The primary purpose of this booklet is to provide useful class and small group discussion tools for allowing students to inductively discover certain fundamental characteristics of language structure and to directly relate the study of sentence structure to the development of writing skills. A series of experiments is provided to serve as models for the development of informal learning activities in sentence structure. Accompanying teacher supplements for each experiment attempt to identify the grammatical concept involved, offer some explanation of this concept, identify possible difficulties some students might encounter, and offer suggestions for continued development and application when needed. The sentence-combining models provided are based on a generative-transformational grammar theory, but utilize such only as a framework and not as a detailed approach. (KS)
TEACHING SENTENCE STRUCTURE
AND SENTENCE-COMBINING
IN THE MIDDLE GRADES

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Perhaps there has never been an issue before the language arts teacher as that concerning the nature and function of grammar in the schools. Should we teach it--or shouldn’t we? Does knowledge about one’s grammar help in writing or speaking? Which grammar is best? And on and on.

What follows in this material is premised upon the assumption that there is a role for certain kinds of experiences in grammar in the instructional program. However, that role is one which fits into the larger purposes of the language arts program without dominating it. Establishing that role requires us to consider a few important questions.

What is Grammar?

In its broadest sense, grammar is the structure of the language used by people. A consideration of subject and predicate, verb phrase construction, noun phrase construction, word order, the system whereby we change statements to questions or active voice to passive voice, etc., are all grammar concerns.

Questions of whether it is proper to use “ain’t,” or whether “shall” or “will” is the best choice in a given sentence, or whether double negatives are acceptable, and other questions of this sort, are often thought of as questions of usage rather than questions of grammar by many linguists. It requires but little perception, however, to recognize that early on, usage and grammar become intertwined and, in some instances, questions of usage are also grammatical questions. For example, decision-making about whether to use “who” or “whom” in a given sentence or utterance can be considered a usage question. Which one is appropriate for the given audience? Is it acceptable to use “who” to begin any sentence or as some contend? However, being able to selectively use either “who” or “whom” with a sense of options available requires the talker or writer to know syntax or sentence structure, i.e., Which sentence slots require objective case and which nominative case? This is a grammar question.

Other choices, such as the acceptability or unacceptability of using double negatives seems largely a question of appropriateness for the audience.*

In a more specific sense, grammar is the system of human rules which allows us to formulate utterances in a meaningful fashion.*

This set of rules is sort of a tacit set which seems to be implicit in us and our language production.

On the other hand, the grammar we often study in school, such as traditional grammar or structural grammar or transformational grammar, is essentially a system, designed, by man to describe or explain his actual grammar or system of producing language.

This is an important point since the grammars in different textbooks vary, suggesting that there is much we still don’t know about the language producing system of humans and there must also be considerable disagreement about which is the best contrived or textbook grammar for describing or explaining man’s language.

What is Transformational Grammar?

The most commonly employed “grammar” in today’s language arts textbooks is probably transformational grammar.*** Such a “grammar” is premised upon the notion that the human being is a sentence producer whose language operates in a structurally predictable way. That is, we are programmed by nature to produce an infinite number of sentences with a finite set of grammatical rules. For instance, if I say, “The green flowers wilt in the withering remnants of sunlight,” I have uttered a sentence that has probably been uttered before (and hopefully, never again!). You, the

*An interesting note, however, is that our grammar rules allow for recursiveness or repeating certain constructions an infinite number of times. For example, we can say, “the dog”

or

“the old dog”

or

“the old mean dog”

or

“the old mean brown dog”

and so on adding adjectives.

Eventually, we could produce a sentence so long it couldn’t be understood by most people because there would be too much information in it; that is, it would be incomprehensible, yet it would still be grammatical.

***This is not to say, however, that transformational grammar is the most commonly taught. Traditional grammar and structural grammar are often taught in many schools.
listener, reader, understand the sentence because it is produced according to a finite set of grammatical rules that humans abide by.

