful red sports car" contains four modifiers. Like all determiners, the word "that" comes before the descriptive adjectives. The adjectives that are most important for making the identification are placed closest to the noun. We cannot say "that sports red beautiful car" because the type and color of the car are more important than a subjective observation for making the identification.

We can see how prepositional phrases can form the same types of adjectives as individual words. In the sentence, "She likes French wine, but we like wine (from Italy)". The word "French" and the prepositional phrase "(from Italy)" are both adjectives of origin. In the sentence, "The class (on Tuesday) (in room 101) has been canceled." the prepositional phrases represent time and location, which are two common types of adverbs. However, these phrases are coded with aqua parentheses. They are adjectives of observation. The class wasn't canceled on Tuesday or canceled in room 101. It meets on Tuesday. The prepositional phrases are identifying which class has been canceled.

Dependent clauses also form adjectives of observation. In the sentence, "The people (who are swimming) are my classmates". the clause "who are swimming" identifies which people are the speaker's classmates. It's classified as a restrictive or identifying clause. Adjective clauses are also

classified as non-identifying. Consider "Our English teacher, (who is an American), can play the guitar." We don't need the dependent clause to identify who can play the guitar. Students typically only have one English teacher. The clause just adds more descriptive information about the teacher.

Non-identifying adjectives can also be formed by individual words. They are primarily used in written English. Consider the sentence, "Tired and sick [with a cold], Bob failed the exam." Like non-identifying clauses, these modifiers are separated from their heads by commas.

When nouns and noun phrases modify other nouns they are also non-identifying. Consider the sentence, "The headmaster himself gave her the first prize, a full scholarship." The second noun "himself" is called an intensive pronoun. They are always used for emphasis. The last noun phrase, "a full scholarship" is called an appositive. It gives additional information about the noun phrase "the first prize". Appositives are always separated from their heads by a comma.

Infinitive phrases can form adjectives of type. They are often combined with indefinite pronouns and abstract nouns. Consider the sentences, "Do you have anything to eat in the house?" and "This team has the ability to win". Without the infinitives, what the nouns refer to would be unclear, "Do you have anything in the house?" and "This team has the ability".

Types of Adverbs

Recall that some adverbs modify adjectives. Adverbs that modify adjectives can also modify other adverbs. These are always adverbs of degree. For example, the word "very" in "very slow runners" and "run very slowly" is an adverb of degree. We need them to make comparisons, like "less often" and "most beautiful". The word "How" in the question "How old are you" is an adjective adverb of degree.

Adverbs of Adjectives or Adverbs: Degree: very, quite, extremely, too, enough, **How**, Comparative & Superlative: more, most, less, least

Adverbs of Verbs INTENSIFIER: really, definitely / AMPLIFIER: absolutely, completely
DOWNTONER: almost, hardly, LIMITER: primarily, only, also, too
FREQUENCY: often, seldom, again, once, never, **How often**
EXPERIENCE: usually, normally, initially, eventually
MANNER: carefully, loudly, well, together, **How**
DIRECTION: right, back / LOCATION: here, there, away / **Where**
TIME: soon, today, now, yet, **When** / **How long** / Reason: **Why**

Some adverbs of degree can directly modify verbs. These adverbs are subclassified as intensifiers, amplifiers, downtoners and limiters. Examples are "definitely", "completely", "almost" and "primarily".

Adverbs of frequency and experience similarly represent degrees of the occurrence of a process. Examples are "seldom" and "usually". The question word "how" can be an adverb of degree or an adverb of manner. When we ask "how often" or "how long" it is an adverb of degree. When we ask "how do you do something", it is an adverb of manner.

The question word "where" refers to adverbs of location and direction. There are two types of adverbs of time, points in time and durations of time. The question word "when" refers to points in time, like "soon" "today" and "now". The phrase "how long" refers to durations of time. Durations cannot be expressed with individual words. They can only be represented by phrases.

The question word "why" refers to adverbs of reason. These adverbs also cannot be represented by an individual word. They are represented by phrases and dependent clauses. When we look at complex sentences, we will see that some types of adverbs can only be represented by dependent clauses.

