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Structure and meaning: materials for intermediate readers of English as a second language

Roberta Abraham
Iowa State University

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Structure and meaning: Materials for intermediate readers of English as a second language

by

Roberta Grannis Abraham

A Thesis Submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Partial Fulfillment of The Requirements for the Degree of MASTER OF ARTS

Major: English

Approved:

Signatures have been redacted for privacy

Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa
1976

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STRUCTURE AND MEANING

Materials for Intermediate Readers of
English as a Second Language

The oral-aural emphasis which has prevailed in second language teaching in the past few decades has undoubtedly enabled many students to function in the daily life of a foreign culture. Certainly no one will deny that the spoken language is important in second language teaching. However, in the oral-aural approach, the skills required for proficiency in the written language have often been neglected. And, at least for some students, the written language is also important—perhaps, as David E. Eskey suggests, even more important than the spoken language (Eskey, 1973. See "List of Works Consulted" for all materials cited in this thesis.) Such is the case with many of the foreign students who study English at Iowa State University. A large majority of them come to the United States in order to study some form of technology at a college or university. They must be able to read textbooks and write papers and reports in their fields. Our English program here must prepare them to do these things if it is to be effective.

There are a number of good textbooks for teaching these students writing, and we are using them. But we have felt that the reading textbooks which are available have been inadequate to prepare students to cope with college level
textbooks. Therefore, we have been trying to find other, more efficient ways to help students prepare for the demands of college level reading. The materials in the Appendix of this thesis are one of these ways.

In order to see how these materials fit into a reading program, one must consider the areas in which a foreign student must develop reading skills.

1. Vocabulary. That an adequate vocabulary is necessary is obvious to anyone. (The student is usually so painfully aware of his deficiencies in this area that he sometimes feels it is his only problem.)

2. Sentence structure. Knowing what individual words in English mean is not enough to discover meaning. The ways in which words are combined to form ideas within a sentence and the ways the ideas are then related are also important. Grammatical structure in written English is often very complex, and the student who cannot group words as he reads and then see the relationships of the groups is not a good reader.

3. Comprehension, analysis, and evaluation. Even knowing what individual sentences mean is not enough to discover an author's meaning. The good reader must read for main ideas in a passage. He must differentiate main ideas from supporting facts. He must evaluate what he reads, and, finally, he must relate an author's ideas to other things he has learned.
In vocabulary and in sentence structure, the foreign student has needs which are different from those of the American student. In comprehension, analysis, and evaluation, his needs are more nearly the same as those of his American counterpart.

Now let us look briefly at the kinds of materials which have been published in each of these areas.

1. Vocabulary. A number of vocabulary texts for foreign students are available. Helen Barnard's excellent *Advanced English Vocabulary: Workbooks 1, 2, and 3* are especially good for the foreign student of technology, and we require most of our students to work through them.

2. Sentence structure. Many structure or grammar books have been written to help students speak or write correctly. But as far as I know, there has been no text which helps students learn to find meaningful groups of words within sentences and words which signal relationships of groups as he reads.

3. Comprehension, analysis, and evaluation. There are many reading texts for low-to-intermediate level students which contain passages adapted from literature, articles on American culture, or scientific publications. The passages are usually followed by questions testing comprehension and vocabulary. Occasionally there are also oral-aural structure
drills and questions for class discussion. Usually in these texts the difficulty of the grammatical structures is carefully controlled. Such texts have their place in a reading program, but we have felt that they do not do enough to show lower-level students how to read the books they will soon be required to read.

For high-intermediate and advanced students, there is David P. Harris's Reading Improvement Exercises for Students of English as a Second Language which gives good practice in comprehension and analysis. And, since all students need to improve their skills in this area, some of the books written primarily for American students are appropriate for advanced foreign students as well.

The above analysis indicates a need for materials which will help the low-to-intermediate level foreign student learn to find, understand, and relate the structural units of the sentence. To meet this need, I have developed a series of lessons which examine the various kinds of structures commonly found in textbooks and show how such structures can be recognized and understood when they occur. I have aimed these materials at foreign students in the low-to-intermediate range of English proficiency.

Before I began even the preliminary work on these lessons, several instructors and students in the ESL program did an
informal survey of the kinds of structures which actually are used in textbooks, informational pamphlets, and journal articles. We found that there is a relatively small number of structures which are commonly used in these kinds of writing. If a student can really understand this small number of structures, he can probably understand 90% of the structures he will encounter in his textbooks.

There are two stages in acquiring such proficiency. First, the student must be able to recognize a particular structure. Often there are structure signals to help him—for example, the -s, -ed, and -ing endings on verbs, the to of infinitives, and the who, whom, whose, and that which introduce relative clauses. Second, he must know the meaning that can be determined from structure. The -ing verb form which names an activity and the infinitive phrase which expresses purpose are examples of forms which have structural meaning.

Accordingly, in these lessons, I have pointed out the signals that can help the student recognize the basic structures used in textbook writing, and I have shown the ways he can discover their structural meaning. There are several techniques for finding structural meaning. One is to ask certain questions about the structures. (Does this word preceding a noun answer the question which one?, what kind of?, or how many? Does this infinitive answer the question why? or for what purpose?) Another technique is to break down a given sentence into its
component propositions--in Noam Chomsky's terms, to show the deep structures which underlie a given surface structure. This approach is particularly useful in discussing relative clauses and participles. A third technique is paraphrase, which is used in the lesson on conjunctions.

In addition to showing students how to recognize structures and understand their meanings, I have provided many exercises which give an opportunity for practice in these skills. In order to make the exercises relevant to the student of technology, I have taken as the basis for the exercise sentences a construction technology textbook written under an HEW grant for high school and technical school students, *The World of Construction*. (This work entered the public domain December 31, 1975.)

These lessons have been in the making for over a year. The ideas behind them were tried out (in somewhat different form) in three nine-week courses given in the spring and summer of 1975. The response to them was generally favorable, especially among the lower-level students. Several students commented that the courses helped as much in writing as in reading (a reaction which one could have anticipated). While we did test students on the course material itself, we were not able to devise tests to find out how much the students' overall reading skills had improved as a result of taking the course. The problem here is, of course, that it is very
difficult to test overall reading skills. Test questions on reading are almost inevitably devised to test only one of the three areas of skills described above, and such tests do not give us the data we are seeking. Recently there has been some work done on cloze tests (words are deleted from reading passages either systematically or randomly, and students must fill the blanks with appropriate words). This work indicates that with students of English as a second language there is a high intercorrelation among results from this kind of test, reading comprehension, and other integrative skills (see Oller and Conrad). This testing technique might profitably be used to determine the effectiveness of these materials.

I would like to acknowledge the help of Dr. Quentin Johnson, my major professor throughout my graduate work, who advised me in setting up the study program which culminated in the production of these materials, and of Miss Barbara Matthies, the director of the program of English for foreign students at Iowa State University, who has provided me with both useful criticism and encouragement in all the stages of their development.
LIST OF WORKS CONSULTED


Pierce, Mary Eleanor. "Sentence-Level Expectancy as an Aid to Advanced Reading." TESOL Quarterly, 7 (1973), 269-77.


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These materials were written to fill a gap in the kinds of reading textbooks now available for adult students of English as a second language who are preparing to study science or technology at the college level. There are good materials already available in vocabulary study for these students. There are also materials available to give the ESL student practice in comprehension, analysis, and evaluation of reading passages. But nowhere have I found materials which will help a student with low-to-intermediate ability in English learn to cope with the complex sentences he will encounter as soon as he moves from the "artificial" world of the ESL reading texts into the "real" world of science and technology texts and journals. Low and intermediate ESL reading texts are almost always written with careful control of grammatical structures. There is a very limited amount of embedding and combining of ideas in sentences. But such control is not found in college level writing, and so for the ESL student the transition from one to the other can be difficult. For example, look at this sentence from an article on technology transfer:

In the first place it had to be learned that scientific-industrial technology, to be maximally useful in the underdeveloped countries, cannot simply be transferred but must be adapted to the conditions prevailing there (Gunnar Myrdal, "The Transfer of Technology to Underdeveloped Countries," Scientific American, 231 [Sept. 1974], 173).
This sentence does not appear particularly difficult to a native speaker of English. But it has some troublesome structures for the ESL student:

- What does *it* in the first line refer to?
- What is the real subject of the sentence?
- How does the infinitive *to be learned* fit in the sentence?
- How about *to be useful*?
- What about the verb *prevailing* (or is *prevailing* a verb at all)?

These materials are written for the low-to-intermediate student to help him with such problems. I have built lessons around structures such as the ones mentioned above, all of them very common in written English. The lessons point out the signals which the student can use to recognize these structures and the meanings that the structures convey. Obviously such an approach is not necessary for grammatically simple sentences. But there are enough grammatically complex sentences in almost any college level textbook to warrant such study. For the student who is trying to learn English quickly and efficiently in order to start his "real" work, these lessons can be of real value.

Students may tell you that their only problem in reading is vocabulary. You can quickly show them that this is not so by taking complex sentences and asking them true-false questions based on the structures of the individual parts and the relationships of the parts. We used this technique in the preliminary testing of these materials and found that very few
of our low-to-intermediate students could read carefully enough to score well on such questions.

The first lessons are not very difficult, and you can probably go through them rather quickly. However, the later lessons deal with verbals and dependent clauses, and they may take longer. You will probably need to furnish more examples than are provided in the later lessons, and you may want to spend more time going over the later exercises in class.

The exercises in each lesson are of two general types. First, I have taken sentences from a textbook on construction technology (Donald G. Lux and Willis E. Ray, eds., *The World of Construction* [Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight and McKnight, 1970]) and asked the student to identify and sometimes analyze the structures being considered in that lesson. I have tried to keep all the sentences in a given exercise on the same subject so that vocabulary problems will be minimized. You might need to take up vocabulary briefly when you introduce each exercise.

Second, I have asked the student to find examples of the particular structure we are dealing with in a textbook, magazine, or journal of his own choosing. You should encourage him not to use one of his English textbooks. He might have difficulty in finding the structures he is looking for there because of the careful control of structures by the writer. But also he should be discovering that these
structures really are the building blocks of the English sentences in his own scientific world. The sentences he finds and brings to class can be a very valuable teaching device. Students can share their sentences with the rest of the class, and you can point out how they do (or do not) fit the pattern that is being considered.

It is probably a good idea to test after each lesson or two. I would suggest giving the students a passage from some appropriate text or journal (Scientific American might be a good place to start) and asking them to find examples of particular kinds of structures in the passage. Such a test allows you to find out what they have learned, and it also helps them put the study of individual sentences into perspective. Although they need to understand individual sentences, such understanding is, after all, not their ultimate goal.

In most lessons I have used rather traditional classifications of grammatical structures, but occasionally I have grouped structures in a less traditional fashion. Such is the case in Lesson 5, where I have treated demonstratives, quantifiers, and descriptive adjectives together because they all modify nouns.

In the preliminary testing of these materials, we often heard the comment that this approach to reading is very helpful in writing as well. This reaction is really not too surprising. Although a recognition skill like reading must necessarily come
before a production skill like writing, the two are closely related. While I developed these lessons to serve as reading materials, I will be very happy if, by getting an enlarged view of written English structure, students can also reach their writing goals more efficiently.
When you read, you are trying to understand the writer's ideas. You probably think that vocabulary is your biggest problem in reading. Certainly you need to know the meanings of most of the words that the writer uses. But knowing vocabulary is not enough. In English, the way that the writer puts the words together in a sentence is also important. For example, you probably already know that

Crocodiles eat daffodils.

Daffodils eat crocodiles.

although both sentences have exactly the same words. You know this because you know that, in English, the subject usually comes before the verb and the object usually comes after the verb. There are other rules about writing sentences that you
must know in order to read and understand. This book will show you the basic patterns of English sentences and then it will show you how the basic patterns can be combined to make complicated sentences. It is not necessary for you to be able to produce these complicated sentences. But it is necessary for you to recognize the parts of a complicated sentence and to understand how the parts are put together.

Your goal in this course is understanding entire sentences. It is not a good idea to read one word at a time. Therefore, when you do the exercises in this book, try to see how all the parts of a sentence fit together to make the sentence complete.

The exercises in this book include sentences from an intermediate textbook in construction technology. The structures which you will practice in these exercises are very common in all scientific or technological textbooks. When you can recognize and understand these structures, you should be able to understand most of the structural meanings in your textbooks.

