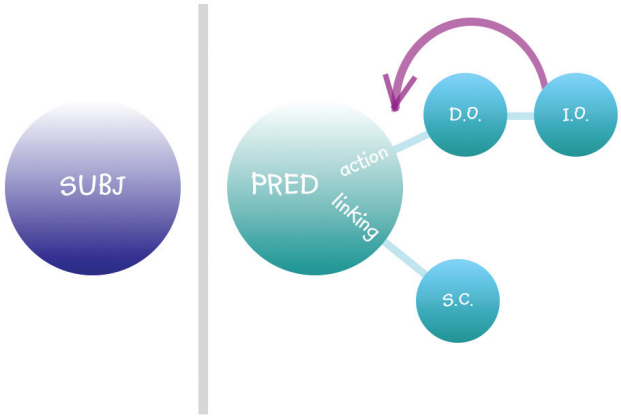
Grammar Voyage

Teacher Manual

Michael Clay Thompson

Art by Milton N. Kemnitz



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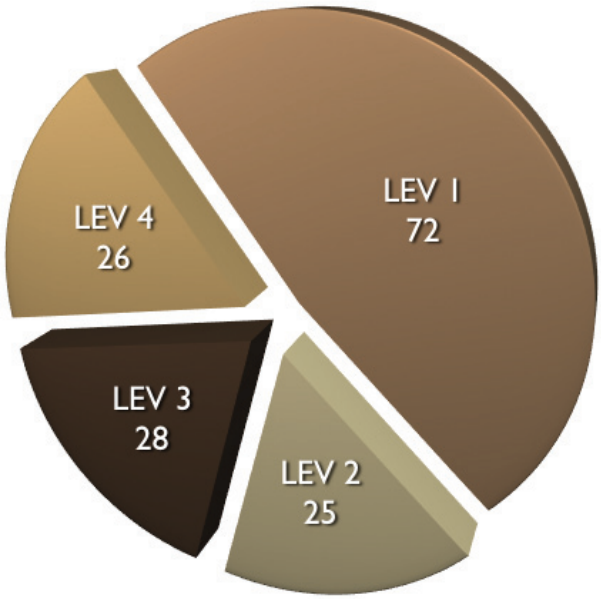
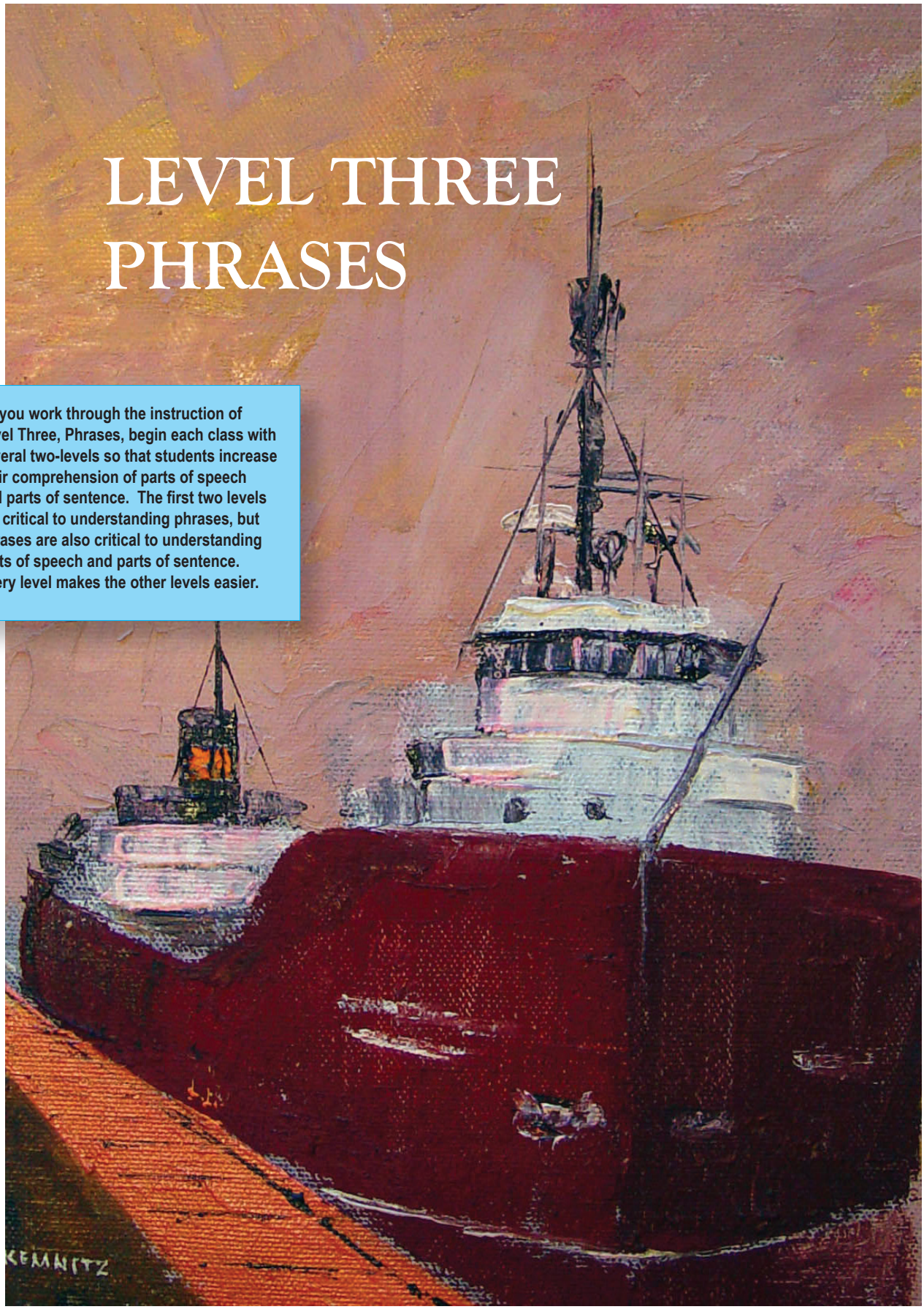


This pie chart shows the number of *Grammar Voyage* pages devoted to each of the four levels of grammar analysis. You can see that approximately half of the instructional time must be devoted to parts of speech.