Verb Phrase Modifiers

Adverbs can be placed in three different positions: the **middle**, the **end** and the **beginning**. The position is determined by the type of adverb and whether it is a single word or a phrase. Only individual words are placed in the middle position. Examples are adverbs of frequency, intensifiers and downtoners. "We often watch movies.", "He definitely needs a haircut." and "We almost won the game."

Several adverbs can be combined in the end position. Adverbs of manner usually come before adverbs of time. It would be more likely to hear "He listened carefully today" than to hear "He listened today carefully". However, any adverb can be placed before others in the end position if the speaker wants to emphasize it.

In the sentence, "We eat there together [every Tuesday]" The last adverb in the sequence is a noun phrase. It's an adverb of frequency, but as a phrase it cannot be placed in the middle position. In the sentence, "She worked [in the office] [by herself] [last night]", all of the adverbs are formed by phrases.

Unlike adverbs of manner, adverbs of time and location are easily moved to the beginning position. We can say "Today [near the ocean], the air is clean." or "The air is clean today [near the ocean]". Adverbs of frequency and experience can be moved to all three positions. We can say either "Eventually Bob found his keys" or "Bob eventually found his keys." or "Bob found his keys eventually".

Verb Phrase Heads

The positions of auxiliary verbs in verb phrases, on the other hand, are fixed. Recall that auxiliary verbs represent the aspects of verb phrases. Aspects include the possibility, completion, duration and passivity of processes.

All modal verbs can represent two types of aspects; one is simple possibility and the other the speaker's opinion about a possibility. The aspect of completion is traditionally referred to as the perfect aspect; however, the grammatical meaning of "perfect" has nothing to do with the common meaning, which refers to an absence of flaws. The perfect aspect indicates that a process has been completed in the past. The aspect of duration is traditionally called the continuous aspect. The aspect of passivity is called the passive voice.

There are nine true modal verbs a variety of phrasal modals. The verb "to have" is the perfect auxiliary. The verb "to be" is the auxiliary of duration and passivity. "To have" and "to be" can also be main verbs. However, their meanings as main verbs are different than their meanings as auxiliaries.

<u>Possibility</u> +	<u>Completion</u> +	<u>Duration</u> +	<u>Passivity</u> +	<u>Process</u>
<u>should</u>	<u>have</u>	<u>been</u>		<u>studying</u>
<u>would</u>	<u>have</u>			<u>studied</u>
<u>will</u>				<u>study</u>
<u>must</u>		<u>be</u>		<u>sleeping</u>
		<u>are</u>	<u>being</u>	<u>watched</u>

When auxiliaries are combined, modal verbs always come first. The perfect auxiliary always comes before the auxiliaries of duration and passivity. The auxiliary of duration always comes before the auxiliary of the passive voice. Examples are "should have been studying", "would have studied", "will study", "must be sleeping", and "are being watched"

Notice that auxiliaries determine the forms of the verbs that follow them. This is easiest to see with regular verbs because their forms are determined by suffixes. This is why auxiliary verbs are coded with different line styles. Dashed orange underlines correspond to verbs with the "ing" suffix. Dotted orange underlines to the "ed" suffix, and solid underlines to the absence of a suffix, which is the base infinitive form.

Only transitive verbs can be formed in the passive voice. Only dynamic verbs can be formed in the continuous aspect. Verbs are classified as either dynamic or stative based on whether they have an aspect of duration. For example, we can say, "It is becoming common", but not "They are being students, although both verbs refer to existential processes". Similarly, we can say, "I am planning dinner" but not "I am liking sports", although both verbs refer to mental processes.

Verb Phrase Complements

Verbs can take one or two complements. The part of speech of a complement can change a verb's meaning by changing the type of process that it represents. Compare "get your coat". and "get angry". The first is a behavioral process and the second is an existential process.

Whether a verb's complement is a noun or an adjective can also determine whether a verb is dynamic or stative. For example, "smell the coffee" is a dynamic process, but "smells delicious" is a stative process. We can say "I am smelling the coffee" but not "it is smelling delicious".

Some verbs can take two complements, and this also affects their meaning. Compare "make a cake" with "make Bill the boss" and "found a dollar" with "found the class boring". A second complement can also change a verb's process from dynamic to stative. The predicate "are considering the offer" is dynamic, but "consider the offer generous", is stative. We cannot say "they are considering the offer generous".