Illustrated by Magdalena Rojkowski
LESSON 1
Sentence Patterns

1.1. The basic sentence pattern of English can be written in a diagram:

Here S is sentence, NP is noun phrase, and VP is verb phrase. A very simple example of this pattern is:

Children play.

OR

The NP tells us who, and the VP tells us what the NP does. Usually the NP comes first in an English sentence. Most sentences, however, have more than two words. Look at this sentence:

Young children play in the park.

OR

young children play in the park
Here the most important words are still children play. But we have added two new ideas. We have said what kind of children, and we have said where they play. You can see that an NP or a VP could become very long. But there is usually one word (or one group of words) in each that is the most important.

1.2. The most important word in the NP (or the headword of the NP) is called the subject. It is usually a noun or pronoun. In the examples above, the subject is children. The subject tells us who or what the sentence is about.

Exercise 1.

Look at each word below. Put a circle around each one that can be a subject (who? or what?).

Example. book

1. pencil
2. wrote
3. door
4. student
5. ran
6. sat
7. table
8. he
9. bring
10. come
1.3. There is always one word (or a group of words) in the VP which is the most important. It is called the verb. In the examples about children, the verb is play. But sometimes we find sentences with two-word verbs, three-word verbs, and even four-word verbs. For example:

Children should play in the park.
Children were playing in the park.
Children have been playing in the park.
Children might have played in the park.

The most important word (or headword) in each of these verbs is a form of play (play, played, playing). Notice that the headword is the last word of the verb. The headword is always the last word of the verb. The other words in the verb are called helpers. In these examples, should, were, have, been, and might are all helpers. There are four kinds of helpers:

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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>must</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
When you look at a sentence, you must

1. find the entire verb
2. find the headword of the verb.

Exercise 2.

Look at each word or group of words. Circle each one that can be a verb. Then underline the headword of each verb. (If there is only one word in a verb, that word is the headword.)

Example. had arrived

1. ate
2. can buy
3. drugstore
4. is leaving
5. goes
6. we
7. had been sitting
8. office
9. looked
10. went

1.4 You probably knew most of the words in Exercises 1 and 2. But even when you do not know all the vocabulary, you can often get important information from structure signals. For example, you know that plural nouns usually end in -s (students, houses). The -s ending is a structure signal.
Nouns also very often have signal words before them. When you see such words as

a, an, the
this, that, these, those
my, your, his, her, its, our, their
John's, America's, workman's
first, second, fifteenth
one, two, fifty
few, little, many, much, several, some
other, another

you know that a noun will soon follow. Therefore, in the phrase *seven gables*, you know that a *gable* is a noun, even if you don't know what it means. In the phrase *those beautiful pheasants*, you have the word *beautiful* between the signal and the noun. However, you can be sure that sooner or later a noun will follow one of the signal words.

Structure signals can also help you find verbs. You know that verbs often end in *-s, -ed, and -ing*. These endings are signals. You also know that many verbs contain forms of *be, do, or have*, or a modal (see section 1.3). These helpers are also signals. Be sure to look for all these signals.

Here is one more structure signal that can help you. Sometimes a sentence has two similar parts. The two parts are usually connected with *and*. Sometimes they are connected with
When you see *and* or *or*, you know that you must find the two parts of the sentence that are connected. Here is an example of two **subjects** connected with *and*:

My **aunt** and **uncle** are visiting me.

Here is an example of two **verbs** connected with *and*:

The students **danced** and **sang** at the party.

**Exercise 3.**

Remember the basic English sentence pattern

```
S
 NP    VP
```

Look at each group of words below. If the group of words is a sentence, mark it with **S**. If it is not a sentence, tell whether it is an **NP** or a **VP**.

**Example.** The tall building **NP**

1. The cold water
2. A dog is barking outside
3. My mother's sister
4. Ate and drank
5. Some people in England
6. Left early
7. The driver stopped very quickly
8. The maniacs were raving
9. Susan and Diane
10. The gasoline exploded
11. Looked at his watch
12. Many large African elephants were in the zoo

Exercise 4.

All the groups of words in this exercise are complete sentences. Each one has an NP and a VP. Draw a line between the NP and the VP in each sentence.

Example. This text / ranges over the entire construction industry.

1. The first chapter discusses the history of technology.
2. Man has changed the form of the earth's resources from the past to the present.
3. Early men developed new tools for farming and hunting.
4. Men specialize today to make an abundance of products.
5. Products are distributed by an economic system.
6. Materials can be gotten by extraction from nature and by natural reproduction.
7. Oil can be extracted from the ground.
8. Reproduction is the normal life process.
9. Construction and manufacture change the form of materials.
10. Construction technology has become a very important part of industrial societies.

Exercise 5.

Go back to Exercise 4. Put a circle around the headword in the NP. Underline the complete verb with one line. Underline the headword of the verb with two lines.

Example. This \underline{text}/ ranges over the entire construction industry.

1.5. We have said that the basic English sentence pattern is

\[ S \rightarrow NP \quad VP \]

In this pattern, we have the NP (with the subject) first and the VP (with the verb) last. However, you probably already know that sometimes the subject does not come first in an English sentence. For example, in some kinds of questions, part of the verb comes first. But questions are never a problem to you in reading, because they are always followed by a particular kind of punctuation -- a question mark (??).
There is another very common sentence pattern in English. Look at the underlined sentence just before this one. What is its subject? You might think it is there, but there doesn't tell us who or what the sentence is about. The meaning of this sentence is the same as the meaning of the following sentence:

Another very common sentence pattern in English exists.

We could diagram this situation like this:

```
NP  S   VP  There  S   NP
  |          |      |          |
  |          |      | exists  |
  |          |      |          |
  |  Another very common sentence pattern in English |
  |          |      |          |
  |          |      |          |
  |  is another very common sentence pattern in English |
```

There in this sentence has no meaning. It only introduces the VP and NP. When you see there at the beginning of a sentence, you should look for the subject after the verb. Occasionally there at the beginning of a sentence means the opposite of here, but usually it has no meaning at all. Notice also that in a sentence beginning with There is, is means exist. (You will find similar sentences beginning with There are, There was, There has been, etc.)
Exercise 6.

All of the following sentences begin with there.
Underline the subject (one word) in each one.

Example. There are two divisions of industrial technology.

1. There are two ways of getting materials.
2. There are many products that each of us may want.
3. There are many places where facts can be found.
4. There has been a great increase in home construction.
5. There are several causes of conflict between the union and management.

Exercise 7.

Look in a magazine, a journal, or one of your textbooks and copy 5 sentences beginning with there. Underline the subject (one word) in each one.

1.6. There is another common English sentence pattern. It is called the command or imperative, and it looks like this:

Go to the window.

Look at the example.
What are the subjects of imperative sentences? They are always the same -- you. We can diagram an imperative sentence like this:

\[
S \rightarrow NP \rightarrow VP
\]

you must go to the window

Imperative sentences are the only sentences in English that do not have an NP.

Exercise 8.

Copy 5 imperative sentences from one of your textbooks.

(Where is a good place to look?)
LESSON 2
Adverbials of Time, Place, and Manner

2.1. Adverbials are words or groups of words that answer questions like when? where? how?

They are usually part of the VP. Look at these examples:

Jacob jogs daily. (when?)

Peter hurried to the post office. (where?)
The lake froze quickly. (how?)

The President will return to Washington in ten days. (where? when?)

Adverbials are often moved from the end of the sentence to the beginning. The last example above can also be written like this:

In ten days the President will return to Washington.

We can diagram this movement of the time phrase like this:
Here are some more adverbials.

**Time** (when?)

John's father arrived later.
The government prints a report annually.
During the concert no one spoke.
You must register for the summer session by May 1.

**Place** (where?)

There were storm clouds overhead.
You can park your bicycle near the library.
The workmen were planting trees along the highway.
At the entrance of the building, a crowd of students had gathered.

**Manner** (how?)

The nurse worked quietly and efficiently.
Jim went to the party alone.
You can learn to paint by going to art school.
Fill out the application form in English.
Exercise 1.

Underline the adverbials that show place (where?), time (when?), or manner (how?) in the following sentences. Write P above the adverbials of place, T above the adverbials of time, and M above the adverbials of manner. (Note: Some sentences have more than one adverbial.)

Example. Imagine that you are living almost two

\[\text{T million years ago.}\]

1. You might be running across a grassy plain

somewhere in Africa.

2. You see your mother far away.

3. She has been looking for food all morning.

4. In the evening your father sees an animal near

your cave.

5. He kills the animal with a sharp stone.

6. Men began to make things with stone tools a long

time ago.

7. Man found copper in Egypt about 5000 years ago.
8. Bronze was developed about 3500 years ago.

9. Not long after this, iron was first used in Europe.

10. Bridges and roads allowed men to travel and
    transport products rapidly.

Exercise 2.

Copy 5 sentences which show place, time, or manner from a
magazine, a journal, or one of your textbooks. Underline the
adverbials and write P, T, or M above each one.

2.2. Sometimes adverbials look like part of the NP.
For example:

The man in the park was running.

This sentence really has two ideas:

\[ \text{S} \quad \text{NP} \quad \text{VP} \quad \text{AND} \quad \text{S} \quad \text{NP} \quad \text{VP} \]

\[ \text{NP} \quad \text{V} \quad \text{Place} \quad a \text{ man} \quad \text{was in the park} \]

\[ \text{NP} \quad \text{V} \quad \text{the man} \quad \text{was running} \]

and these two ideas are put together into one sentence.
Here are some more examples of this kind of sentence:

The building on the corner is the hospital.
   (A building is on the corner AND the building is the hospital.)

The cookies in the jar are not very fresh.
   (Cookies are in the jar AND the cookies are not very fresh.)

The man behind the counter looked very dangerous.
   What are the two ideas here?

   (_________________ AND ___________________.)

Adverbials in this kind of structure usually show place.

Exercise 3.

Underline the adverbials which occur in the NP in these sentences. Write the two ideas of each sentence in the space below each sentence.

Example. The foreman on a construction job is the key man.

Idea 1. A foreman is on a construction job.

Idea 2. The foreman is the key man.
1. Professionals in the construction field wrote this textbook.
   Idea 1.
   Idea 2.

2. Management in construction involves the planning, organizing, and controlling of construction projects.
   Idea 1.
   Idea 2.

3. We in the United States measure goods and services by the GNP (Gross National Product).
   Idea 1.
   Idea 2.

4. Structures on the moon will contain their own atmosphere and temperature control systems.
   Idea 1.
   Idea 2.
2.3. Until now we have been discussing short adverbials. But often you will find long adverbials, especially to show time. Look at this example:

My grandfather could speak no English when he came to the United States.

Here we again have two ideas, and each idea has its own NP and VP.

My grandfather could speak no English.

\[
S \\
\begin{array}{c}
NP \\
\text{my grandfather}
\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c}
VP \\
\text{could speak no English}
\end{array}
\]

AND

He came to the United States.

\[
S \\
\begin{array}{c}
NP \\
\text{he}
\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c}
VP \\
\text{came to the United States}
\end{array}
\]

These two ideas have been combined into one sentence, and the time marker \textit{when} has been added to show the relationship of the two ideas.

A long adverbial can also be moved to the beginning of the sentence:

When my grandfather came to the United States, he could speak no English.
When you have a long adverbial at the beginning of a sentence, you will almost always find a comma after the adverbial. The comma is another structure signal. Be sure to use it when you read.

Here are some more examples of sentences with long adverbials. (The time markers are underlined twice.)

After the game was over, we went to the drugstore for cokes.

Mike feels very happy whenever he gets a letter from his girlfriend.

Before George ate his dinner, he read the evening newspaper.

Professor Murray visited with his students until his next class began.

Exercise 4.

Underline the long adverbial in each sentence. Put two lines under the time marker in each adverbial.

Example. The Mississippi River system for flood control and water transportation has cost billions of dollars since it was begun in 1824.
1. After someone gets an idea for a construction project, he must get information about the project.
2. All the possible ways of doing things should be looked at before a project is started.
3. Before any definite plans are made, the owner may ask for a feasibility study by a specialist.
4. After the feasibility study has been given to the owner, he can decide to go ahead with the project.
5. The initiator (project starter) must sometimes work very hard to get a public project going before final approval is given.
6. When the money is made available for a public project, a government agency usually takes over.
7. When an individual wants something built, he does not have to get public support.
8. Once a person decides to build something, he has to find enough money for it.
9. After a feasibility study is made and money is available, a site (location for the construction) is chosen.
10. The site is not chosen until a long and careful study has been made.
Exercise 5.