LEVEL THREE PHRASES



As you work through the instruction of Level Three, Phrases, begin each class with several two-levels so that students increase their comprehension of parts of speech and parts of sentence. The first two levels are critical to understanding phrases, but phrases are also critical to understanding parts of speech and parts of sentence. Every level makes the other levels easier.

THREE KINDS OF PHRASES

prepositional • appositive • verbal

A **phrase** is a group of words, but it acts like **one** word,
like a *single* part of speech. It does a one-word job.
A phrase cannot have a subject and verb.
Some phrases act like nouns, others like adjectives or even adverbs.
A whole phrase, for example, can be a noun/direct object.

I	**love**	**eating swordfish steaks.**
subj.	AVP	D.O.

This is like "I love dogs" except
that the direct object is a three-word phrase.

1. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

Prepositional phrases always begin with prepositions,
and they act like **modifiers** (like adjectives or adverbs):

like an adjective: The ship **at the dock** sank.
like an adverb: It sailed **after sunset**.
like an adjective: It's a letter **for him and her**.
like an adverb: **From the forecastle** he shouted commands.

A prepositional phrase begins with a preposition that shows the relationship between its object, which will usually be a noun or object pronoun, and some other word in the sentence. Prepositional phrases are always modifiers. If a prepositional phrase acts as an adjective, it comes immediately after the noun or pronoun it modifies:

The main **hold** **of the ship** needed repairs.

See how *of the ship* modifies the noun *hold*, just as an ordinary adjective would? The phrase begins with the preposition *of* and relates its object *ship* to another word in the sentence, *hold*. If a prepositional phrase acts as an adverb, it can come in a number of different places, including at the beginning of the sentence:

From the start the trawler led the fleet.

In this case, *from the start* modifies the verb *led*. Notice that prepositional phrases do not have subjects and predicates. No phrases do. Many prepositional phrases start with a preposition, then have an adjective that modifies a noun: *on the deck*, prep-adj-n. Notice also that we do not put a comma after a single, short introductory prepositional phrase.

One of the problems that prepositions can cause occurs when a prepositional phrase modifies the subject of the sentence and therefore comes between the subject and its verb: *The leader **of the people** is benevolent*. The problem comes when we mistakenly match the verb to the object of the preposition instead of to the subject. We will examine this again in a few pages, but here is an example:

RIGHT: The **captain** of the pirates **is** cruel.
WRONG: The **captain** of the pirates **are** cruel.

2. APPOSITIVE PHRASES

Appositive phrases are interrupting definitions.
Enclosed in commas, they are put (*pos*) beside (*apo*)
what they define. They act like nouns or sometimes like adjectives.

Roberto, **the captain's poodle**, came on board early.
The canal, **an old lake system**, was still used by ships.

Appositive phrases are called *appositives* because they are apposed—put beside what they define. An appositive phrase is a graceful way of inserting a quick explanation or definition so that your reader is not confused for the rest of the sentence.

The *Franca C*, **a vintage passenger liner**, was in port.

Because appositive phrases are interruptions, there is a comma rule for them; there should be commas before and after the appositive or appositive phrase:

Calle del Cristo, **the street by the plaza**, is beautiful.

Notice that appositive phrases do not have subjects and predicates. Also, there can be a one-word appositive, such as a state appositive or date appositive. It is not always a phrase (group of words), but it still needs two commas:

My old friend, **Hernandez**, arrived on the afternoon ferry.
On March 10, **1837**, the harbor was sunny and calm.
Veracruz, **Mexico**, is a a seaside town.
New Orleans, **Louisiana**, is on the Gulf of Mexico.

Before the idea takes root that the verbals are difficult, point out that there are only THREE, and that each one can be defined in one sentence.

3. VERBAL PHRASES

Much of the time, we use verb forms
such as *thinking*, *broken*, or *snapped*
as verbs in sentences: I *am thinking*.
It *has been broken*. The branch *snapped*.
Often a helping verb helps to construct the verb tense.

Sometimes, though, we use these verb forms
in different ways: as nouns or modifiers.
A **verbal** is what we call a verb form
used as something other than a verb.
There are three kinds of verbals:
gerunds, **participles**, and **infinitives**,
and they can appear either alone or in phrases.

Notice how verbals clear up details in parts of speech: if you do not know gerunds, you do not completely know nouns. You need Level Three to understand Level One.

GERUNDS are nouns made out of *-ing* verbs.
Sailing is fun. I like **rowing**.
Eating pizza is my favorite activity.

PARTICIPLES are adjectives made out of verbs.
Sailing well, the rusty ship headed for the island.
Completely **broken**, the mast fell over into the sea.
Badly **cracked**, the red paint peeled off the hull.
The **snapped** mast fell to the deck.

INFINITIVES are nouns or modifiers made from the *to* verb form.
To sail is fun. (noun)
The man **to see** is Howard. (adjective)
He lived **to sail**. (adverb)
Note: We think of an infinitive as one word.
To think is regarded as one word.