15 Predicate Patterns:

Predicates form 15 different patterns. They can be grouped into three types: intransitive, single complement and double complement. Each type has a number and corresponds to one of the three rows in the following table. Intransitive Patterns are numbered with a zero, Single Complement Patterns are numbered with a one, and Double Complement patterns are numbered with a two.

Each column in the table corresponds to type of complement, and, like patterns, each type of complement is numbered. Number one complements are Objects, number twos are Predicate Adverbs, number threes are predicate adjectives, number fours are predicate nouns, and number fives are predicate verbals.

We can refer to any of the 15 patterns by combining a pattern type number with a complement number. The patterns are related to the active and passive voice. The Black numbers indicate that a pattern is always in the active voice. Brown numbers indicate that it's always in the passive voice. The green numbers indicate that a pattern can be used for either active or passive voiced predicates.

- | | |
|------------------------------|---|
| 0. Intransitive Pattern | Active Voice: 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 2.4, 2.5 |
| 1. Single Complement Pattern | Passive Voice: 1.3, 1.4, 1.5 |
| 2. Double Complement Pattern | Active or Passive Voice: 0.0, 1.1, 1.2 |

These simple examples illustrate the patterns.

None	<u>Object</u>	<u>Pred. Adverb</u>	<u>Pred. Adjective</u>	<u>Predicate Noun</u>	<u>Predicate Verbal</u>
0.0 <u>Cars stopped</u>		0.2 <u>We were there.</u>	0.3 <u>The air is clean</u>	0.4 <u>That bird is a duck</u>	0.5 <u>That is Bob singing</u>
	1.1 <u>Bob found his keys</u>	1.2 <u>We looked [for the keys]</u>	1.3 <u>His hair was dyed black</u>	1.4 <u>Mary was elected president</u>	1.5 <u>We were forced to leave</u>
	2.1 <u>I gave Bob a pen</u>	2.2 <u>He sent flowers [to her]</u>	2.3 <u>He dyed his hair black</u>	2.4 <u>They elected Mary president</u>	2.5 <u>He forced us to leave</u>

Pattern 0.0 has no complement. Patterns 0.2 to 0.5 are formed by linking verbs. The verb links its complement with its subject. Linking verbs are always in the active voice.

The examples in Patterns 1.3, 1.4, and 1.5 are passive voiced versions of patterns 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5 "He dyed his hair black" -> "His hair was dyed black", "They elected Mary president" -> "Mary was elected president", "He forced us to leave" -> "We were forced to leave. The pattern examples for 0.0, 1.1 and 1.2 are in the active voice "Cars stopped" "Bob found his keys" and "We looked [for the keys]" Passive versions of pattern 1.1 form pattern 0.0 The keys were found. Patterns 1.1 and 1.2 form passive versions for 2.1 and 2.2. The 2.1 pattern of "I gave Bob a pen" changes to 1.1 in "Bob was given a pen" The 2.2 pattern in "He sent flowers [to her]" changes to 1.2 in "Flowers were sent [to her]".

The point two patterns reveal that adverbs can be complements as well as modifiers. 0.2 predicate adverbs either refer to location or time. Consider "The party was yesterday" and "We were there". The position of a predicate adverb illustrates how it functions differently from a modifying adverb. For example, we can say "We were there yesterday" but not "We were yesterday there".

1.2 and 2.2 predicate adverbs are most often formed by prepositional phrases. The object of the preposition is a part of the verb's process. Notice that the prepositional object in "He sent flowers [to her]" can be changed to an indirect object with the 2.1 pattern "He sent her flowers". The order in which double complements are positioned cannot be changed. we can't say "He dyed black his hair." or "I gave a pen Bob".

The term "predicate verbal" is unique to this grammar. It means that the verbal has a relationship of predication with a noun in addition to its primary function as a complement of a verb. The forms of predicate verbals are determined by the main verb in the predicate.

Grammatical Alphanumeric Code

Multiple predicates can be combined in a sentence. We can use an alphanumeric code to describe how the predicates are combined.