An understanding of the formulating processes involved in the production of sentences is the purpose of a generative-transformational grammar. Transformationalists contend that an efficient 'grammar' should do more than just describe the external characteristics of language, no matter how efficiently that is done and no matter how important that descriptive facet of a 'grammar' is. A 'grammar' that is truly functional must offer some explanation of the sentence formulating procedures of a language. It must account for an infinite potentiality in terms of number of sentences possible, and it must do so with an orderly finite set of grammatical rules. It must offer a procedure for formulating only grammatical units and thereby suggest possible criteria for nongrammatical unit analysis.

This "computerized program" is made up of two sets of rules. 1) a generative or sentence-producing set, and 2) a transformational or sentence-changing set.

One of the initial responsibilities of a transformational grammar then is to define 'sentence', a job that is not as simple as it might seem. For instance, it should be noted that utterances produced in spoken language tend to be different than those written. The notion that "print or script is talk written down" is ill-founded and not true. Talk, for example, tends to be more elliptical in nature than writing, the oral speaker less dependent upon language detail for the intent of his message to be understood. Oral "sentences" like the following are common:

"What you eatin'?"
"Apple."
"How is it?"
"O.k. I guess."
"Big deal! I mean how good?"
"Tastes sour."
"Like a lemon?"
"Kinda."

Most talk, too, tends to be more informal than writing. The language structure is less stilted, less orderly, and more context dependent upon nonverbal factors such as voice tone, facial expression, hand, and head movement.

Writing, on the other hand, is more or less frozen in time and space. We can return to it and reobserve it in all its detail. It is then more easily possible to define a written language sentence in a rather precise way as a construct with certain generalizable attributes.

Transformational grammarians observe that a sentence must have a noun phrase and a verb phrase. A noun phrase is composed of a noun and a possible introductory determiner (word such as the, a, or an). A verb phrase contains a verb, possible helping word (will, can, etc.), and a possible noun phrase.

If we let S=sentence, NP=noun phrase, VP=verb phrase, and \[ \rightarrow \] = rewrite as, we can symbolize a definition of a sentence as \[ S \rightarrow NP + VP \].

A set of rules that will generate this sentence consists of noun phrase production rules and verb phrase production rules. The sentence produced is referred to as a basic or kernel sentence. These sentences are relatively simple constructions devoid of most modifiers, coordinators, negatives, etc. In addition, they are always statements. They are thus lacking in rhetorical sophistication, although they are grammatical. In order to develop more complex sentences a series of transformations or changes can be made on kernel sentences in a systematic fashion.

Essentially, these transformations act in one of four ways. Let us assume that \( X + Y \) is a kernel sentence. \( X + Y \Rightarrow \) means "\( X + Y \) is rewritten as" (the double arrow indicates that this is a transformation rule).

One type of transformation is the simple addition. \( X + Y \Rightarrow X + Y + Z \) or \( A + Y \Rightarrow X + Y \). A new element is simply added to the kernel.

A second type is the embedding transformation \( X + Y \Rightarrow Y + X \Rightarrow Y + Z + Y \). This type of transformation "embeds" a new element within the kernel rather than taking it to the front or rear of the kernel sentence.

A third type of transformation is the permutation type. \( X + Y \Rightarrow Y + X \Rightarrow Y \). This is a transformation that reorders elements within the kernel sentence.

Finally, a fourth type is the deletion transformation \( X + Y \Rightarrow Y \). This is a transformation that removes an element from the kernel sentence.

These transformation types work individually or in concert to alter or effect a change in a kernel sentence. It is primarily the degree of sophistication or amount of technicality that varies in expanding these rules which accounts for the major differences in the 'grammar' set forth by many textbooks in the language arts.