Verbals show how creative our minds are. If we can take an action verb and make a noun out of it somehow, then we can make ideas not just about things, but also about actions. Verbals are not verbs in sentences, but they are still verby enough to do verby things. For example, look at this gerund phrase, in which the gerund is a noun and the phrase is the subject of the sentence:

Loading the cargo would take at least three days.

See the gerund phrase *Loading the cargo*? It is acting as the subject of the verb *would take*. Notice that the noun *cargo* is almost like a direct object of the gerund. It is receiving the action of the gerund *Loading*, just as if the gerund were still a verb. When this happens, we call it the *object of the gerund*. You also can have objects of participles and objects of infinitives:

Loading the cargo, the crew worked into the late afternoon.
To load the cargo is a good day's work.

Because a subject is a subject and an object is an object, the objects of verbals have to use object pronouns. Remember, everything called an object must use an object pronoun (*me you him her it us you them*):

Finding him and her was the best part of the voyage.
To find him and her is one of the goals of the voyage.

MISPLACED MODIFIERS

One of the dangers of using modifiers is that if you put a modifying phrase in the wrong place, it will modify the wrong thing. Usually, it modifies what you attach it to:

Chewing his gum energetically, a fly flew past the captain's nose.

The participial phrase *Chewing his gum energetically* modifies the noun *fly*. Because this modifier is misplaced, the sentence is ridiculous. We meant to say that the captain was chewing gum, but this sentence means that a fly is chewing gum

energetically. Better would be: A fly flew past Jones's nose as he chewed his gum energetically.

RIGHT: The sailor with the long hair ran away.
WRONG: The sailor ran away with the long hair.

A modifier is DANGLING when the word it means to modify is not even in the sentence: "Chewing his gum, a fly flew by."

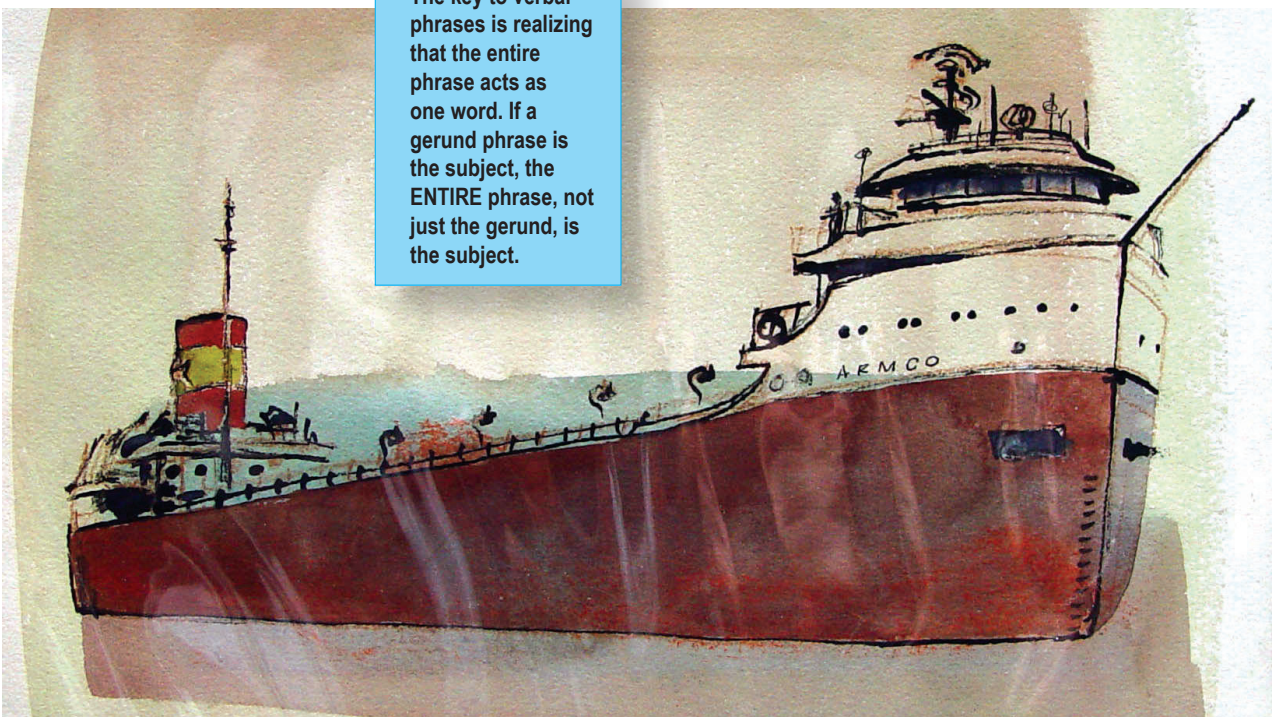
SPLIT INFINITIVES

An infinitive, such as *to think*, is regarded as one word. (A prepositional phrase, such *to Boston,* is two words.) We should never split the infinitive with another word, like *to really think*.

WRONG: You need to carefully think about that.
RIGHT: You need to think about that carefully.

Remember that phrases do not have subjects and verbs in them. Prepositional phrases, for example, do not. A prepositional phrase always begins with a preposition and then often is followed by an adjective and a noun. There is no verb in the phrase, so a phrase is not a complete idea.

The key to verbal phrases is realizing that the entire phrase acts as one word. If a gerund phrase is the subject, the ENTIRE phrase, not just the gerund, is the subject.



Subject/verb disagreement and the intervening phrase: potential disaster

Sometimes a phrase or two will come between the subject and its predicate in a sentence.

The **ship** *with the cargo of vegetables* **sails** north.