Look in a magazine, a journal, or a textbook for 5 sentences with long adverbials. Be sure that

1. the adverbial answers the question when?
2. the sentence has two ideas
3. each idea has an NP and a VP.

Copy the sentences. Underline the long adverbials with one line. Underline the time markers with two lines.
LESSON 3

More about Verb Phrases

3.1. We have said that the most important word (or group of words) in a VP is the verb. But we have also seen that the VP can have adverbials which answer the questions when?, where?, or how?. In this lesson, we will talk about other structures which we sometimes find in the VP.

Very often we find a noun phrase as part of the VP. Look at this sentence:

My brother is an engineer.

We can diagram it like this:

```
  S
    /\    \\
   NP  VP
   /    \  ____
  my brother is an engineer
```

Notice that NP (in capital letters) is used for the noun phrase that includes the subject of the sentence, and that np (in small letters) is used for the noun phrase that is part of the verb phrase.

Now look at another example of an np in a VP:

John visited Bill.
The diagrams of these two sentences look alike, don't they? But there is an important difference between the two. In the first sentence, my brother (NP) and engineer (np) are the same person. The verb is joins or links the NP and the np. In the second sentence, John (NP) and Bill (np) are not the same person. We can say that John is the actor and Bill is the person who receives the action. Bill is the object of the verb visited.

3.2. How can you recognize the two different patterns? The only way is to know the verbs that can be used in each pattern. Actually that is not difficult. There are only a few verbs that you will find in the first pattern. The most common one is be in its various forms. Probably more than 90% of all the sentences in this pattern have a form of be for the verb.

Of course, you must be able to recognize quickly the forms of be. You are already familiar with the one-word forms of be. (There are only five -- am, is, are, was, and were.) A form of be can also have several words. You can recognize longer
forms of be because the headword is always be, been, or being.

Here are some more sentences with forms of be as verbs. The headwords of the NP and the np are underlined once. The verb is underlined twice. Notice that in all of these sentences the NP and the np are the same person or thing.

Johann Sebastian Bach/was an eighteenth-century composer.

Yumiko/will be president of the International Club.

John/might have been a doctor.

The United States/has been an independent country since 1776.

3.3. Verbs that fit into the second pattern can also have several words. For example, we could say:

John has visited Bill.

John will visit Bill.

John is visiting Bill.

In all of these sentences the headword of the verb is a form of visit. Bill is still the object of the verb.

Here are some more sentences with verbs that have objects. The headwords of the NP and the np are underlined once. The verb is underlined twice. Notice that the NP and the np are
not the same person or thing.

Maggie / eats ice cream every night.

The baby / threw his plate on the floor.

The friendly dog / was wagging his tail.

Antonio / might be carrying his passport today.

Many of these examples also have adverbials in the VP. Can you find them?

3.4. Now look at these two sentences:

a. John should have been a lawyer.

b. John should have been helping a lawyer.

What is the difference between them? You can see that when you read it is very important to look at the headword of a verb. When you find a linking verb, you have an important kind of structure signal. When you find a verb with an object, you have another important kind of structure signal. Both kinds of signals tell you about meaning.
Exercise 1.

Draw a line between the NP and the VP in each sentence. Underline the complete verb with one line. Underline the headword of the verb with two lines.

Example. The first construction / might have been only a crude lean-to shelter.

1. Through the years, man has constructed the many wonders of the world.
2. Construction technology has always been a very important part of man's life.
3. Today we need more and more constructed objects.
4. Large construction firms may have a regular staff of consultants.
5. An initiator for a project may be a private citizen.
6. An example of a small public project would be a sidewalk in front of a school.
7. The contractor must determine the cost of the equipment per hour.
8. A small contractor may make his own estimates.
9. An estimate is a careful calculation of the cost of a job.
10. An estimator may get the price from a catalog.
Exercise 2.

Look again at the sentences in Exercise 1. Circle the headword in the NP. Then find the np and circle its headword. If the two headwords are the same person or thing, put a check (✓) next to the sentence.

Example. The first construction / might have been only a crude lean-to shelter. ✓

Exercise 3.

Look in a magazine, a journal, or one of your textbooks. Copy 5 sentences with a linking verb and an np that is the same person or thing as the subject. Copy 5 sentences that have verbs with objects.

3.5. We need to look at one other kind of VP which is very common. Sometimes we find an adjective as part of the VP. Here is an example of this kind of structure:

My brother is tall.

OR

\[ S \rightarrow NP \rightarrow my \ brother \rightarrow V \rightarrow is \rightarrow VP \rightarrow Adj \rightarrow tall \]
What kind of verb do you have in this sentence? It is a form of be, isn't it? The verb links tall to my brother, and tall tells us something about my brother. This sentence is very similar to the sentence

My brother is an engineer.

The only difference is that an engineer is an np and tall is an adjective. Both an engineer and tall refer to my brother.

Here are some more examples of sentences with a form of be and an adjective. The headword of the NP and the adjective in the VP are underlined once. The verb is underlined twice. Notice that in all of these sentences the adjective in the VP describes the subject.

Mailboxes in the United States / are blue.

Jane / should be happy today.

The old man / has been sick recently.

Iowa winters / are usually cold.
Exercise 4.

Draw a line between the NP and the VP in each sentence. Underline the complete verb. Underline the headword of the verb with two lines.

Example. A good site / is important for the success of a construction project.

1. Many state capitals are now in the wrong place for today's distribution of population.
2. A site must be useful for the intended purpose of the project.
3. Markets for industrial products must be available.
4. Workers in the area must have appropriate skills.
5. There must be transportation to and from a site.
6. Most industry needs large amounts of water for processing, heating, cleaning, drinking, and cooling.
7. Property taxes should not be high.
8. A suitable climate is necessary for some manufacturing processes.
9. The purchase of a site is sometimes very easy.
10. The buyer and the seller must reach an agreement.
Exercise 5.

Look again at the sentences in Exercise 4. Circle the headword in each NP. If there is an adjective in the VP which describes the subject, circle it also.

Example. A good [site] is [important] for the success of a construction project.

Exercise 6.

Look in a magazine, a journal, or one of your textbooks. Copy 5 sentences with a linking verb and an adjective that describes the subject.
LESSON 4

Passives

4.1. In Lesson 3 we looked at this sentence pattern:

```
S
 NP   VP
John  visited Bill
```

(not a form of be)

In this lesson, we are going to look at another pattern which is very closely related to the pattern in lesson 3. Look at these two sentences:

a. Engineers use calculators.

b. Calculators are used by engineers.

These two sentences have very similar meanings, but they have different structures. If you look closely, you will see that

1. They have different subjects.

2. The first sentence has a one-word verb, but the second sentence has a two-word verb.

3. The verb in the first sentence has an object. The verb in the second sentence has no object, but the second sentence ends with a by phrase.
However, you will also notice that

1. The same nouns appear in both sentences (*engineers, calculators*).

2. Both sentences have forms of the verb *use*.

By making a few changes in structure, we can change the first sentence into the second sentence. These structure changes do not change the meaning. Here is a diagram of the changes:

4.2. Look again at the second sentence above. You can see that:

1. The subject is not the actor. The actor (or actors) is named in the *by* phrase.

2. The object of the verb in the first sentence is the subject in the second sentence.

3. The verb contains a form of *be*, and its headword ends in *-ed*. 
The second kind of sentence is called a passive sentence, and its verb is called a passive verb. When you see a verb with a form of be and a headword ending in ed, you can be sure that you have a passive verb structure. And when you recognize a passive structure, you know something about the meaning of the sentence. You know that the subject is not the actor. The actor is the noun in the by phrase.

You may wonder why English has two common sentence patterns with similar meanings. Sometimes, especially in scientific textbooks, the actor is not very important. Only the person or thing that receives the action is important. Very often in passive sentences the by phrase (naming the actor) does not even appear.

Here are some typical textbook sentences:

Workmen must be protected at a construction site.

Materials can be tested and measured until each piece is very much like another.

Construction technology can be simplified into common elements.

Notice that each sentence has a passive verb, but none has a by phrase. In each sentence, the action and the person or thing which receives the action are important to the writer, but the actor is not important.
4.3. All of the passive verbs that we have looked at in this lesson have headwords ending in -ed (are used, must be protected, can be tested, can be measured, can be simplified). They are all regular verbs. When you have an irregular verb in a passive sentence, you will find the past participle (third part) of the verb as the headword. Look at these examples:

The zookeeper was bitten by the snake.
(The principal parts of the verb are bite, bit, bitten.)

This research project was begun in May.
(The principal parts of the verb are begin, began, begun.)

Soybeans and corn are grown in Iowa.
(The principal parts of the verb are grow, grew, grown.)

All of the verbs in these sentences are passive.

4.4. Remember that in passive sentences you have a structure signal that tells you meaning. When you see a verb that has a form of be and a headword ending in -ed (or a headword that is the past participle of the verb), you know that the subject receives the action. (As always in English,
there are exceptions to this rule. But it is true most of the time. Use this structure signal when you read.

Exercise 1.

Underline the verbs in the sentences below. Put a check (√) beside the sentences that have passive verbs.

Examples. Laboratory testing is done to find out about soil compressibility. √

The United States Geological Survey has mapped most of the country.

1. Surveys are classified as to their function.
2. Sometimes surveyors have made topographical surveys of an area.
3. Land surveys are made to establish boundaries.
4. A survey must start from known points.
5. Some information can be found about a site beforehand.
6. Public utilities, railroads, and city and county engineers may have helpful information.
7. Some land has been surveyed before.
8. Sea level at a certain point is often used as a fixed level.
9. Early surveyors used large stones as markers.
10. Today concrete posts are used.
Exercise 2.

Passive verbs are very common in textbooks. Below is a paragraph from the textbook on construction technology. There are 9 passive verbs in it. Can you find all of them? Underline them.

Refining is the first step in judging the beginning ideas with respect to the master plan. The beginning ideas are improved, are drawn to scale, and are studied to obtain a realistic idea of the size, form, and details of the design. Dimensions such as roof height, square footage, storage space, parking areas, and structural parts can be checked as the design is improved and is drawn to scale. Refinement drawings are not plans from which the project could be constructed. They are general scale drawings that will show important details that should be defined as early as possible before the design is analyzed.

Exercise 3.

Copy 5 sentences with passive verbs from a magazine, a journal, or one of your textbooks. Underline the verbs.
LESSON 5

Adjectives

5.1. Adjectives answer questions like

what kind of?
which one?
how many?
how much?

They describe or modify nouns. We have seen adjectives in Lesson 3. In that lesson, the adjectives are used after linking verbs to describe the subject. But you will usually find adjectives closer to the nouns they modify. A one-word adjective usually comes before its noun. A group of words which acts as an adjective usually comes directly after its noun.

5.2. First, let us look at some examples of one-word adjectives:

The icy street caused George’s accident. (what kind of street?)

That painting is in the Louvre. (which painting?)

Several people were watching TV in the lounge. (how many people?)
Little water can be found in a desert. (how much water?)

Each of these adjectives modifies the headword of the NP, or the subject. But adjectives can modify nouns which are any place in the sentence. In the following examples, the adjectives modify the headword of an NP. What questions do the adjectives answer?

Jim ate six doughnuts for breakfast. (___________?)

The new building has enough space for laboratories. (___________?)

I don't like those shoes. (___________?)

A computer is a very complex device. (___________?)

Sometimes an adjective modifies a noun which is part of an adverbial. In these examples, the adverbial is underlined once, and the adjective is underlined twice.

The Memorial Union is in a convenient location.

Bob has been to Minneapolis many times.

Before Miguel came to this country, he read about it in a magazine.
5.3. How can you recognize adjectives when they are in your reading material? You are probably already familiar with most of the adjectives that answer the questions how much? and how many?. There are not very many of them. They include words like these:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How much?</th>
<th>How many?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>much</td>
<td>many</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a lot of</td>
<td>a lot of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>some</td>
<td>some</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) little</td>
<td>(a) few</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>all</td>
<td>all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enough</td>
<td>enough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>one, two, thirty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>several</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are also some very familiar adjectives which answer the question which one?.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Which one? (ones?)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>these</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>those</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You have already seen most of these words back in Lesson 1 (section 1.4).
Other adjectives which answer which one? and adjectives which answer what kind of? are a little more difficult to recognize. Some of them must simply become part of your reading vocabulary. However, there are often structure signals to help you recognize these kinds of adjectives.