**WHAT ABOUT CORRECTING THE CHILD'S GRAMMAR?**

We must be aware that the developing child "grows" through a number of stages in his grammar development. Psycholinguists who study the acquisition and development of language in children point out that the grammar of a child at certain stages varies in systematic and generalizable ways from other stages. In this regard then, not only is it inappropriate to judge the grammar of the developing child by that employed by an adult, but it must be recognized that the child's grammar stage may not be the same as a peer in the same age group.

Research suggests that these stages of grammar development apply regardless of intelligence or learning environment. The factors of intelligence and environment bear more sharply on the relative speed at which the child proceeds through a given stage. D. McNeill, for instance, describes utilization of double negatives by noting a sequence of sentence types typical of three different points in the child's language development:

- **a)** I don't want no supper.
- **b)** I don't want some supper.
- **c)** I don't want any supper.

---

*See References, page no. 62, for citations*
An account of an attempt to correct a young child at point (a) above is noted.

CHILD: Nobody don't like me
PARENT: No, say "nobody likes me."
CHILD: Nobody don't like me (This dialogue repeated several times.)
PARENT: No! Now listen carefully; say, "nobody likes me."
CHILD: Oh! Nobody don't likes me

The notion of language development via stages carries specific implications for the business of correcting child language, the appropriateness and reasonableness of same. The research in this area is discouraging for those supportive of verbal corrections of child speech. Gleason concluded after a series of studies with first, second, and third graders:

In listening to us, the children attended to the sense of what we said and not the form. And the plurals and past tenses they offered were products of their own linguistic systems, and not imitations of us. (p. 8)

Brown and colleagues, after studying the influence of approval and disapproval by parents of their children's talk, concluded:

There is not a shred of evidence that approval and disapproval are contingent on "syntactic correctness..." When Eve expressed the opinion that her mother was a girl by saying, "He a girl," her mother answered, "That's right." The child's utterance was ungrammatical, but her mother did not respond to that fact; instead, she responded to the truth of the proposition the child intended to express.

In general, the parents fitted propositions to the child's utterance, however incomplete or distorted the utterances, and then approved or not according to the correspondence between proposition and reality. Thus, "Her curl my hair," was approved because the mother was in fact curling Eve's hair.

However, Sarah's grammatically impeccable "There's the animal farmhouse" was disapproved because the building was a lighthouse, and Adam's "Walt Disney comes on on Tuesday" was disapproved because Walt Disney came on on some other day. (pp. 70-71)

In other words, contrary to some supposition, parents tend to address the propositional intent of the utterance rather than its structural form.

"It should be noted here that sociolinguists have pointed out that the language environment the child dwells in does have an impact on the language that he or she uses." However the variables that impinge are apparently many and varied. Certainly, singling out sentence grammar as a variable without considering the many other factors will not do the job of significantly changing the child's language use.

In fact, other data reviewed by authorities such as Cazden conclude:

"... evidence on the role of correction in the child's learning of syntax (grammar) is wholly negative." (p. 114)

And that,

the implication for education is that teachers may be interfering with the child's learning process by insisting on responses that superficially look or sound "correct." (p. 111)

In short, a developmental perspective on the grammar of children suggests that the elementary teacher should accept what the child brings to her, consider past experiences, and general linguistic and cognitive attributes before considering strategies for dealing with what might be languaging problems. There is no more sensitive matter than the language a child brings to the teacher in the classroom. A response to that language is a response to everything that is most fundamentally human.

WHAT ABOUT GRAMMAR AND WRITING ABILITY?

It must be remembered that a wide range of abilities is required for effective writing. Ability to utilize various sentence structures or syntactic skills is important. However, ability to address essential rhetorical concepts, i.e., attend to subject, audience, setting, and purpose, and relate such to vocabulary and sentence structure choices is also fundamental. These latter rhetorical factors which impinge on every writing situation require the writer to draw upon experiences, perceptual skills, and cognitive skills. This is not to mention motivation and writer attitude and belief systems. Research in composition where motivation, preceding and follow-up activities to the writing assignment, and ample discussion of the topic for focus were instrumental parts of the instruction, is the most promising.