Numbers = Predicate Pattern

1st Number = Structure	2nd Number =
00 = Uncomplemented	Complement
0. = Linking	1 = Object
1. = Single Complement	2 = Predicate Adverb
2. = Double Complement	3 = Pred. Adjective
	4 = Pred. Noun
	5 = Pred. Verbal

Abbreviations

Verbal Phrases	Dependent
j = (adjective) {adj.}	Clauses
n = (noun)	J = (adjective) {adJ.}
{noun} or [noun]	N = (Noun)
a = [adverb]	{Noun} or [Noun]
[adverb]	A = [Adverb]
or [adverb]	[Adverb]
	or [Adverb]

- Symbol = compound verb phrase / + Symbol = compound sentence / , Comma = separate units

As we have seen the numbers in the code refer to the pattern of the main predicate. Predicate patterns are traditionally called sentence patterns. However, subjects are irrelevant to sentence patterns.

The first number in the alphanumeric code indicates the type of pattern and the second number refers to the complement in the pattern. A dash symbol indicates a compound predicate phrase. A plus symbol indicates a compound sentence.

Three letters are used to indicate the parts of speech of verbal phrases and dependent clauses. Verbal phrase abbreviations are lower case and dependent clause abbreviations are upper case. Js are adjectives, Ns are nouns and As are adverbs.

If the abbreviation comes before the numbers, the phrase or clause is part of the subject. If the abbreviation comes after the numbers, the phrase or clause is part of the predicate. Commas indicate separate grammatical units.

Verb Phrases vs. Verbal Phrases

The distinction between verbs and verbals is revealed by the term gerund. Look it up in a dictionary, and you will see that it refers to words that are derived from verbs but form nouns. The term participle is used to refer to verbals that form adjectives and adverbs.

The terms finite and non-finite verbs are also used to distinguish verbs from verbals. The processes which finite and non-finite verbs represent are the same, but the non-finite phrases function differently in sentences than finite phrases. Recall that functions affect the meaning of a grammatical unit and its part of speech.

Predicate Verb	The young boys are swimming . (Physical Process)
Noun	Swimming can be fun. (Abstract Thing)
Adjective	The people swimming are my classmates (Observation)
Adjective	My favorite place to swim is the lake (Type of place)
adverb phrase	They came here [to swim [in the pool]] . (Reason)
adverb	He hurt his back swimming . (Manner)

In the sentence, "The young boys are **swimming**" the word "**swimming**" functions as the complement of the auxiliary verb and forms a verb. It represents a process. In the sentence, "**Swimming** can be fun" the same word functions as the subject and forms a noun. It represents an abstract thing and is classified as a gerund. In the sentence, "The people **swimming** are my classmates" it functions as a modifier and forms an adjective of observation. It's classified as a participle. Earlier we saw how a defining clause expressed the same observation "The people who are swimming are my classmates". The participle **swimming** is called a reduced clause when the pronoun and auxiliary verb are omitted.

In the sentence, "My favorite place **to swim** is the lake" the infinitive "to swim" functions as a modifier and forms an adjective of type. In the sentence, "They came here **[to swim [in the pool]]**", the infinitive also functions as a modifier, but it forms an adverb of reason. It answers the question why did they come here. In the sentence, "He hurt his back **swimming**.", the participle functions again as a modifier and forms an adverb of manner.

Adverb Phrase	0.3a She is afraid [to swim alone] . (Condition)
Noun Phrase	1.1n We like [to swim together] . (Abstract Thing)
Predicate Verbal	2.5 His father taught them to swim . (Dependent Process)
Verb Complement	They go swimming [every day] . (Co-process)

Verbals can also function as complements. In the sentence, "0.3a She is afraid **[to swim alone]**" the infinitive phrase completes the meaning of the predicate adjective. The sentence doesn't mean that the person is afraid, because she is not swimming alone. The words "**afraid to swim alone**" form an adjective phrase that complements the verb "**is**". The infinitive phrase forms an adverb of the predicate adjective.

In the sentence, " 1.1n We like **[to swim together]**" the infinitive phrase is functioning as an object. The verb "**like**" can take either concrete or abstract nouns as objects. Regardless of the object, the verb has the same meaning. Consider "**We like her**", "**We like ice cream**" and "**We like summer vacation**". The phrases "**[to swim together]**" and "**summer vacation**" both represent abstract things.