First of all, these adjectives are often used when the writer is comparing people or things. For example:

Tennessee has a warmer climate than Iowa.  
(what kind of climate?)

A Cadillac is a more expensive car than a Volkswagen.  
(what kind of car?)

Two things are compared in each of these sentences. The structure signals are the -er ending and the word more. Here are two more examples:

John F. Kennedy was the youngest president of the United States.  (which president?)

Pierre is the most intelligent student in the class.  
(which student?)

The structure signals are the -est ending and the word most. (The structure signals -er, -est, more, and most are occasionally found with adverbs of manner. However, they are more common with adjectives.)
Second, many adjectives have special endings. Here are three of the most common endings which are found only on adjectives:

- **-able** Pavel has a comfortable room.
- **-ful** Everyone needs a helpful friend.
- **-al** You must have a ticket to attend most musical events.

(Note: Nouns and verbs can also have their own special endings. There is a more complete list of special endings at the end of this book.) When you see a word with a special ending, you have found an important structure signal.

Exercise 1.

Underline the adjectives in the following sentences. Put a circle around the noun that each adjective modifies.

Remember that adjectives answer the questions

which one?
what kind of?
how many?
how much?

What question does each adjective below answer? Write the question in the space under each adjective. (Note: There may be more than one adjective in each sentence.)

Example. One of the tallest buildings in the world is in New York.
1. One of the most spacious buildings in the world is the one in which large rockets are assembled.

2. A hundred years ago the lower part of a tall structure had to have thick walls.

3. The owner of a skyscraper may be a commercial company which needs a large amount of space for offices.

4. A skyscraper is usually designed by several architectural firms.

5. A general contractor is usually selected to construct a skyscraper.

6. He will employ many subcontractors to do mechanical work, electrical work, and other special jobs.

7. Very few skyscrapers are built on open fields or vacant lots.

8. A skyscraper gives the greatest amount of useful space on the smallest amount of land.
9. Consideration must be given to architectural details such as the walls and finishes.

10. In the future, contractors will require better materials and more productive equipment.

Exercise 2.

Copy 5 sentences with adjectives from a magazine, a journal, or one of your textbooks. Underline the adjectives. Put a circle around the noun that each adjective modifies. Tell which question each adjective answers.

5.4. Sometimes a prepositional phrase can modify a noun. In this case, the prepositional phrase is used like an adjective. The prepositional phrase always follows the noun. Look at the examples below. The prepositional phrase is underlined once and the noun that it modifies is underlined twice.

Most people need a pencil with an eraser when they work crossword puzzles. (what kind of pencil?)

Last night Dr. Bennett gave a lecture about China. (what kind of lecture?)

You can buy equipment for tennis at a sporting-goods store. (what kind of equipment?)
The name of the new professor is Dr. Weber. (which name?)

The most common preposition that you will find in this kind of phrase is of.

Notice that a prepositional phrase has a preposition (the first word) and a noun. Whenever you have a noun, you can also have an adjective. There is one prepositional phrase in the examples above that has its own adjective. Can you find it?

Exercise 3.

Underline with one line the prepositional phrases that modify nouns in these sentences. Underline the nouns which the phrases modify with two lines.

Example. This chapter is a lesson about contracts.

1. In the construction business there are four kinds of contracts.
2. The unit price contract is one kind of contract.
3. In the unit price contract there might be one price for the excavation and one price for the paving.
4. The contract would have an estimated quantity of cubic yards of excavation.
5. Sometimes the contractor is paid a flat percentage of his cost.
6. In the incentive contract, an estimate of the cost of the project is made.
7. Competition usually results in the lowest cost for a project.
8. Some kinds of contracts require negotiation.
9. A general contractor has the overall contract with the owner.
10. He might subcontract all of the plumbing work to a plumbing contractor.

Exercise 4.

Look in a magazine, a journal, or one of your textbooks and copy 5 sentences with prepositional phrases that modify nouns. Underline the prepositional phrase once and the noun twice.

5.5. Sometimes a noun can act like an adjective and modify another noun. Look at this example:

Mr. Norton owns the corner drugstore.

There are two ideas here:

Mr. Norton owns the drugstore. AND The drugstore is on the corner.
Mr. Norton owns the drugstore. The drugstore is on the corner.

These are put together in one sentence, and the word corner answers the question which drugstore? In the sentence

Mr. Norton owns the corner drugstore.

the corner drugstore is an np, and drugstore is the headword of the np. Notice that drugstore comes last. The headword in this kind of structure almost always comes after the modifier.

Here are some more examples of nouns which modify nouns.
The modifier is underlined once, and the headword is underlined twice.

I am wearing a wool coat. (what kind of coat? a coat made of wool.)

John was waiting at the train station. (which station? the one for trains.)

Your room application must be turned in by Friday. (which application? the one for a room.)

This kind of structure is very common in English. When you see two nouns together, remember this structure signal: the headword comes last.
Exercise 5.

Find nouns which modify nouns in these sentences. Underline the modifier once and the headword twice.

Example. You have read how land surfaces are measured and described.

1. A construction designer must know about the soil for the foundation.
2. Topsoil contains decayed vegetable matter.
3. Some characteristics of soil depend on the soil particles.
4. The amount of water in the soil depends on the height of the water table.
5. Water under the ground is like surface water because it is usually in motion.
6. When there are unusual drainage problems, soil specialists may be hired to do a soil analysis.
7. Government agencies sometimes have facts about the soil.
8. A soil tester may dig holes and take samples at several depths.
9. These holes are called test pits.
10. A soil tester can measure soil stability and soil settlement, and he can make density tests.
Exercise 6.

Look in a magazine, a journal, or one of your textbooks and copy 5 sentences which have nouns that modify nouns. Underline the modifiers once and the headwords twice.
LESSON 6

Relative Clauses

6.1. In Lesson 5, we looked at adjectives which are only one word and adjectives which are prepositional phrases. In this lesson, we are going to look at adjectives that are almost like complete sentences.

Look at this example:

The woman who is the new dean lives near me.

There are two ideas in this sentence, and each one has its own NP and VP.

The woman lives near me  AND  The woman is the new dean

The phrase the woman is in both ideas. We can replace the woman in one idea with who and put the two ideas together to make one long sentence. In the sentence

The woman who is the new dean lives near me.

the idea who is the new dean answers the question which woman?. Who is the new dean is acting like an adjective, and we call it
an adjective clause or a relative clause. In this sentence, *who* is called a relative pronoun.

Now look at these sentences. The relative clauses are underlined.

The boy whom I visited in the hospital is well now.
(Ideas: The boy is well now.
I visited the boy in the hospital.)

The man that Sue baked a cake for was celebrating his eightieth birthday.
(Ideas: The man was celebrating his eightieth birthday.
Sue baked a cake for the man.)

The man whose wallet I returned was very happy.
(Ideas: The man was very happy.
I returned the man's wallet.)

The wallet which I found had fifty dollars in it.
(Ideas: The wallet had fifty dollars in it.
I found the wallet.)

The dog that was running around on campus had no dog license.
(Ideas: The dog had no dog license.
The dog was running around on campus.)
The room in which my class meets is often too cold.

(Ideas: The room is often too cold.
      My class meets in the room.)

Who, whose, whom, which and that are all relative pronouns. Notice that who, whose, and whom are used for persons and which is used for things. That can be used for persons, animals, and things. The relative clause comes directly after the noun it modifies. Who, whose, whom, which, and that after nouns are structure signals that can help you understand a sentence. Look for them.

Exercise 1.

Underline the relative clause in each sentence below. Then write the two separate ideas in each sentence in the space under the sentence. Underline the nouns that are the same in each idea.

Example. Construction trades offer good career opportunities for people who are not planning to go to college.

Idea 1: Construction trades offer good career opportunities for people.

Idea 2: The people are not planning to go to college.
1. The fringe benefits which the worker receives must be considered.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

2. A person's salary determines the luxuries that his family can enjoy.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

3. An employee who is unhappy with his position often does not do his work very well.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

4. Poorer quality work will probably result from people who stay.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

5. When a great number of employees are unhappy in an organization, there are usually many people who quit.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

6. There is no way to show all of the opportunities that might be open to you in the construction industry.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:
7. Many people who want jobs consider an employer's advancement practices.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

8. An ambitious person will choose a company that has good advancement practices.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

9. Advancement affects the whole society of which a worker and his family are a part.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

10. Workers who have business ability are sometimes able to establish their own businesses.
    Idea 1:
    Idea 2:

Exercise 2.

Look in a magazine, journal, or one of your textbooks and copy 5 sentences with relative clauses. Underline the relative clauses with one line. Put two lines under the nouns they modify.
6.2. Sometimes in English, the relative pronoun does not appear in the sentence. Look at this sentence:

The movie I saw last night was very dull.

The ideas here are

The movie was very dull.
I saw the movie last night.

These can be combined to make the sentence

The movie that I saw last night was very dull.

Then we can remove that, and we have the example at the top of the page.

Can you find the relative clause in this sentence?

John bought the car he had looked at last week.

The relative clause here is he had looked at last week. The two ideas in the sentence are

John bought the car.
John had looked at the car last week.

In this kind of sentence, you do not have special words which are structure signals. But you do have two subjects and two verbs. When you see this kind of situation, look for a relative clause.
Exercise 3.

All of the sentences in this exercise have relative clauses. But none of them has a relative pronoun. The word that has been left out of each sentence. First put an arrow (↑) at the place where that has been left out. Then underline the relative clause. Write the two ideas of each sentence in the space under each sentence.

Example. The attitude workers have toward their jobs is important.

Idea 1: The attitude is important.

Idea 2: Workers have an attitude toward their jobs.

1. There are many things a person in construction must know.

Idea 1:

Idea 2:

2. The construction industry has rules the workers and employers must follow.

Idea 1:

Idea 2:

3. The personnel department has descriptions of the skills a worker needs for a job.

Idea 1:

Idea 2:
4. Sometimes the union maintains a list of men an employer can hire.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

5. In this case a worker must apply to the local office of the union he is interested in.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

6. Sometimes an aptitude test helps an applicant to find a job he likes.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

7. The information a worker gives on an application form allows the personnel office to place a worker.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

8. An applicant should gather some facts about the job he wants.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

9. He should also know something about the company he wants to work for.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:
10. The workers and the activities they share with each other are part of the social working environment.

Idea 1:

Idea 2:
Until now we have been looking at structures that are probably familiar to you in spoken English as well as in written English. However, there are some structures that are more common in written English than in spoken English. You might wonder why there is a difference between spoken English and written English. When you speak, you are not always able to plan everything you are going to say. You think of one idea, then another, and then another. Usually you do not put many ideas into one sentence. Even if you did put several ideas into one sentence, your listener would probably be confused. He needs time to think about and understand your ideas.

However, in written English a good writer combines ideas in a logical way. One written sentence may contain the same number of ideas as four or five spoken sentences. Complicated written sentences usually do not cause problems for a good reader because he can take time to understand all the ideas. He can stop and go back if it is necessary. But he must be able to recognize the structural patterns of written English. He must know the structure signals which tell him that ideas have been combined. And he must know what those ideas are.

We have already looked at two ways of combining ideas. In Lesson 2, we made long adverbials by combining two sentences.
In Lesson 6, we made long adjectives by combining two sentences. Long adverbials and long adjectives can be found in both spoken and written English. The structures that we will look at next are probably more common in written English (although you will also find them in spoken English). You will first learn what kinds of ideas can be combined. Then you will learn how they can be combined. Finally you will learn how to take a complicated sentence and find the ideas that are in it.

7.2. In this lesson, we will look at a way to combine a passive sentence with another sentence. Look at these two sentences:

The report was completed. (passive)
The report is on my desk.

Both sentences tell us something about the report. We could combine them by making one sentence into a relative clause:

The report which was completed is on my desk.

Here which was completed acts like an adjective and answers the question which report? However, we can also combine them like this:

The completed report is on my desk.
What has happened in this last sentence? The headword of the passive verb in the first sentence is used as an adjective. Completed answers the question which report? Thus there are three ways to say these two ideas:

1. in two sentences
2. in one sentence with a relative clause
3. in one sentence with the headword of the passive verb used as an adjective.

All three ways have the same meaning.

Here are some more examples:

The toast was burned. (passive)

The toast didn't taste very good.