Statistical and nonexperimental studies using correlation analysis by Hoyt, Rapeer, Boraas, Asker, Segal and Barr, Catherwood, Bradford, and Robinson failed to show a significant relationship between grammatical knowledge and writing ability. Except for Wykoff's study, the experimental studies by Briggs, Symonds, Crawford and Royer, Cutright, Ash, Benfer, Clark, Warner and Guller, Milligan, Frogner, Krause, Smith, and Maize also failed to support the case for grammar. After a tally of procedural and other limitations, the research still overwhelmingly supports the contention that instruction in formal grammar is an ineffective and inefficient way to help students achieve proficiency in writing.

Most of this research cited above, of course, focused upon the older versions of school grammar or traditional grammar. Recent studies of transformational grammar and its impact upon the writing of students has been
more promising in some respects. Bateman and Zidonis studied the impact of transformational grammar study upon the writing of tenth graders. The two-year project concluded:

A knowledge of generative-transformational grammar enabled students to increase significantly the proportion of well-formed sentences they write.

They also concluded:

A knowledge of generative grammar can enable students to reduce the occurrence of errors in their writing.

In a related study, John Mellon investigated the relationship that exists between practice in combining separate kernel sentences into single sentences and the ability to produce more structurally elaborated sentences. Concentration of the analysis was upon "syntactic fluency" or the structural diversity and sophistication of the sentence structures. Seventh-grade students in his study did produce more syntactically complex sentences after studying the grammar via a sentence-combining method.

A study reported in 1973 by Frank O'Hare focused upon informal sentence-combining activities built from a transformational grammar. Seventh graders involved produced more syntactically mature sentences than typical eighth graders normally do. In addition, the experimental students wrote compositions that were judged significantly better in overall quality than those written by students in a control group.

Implications of the findings are summarized in O'Hare's monograph #15 from the National Council of Teachers of English Committee on Research.

The findings suggest that the ability to manipulate sentence structures is at least as important as invention or arrangement in the teaching of writing. For the young writer, knowing "what to say isn't enough; he has to know how.

The sentence-combining system used in this study has both theoretical and practical attractiveness when considered as part of a composition program. Because it expands the practical choices, the options available to the young writer when he needs them during the composing process. Rhetoric and sentence-combining practice should be viewed not as mutually exclusive or even " discrete, but rather as complementary.

Since comparatively little time has been spent on the syntactic manipulative skill in English classes, writing programs should contain an enlarged language development component in which sentence-building exercises would play an important role. These exercises would not focus on any one sentence pattern but would exploit the entire range of syntactic alternatives allowed by the grammar of English. What the young writer needs is as much practice as possible with every conceivable combination of syntactic alternative.

Students exposed to sentence-building techniques could use these syntactic manipulative skills at the prewriting or rewriting stage in their work in composition.

An important dimension of this study was a systematic attempt to nurture the young writer's confidence. Its success suggests that writing programs should concentrate on building student confidence and a positive attitude towards sentence production.

The research does not suggest that grammar study alone, or even grammar study in other than informal activity settings is likely to be a significant variable in the development of overall writing ability. It does say that transformational sentence-combining activities have produced more syntactically complex structures in the writing of young students and apparently can be a useful tool in developing syntactic skills.

**WHAT THEN ARE THE ROLES OF GRAMMAR STUDY IN THE SCHOOLS?**

It appears that grammar study does have a role in the education of youngsters, perhaps a number.

**+ THE IMMEDIATE FUNCTIONAL**

The recent well-respected research cited earlier suggests that certain kinds of syntactic study and experiences can produce more syntactically fluent writers. This means that grammar study can be helpful to the writing program.