In the sentence, " 2.5 His father taught them **to swim**." the infinitive functions as both a verb complement and a predicate of the object. The same verb can also be used in the 2.1 pattern in sentences such as, "**He teaches us science**". For this reason some grammars would classify both "**science**" and "**to swim**" in the same way, as objects. Other grammars classify the words "**[them to swim]**" as a non-finite noun clause and consider it to be a single object of the verb. The term "predicate verbal" calls attention to the fact that the phrase is a verb complement and represents a dependent process. The behavioral swimming process is dependent on the communicative

teaching process.

In the sentence, "They go swimming [every day]" the verbal represents a co-process. The verbs go and swimming combine together to represent a single process.

We have seen that the forms of main verbs must match any auxiliary verbs which they follow in the predicate. The forms of verbals are either determined by their functions or by their phrasal heads. Verbals that function as subjects are much more likely to be gerunds than infinitives. Verbal adverbs of reason are always infinitives, and verbal adverbs of manner are always participles. Verbal adjectives can be present or past participles or infinitives. Reduced clauses have the same participle form that they would have in a relative clause. Adjectives of type are present participles when they precede nouns and infinitives when they follow them.

Verbal complements of predicate adjectives are always infinitives unless they first complement a preposition. Consider "0.3n excited [about swimming tomorrow]". The forms of verbal complements of verbs depends on the main verb. Compare the forms of the following verbals with the previous examples "1.1n enjoy [swimming together]" vs. "like [to swim together]", "2.5 saw them swimming" vs. "taught them to swim" and "0.0 tend to swim [in the morning]" vs. "go swimming [every day]".

Prepositional and Phrasal Verbs

The prepositions in phrases which form adverbs can sometimes form adverbs without their objects. Consider a situation in which the predicates "come [in my office]" and "come in" would have the same meaning or "show her [around the city]" and "show her around". The words "in" and "around" can form prepositional adverbs.

Verbs that are complemented by prepositional phrases are classified as prepositional verbs. Consider "look [for the keys]" and "look [at the picture]". The preposition affects the meaning of the verb and the object of the preposition is an essential part of the process that the verb represents. Another example is "talk [about sports]" and "talk [to me]". Prepositional verbs form patterns 1.2 and 2.2.

Phrasal verbs are combinations of verbs and particles. Most particles are formed by words that form prepositions. However, as particles these words form a part of the verb. They combine with the verb to represent a process that the verb doesn't represent by itself.

Phrasal verbs are classified as being either separable or inseparable. Examples of separable phrasal verbs are "look up" and "call off". Consider the phrases "look up an address" vs. "look an address up" and "call off the game" vs. "call the game off". Examples of inseparable phrasal verbs are "pick on" and "fall for", as in "pick on me" and "fall for her".

The phrase changes the individual meanings of the words. "To fall" is a physical process but "fall for" is mental process. If we look [up a chimney], the word "up" represents a direction in a physical process. Someone could also climb [up a chimney]. "Looking up an address", however, is a mental process similar to "reading an address".

Modal verbs are also formed by phrases. Many phrasal modal verbs have the same meanings as true modals. For example "ought to leave" is similar in meaning to "should leave". "have to listen" is similar to "must listen", and "is going to rain" is similar to "will rain".

When the particle "to" combines with a verb which follows it, we classify the phrase as an infinitive, Infinitives never function as main verbs. In phrasal modals, the particle "to" is considered to be part of the auxiliary verb, and the main verb is in the base infinitive form.

Sentence Modifiers & Complements

Not all modifiers and complements are parts of phrases. Clauses also have subordinates. They all express the point of view of the speaker and are all coded with dashed black underlines. The modifiers include interjections, vocatives and disjunctive adverbs.

Interjections often express the emotion of a speaker. The exclamations "hello", "darn", and "wow" are examples of Interjections. They are usually placed in the beginning position. "Wow, you look great". However, they can also be used without clauses.

Vocatives refer to the audience of the speaker. They are placed in either the beginning or end position. "Ladies and gentlemen, the show will begin soon". and "We need your help, William".