The burned toast didn't taste very good.

The man was injured. (passive)

The man was waiting for the doctor.

The injured man was waiting for the doctor.

Notice that in all of these examples the headword of the passive verb (we can also call this an -ed participle) comes before the noun it modifies.
7.3. Now look at these sentences:

This textbook was written in 1920.

This textbook is not very useful anymore.

This textbook, written in 1920, is not very useful anymore.

In this sentence, the -ed participle comes after the noun it modifies. Why? Because this time we have a group of words which modify the noun. A group of words which acts like an adjective usually follows its noun.

Here are some more examples:

The basketball game was played yesterday in the coliseum.

The basketball game was very exciting.

The basketball game played yesterday in the coliseum was very exciting.

This soup is made with vegetables from my garden.

This soup is delicious.

This soup made with vegetables from my garden is delicious.

7.4. Sometimes in written English the -ed participle group is moved to the beginning of the sentence. Look again at this sentence:
This textbook, written in 1920, is not very useful anymore.

We can also have

Written in 1920, this textbook is not very useful anymore.

*Written in 1920* still modifies *textbook*. The two sentences have the same meaning. Only the word order is different. There is a punctuation signal to help you recognize this kind of sentence. Usually an *-ed* participle group at the beginning of a sentence is followed by a comma. There is also a structure signal to help you understand the meaning of this kind of sentence. An *-ed* participle group at the beginning of a well-written sentence always modifies the subject.

Look at these examples. Each *-ed* participle group is underlined once, and the noun it modifies is underlined twice.

Painted bright red, the sign was easy to see.

Begun in 1968, the Iowa State Center was completed in 1975.

Driven by an old farmer in a straw hat, the hay wagon moved slowly down the road.

Each *-ed* participle group in these examples modifies the subject of the sentence.
Exercise 1.

Underline the -ed participles and the -ed participle groups in the sentences below. In the space under each sentence write the two ideas of the sentence.

Example. A design may be a combination of ideas arranged in a new way.

Idea 1: A design may be a combination of ideas.

Idea 2: The ideas are arranged in a new way.

1. Sometimes the designer has no background information about a planned project.

Idea 1:

Idea 2:

2. An example of this kind of project is a generating plant powered by nuclear energy.

Idea 1:

Idea 2:

3. In such a case the designer must learn the scientific principles involved in the project.

Idea 1:

Idea 2:

4. Plans drawn to scale are necessary in the design process.

Idea 1:

Idea 2:
5. A deciding committee made up of people who have an interest in the project must meet with the designer.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

6. When the committee has a choice of designs, the designer must make suggestions based on his experience.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

7. Safety is one of the factors considered in choosing a design.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

8. The completed drawings for a simple project such as a paved parking lot may be shown to the deciding committee.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

9. Presented in the form of drawings and specifications, the final design is used by the builders.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

10. The final product of a designer is a completed project.
    Idea 1:
    Idea 2:
Exercise 2.

When you have a regular verb, both the *past tense form* and the *-ed participle* end in *-ed*. In this exercise, you must decide which form you have. First draw a line between the NP and VP in each sentence. Then underline all the verbs ending in *-ed*. Put a circle around the ones that are *-ed participles*.

Examples. A labor union / is a group of workers

*organized* to bargain collectively.

The first labor unions in the United States/
appeared in the 1790's.

1. The Knights of Labor, founded by Terrance V. Powderly
   in 1869, claimed 700,000 members.
2. It collapsed during the 1890's.
3. The AFL (American Federation of Labor), founded by
   Samuel Gompers, was more successful.
4. The CIO (Congress of Industrial Organizations)
   organized on an industrial basis.
5. All of the workers employed in an industry were in
   one union.
7. Each of the 48 states had its own rules and regula-
   tions between employers and employees represented by
   labor unions.
8. Congress passed laws to set up a national labor policy after 1932.


Exercise 3.

Copy 5 sentences with -ed participles or -ed participle groups from a magazine, a journal or one of your textbooks. Underline the -ed participle (or the -ed participle group) once and the noun it modifies twice.
LESSON 8

-ing Participles

8.1. We have seen that two ideas can be combined into one sentence. In Lesson 7, we took a sentence with a passive verb and combined it with another sentence. In this lesson, we will take a sentence with a verb that is not a passive verb and combine it with another sentence. Look at these sentences:

The water was boiling. (non-passive)
Mary used the water to make tea.

Both sentences tell us something about the water. We can combine them to make this sentence:

Mary used the water, which was boiling, to make tea.

Here we have made the first sentence into a relative clause. However, we can also say

Mary used the boiling water to make tea.

What has happened? Just as in Lesson 7, the headword of the verb in the first sentence is used as an adjective. Boiling answers the question what kind of water?. Again we see that there are three ways to say these two ideas:

1. in two sentences
2. in one sentence with a relative clause
3. in one sentence with the headword of the non-passive verb used as an adjective.

All three ways have the same meaning.

Here is another example:

The candidate lost. (non-passive)
The candidate made a speech to his supporters.

The losing candidate made a speech to his supporters.

Notice that the verb in the first sentence is a past tense form. But when it is used as an adjective, it ends in -ing. Most non-passive verbs end in -ing when they are used as adjectives. The -ing verbs in all of these sentences are called -ing participles.

8.2. We have now looked at two kinds of participles -- -ed participles and -ing participles. Both of them can be used as adjectives. But they are different in meaning. Look at these pairs of phrases:

a. the changing city (the city was changing)
b. the changed city (the city was changed by something)

a. the confusing speaker (the speaker confused someone)
b. the confused speaker (the speaker was confused by someone)

The ending on a participle is a very important structure signal. Be sure to use it.
8.3. In all the examples we have looked at until now, the -ing participle comes before the noun. Now look at these sentences:

The people arrived early for the movie.
The people got good seats.
The people arriving early for the movie got good seats.

In the last sentence, arriving early for the movie answers the question which people? Since we have a group of words acting as an adjective, the adjective comes after its noun.

Here are some more examples:

The man was carrying a pair of ice skates.
The man was walking toward the park.
The man carrying a pair of ice skates was walking toward the park.

The woman talked with the new students.
The woman was from the social security office.
The woman talking with the new students was from the social security office.

8.4. Sometimes an -ing participle group comes at the beginning of a sentence. Look at this sentence:

Sitting in the warm room, John became very sleepy.
Sitting in the warm room answers the question what was John doing?. The question what is someone (or something) doing? is often answered by an -ing participle. Notice that sitting in the warm room modifies the subject John. An -ing participle group at the beginning of a sentence always modifies the subject.

Here are some more examples. Each -ing participle group is underlined once and the noun it modifies is underlined twice.

Playing badly, our soccer team lost the game.

Travelling around Asia, I learned to eat many kinds of food.

Jumping out of the car, the dog ran into the woods.

Exercise 1.

Underline the -ing participles and the -ing participle groups in the sentences below. In the space under each sentence, write the two ideas of each sentence.

Example. A group of organized workers wanting to bargain collectively is called a labor union.

Idea 1: A group of organized workers is called a labor union.

Idea 2: The workers want to bargain collectively.
1. Representing about one quarter of our labor force, labor unions play an important role in the complex economy of modern America.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

2. Working together through a union, all the employees of a company can speak with one voice.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

3. The union and management have differing goals.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

4. Congress has passed laws providing for the settlement of disputes.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

5. In labor disputes a neutral outsider looks at both sides of the issues separating labor and management.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:

6. One kind of outsider, a mediator, has no power to make final decisions binding on both parties.
   Idea 1:
   Idea 2:
7. Another kind of outsider, an arbitrator, can make a decision forcing a settlement.
   
   Idea 1: 
   Idea 2: 

8. A strike is sometimes effective because of pressure from people needing the employer's products.
   
   Idea 1: 
   Idea 2: 

9. In a world with rapidly changing production techniques, labor and management often work together.
   
   Idea 1: 
   Idea 2: 

10. Setting up joint committees, labor and management try to solve their common problems.
    
    Idea 1: 
    Idea 2:
LESSON 9

Gerunds

9.1. You remember that in Lesson 8 we looked at -ing participles. An -ing participle is a verb ending in -ing that can be used as an adjective. In this lesson, we will look at verbs ending in -ing that can be used as nouns. Look at these two sentences:

Someone is dancing. Dancing is fun.

In the first sentence, dancing is the headword of the verb. It tells what someone is doing. In the second sentence, dancing names an activity. It tells what the sentence is about. Dancing is the subject of the second sentence. We have taken the headword of the verb in the first sentence and made it the subject of the second sentence. Dancing in the second sentence is an -ing form of the verb which is used as a noun. This kind of verb is called a gerund. We could also say
Singing is fun.
Swimming is fun.
Cooking is fun.

Each of these -ing verbs names an activity. Each one is a gerund.

9.2. Now look at these pairs of sentences:

a. Basketball is fun.
b. Dancing is fun.
The underlined words are subjects.

a. Jim likes basketball.
b. Jim likes dancing.
The underlined words are objects of the verb likes.

a. One form of exercise is basketball.
b. One form of exercise is dancing.
The underlined words are np's after the linking verb is. They mean the same thing as the NP one form of exercise.

a. Bill is not very good at basketball.
b. Bill is not very good at dancing.
The underlined words are objects of the preposition at.

In each pair of sentences, the gerund dancing acts in exactly the same way as the noun basketball. A gerund is an -ing verb that acts as a noun.
9.3. Look at these sentences:

Someone is **playing the piano**.

\[ S \to NP \to VP \]
\[ someone \to is \to playing \to the \to piano \]

**Playing the piano** is a good way to relax.

\[ S \to NP \to VP \]
\[ playing \to the \to piano \to is \to a \to good \to way \to to \to relax \]

In the first sentence, **playing** is the headword of the verb. But there the word **playing** has an np to make its idea complete. Someone is playing **what**? Someone is playing **the piano**. The VP of the first sentence is **is playing the piano**. When we name an activity in the second sentence, we use the headword of the verb. But we also use the rest of the VP. The entire phrase **playing the piano** is the activity that the second sentence is about. **Playing the piano** is a **gerund phrase**. **Playing** is the headword of the phrase, but the entire phrase is the subject of the sentence.

Here are some more examples of gerund phrases which are used as nouns. The gerund phrase is underlined once, and the headword of the phrase is underlined twice.
Walking in the rain can be very pleasant.
An adverbial (in the rain) is included in the gerund phrase. The entire gerund phrase is the subject of the sentence.

Reading the newspapers every morning is part of the President's job.
An np (the newspapers) and an adverbial (every morning) are included in the gerund phrase. The entire gerund phrase is the subject of the sentence.

Dale enjoys skiing in Colorado.
An adverbial (in Colorado) is included in the gerund phrase. The entire gerund phrase is the object of the verb enjoys.

The manufacturer suggests washing this wool sweater in cold water.
An np (this wool sweater) and an adverbial (in cold water) are included in the gerund phrase. The entire gerund phrase is the object of the verb suggests.

My grandmother's hobby was knitting mittens for her grandchildren.
An np (mittens) and a prepositional phrase (for her grandchildren) are included in the gerund phrase. The entire gerund phrase is an np after the linking verb was. The entire gerund phrase is the same thing as the NP my grandmother's hobby.
Happiness is getting three letters from home in one day.

An np (three letters) and two adverbials (from home and in one day) are included in the gerund phrase. The entire gerund phrase is an np after the linking verb is. The entire gerund phrase is the same thing as the NP happiness.

The football team has little hope of winning the championship.

An np (the championship) is included in the gerund phrase. The entire gerund phrase is the object of the preposition of.

You can use this glue for repairing a dish that is broken.

An np (a dish) and a relative clause (that is broken) are included in the gerund phrase. The entire gerund phrase is the object of the preposition for.

You can see that a gerund phrase can become very complicated. When you find a gerund in your reading, you must look for its entire phrase. Remember that the entire gerund phrase is used as one noun. Accurate reading of English requires that you recognize entire gerund phrases.
Exercise 1.

All of the -ing words in the sentences below are gerunds. Underline each one. If the gerund is part of a gerund phrase, underline the entire phrase. Tell whether the gerund (or gerund phrase) is used as a subject, as an object of a verb, as an np after a linking verb, or as an object of a preposition. (Note: You will find that many sentences have more than one gerund.)