**+ THE LONG RANGE FUNCTIONAL**

Man is a structuring creature. His language functions to structure his experiences and, hence, his view of reality. Joseph Church asserts that:

The individual discovers the characteristics of reality as he goes along, that there are predictable regularities in the sequence of discoveries, and that language, including both what other people tell him and what he tells himself, plays an intimate part in this discovery and in enabling him to perceive the world as a coherent, stable place in which to live and act.

Our primary world of reality is a verbal one. The more we can know about our language the more likely we are to understand the breadth and limitations of our reality. Grammar study as the most accessible avenue to the structure of man's language can possibly help us understand ourselves a little better.

**+ THE AESTHETIC FUNCTIONAL**

One might argue that there is little "practical" value in the math or literature or science courses taught in our schools. That is, most of us can exist socially with little more than basic math, without ever being exposed to Shakespeare or physics or many other things which are unquestioningly accepted as legitimate components of our education and rightly so.

There must be a similar argument for grammar. As a theoretical human construct, the content of grammar helps define our human uniqueness. It is possible to conceptualize this construct as a symmetrical, logical,
The elimination of such can be another step in converting our education to training. Something which should be seriously open to question.

WHAT ARE SOME IMPLICATIONS OF THESE ROLES FOR THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM IN LANGUAGE ARTS?

One of the most pressing curricular questions we have to consider if we do accept one or more of the above roles as important enough to justify the inclusion of grammar study in the school is how much, what kind and how detailed. It has been a long standing contention of the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction. via Project English in the latter 1960's, that formal, extended and detailed grammar study throughout the grades was both unnecessary and undesirable. It could be repetitious and counter-productive It could deprive the student of other important experiences in language producing and consuming skill areas. It was argued that the middle school was probably the most appropriate place for introducing the study of grammar concepts in any kind of sustained way, for it is here where the student can bring to bear a reasonable language maturity so important for developing the more sophisticated syntactic skills.

Too, it is at this time that the youngster is entering the stage of formal reasoning in cognitive development, a stage which Piaget points out as one bearing sharp and practical implications for the classroom teacher and the kind of language the youngster can use.

We can notice too in the above mentioned roles for grammar that the most productive grammar experiences for enhancing syntactic skills in writing resulted from more informal, less technical and detailed grammar study.

In addition, extensive technical study of grammar need not be done in order to move on the other purposes or roles delineated.

This would suggest support once more for the middle grades as the most legitimate area of study of grammar and that a less formal nontechnical grammar is best for most students.

The following is based upon such premises.

Recall that many syntactic skills are still evolving through the tenth and eleventh years of age. e.g., C. Chomsky, K. Hunt, et al.
AN INTRODUCTION TO TEACHING SENTENCE STRUCTURE
AND SENTENCE-COMBINING ACTIVITIES

The remainder of this material consists of three essential components. First, there is a series of experiments (Experiments 1-31) which are designed to serve as models for the development of informal learning activities in sentence structure.

Second, there are accompanying teacher supplements for each experiment. These attempt to:

a) Identify the grammatical concept.
b) Offer some grammatical explanation of same.
c) Identify possible difficulties some students might encounter.
d) Offer suggestions for continued development and application when needed.

Third, there are a number of sentence-combining models provided to illustrate ways to design student activities in sentence-combining as a route to enhanced syntactic fluency.

A cursory examination should suggest that these models are based upon a generative-transformational grammar theory but utilize such only as a framework and not as a detailed approach.

The experiments are not designed to teach either a comprehensive or a detailed technical formal grammar. Students are not asked to concentrate on definitions, formulae, or detailed syntactic analysis. Instead, they are introduced to a quasi-structured handling of the language. The experiments require no specific training of the teacher in formal grammar and presuppose very little in the way of previous grammar study on the part of the student.

The experiments offer a nice lead into sentence-combining activities, but are not prerequisite to involvement with sentence-combining.

After considering the experiments, however, you will note that most syntactic structures are likely to deal with in the sentence-combining activities are treated in some fashion in the experiments.