Adverbs of clauses are called disjunctive adverbs. They can be placed in all three positions, unless they have an "ly" suffix. In which case they usually are placed in the beginning position. We would say, "Incidentally, I received a strange email" rather than I received a strange email, incidentally" because in the end position "incidentally" might be interpreted as an adverb of manner

Disjunctive adverbs can also be formed by phrases. Note the prepositional phrase in, "I met your neighbors, [by the way]." Some disjunctive adverbs, like "however" can also function as connectors of clauses. As a disjunctive adverb in "My wife, however, had already met them" it functions as a modifier.

Some linguists classify the word "not" as a complement of clauses. Others classify it as a complement of verbs and an adverb of frequency, like the word "never". However, the meaning of the word "not" can be conveyed by either the subject or the predicate. For example, "The students have not arrived" and "No students have arrived". basically have the same meaning, as do, "No, it is not a problem" and "It's no problem".

Notice that the word "no" can form either a disjunctive adverb or a determiner. However, the sentences "They are not home. and "They are never home". have significantly different meanings. This is why "not" is coded as a verb complement.

Compound Grammatical Units:

Phrases and sentences can be combined in compound units. Any type of grammatical unit can be combined with the conjunctions "and", "but", or "or". Consider the noun phrase coffee or tea", the adverb phrase "quickly but safely" and the verb phrase "sing and play the piano".

Compound Sentences are similar combinations of independent clauses. Consider, "1.1+1.1 She made the dinner, and we washed the dishes." and "0.0+0.2 She called, but you were away". The same conjunctions for combining grammatical units can be identified by their black dotted underlines.

When independent clauses that have the same verb phrases are connected, most of the components of the predicate in the second clause are often left out. Consider, "2.5+2.5 Either you tell him to leave, or I will". The auxiliary "will" is the only component of the second predicate, its meaning is complemented by the phrase "tell him to leave" in the first predicate.

Clauses can be connected with four other conjunctions: "for", "nor", "so" and "yet". Other connectors of clauses are classified as conjunctive adverbs. Some examples are "therefore; however; and otherwise" Conjunctive adverbs are followed by semicolons rather than commas, but they are color-coded just like conjunctions. Clauses are occasionally combined without conjunctions. Consider the tag question, "1.1+1.1 She can't speak English, can she?".

Complex Sentences:

Color-coded complex sentences are easy to identify. They always contain at least one dependent clause, and dependent clauses are always coded with marker pairs. If a yellow or red underline appears within parentheses, braces, or brackets, it indicates a dependent clause.

Dependent clauses can function as modifiers or they can function as subjects and complements. They combine with independent clauses as modifiers, and they combine with matrix clauses as subjects and complements.

In the sentence, "N1.2 (What you think) matters [to me]." the clause "(What you think)" could be replaced by the noun phrase "Your opinion", "1.2 Your opinion matters [to me]". Remember that blue parentheses correspond to the solid blue underlines. Another example of a noun clause subject is "N1.1 (Whoever guesses the number) wins a prize." Without the dependent clause the predicate does not form a sentence. That's why it's called a "matrix clause."

Dependent noun clauses most often function as objects of verbs. Consider, "1.1N I know [that he likes sports]." The blue brackets indicate that the clause is functioning as an object, like the phrase "his hobbies" in "1.1 I know his hobbies".

It's also possible for clauses to function as predicate adjectives and predicate nouns. Consider, "0.3J Your boyfriend looks {like he works out}" and "0.4N The important thing is {that the children are safe}". The braces surrounding the last two clauses correspond to the dotted line styles that we would use in "0.3 Your boyfriend looks strong" and "0.4 The important thing is the children's safety."

None of the previous complex sentences contain an independent clause. The dependent clauses are all functioning as essential parts of Matrix clauses. The matrix clauses are incomplete without their dependent clauses.

The following complex sentences do contain independent clauses. We have already seen that clauses can modify nouns. Another example is "J0.4 The woman (who is sitting alone) is my teacher." The clause tells us which woman is the teacher. A prepositional phrase could enable the noun phrase to express a similar identification, "0.4 The woman (on the sofa) is my teacher." However, in some situations the modifier would be unnecessary. Maybe there is only one woman present. The clause "0.4 The woman is my teacher." could form a complete sentence. It is an independent clause.