Here, the subject is *ship*, and the predicate is *sails*. What often happens in this situation, when the subject is separated from the verb, is that we become distracted and mistakenly match the verb to the object of preposition that is right next to it, instead of matching the verb to the faraway subject. When we do this, we get disaster, as here, where the subject is *ship* but the writer matches the verb to the object of preposition, *vegetables*:

The **ship** with the cargo of **vegetables sail** north.

This means the vegetables are sailing north! If the subject is plural, the verb must be plural too:

ship sails ships sail

The verb must ALWAYS agree with the subject in number (singular or plural), period.

This is one of the most important rules in grammar; the problem is not just that if your verb disagrees with your subject in number, you will be using bad grammar. The problem is really that if you do that, no one will know what you mean. Are you saying something about a boat, or about some boats? If you have a subject/verb disagreement, no one will be able to tell. The solution is simple: In every sentence, find the real subject and verb, match them, and ignore everything in between. If possible, avoid putting anything between the subject and verb; try to write so that the two are adjacent (side by side).

FIND THE PHRASES

In the passage below there are twenty-two phrases. There are prepositional, appositive, gerund, participial, and infinitive phrases. Can you find them all? Find the twenty-two phrases and identify the type of phrase in each case.

Through the moonlight, a thousand miles from land,
prepositional phrase — prep. phrase

the *Mallorca*, an aging two-master, slipped across the silent sea
appositive phrase — prepositional phrase

on its night run to reach Portugal by Monday.
prepositional phrase — infinitive phrase — prep. phrase

Keeping the course was an easy thing for Korzenioski
gerund phrase — prepositional phrase

because he had done it for thirty-one years, and soon he dozed.
prepositional phrase

Sleeping peacefully, Korzenioski dreamed of ports to visit now,
participial phrase — prep. phrase — infinitive phrase

if fate would give him a chance to see them all.
inf. phrase

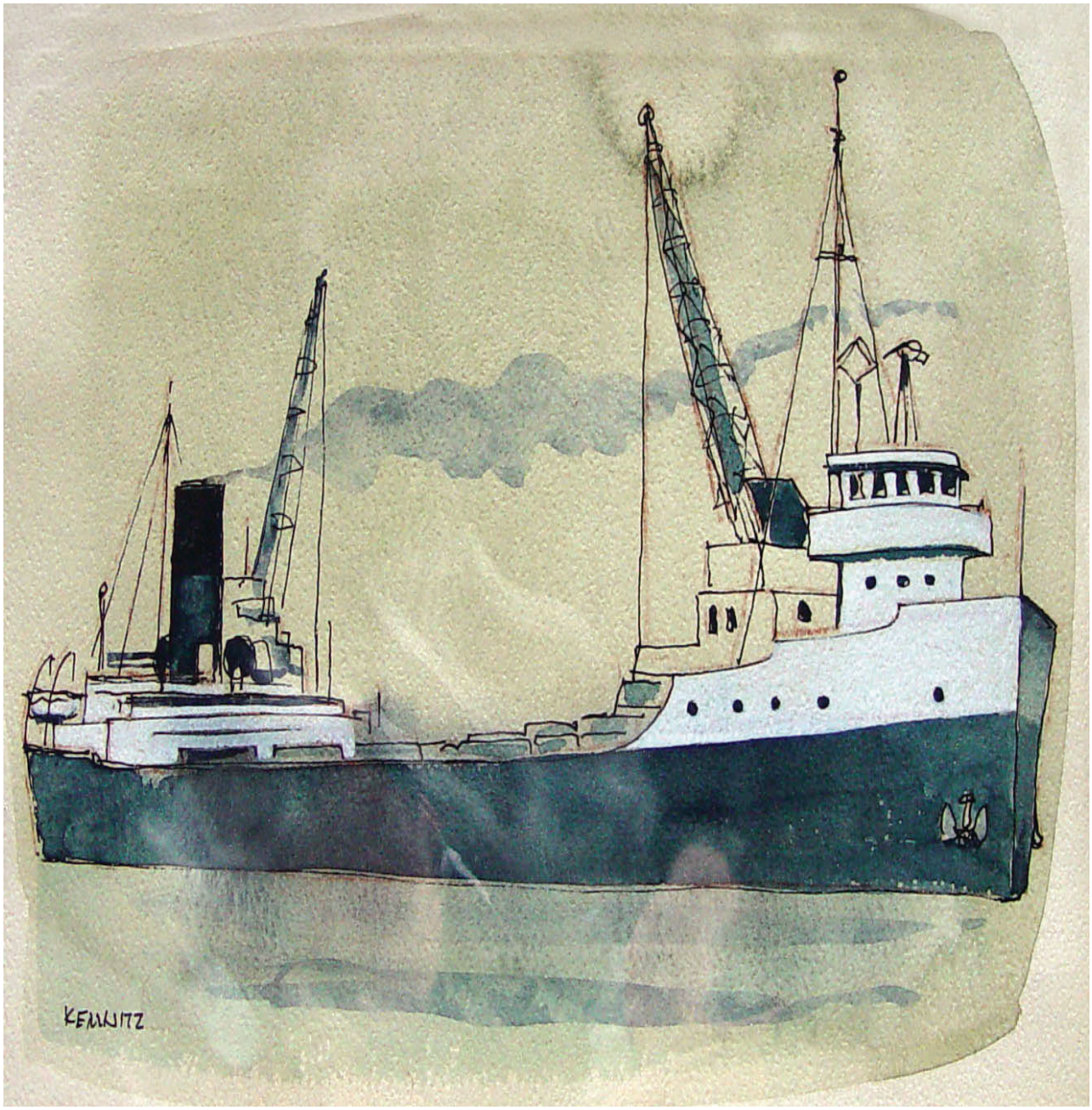
Five miles across the moonlit waves, a green light moved west.
prepositional phrase