A few important points about what this material purports to be and does not purport to be:

1) This is neither a total language component of the language arts nor even a comprehensive grammar program. It is instead a way to deal with the study of sentence structure within a more comprehensive language arts program.

Obviously, a complete language arts program must attend to a wide range of languaging notions: semantics, dialects, varying uses and functions of language to mention only a few.

In addition, as noted earlier, composition alone requires attention to a wide range of concerns in addition to sentence structure. The mechanics of punctuation and spelling are not included in this material. Also the content of the composition is not addressed, e.g., different writing content for different purposes, audiences, and subjects. What goes on in the way of instructional planning to facilitate a reasonable motivation and follow-up to the composing act is also fundamental, yet is shaped by factors and intentions outside the scope of this material.

On the other hand, there is some reason to believe that activities such as those included in this material can have some impact on the development of oral language ability and reading comprehension as well.

The most important point here is to keep the material in proper perspective. Do not demand more of it than it is prepared to deliver, but do not underestimate its potential in a number of language arts areas. Conceptually, it can provide a fundamental base for additional work in language structure and its place in the curriculum.

2) The primary role of this material is to provide useful class and small group discussion tools for:

a) allowing students to discover inductively certain fundamental characteristics of language structure.
b) enabling students to relate the study of sentence structure directly to the development of writing skills.

Do not assume, however, that any given experiment per se or specific set of sentence-combining activities will, by itself teach a specific sentence structure concept. The initial experiments, for instance, focus on the importance of word order and the concept of subject-predicate relationship in determining what a "sentence" is. It should be obvious, however, that for most students considerably more work, both formal and informal, will need to
take place over a sustained period for this concept to be internalized.

Opportunities to integrate the activities of this material in other ongoing language arts lessons should be considered. Likewise, the experiments and sentence-combining activities themselves can serve as springboards to other writing, reading, and talking activities where the initial concept of the material can gather continued reinforcement and application potential.

3) Remember that constant and repeated emphasis upon only the experiments or sentence-combining in drill-like fashion can be deadly as a teaching technique. This calls even more fundamentally for consideration of the points made in no. 2 above.

4) Finally, view this material as a language experience for yourself as well as for your students. Many of the experiments and most of the sentence-combining models are open-ended, thus encouraging discussion and debate about possible inferential variations on the more generalized conclusions. Allow students and yourself to "play" with some of these variations. Searching for exceptions to the conclusion or reinforcement for it provides excellent opportunities to enhance student conceptualization and perhaps in the long run, broadened learner perspectives on the nature of language and its role in our lives.
INDUCTIVE EXPERIMENTS
IN
THE STUDY OF SENTENCE
STRUCTURE
EXPERIMENT 1 — Word Order in Sentences

PART A

GIVEN:
- “Pat ate a rat” is a sentence.
- “A ate rat Pat” is not a sentence.

MATERIAL:
1) Mile a Dan ran
2) Dan ran mile a
3) Pat ate rat the
4) Dan ran a mile

DIRECTIONS:
Study the groups of words in MATERIAL. Now answer the following questions:
1) Are any of the groups sentences?
2) Which ones are not sentences?
3) Why are certain groups not sentences?

CONCLUSION:
In order for a group of words to be a sentence, words must be in the proper...

APPLICATION:
1) Rewrite those groups of words in MATERIAL which are not sentences so they become sentences.

PART B

GIVEN:
- Pat, rat, mile, Dan, man are nouns.
- A, the, some are determiners.

MATERIAL:
1) A bat saw the bat.
2) A purple frog loafed on a log.
3) An old goat had a sore throat.

DIRECTIONS:
Study the above sentences. Underline determiners with one line and nouns with two.

CONCLUSION:
If you have a determiner in a sentence, you will also have a...

APPLICATION:
Make up three sentences. Underline the determiners with one line and the nouns with two lines.