Example. This chapter tells about clearing a site.
(object of the preposition about)

1. The most common practices for clearing a site are demolishing, salvaging, cutting, burning, earthmoving, and disposing.
2. Demolishing is another name for destroying.
3. Using explosives has become popular for small projects in recent years.
4. Plastic explosives are used for clearing stumps and trees and for breaking up boulders.
5. Wrecking can be done with many mechanical devices.
6. Salvaging can be done by tearing things down, taking things apart, or removing materials from a site.
7. An example of cutting is bringing down timbers with axes, explosives, or saws.
8. Burning can be done by setting a fire under controlled conditions.
9. Earthmoving is used in clearing sites and in constructing dams, tunnels, and highways.

10. Disposing may be done by burying, burning, or hauling away.

9.4 We have now looked at both -ing participles and gerunds. They are formed in exactly the same way. How can you tell whether an -ing word in your reading is an -ing participle or a gerund? You must look at the way it is used in the sentence. If I give you the word working

you are not able to tell whether it is an -ing participle or a gerund. But if I say

The student working in the lab is from Peru.

you can see that working in the lab follows the noun student. It answers the question which student? Therefore, it is an -ing participle acting as an adjective. If, however, I say

Working in the lab is a part of every student's daily schedule.

you know that working in the lab names an activity. It is the subject of the sentence. Therefore, it is a gerund, acting as a noun.
Occasionally you may have a problem in deciding whether you have a gerund or an -ing participle. Look at these two sentences:

Boiling water is sometimes used to cook vegetables.
Boiling water for drinking is necessary when the water is not clean.

What is the subject in the first sentence? It is water, and boiling answers the question what kind of water?. The headword of the NP in this sentence is water. What is the subject in the second sentence? It is the phrase boiling water for drinking. The sentence tells us that this activity is necessary when the water is not clean. Boiling water for drinking is a gerund phrase. Boiling is the headword of the phrase, but the entire phrase is acting as the subject. Both of these sentences have an -ing word followed by a noun. But the headwords in the NP's are different. When you see this kind of situation, you have to decide whether the -ing word is the headword or an adjective modifying the headword. When the -ing word is the headword it is a gerund. When it is not the headword it is usually a participle.
9.5. There is another situation where it is sometimes difficult to tell whether you have an *-ing* participle or a gerund. An *-ing* participle can be used to modify a noun. But back in Lesson 5, we said that a noun can modify a noun (see section 5.5). Since gerunds are used as nouns, a gerund can modify a noun. Look at these sentences:

I saw a bear.

The bear was dancing.

We can combine these two sentences and say

I saw a bear that was dancing.

OR

I saw a dancing bear.

In the last sentence, *dancing* answers the question *what was the bear doing?*. Dancing is an *-ing* participle used as an adjective.

Now look at these sentences:

I bought some shoes for dancing.

I bought some dancing shoes.

These two sentences have the same meaning. You can see that *dancing* in the second sentence does **not** answer the question *what were the shoes doing?*. (The shoes were not dancing.) *Dancing* answers the question *what are the shoes used for?*.
Dancing is the activity that the shoes are used for. Dancing in the second sentence is used as a noun modifying another noun. Dancing is a gerund.

Usually a gerund that modifies a noun has only one word. Gerund phrases seldom modify nouns. But you will find that it is very common for a one-word gerund to modify a noun. You will find many more one-word gerunds modifying nouns than one-word -ing participles.

A one-word gerund and a one-word -ing participle look exactly alike. Therefore, when you see an -ing word before a noun, you must ask yourself:

Does the -ing word answer the question what is something doing?

OR

Does the -ing word answer the question what is something used for?

Here are a few examples for you to test yourself on.

1. Jim bought a new reading lamp.
   Does reading answer the question what was the lamp doing? or the question what was the lamp used for?

2. Martha jumped into the swimming pool.
   Does swimming answer the question what was the pool doing? or the question what was the pool used for?
3. Fortunately, no one was living in that burning house. Does burning answer the question what was the house doing? or the question what was the house used for?

4. Mr. Edwards sat in the smoking section of the airplane. Does smoking answer the question what was the section of the airplane doing? or the question what was the section of the airplane used for?

In examples 1, 2, and 4, the -ing words answer the question what was something used for? The -ing words are gerunds. In example 3, the -ing word answers the question what was something doing? The -ing word is an -ing participle.

Exercise 2.
Underline the -ing words or the -ing word phrases in these sentences. Mark each one as an -ing participle or a gerund. In the space under each sentence, tell why you made each choice. Some sentences have more than one -ing word.

Example. Earlier in this course you studied how gerunds surveying and mapping practices are used to locate and describe a site.
(surveying and mapping answer the question what are the practices used for?)
1. When it is time to begin construction work, surveying practices are used again.

2. The importance of locating the structure and two major ways of doing it are discussed in this lesson.

3. With the help of a measuring device, the surveyor can take dimensions from a set of plans and mark them on a site.

4. With surveying equipment, the surveyor shows construction workers the exact location and the size of the structure they are to build.

5. When a surveyor lays out a new highway, he finds existing highways on the plans.

6. Stakes marking the center line are set up about 50 feet apart.

7. Control points showing turns in the highway are the most important points along the center line.
8. Control points are well marked with flags and stakes to keep construction equipment from running over them.

9. Stakes also indicate the amount of cut (earth which must be removed) or fill (earth which must be added) for grading.

10. Heavy grading equipment is used for building highways.

Exercise 3.

Copy 5 sentences with -ing words from a magazine, a journal, or one of your textbooks. Underline the -ing words or phrases. Tell whether each -ing word is

1. the headword of a verb
   OR

2. an -ing participle
   OR

3. a gerund.
LESSON 10

Noun Clauses

10.1. In Lesson 9, we saw how gerund phrases can be used as nouns. We saw
1. that gerund phrases can have np's, adverbials, and relative clauses, and
2. that the entire gerund phrase is used as a single noun.

In this lesson, we are going to look at complete sentences (and almost complete sentences) that are used as nouns.

Look at these two ideas:

Connie says something.
The weather will be sunny tomorrow.

Each of these is a complete sentence. Each one has an NP and a VP. The sentences can be diagrammed like this:

We can combine these two ideas. We can replace something in the first sentence with the entire second idea, like this:
Connie says the weather will be sunny tomorrow.

In the last sentence we have an entire idea with both an NP and a VP used as an np. When an idea with an NP and a VP is used as a noun, it is called a noun clause. Here are some more examples of noun clauses. The noun clauses are underlined. In each sentence, the noun clause replaces something.

Walter thinks the library opens at 10:00 on Saturday.

(Walter thinks something.)

Marilyn hopes her check will arrive today.

(Marilyn hopes something.)

I know he isn't in his office today. (I know something.)

Look at the main verbs in these examples. They are says, thinks, hopes, and know. They all have the idea of telling or thinking. Noun clauses are very often used as the np after verbs of telling or thinking.
Sometimes in this kind of sentence *that* appears just before the noun clause.

Connie says *that* the weather will be sunny tomorrow.
Walter thinks *that* the library opens at 10:00 on Saturday.
Marilyn hopes *that* her check will arrive today.
I know *that* he isn't in his office today.

*That*, in all of these sentences, has no meaning. *That* only introduces the noun clause. It is not necessary. Sometimes you find *that* in this kind of sentence and sometimes you do not.

You will find many examples of this kind of noun clause in your reading. Your structure signal is a verb of telling or thinking. Here are a few common ones:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>admit</th>
<th>hope</th>
<th>say</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>announce</td>
<td>indicate</td>
<td>show</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>answer</td>
<td>know</td>
<td>state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>believe</td>
<td>mention</td>
<td>tell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>explain</td>
<td>point out</td>
<td>think</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>estimate</td>
<td>reply</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When you see a verb of telling or thinking, you will probably find a noun clause following it. Remember that the entire noun clause is used as one noun.
10.2. Occasionally you will see *if* or *whether* used to introduce a noun clause after a verb of telling or thinking. *If* and *whether* tell you that there are two possibilities. Look at these examples:

I can't decide *whether* I should *go to Chicago next weekend* or *stay home*.

Jim asked *if* Mary would be at the library or at the dormitory.

In these sentences the two possibilities are both stated. They are connected with *or*. But very often only one possibility is stated. Then you must remember that the second possibility is the opposite of the one that is stated.

Tomorrow the employment office will tell David *whether* he can have a job. (or not have a job)

I wonder *if* Peggy has returned from her vacation yet. (or not returned)

This meter indicates *whether* the air pressure is *sufficient*. (or not sufficient)

10.3. We have been looking at a special kind of noun clause that is used as an np after a verb of telling or thinking. There are other kinds of noun clauses that you will find in your reading. But before we look at them, let us look at this sentence:
The thing which Bill saw was a helicopter.

The headword of the NP is thing, and which Bill saw is a relative clause that answers the question which thing? (see section 6.1).

Now look at these two ideas:

Something was a helicopter AND Bill saw it.

We can combine these two ideas like this:

What Bill saw was a helicopter.
Something in the first idea has been replaced with what Bill saw. This last sentence has the same meaning as

The thing which Bill saw was a helicopter.

But there is no headword in the NP what Bill saw. The whole idea what Bill saw is the subject of the sentence. What Bill saw has a subject (Bill) and a verb (saw). What Bill saw is used as a noun. Therefore, what Bill saw is a noun clause.

When you first look at the sentence

What Bill saw was a helicopter.

you might think that Bill is the subject of the sentence. You must ask yourself was Bill a helicopter? You know that Bill was not a helicopter. What Bill saw was a helicopter.)

Here are some pairs of sentences. The first sentence in each pair has a noun and a relative clause. (The relative clause is underlined once and the noun is underlined twice.) The second sentence in each pair has a noun clause. (The noun clause is underlined once.)

a. I know the person who wrote the book. (relative clause)

b. I know who wrote that book. (noun clause)

The underlined groups are the objects of the verb know.

In sentence b, we can replace the noun clause with someone.
a. I remember the way in which he won the contest.
(relative clause)
b. I remember how he won the contest. (noun clause)

The underlined groups are the objects of the verb remember.
In sentence b, we can replace the noun clause with something.

a. I don't know the reason that he didn't eat lunch in the dorm. (relative clause)
b. I don't know why he didn't eat lunch in the dorm. (noun clause)

The underlined groups are the objects of the verb know.
In sentence b, we can replace the noun clause with something.

a. This is the building in which you can take your driver's test. (relative clause)

OR

This is the building where you can take your driver's test. (relative clause)
b. This is where you can take your driver's test. (noun clause)

The underlined groups are np's after the linking verb is.
In sentence b, we can replace the noun clause with some place.
a. I forget the time at which the movie begins. (relative clause)

OR

I forget the time when the movie begins. (relative clause)

b. I forget when the movie begins. (noun clause)

The underlined groups are objects of the verb forgets. In sentence b, we can replace the noun clause with something.

a. She tells her story to any person who will listen. (relative clause)

b. She tells her story to whoever will listen. (noun clause)

The underlined groups are objects of the preposition to. In sentence b, we can replace the noun clause with someone.

a. She will argue with anything that you say. (relative clause)

b. She will argue with whatever you say. (noun clause)

The underlined groups are objects of the preposition with. In sentence b, we can replace the noun clause with something.

What can we say about these pairs of sentences?

1. Both sentences in each pair contain two ideas. There are two NP's and VP's in each sentence.
2. The relative clauses have special words which introduce them. They are:

   who (whose, whom)
   which
   that

Sometimes *when* and *where* introduce relative clauses.

These words are structure signals.

3. The noun clauses have special words which introduce them. They are:

   what
   who (whose, whom)
   how
   why
   where
   when
   whoever
   whatever

These words are structure signals.

4. The underlined clause in the first sentence of each pair modifies a headword.

5. The underlined clause in the second sentence of each pair does not modify a headword.

6. Each pair of sentences has the same meaning.

When you read, you must look for groups of words that go together. When you see one of the words that can introduce a relative clause or a noun clause, you should check to see whether there is a headword that the clause modifies. If you find a headword, you have a group of words which includes a noun and modifier. If you do not find a headword, you have a group of words which is acting as a noun.
10.4. Before we finish our discussion of noun clauses, we should look at one more kind of sentence. Look at this example:

It is important that you follow the directions carefully.