Completely cracked, Korzenioski's propeller needed repair.
participial phrase

He enjoyed sailing the boat in the moonlight.
~~~~~~gerund phrase~~~~~~ ~~~~prepositional phrase~~~~

Finding his maps, Korzenioski began to plot a course.
~~~~~~participial phrase~~~~~~ ~~~~~~~infinitive phrase~~~~~~

Avoiding the hurricane, he would sail south for a week.
~~~~~~~~~~~~participial phrase~~~~~~~~~~~~ ~~prep. phrase~~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THREE-LEVEL ANALYSIS

As we become more aware of phrases, we admire what our minds do when we use phrases because they give our ideas flexibility and creative potential. If we lost the use of phrases, our language would be more primitive. Below each of the following sentences, there are three lines: one for parts of speech, one for parts of sentence, and a third for phrases. Study these sentences carefully because they introduce you to three-level analysis.

Launching	**the**	**lifeboat**	**was**	**easy.**
n.	adj.	n.	v.	adj.
~~subject~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~			LVP	S.C.
~~gerund phrase~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~				

Here we have a gerund phrase, *Launching the lifeboat*, used as the subject of the linking verb predicate. Remember that a gerund is a noun made out of an *-ing* verb. The predicate is *was*, a past tense linking verb, and this linking verb leads to a subject complement, the adjective *easy*.

The	***Franca C,***	**an**	**Italian**	**liner,**	**arrived**	**in**	**Santo Domingo.**
adj.	n.	adj.	adj.	n.	v.	prep.	n.
	subject				AVP		
		~~appositive phrase~~~~~~~~~~				~~~~~~~~~~prepositional phrase~~~~~~~~~~	

This sentence shows us an appositive phrase, providing a quick interrupting definition for the noun that precedes it. This is a graceful way to inform a reader. The sentence has an action verb, *arrived*, but in this case there is no direct object receiving the action. When there is no direct object after an action verb, we call the verb *intransitive*; a *transitive* action verb is one in which the action transits to a direct object. After the verb in this sentence, there is only a prepositional phrase. The object of a preposition will never be the direct object or subject complement. If it is an object of preposition, then that is all it is.

Yes,	**to be**	**frank,**	**I**	**am**	**he.**
interj.	adv.	adj.	pron. subject	v. LVP	pron. S.C.
	~~infinitive phrase~~~				

Here we have an infinitive phrase acting as an adverb, modifying the present tense linking verb *am*, which links the subject *I* to the subject complement *he*. Notice that the subject complement must be a subject pronoun. A subject complement structure is like an equation: I = he.

To leave	**harbor**	**in**	**this**	**storm**	**is**	**unwise.**
n.	n.	prep.	adj.	n.	v. LVP	adj. S.C.
~~subject~~~						
~~infinitive phrase~~~		~~~prepositional phrase~~~				

This sentence uses an infinitive phrase as its subject, and the infinitive in turn is modified by a prepositional phrase. We begin to realize that sentences often are filled with phrases. It is not unusual for most of the words in a sentence to be included in phrases.

Taking	**the**	**wheel,**	**the**	**captain**	**impressed**	**the**	**seaman.**
adj.	adj.	n.	adj.	n. subject	v. AVP	adj.	n. D.O.
~~participial phrase~~~							

In this sentence a participial phrase modifies the subject. The participle is *Taking*, and *wheel* is the object of the participle. This structure is called an introductory participial phrase; it always modifies the subject, and it is set off by a comma.

Hernandez	**gave**	**Ramos,**	**his**	**shipmate,**	**a**	**map**	**to study.**
n. subject	v. AVP	n I.O.	adj.	n.	adj.	n. D.O.	adj.
			~~appositive phrase~~				~infinitive~

This is an interesting sentence. We have an indirect object in its predictable place between the action verb *gave* and the direct object *map*, but the indirect object is immediately followed by an interrupting appositive phrase. At the end

of the sentence there is an infinitive acting as an adjective to modify the direct object, but we would not say that it is an infinitive phrase because it has no other words to accompany it.

Plotting the voyage gave the captain pride.

Plotting	the	voyage	gave	the	captain	pride.