The predicates of independent clauses can be modified or complemented by dependent clauses. Consider, "0.3A She is afraid [that the dog will bite her]." the adverb clause complements the meaning of the predicate adjective, just like a prepositional phrase could, e.g. "0.3 She is afraid [of the dog]".

Dependent clauses can also form adverbs of clauses. In the sentence, "1.1,A They won the game, [which is surprising]" the second clause modifies the first clause and expresses the speaker's point of view. A single word could function in the same way. "Surprisingly, They won the game".

The adverbs formed by dependent clauses, however, are most often used to modify verb phrases. In , "[Before he arrives], he will call us" the clause forms an adverb of time. Like other adverbs of time it could be moved to the end position, "He will call us [before he arrives]"., or it could be replaced by a prepositional phrase, "[Before his arrival], he will call us".

All of the dependent clauses in these examples begin with words that function as connectors. The words "that", "like", and "Before" are subordinate conjunctions and are coded with solid black underlines. The pronouns "What", "whoever", "who" and "which" also function as connectors, but their primary function is either a subject or an object within the dependent clause. They are called relative pronouns.

The key to understanding complex sentences is to understand the meanings of connector words. For example, clauses that form adverbs of reason will begin with the conjunction "because",

Adverbs of condition begin with the conjunction "if", and adverbs of concession begin with the conjunction "although". The color-coded grammar charts contain a complete list of conjunctions and prepositions, and they are grouped according to their meanings.

Movement of Grammatical Units

We have seen that certain types of adverbs can be moved to different positions in a sentence, and the meaning of the sentence does not change. These adverbs are modifiers. There are five other ways in which grammatical units can be moved.

The standard order of English sentences is Subject first, followed by a Verb followed by a Complement. S - V - C. This order can be reversed in four of the 15 predicate patterns. A complement is positioned first, followed by a verb, followed by a subject. Consider the difference between "Here is the key" and "The key is here". We usually reverse the 0.2 pattern to alert the listener to important information. The same kind of alert occurs with 1.2 patterns. Compare "Here comes the bus" and "the bus comes here". However, 1.2 patterns are also reversed in written stories to create a descriptive tone. Compare "1.2 [In a large shoe] lived an old woman" with "An old woman lived [In a large shoe]."

Writers also reverse 0.3 patterns to create a philosophical tone. Compare "0.3 Blessed are the peacemakers." with "The peacemakers are blessed". Reversed 0.3 patterns usually occur in compound or complex sentences.

The most commonly reversed pattern is 0.4. It uses the existential pronoun "there". When the word "there" follows a verb it is always used as an adverb. So, the existential "there" can only be used in this reversed pattern. Compare "0.4 There are fifteen predicate patterns" with "Fifteen predicate patterns are there". The pronoun is not considered to be the subject because the form of the verb is determined by the noun phrase. Consider "There is only one winner". (Since this existential pattern is always reversed, it is only necessary to code "there" as a predicate noun when explaining which noun determines the form of the verb.)

Grammatical units are also moved to change the mood of a clause, so we can form exclamations and questions. Exclamations are formed with the same patterns which are reversible 0.2, 1.2, 0.3 and 0.4, by moving the complement to the beginning of the clause. Examples are "0.2 There they are!" "0.3 How handsome you look!" and "0.4 What a smart girl you are!". Notice that the words "how" and "what" would be replaced with adverbs of adjectives if the complements were in the standard positions, i.e. "0.3 You look very handsome." and "0.4 You are quite a smart girl."

Questions can be formed with any of the 15 patterns. Yes / no questions are formed by moving a linking verb or an auxiliary verb to the beginning of a clause. Compare "0.3 We are hungry". with "Are you hungry?" and "1.1 We will eat pizza today". with "Will we eat pizza today?". Complements and Adverbs are replaced with question words and moved along with verbs to form other types of questions. In the question "0.3 How are you?" the word "How" refers to a predicate adjective. In the question "1.1 What will we eat today?" the word "What" refers to an object.

When objects are replaced by relative pronouns in dependent clauses, they also moved. Consider the pronoun "that" in "1.1J Someone ate the noodles (that we bought)". The pronoun refers to the noodles. The complex sentence is saying "we bought noodles, and someone ate them." Consider the pronoun "what" in "1.1N I know [what] they talked [about]." It has replaced the object of the preposition "about". The reverse order of the red brackets] [within the dependent clause indicates that the prepositional phrase has been separated.