Do you see a noun clause in this sentence? *That you follow the directions carefully* looks like a noun clause. It has an NP (*you*) and a VP (*follow the directions carefully*). It is introduced by *that*. And there is not a noun in the sentence that the clause modifies. Therefore, *that you follow the directions carefully* must be a noun clause. But how is it used? *That you follow the directions carefully* is the thing that is important. *That you follow the directions carefully* is what the sentence is about. Therefore, *that you follow the directions carefully* must be the subject of the sentence. And it is. We have here a situation which is very much like the situation we looked at in Lesson 1:

There is another very common sentence pattern in English. (section 1.5) We saw then that *there* introduces the NP and the VP but has no meaning itself. In this kind of sentence the subject comes after the verb. Similarly in the sentence

*It is very important that you follow the directions.*

*It* introduces the NP and the VP, but has no meaning. The NP in this sentence comes after the VP.
This kind of sentence is very common in English. The structure signal is the *it* that has no meaning. This kind of *it* is not really a pronoun, because *it* does not refer to anything. *It* only introduces the sentence.

Here are some more examples of this kind of sentence. The noun clauses used as subjects are underlined.

*It* is too bad *that* you weren't at the party.
*It's* a good thing *that* he remembered his raincoat.
*It* was suggested *that* we bring our own sandwiches.
*It* was fortunate *he* could attend the lecture.

In the last example, the noun clause is not introduced by *that*. *That* usually appears in this kind of sentence, but occasionally it does not.

Exercise 1.

Underline with one line all the noun clauses and relative clauses in the sentences below. In the sentences with relative clauses, underline with two lines the headword which each relative clause modifies.

Examples. This chapter tells how industrial production affects industrial workers.
Workers in the labor force are the people who work for wages.
1. You will probably have to decide whether you want to work in industry.

2. You will want to choose the type of job which you will be able to do and enjoy.

3. This chapter tells how many workers are in each major employment group.

4. We can estimate that the number of construction workers in the United States will increase rapidly.

5. It is very important that employers treat their workers fairly.

6. One thing that employers often give employees is a coffee break.

7. A worker who gets a coffee break usually works more efficiently.

8. But some workers may believe that other workers are getting a longer coffee break.

9. A problem which involves workers is called a personnel problem.

10. By studying how people react to various industrial situations, we can improve personnel practices in industry.

Exercise 2.

Copy 5 sentences with noun clauses from a magazine, a journal, or one of your textbooks. Underline the noun clauses.
LESSON 11

Infinitives

11.1. We have looked at several verb forms that do not appear in sentences as main verbs. We have seen that -ed participles and -ing participles are verb forms which are used as adjectives. We have seen that gerunds are verb forms which are used as nouns. In this lesson, we will look at one more verb form that does not act as a main verb. It is called the **infinitive form**. An infinitive is usually the word *to* plus the simple form of the verb -- *to be*, *to go*, *to study*, etc. (When you look for infinitives, remember that *to* must be followed by a verb. *To* can also be a preposition. When *to* is a preposition, it is followed by a noun or pronoun -- *to my house*, *to her*, *to New York*, etc.) Infinitives in English have several uses. We will look at only three uses of infinitives in this lesson. But they are probably the most common uses, and you will find many examples of them in your textbooks.
11.2. First of all, infinitives are used to complete main verbs. Look at these sentences:

I want something. I will travel.

These two ideas can be combined like this:

I want to travel.

Something in the first sentence has been replaced by to plus the headword of the verb in the second sentence. The infinitive to travel is the object of the verb want. To travel completes the verb want.
Now look at these sentences:

I want something.

I will visit my brother in New York.

These sentences can be combined:

I want to visit my brother in New York.

What is the object of want this time? It is the entire infinitive phrase to visit my brother in New York. This situation looks very much like the situation in Lesson 9, where we had entire gerund phrases which were used as nouns. It also looks like the situation in Lesson 10, where we had entire noun clauses used as nouns. Here the entire infinitive
phrase completes the verb *want*.

Now look at these sentences:

I want something  
My mother will travel.

These sentences also can be combined.

I want my mother to travel.

The subjects of the two short sentences are not the same. Therefore, we must include the subject of the second sentence when we use the verb of that sentence as an infinitive. Here my mother to travel is the object of the verb *want*. My mother to travel is an infinitive phrase which completes the verb *want*. My mother is the subject of the infinitive.

There is one more way that infinitives can complete verbs. Look at these two sentences:

I know something.

I can repair my bicycle.
These two sentences can be combined like this:

I know how to repair my bicycle.

This time how to repair my bicycle is an infinitive phrase that completes the verb know. In this sentence, how introduces the infinitive phrase. This situation is very much like the situation we saw in Lesson 10. There we had noun clauses which were introduced by special words like how (see section 10.3). In fact, we can say that

I know how to repair my bicycle.

is a short way of saying

I know how I can repair my bicycle.

These two sentences are really two ways of saying the same thing. They have the same meaning.

11.3. The patterns that we have just been looking at are very common in English. You are probably already familiar with them. There are many verbs which can be completed by infinitives or infinitive phrases. A few of these verbs are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>verb</th>
<th>verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ask</td>
<td>have</td>
<td>remember</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>begin</td>
<td>learn</td>
<td>require</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cause</td>
<td>like</td>
<td>teach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decide</td>
<td>know</td>
<td>tell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expect</td>
<td>permit</td>
<td>try</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forget</td>
<td>plan</td>
<td>want</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get</td>
<td>prefer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Here are some more examples of infinitive phrases which complete verbs. The entire infinitive phrase is underlined in each sentence.

I prefer to study at home.
Peter expects to attend law school at Harvard.
Sam decided to buy a new car.
You have to show your identification card at the library.

The above infinitive phrases contain np's and adverbials. Can you find them?

Richard asked Tom to answer the telephone.
The teacher told the students to bring their books to class.
Dr. Morris wanted his son to become a doctor.
The heat caused the crops to dry up.

The above infinitive phrases contain np's and adverbials. Each one also has a subject. Can you find all of them?

Betty asked where to buy a camera.
We must plan what to do next.
I won't forget when to see my advisor.
Joe must decide whether to take statistics next quarter.

The above infinitive phrases contain np's and adverbials. Each one also has a special word which introduces the infinitive
phrase. Can you find all of them?

We have seen that main verbs can be completed by an infinitive or an infinitive phrase. The structure signal for an infinitive is to plus the simple form of the verb. But when you find an infinitive, you must look for the entire infinitive phrase. You must ask yourself:

1. Does the infinitive have an np? adverbials?
2. Does the infinitive have a subject?
3. Does the infinitive have a special word which introduces it?

When you find the entire infinitive phrase, read it as one idea.

Exercise 1.

Underline the entire infinitive phrases in the sentences below with one line. Underline the verb which the infinitive phrase completes with two lines. (Note: not every sentence has an infinitive.)

Examples. An initiator has to see the need for a project.
He must point out this need to others.

1. The initiator for a public project must also get others to support the project.
2. Sometimes the initiator asks citizens to sign requests for the project.
3. He will give these requests to city officials.
4. The initiator will try to point out good reasons for building the project.
5. The initiator works very hard until approval is given to the project.
6. The initiator for a private project does not have to gain public support for his project.
7. After the initiator has proved the need for a project, someone must decide whether to build it.
8. Someone also must plan how to build it.
9. Sometimes a feasibility study is made and given to the owner.
10. After many steps are taken, the contractor can begin to build the project.

11.5. We have seen that infinitives complete verbs. Infinitives also show purpose. Look at this sentence:

I came to Iowa State University to study engineering.

The infinitive phrase to study engineering answers the question why did I come to Iowa State University? (or for what purpose did I come to Iowa State University?).

Here are some more examples of infinitive phrases that show purpose. The entire infinitive phrases are underlined.
Harry jogs to get some exercise. (why does Harry jog?)
She bought a notebook to write her assignments in. (why did she buy a notebook?)
He took some aspirin to relieve his headache. (why did he take some aspirin?)

To make a telephone call to Bangkok, you dial the operator. (for what purpose do you dial the operator?)

Notice that an infinitive phrase which shows purpose can come at the beginning of the sentence. Infinitives showing purpose may have np's and adverbials, but they do not have subjects or special words that introduce them.

Occasionally you will see the phrase in order before infinitives which show purpose. For example:

Harry jogs in order to get some exercise.

He took some aspirin in order to relieve his headache.

When you see the phrase in order, you can be certain that an infinitive which follows it shows purpose.

Infinitive phrases which show purpose are very common in textbooks. In fact, they are probably the most common kind of infinitive phrase. When you are reading, you should look for infinitive phrases that answer the question why? or for what purpose?.
11.6. There is one other use of the infinitive that we will look at in this lesson. In Lesson 10, we looked at this kind of sentence (see section 10.4):

It is important that you follow the directions carefully.

We said that it has no meaning in this sentence. It only introduces the NP and the VP. The subject of the sentence is the noun clause that you follow the directions carefully. The NP in this sentence comes after the VP. We can change this sentence by replacing the noun clause with an infinitive phrase:

It is important to follow the directions carefully.

Again, it has no meaning. It only introduces the NP and the VP. The infinitive phrase to follow the directions carefully is the activity that the sentence is about. To follow the directions carefully is the subject of the sentence. Again, in this sentence, the NP comes after the VP.

Here are some more examples of this kind of sentence:

It is very pleasant to spend an evening with old friends.
It is hard to find small women's shoes in the United States.
It takes time to learn a new language.
It costs six dollars to take the airport bus from Des Moines to Ames.
In each sentence, the infinitive phrase names an activity which is the subject of the sentence. Infinitives in this pattern do not have specific subjects because the sentences are general statements which apply to everybody. Also notice that these infinitive phrases do not have words which introduce them.

Exercise 2.
Underline the infinitive phrases in the sentences below. If the infinitive phrase completes a verb, write CV after the sentence. If the infinitive phrase shows purpose, write Pur after the sentence. If the infinitive phrase is the subject of the sentence, write S after the sentence.

Examples. It takes training to become a good craftsman. S

A good carpenter must learn to saw, assemble, and fit materials. CV

To do his job well, he must have practiced these skills for a long time. Pur

1. Sometimes a skilled carpenter wants to become a foreman.
2. He must first learn how to supervise the work of others.
3. To become a skilled craftsman, a person goes through a training period called an apprenticeship.
4. Labor unions and contractors sometimes work together to set up apprentice programs.

5. These programs require an apprentice to be between 19 and 25 years of age.

6. It is usually necessary to have a good high school education in math and science.

7. To become an architect or engineer, a person must attend college.

8. It is not enough to have intelligence and desire.

9. Students must generally have a "C" average to graduate from an architectural or engineering school.

10. Some people attend special classes to become surveyors or estimators.

Exercise 3.

Copy 5 sentences with CV, Pur, or S infinitive phrases from a magazine, a journal, or one of your textbooks. Underline the complete infinitive phrases.
12.1. We have been looking at some of the ways that writers combine ideas. We have looked at sentences with long adverbials, relative clauses, participles, gerunds, noun clauses, and infinitives. We have seen that there are sometimes special words which show us that two ideas have been combined. Such words are called connectors (or conjunctions). Connectors are very important structure signals because they show us the relationship between two ideas. And we need to know the relationship between ideas in order to understand meaning. For example, you know that the two sentences

I will meet you before you go to class.

and

I will meet you after you go to class.

have important differences in meaning. And yet the only difference between the two sentences is in the time markers, or connectors, that introduce the long adverbials.

12.2. There are many connectors that can introduce adverbials of time. Here are some of them:
before I gained five pounds before I came here.
   (I gained five pounds; then I came here.)
after I gained five pounds after I came here.
   (I came here; then I gained five pounds.)
until Until I came here, I always weighed 135 pounds.
   (Before I came here, my weight was always 135 pounds. Now it has changed.)
while While I've been here, I've been gaining weight.
   (During the time I've been here, I've been gaining weight.)
when When I came here, I gained five pounds.
   (I came here; within a very short time I gained five pounds.)
since Since I came here, I have gained five pounds.
   (From the time I came here until now, I have gained five pounds.)
whenever Whenever I come here, I gain five pounds.
   (Each time I come here, I gain five pounds.)

You can see that the connector which a writer uses is a very important structure signal. There are several other kinds of connectors that we will look at in this lesson.