n.	adj.	n.	v.	adj.	n.	n.
~~subject~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~			AVP		I.O.	D.O.
~~gerund phrase~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~						

In this sentence the gerund phrase *Plotting the voyage* serves as the subject of the sentence. Because gerund phrases are nouns, it is common for them to be subjects. In the phrase, the noun *voyage* is the object of the gerund *Plotting*.

The ship passing northward left a wake over the sea.

The	ship	passing	northward	left	a	wake	over	the	sea.
adj.	n.	adj.	adv.	v.	adj.	n.	prep.	adj.	n.
	subject			AVP		D.O.			
		~~participial phrase~~~~~~~~					~prepositional phrase~		

Here is an interesting participial phrase, *passing northward,* modifying the noun/subject *ship*. The participle is *passing,* made out of the progressive form of the verb *to pass*. Notice that, like a gerund, a participle might end in *-ing*; the difference is that a gerund always does, but a participle may have other endings, too.

When you see an *-ing* word in a sentence, you have to study the function of the *-ing* word to see if it is a verb, a participle, or a gerund. This participial phrase intervenes between the subject and its predicate *left*, which is an action verb that transfers the action over to the direct object *wake*. The sentence concludes with a prepositional phrase that acts adverbially, even though it follows a noun. This is an interesting example of the fact that even though a prepositional phrase must come right after a noun in order to modify it, it still may modify something else.

Here are some more examples of sentences that contain phrases. Study these three-level analyses to understand how the sentences work.

Placating	the	angry	captain	was	not	easy.
n.	adj.	adj.	n.	v.	adv.	adj.
subj.				LVP		S.C.
gerund phrase						

Retorting	quickly,	the	seaman	begged	for	another	chance.
adj.	adv.	adj.	n.	v.	prep.	adj.	n.
			subj.	AVP			
participial phrase					prepositional phrase		

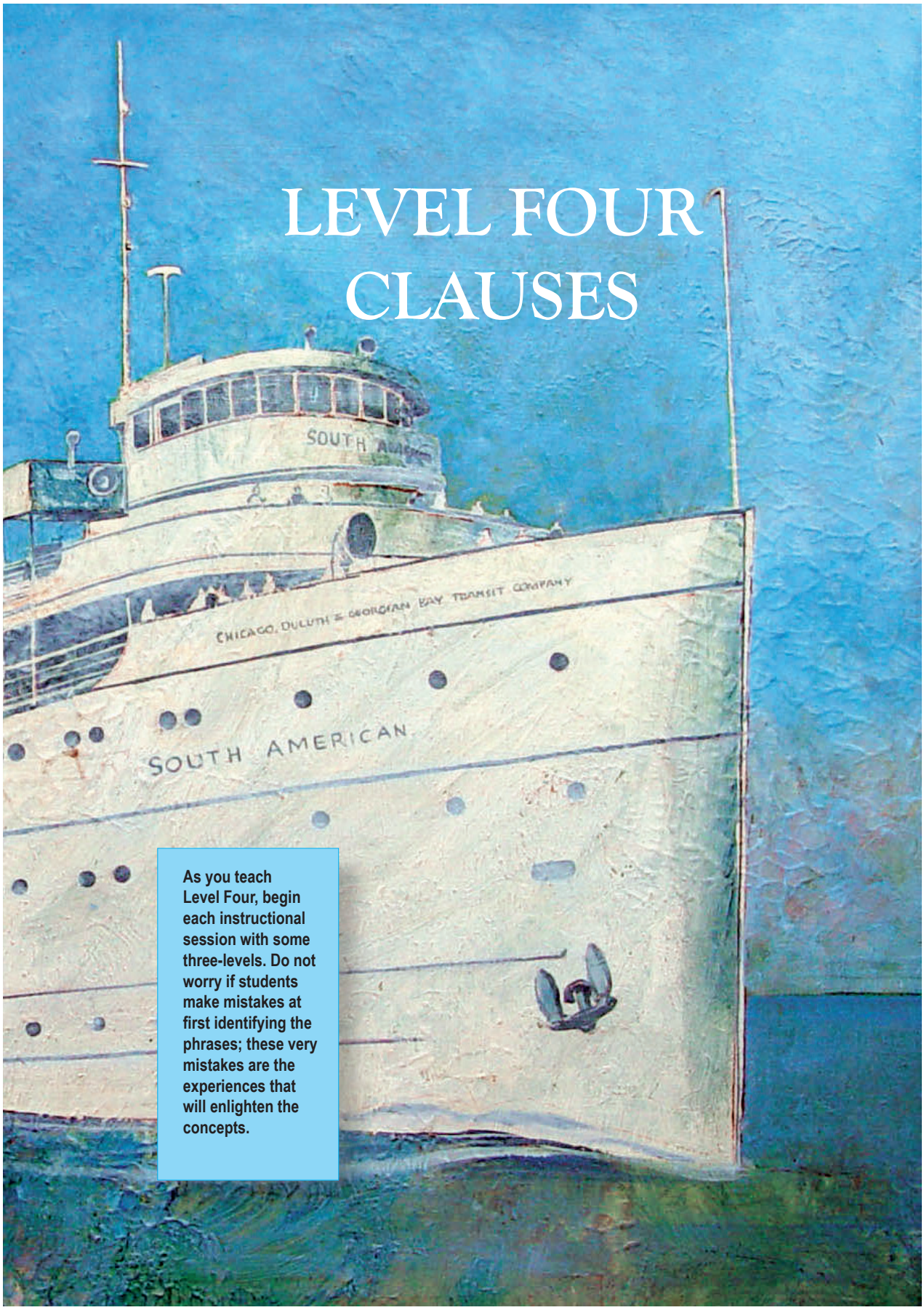
The	crew	always	hated	procuring	supplies.
adj.	n.	adv.	v.	n.	n.
	subj.		AVP	D.O.	
				gerund phrase	

His	obsequious	officer	wished	to gain	promotion.
adj.	adj.	n.	v.	n.	n.
		subj.	AVP	D.O.	
				infinitive phrase	

Her	response,	a	sanguine	reply,	seemed	benevolent.
adj.	n.	adj.	adj.	n.	v.	adj.
	subj.				LVP	S.C.
		appositive phrase				

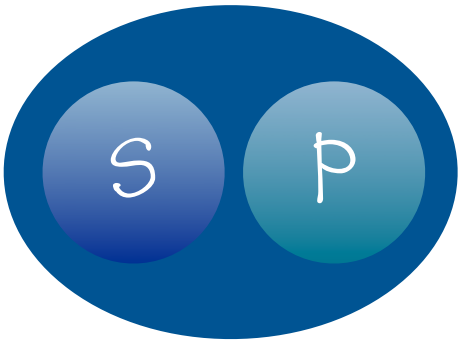
Mortifying	his	few	friends,	Roberto	was	indolent.
adj.	adj.	adj.	n.	n.	v.	adj.
				subj.	LVP	S.C.
participial phrase						


MIDDLETOWN
KEMNITZ



LEVEL FOUR CLAUSES

As you teach Level Four, begin each instructional session with some three-levels. Do not worry if students make mistakes at first identifying the phrases; these very mistakes are the experiences that will enlighten the concepts.



THE BINARY NUCLEUS OF THOUGHT

First, we learned that the **noun and verb** are the two most important parts of speech. Then we learned that the noun and verb become the **subject and predicate**, the two most important parts of the sentence. Then we learned that the **noun/verb** or **subject/predicate** pair is what may not be present in a phrase. And now we see where it all leads because the noun and verb pair is the very thing that must be present in every clause. The noun/verb pair is always the key—in all four levels of grammar:

Main two parts of speech: noun and verb
Main two parts of sentence: subject and predicate
Two things never in a phrase: the subject with its predicate
Two things always in a clause: the subject with its predicate

Each group of words with a subject and predicate is called a **clause**. The English word *clause* comes from the Latin word *claudere*, meaning to close; the idea here is that the subject opens an idea, and the predicate closes it.

The affable **sailor coiled** the rope neatly.

This is a seven-word clause because it has a subject, the noun *sailor*, and a predicate, the verb *coiled*. All of the other words are also part of the clause. They go with their subject and predicate. Sometimes we connect one subject and predicate to another subject and predicate to make a two-clause sentence.

The affable sailor coiled the rope,
and he moved the anchor.

Each group of words with a subject and a predicate is a clause.