Adjective clauses are also sometimes separated from the nouns which they modify. In the sentence "J1.1 One student passed the exam (who never came [to class])", the dependent clause directly follows the noun phrase "the exam", but it modifies the noun phrase "one student". The connector "who" makes it clear that the clause must modify a reference to a person.

Note that the meaning of the sentence is much different without the dependent clause. This illustrates how our minds don't simply combine predicates with the words that precede them. The clause "One student passed the exam" implies that none of the other students passed the exam. However, our minds first identify the subject as "One student (who never came [to class])" before combining the meaning of the predicate.

Both verbal phrases and noun clauses that function as subjects are also moved to the ends of sentences. In the sentence, "It is hard (to find a good job)". The blue parentheses indicate that the infinitive phrase is the subject, and the pronoun "it" is a secondary reference to this abstract noun. Recall that verbal phrases which function as subjects usually form gerund phrases. If we keep the subject to its standard position it sounds better to say "(Finding a good job) is hard".

The sentence "N1.2 It matters [to me] (what you think)." contains an example of a noun clause that can similarly be moved to the end position and referenced with the pronoun "It". You may remember seeing this subject in it's original position in the previous slide "N1.2 (what you think) matters [to me]";

Review:

We have now seen examples of almost every kind of grammatical structure that can be used in the English language. The goal was to enable you to see how our minds combine words into phrases before we combine the phrases into sentences.

The Color Code shows these phrasal combinations in six ways. The first way is with underlines that have the same color and the same line style. Some examples are "ice cream", "to play" "call off" and "ought to". The second way is with underlines that have the same color but different line styles. Examples are "most unusual" "to drive very fast" "seems to understand" and "should have been".

The third and fourth ways are with underlines that have the same color temperature and either the same or different line styles. Examples are "your friend", "fast cars", "should buy", "have eaten" and "are sleeping".

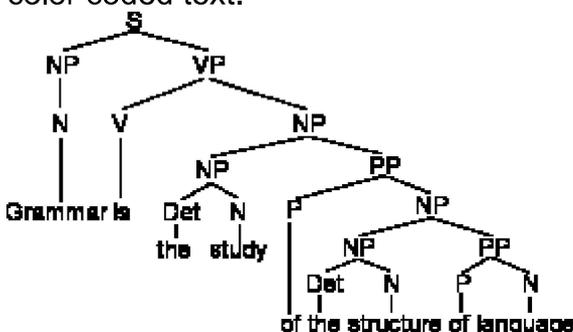
The fifth way is the most difficult to see because the colors are not physically related. You have to rely on the dashed and dotted line styles of four color styles and simply remember that they combine with verbs, which are coded with either red underlines. Examples are "seems to like sports", "began to get angry", "wants him to be a doctor" and "was known to lie".

The sixth way is by associating marker pairs with nine color styles. Because the three types of marker pairs correspond to the three line styles and have the same colors as the underlines, they can show how prepositional phrases, verbal phrases and dependent clauses combine with words and other phrases. Examples are "A friend (of mine) is {from France}". "happy [for you]", "to be {who you are}", "like [to drive fast]", "to talk [about sports]", "sit alone [in the car]" and "(Being a coach) is hard work, [In my opinion]"

English Training Wheels

The color-coding of text can be thought of as English Training Wheels. Training wheels are used to help children learn to ride a bicycle. However, the goal is to eventually be able to ride without the training wheels. Color-coded grammar similarly guides you in both understanding and forming English sentences. Eventually you will be able to hear and recognize the grammatical patterns in English without the color-code. I hope that color-coding will make learning English grammar easier for you and that you will tell others about this new educational resource at ColorCodedEnglish.com.

You should now be able to identify phrases and distinguish the subject from the predicate in any color coded text.



Grammar is the study (of the structure (of language)).

Can you see now how color-coding provides the same information as the labeled tree diagram? If you can, you are ready to start using color coded text to improve your language skills. The rest of

this grammar provides a comprehensive survey of grammatical structures.

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