12.3. First of all, there are connectors which show you that the writer is giving you additional information about an idea. Here are some of the connectors which show that additional information is being given:

and The candidate spoke before a large group of voters in Des Moines, and he appeared on television the same day.
moreover  The candidate spoke before a large group of voters in Des Moines; moreover, he appeared on television the same day.

furthermore  The candidate spoke before a large group of voters in Des Moines; furthermore, he appeared on television the same day.

in addition  The candidate spoke before a large group of voters in Des Moines; in addition, he appeared on television that day.

besides  The candidate spoke before a large group of voters in Des Moines; besides, he appeared on television that day.

too  The candidate spoke before a large group of voters in Des Moines; he appeared on television that day, too.

also  The candidate spoke before a large group of voters in Des Moines; he also appeared on television that day.

Not only did the candidate speak before a large group of voters in Des Moines, but he also appeared on television the same day.

12.4. Another very common kind of connector shows **cause** and **effect**. A cause and effect statement tells you the **reason** that something happened, or the **reason** that something is true. Here are some connectors which are structure signals for cause and effect statements:

**Group I**

**because**  Classes at the university were cancelled because there was a heavy snowstorm.

**since**  Since there was a heavy snowstorm, classes at the university were cancelled.
Classes at the university were cancelled as there was a heavy snowstorm.

You will find these three connectors at the beginning of the cause idea. Because is the most common of these connectors. Because always shows a cause-effect relationship, but as and since have additional meanings. (As and since can also be used to introduce time adverbials, and as is often used as part of a comparison.)

Here are some more cause and effect connectors:

Group II

therefore There was a heavy snowstorm; therefore, classes at the university were cancelled.

consequently There was a heavy snowstorm; consequently, classes at the university were cancelled.

hence There was a heavy snowstorm; hence, classes at the university were cancelled.

thus There was a heavy snowstorm; thus, classes at the university were cancelled.

so There was a heavy snowstorm, so classes at the university were cancelled.

as a result There was a heavy snowstorm; as a result, classes at the university were cancelled.

for this reason There was a heavy snowstorm; for this reason, classes at the university were cancelled.

You will find the above connectors at the beginning of the effect idea.

There are two pairs of connectors that also show cause and effect:
The snow was so heavy that classes at the university were cancelled.

There was such a heavy snowstorm that classes at the university were cancelled.

Sometimes *that* does not appear in this kind of sentence:

There was such a heavy snowstorm, classes at the university were cancelled.

12.5. When you see a Group I or Group II cause and effect connector, you expect the effect or result. There are some other connectors which show a different relationship between a cause and an effect. In this kind of sentence, you find a fact stated, and then an unexpected result. Here are some of these connectors:

**Group III**

*although*  

*Although* he isn't a very good skier, he enjoys going on trips with the ski club.

*though*  

*Though* he isn't a very good skier, he enjoys going on trips with the ski club.

*even though*  

*Even though* he isn't a very good skier, he enjoys going on trips with the ski club.

*while*  

*While* he isn't a very good skier, he enjoys going on trips with the ski club.

You will find the above connectors at the beginning of the fact which is being stated. (*while* is also used to introduce adverbials.)
12.6. We have seen that infinitives (and the phrase in order) often show purpose (see section 11.5). There are other ways to show purpose. All of the following structure signals tell you that the question why? or for what purpose? is answered in the sentence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Connector</th>
<th>Sentence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He made an appointment with the optometrist to get his eyes checked.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He made an appointment with the optometrist in order to get his eyes checked.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He made an appointment with the optometrist for getting his eyes checked.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
He made an appointment with the optometrist so that he could get his eyes checked.

Notice that the phrase *so that* is not divided by other words when it shows purpose. Compare *so that* which shows purpose with *so . . . that* which shows cause and effect (see section 12.4).

12.7. A very important group of connectors shows that you have a *conditional* sentence. A conditional sentence tells you that something is true only in certain situations or under certain conditions. Here are some conditional connectors:

- **if**
  
  If it doesn't rain tomorrow, we will have our picnic.

- **provided**
  
  We will have our picnic tomorrow, **provided** it doesn't rain.

- **as long as**
  
  As long as it doesn't rain tomorrow, we will have our picnic.

- **in case**
  
  In case it rains tomorrow, we will have our picnic next week.

- **suppose**
  
  Suppose it rains tomorrow; we will have our picnic next week.

- **unless**
  
  Unless it rains tomorrow, we will have our picnic.

These conditional connectors do not all show exactly the same relationship between the two ideas in the sentence. But all of them do tell you that we will have our picnic tomorrow or that we will have our picnic next week under certain weather conditions. All of the sentences give approximately the same information about the picnic tomorrow.
12.8. The last connectors that we will look at show comparisons. We have already looked at one kind of structure signal that shows comparison -- *-er* and *-est* endings on adjectives and adverbs, and the words *more* and *most* before adjectives and adverbs (see section 5.3). There are many other phrases that tell you that the writer is making a comparison. Some of them tell you that the two ideas are *alike*:

- the same as
  - The price of an ice cream cone at the snack bar is the same as the price of a large coke.

- as ... as
  - An ice cream cone at the snack bar costs as much as a large coke.

- similar to
  - My father's opinions on social security are similar to the candidate's opinions.

- like
  - He looks very much like his older brother.

- similarly
  - You hit a ball back and forth across a net in pingpong; similarly, you hit a ball back and forth in tennis.

- in the same way
  - You hit a ball back and forth across a net in pingpong; in the same way, you hit a ball back and forth in tennis.

Can you find the two things that are being compared in each of the sentences above?

Other comparison connectors tell you that the ideas are *different*:

- different from
  - The climate of Iowa is very different from the climate of Texas.
  - (Some writers use different than instead of different from.)

- unlike
  - He is very much unlike his older brother in personality.
Very often, some of the connectors which are used to show unexpected results are used to show differences or *contrasts* in ideas:

- **although** 
  - Although a few people did not like the *seafood* dinner, most people thought it was delicious.

- **while** 
  - While a few people did not like the seafood dinner, most people thought it was delicious.

- **but** 
  - A few people did not like the seafood dinner, *but* most people thought it was delicious.

- **however** 
  - A few people did not like the seafood dinner; *however*, most people thought it was delicious.

Can you find the two things that are being compared in each of the sentences above?

12.9. All of the connectors that we have looked at in this lesson have shown the relationship between two ideas in *one sentence*. However, many of these connectors can also show the relationship between *two different sentences* or even *two different paragraphs*. They are all very important structure signals. You must understand the relationships among the writer's ideas if you want to understand his meaning. Watch for all of these connectors.
Exercise 1.

Read the first statement in each group. Underline the connector which relates the two main ideas. Then circle the letter before any statement below it which has the same meaning as the first statement. (Note: There may be more than one statement which has the same meaning as the first statement.)

Example. Houses in a community will not be sold unless they fit the budgets and needs of the workers in the community.

a. Houses in a community will not be sold if they do not fit the budgets and needs of the workers in the community.

b. Houses in a community will not be sold even though they fit the budgets and needs of the workers in the community.

c. Houses in a community will not be sold as long as they do not fit the budgets and needs of the workers in the community.

1. Unless schools and recreational areas are planned for in a community, every person in the community will have a much less satisfying life.

a. Although schools and recreational areas are planned for in a community, every person in the community will have a much less satisfying life.

b. Suppose schools and recreational areas are not planned for in a community. Every person in the community will have a much less satisfying life.

c. If schools and recreational areas are not planned for in a community, every person in the community will have a much less satisfying life.
2. Although sites for central business construction have a very high land price, the profits from their development are high.

a. Since sites for central business construction have a very high land price, the profits from their development are high.

b. If sites for central business construction have a very high land price, the profits from their development are high.

c. Sites for central business construction have a very high land price. Nevertheless, the profits from their development are high.

3. Sometimes land prices are so high that a developer cannot make a profit on single family housing.

a. Sometimes land prices are high in order that a developer can make a profit on single family housing.

b. Sometimes land prices are very high. Consequently, a developer cannot make a profit on single family housing.

c. Although land prices are sometimes very high, a developer cannot make a profit on single family housing.

4. Housing should be close to the owner's job in order to lower travel costs and shorten travel time.

a. Housing should be close to the owner's job to lower travel costs and shorten travel time.

b. Housing should be close to the owner's job so that travel costs will be lowered and travel time will be shortened.

c. Housing should be close to the owner's job although travel costs will be lowered and travel time will be shortened.
5. Housing should not be next to a worker's job, because places of work often produce traffic and noise.
   a. Places of work often produce traffic and noise. Therefore, housing should not be next to a worker's job.
   b. Housing should not be next to a worker's job, although places of work often produce traffic and noise.
   c. Housing should not be next to a worker's job if places of work produce traffic and noise.

Exercise 2.

Do exactly the same things that you did in Exercise 1.

1. Communities need transportation. In addition, they need gas, electricity, communications, water, and sewer services.
   a. Communities need transportation. However, they need gas, electricity, communications, water, and sewer services.
   b. Communities need transportation. As a result, they need gas, electricity, communications, water, and sewer services.
   c. Communities need transportation. They also need gas, electricity, communications, water, and sewer services.

2. The flow of the waste water in the sewer system is caused by gravity. Therefore, sewage can flow downhill only.
   a. The flow of the waste water in the sewer system is caused by gravity. Still, sewage can flow downhill only.
   b. The flow of the waste water in the sewer system is caused by gravity, so sewage can flow downhill only.
c. Sewage can flow downhill only since the flow of the waste water in the sewer system is caused by gravity.

3. The water system for a community operates under pressure. Unlike the water system, the sewer system does not operate under pressure.

a. The water system for a community operates under pressure, but the sewer system does not operate under pressure.

b. The water system for a community operates under pressure. Similarly, the sewer system operates under pressure.

c. The water system for a community operates under pressure. Thus the sewer system operates under pressure.

4. Each pipe in the sewage system must be carefully placed so that the waste entering the pipe will flow downhill toward the treatment plant.

a. Each pipe in the sewage system must be carefully placed because the waste entering the pipe will flow downhill toward the treatment plant.

b. Each pipe in the sewage system must be carefully placed although the waste entering the pipe will flow downhill toward the treatment plant.

c. Each pipe in the sewage system must be carefully placed in order that the waste entering the pipe will flow downhill toward the treatment plant.

5. When the water source for a community is in a high place, water can be sent directly from the source to the users. However, when the water source is in a low place, a water pump and pressure tank are needed.

a. When the water source for a community is in a high place, water can be sent directly from the source to the users. In contrast, when the water source is in a low place, a water pump and pressure tank are needed.
b. When the water source for a community is in a high place, water can be sent directly from the source to the users. As a result, when the water source is in a low place, a water pump and pressure tank are needed.

c. When the water source for a community is in a high place, water can be sent directly from the source to the users. Furthermore, when the water source is in a low place, a water pump and pressure tank are needed.

Exercise 3.

Find 6 sentences with different kinds of connectors in a magazine, a journal, or one of your textbooks. The connectors should show:

- additional information about a fact
- cause and effect
- an unexpected result
- purpose
- a condition under which a fact is true
- a comparison
Some Common Adjective Endings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ending</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-able</td>
<td>readable, adaptable, reversible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ible</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-al</td>
<td>personal, national, seasonal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ant</td>
<td>pleasant, persistent, excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-en</td>
<td>wooden, earthen, golden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ful</td>
<td>helpful, colorful, beautiful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ic</td>
<td>electronic, chemical, classical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ious</td>
<td>religious, mysterious, poisonous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ous</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ish</td>
<td>foolish, selfish, greenish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ive</td>
<td>attractive, sensitive, competitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-less</td>
<td>harmless, careless, fatherless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-like</td>
<td>childlike, ladylike, lifelike</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-y</td>
<td>cloudy, rainy, curly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some Common Noun Endings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ending</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-al</td>
<td>refusal, dismissal, reversal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ance</td>
<td>clearance, insurance, reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ation</td>
<td>liberation, action, profession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-tion</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>-sion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-dom</td>
<td>kingdom, freedom, boredom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ee</td>
<td>employee, appointee, referee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-er</td>
<td>farmer, employer, actor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-or</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ism</td>
<td>capitalism, communism, humanism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ity</td>
<td>activity, reality, authenticity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ness</td>
<td>kindness, thoughtfulness, happiness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ment</td>
<td>government, amazement, employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ship</td>
<td>friendship, kinship, sportsmanship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ure</td>
<td>pleasure, pressure, failure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-y</td>
<td>discovery, inquiry, jealousy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Some Common Verb Endings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ending</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ate</td>
<td>refrigerate, liberate, complicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-en</td>
<td>soften, lighten, sharpen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-fy</td>
<td>liquefy, purify, simplify</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ize</td>
<td>criticize, organize, popularize</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>