The affable **sailor coiled** the rope

is a clause, and

he moved the anchor.

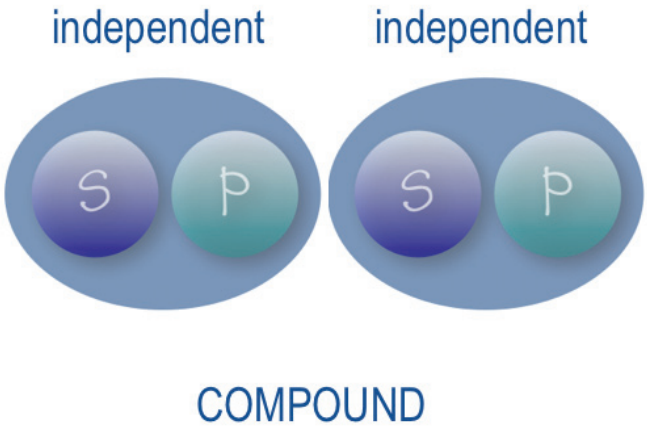
is a clause. Each clause has its own subject and predicate. It is like two sentences in one. In this sentence the coordinating conjunction *and* is not a part of either clause; the conjunction is like glue.

Clauses can be **independent**, making sense by themselves, or **dependent**, needing to connect to an independent clause in order to make sense. As we will see, there are three kinds of dependent clauses.

When we put two clauses together with a coordinating conjunction (*and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet*) to make a double sentence, this is called a **compound sentence**. If the sentence has only one clause, it is called a **simple sentence**.

SIMPLE SENTENCE: One clause

The Russian **freighter steamed** out of the harbor.
The livid **wound healed** in a week.
The abject **apology placated** the captain.
The adjacent **towns resented** the harbor.
His imperious **bearing offended** the passengers.
The **meteor made** a transient appearance above the ship.
Silver's eccentric **language confused** Jim Hawkins.



COMPOUND SENTENCES

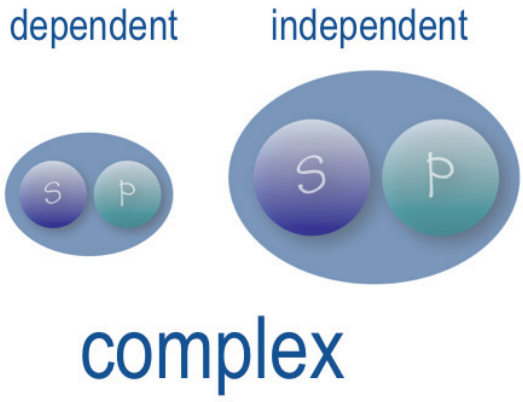
Compound sentences have two (or more)
independent clauses, joined either
by a comma and coordinating conjunction
or by a semicolon. They do not contain
dependent clauses.

Compound Sentences:

The freighter came to the pier**,**
and the tugboats returned to their docks.

The freighter came to the pier**;**
the tugboats returned to their docks.

The decision was irrevocable**, and** we stopped asking.
The event was transient**;** it never reoccurred.
His view was orthodox**;** he was the boss.
The ambiguous reply confused me**, but** it did not confuse her.
I left**;** his malevolence scared me.



DEPENDENT CLAUSES, COMPLEX SENTENCES

But let us look at another possibility.
What if two clauses are not joined
by a coordinating conjunction,
but by a **subordinating** conjunction
(*if*, *as*, *since*, *when*, *because*, etc.)?

The **captain laughed** **when** the **sailor fell** overboard.

The first clause, *The captain laughed*,
makes sense by itself, but the second clause,
when the sailor fell overboard, does not make sense.
The subordinating conjunction *when*
really does subordinate the clause.
It makes the clause **dependent**.

Complex Sentences:
If the order is irrevocable, we will carry it out.
Since the storm passed, no ships have departed.
We were mortified when he insulted the captain.

THREE KINDS OF DEPENDENT CLAUSES

adverb clause • adjective clause • noun clause

The dependent clauses we have seen
in these complex sentences are **adverbial** in effect.
They act like adverbs to modify the verbs
in the independent clauses.

There are also dependent clauses
that act like **adjectives**
and follow the nouns that they modify:

The **captain** **who sold the boat** left the harbor.

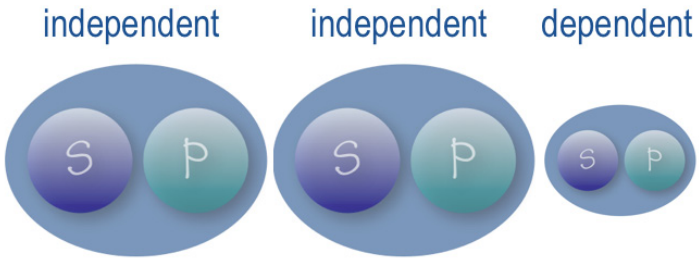
There are also dependent clauses
that act like **nouns**:

I know **who broke the anchor**.

In this sentence the dependent clause
who broke the anchor
acts as a noun/direct object.
Here is another noun clause:

Whoever defied the captain is a mutineer.

In this complex sentence, the noun clause
acts as the subject of the sentence.



COMPOUND-COMPLEX

COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCES

There is one more sentence structure to discuss.
What if a sentence has a **compound** structure
AND a **complex** structure in it?
Here is an easy example:

John sailed away**, and** we cried **when** he left.
~~~~~independent clause~~~~~ ~~indep. clause~ ~~~dependent clause~~~
~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~compound structure~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~
~~~~~~complex structure~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~

The first and second clauses make a compound,
and the second and third clauses make a complex.
We have two independent clauses followed by
a dependent clause. When a sentence contains
both kinds of structures, a compound and
a complex, we call it **compound-complex**.
Two independent clauses have to be adjacent,
or there is no compound.
~~~~~~

SENTENCE STRUCTURE REVIEW

Coordinating conjunctions
and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet

Subordinating conjunctions
if, as, since, when, because, ...

Clause
a group of words with a subject and predicate
Independent clauses make sense.
Dependent clauses are not complete thoughts.

Simple sentence
one independent clause
The liner steamed into port.

Compound sentence
two (or more) independent clauses
*The liner steamed into port**,** and the launch sped out to meet it.*
*The liner steamed into port**;** the launch sped out to meet it.*

Complex sentence
one independent clause, one dependent
The liner steamed into port as the launch sped out to meet it.
*As the launch sped out to meet it**,** the liner steamed into port.*

Compound-Complex sentence
a compound AND a complex clause structure
*A freighter arrived**,** and the tug hurried as the freighter entered port.*
*When the freighter arrived**,** the tug hurried**,** and the ship departed.*

PUNCTUATING CLAUSES

There are mandatory rules for punctuating clause structures.
Every sentence has one clause or more, so you
must know what clauses you are using when you write.

If **I** stands for independent clause,
and **D** stands for dependent clause,
and **cc** stands for coordinating conjunction,
then we can show sentence structure this way:

I,ccI or **I;I**

D,I or **ID**

In other words, if you have a **compound** structure with an independent clause joined to another independent clause, then you put a comma before the coordinating conjunction that joins the two clauses. If there is no coordinating conjunction, you must put a semicolon.

The harbor was quiet**, and** no ship moved.
The harbor was quiet**;** no ship moved.

We use a semicolon in a compound sentence in which the second clause begins with a conjunctive adverb such as *however*:

The harbor was quiet**; however,** no ship moved.

If you have a **complex** structure, you separate the clauses with a comma if the dependent clause comes first.

Go back and review the punctuation rules for the first three levels.

PUNCTUATING CLAUSES

For each sentence, circle the letter of every answer that is true. The complete answer can be any combination, including all or none. Just because an answer mentions an element of grammar, that does not mean that the element is really in the sentence; you have to know that, just as you would in real life.

1. The captains behavior is eccentric and its a problem for us.

a. an apostrophe in the contraction
b. a D,I complex sentence comma
c. an I,ccI compound sentence comma
d. an apostrophe in the possessive noun
e. a comma after *problem*

2. As their latent anger increased the crew became indolent.

a. an I;I compound sentence semicolon
b. a D,I complex sentence comma
c. a comma after *anger*
d. a comma before the preposition
e. a comma after *became*

3. The effect of the storm was transient the harbor recovered quickly.

a. a D,I complex sentence comma
b. an I,ccI compound sentence comma
c. an I;I compound sentence semicolon
d. a comma before *quickly*
e. a comma after *storm*

4. The tumult increased when the captain sounded the alarm.

a. a D,I complex sentence comma
b. an ID complex sentence; no comma
c. an I,ccI compound sentence comma
d. a comma after *captain*
e. an I;I compound sentence comma

5. His solicitude for their comfort increased morale in the ship.

a. a D,I complex sentence comma
b. an ID complex sentence; no comma
c. an I,ccI compound sentence comma
d. an I;I compound sentence semicolon
e. a comma after *comfort*

The purposes are perfectly named. The interrogative sentences do interrogate, the imperative sentences are imperial, and so forth.

FOUR SENTENCE PURPOSES

In addition to the four sentence structures
(simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex),
there are four sentence purposes.

DECLARATIVE SENTENCES
make declarations, statements.
The schooner sailed toward the sun.

IMPERATIVE SENTENCES
make commands.
The subject *you* is often implied, not expressed.
Steer the schooner toward the sun.

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES
interrogate; they ask questions.
The subject often comes between verb and helping verb.
Did the schooner sail toward the sun?

EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES
exclaim and use exclamation points.
The schooner sailed toward the sun!

Notice that these are broad descriptions.
Some sentences seem to have two purposes.