TEACHER SUPPLEMENT—Experiment 1

CONCEPT:
Word Order as a Factor in Sentence Production

ELABORATION:
Word order is probably the most fundamental grammatical characteristic of the English language. It affects both overall meaning and specific nuance in sentence comprehension. This, of course, is not true of all languages, such as Latin where the inflectional system is more instrumental in shaping meaning.

STUDENT RESPONSE:
By the time students are in the middle grades, this concept should be relatively well established.
Although the subtleties of more complex structures can present problems, e.g.

The little whistling toy train is mine.

The toy little 'Whistling traink mine.

How far this matter is probed depends upon the abilities of the student. Certainly, additional practice should be provided if students don't see basic word order relationships such as the following:

- Noun phrase + Verb phrase
- Determiner + Noun
- Determiner + Adjective + Noun

**EXPERIMENT 2 — Subject-Predicate in Sentences**

**GIVEN:**
- "Boys run" is a sentence.
- "Dogs eat bones" is a sentence.
- "Girls like" is not a sentence.
- "Girls like pretty" is not a sentence.

**MATERIAL:**
1. The dog fell
2. A gnat tripped a rat
3. Pipes leak quickly
4. The boy ate an apple
5. The silly pipes leak
6. He has

**DIRECTIONS:**
Study MATERIAL. Now do the following:
- Tell which of the word groups are sentences.

**CONCLUSION:**
1. What was wrong with the nonsentences?
2. Do some sentences need more words than others?

**APPLICATION:**
Rewrite the "nonsentences" so that they become sentences.

**TEACHER SUPPLEMENT — Experiment 2**

**CONCEPT:**
Subject-Predicate Relationship in a Kernel Sentence

**ELABORATION:**
A kernel sentence, in terms of a generative-transformational grammar, is simply noun phrase + verb phrase. In this grammar, the verb phrase can include an object noun phrase or a modifier. The most significant factor appears to be the verb, since certain types of verbs require certain kinds of complements. It is this point which offers major differences for establishing basic sentence patterns.

**STUDENT RESPONSE:**
This experiment should offer little difficulty to most students. Word group no. 6 in MATERIAL is intended as a nonsentence since verbs of the "have" class or "have" as a transitive verb requires an object.
However, some students may regard this as an elliptical sentence with the object deleted.

This should be no problem. Indeed, it represents an opportunity to show the ties between oral language where much deletion occurs and writing where relatively little deletion appears.

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION:
If students need additional work, basic sentences can easily be constructed by attending to basic verb types to assure use of intransitive verbs, transitive verbs, "have" verbs, and "give" verbs, e.g.

some verbs requiring an object: want, sell, buy, take, shoot
some verbs not requiring an object: write, leave, run, try

Making use of the experiment format, you can make up sentences and nonsentences by controlling the verb and object which follows.

EXPERIMENT 3 — Simple Modifiers

PART A

GIVEN
1) A funny man ate an apple
   a) Funny is an adjective.
   b) Ate is a verb.
2) Joan wore a lovely coat.
   a) Lovely is an adjective.
   b) Wore is a verb.

MATERIAL:
1) The pretty nurse ran a mile.
2) An old buggy had square wheels.
3) A mean cannibal gobbled up the prisoner.
4) A saggy bag was filled with junk.
5) Some grumpy people ate the gruel.
6) The boy left town.

DIRECTIONS:
Study the sentences in MATERIAL:
1) Do they all contain adjectives?
2) Do they all contain verbs?
3) Underline the adjectives with one line:
4) Underline the verbs with two lines:

CONCLUSION:
1) Can you have a sentence without an adjective?
2) Can you have a sentence without a verb?
3) Adjectives usually appear between words like which of these:
   a) boy hit
   b) a ____ boy
   c) of ____ the

APPLICATION:
1) Write three sentences with adjectives.

2) Write three sentences without adjectives.

PART B

GIVEN:
1) Twenty bears ate green apples.
2) Six cats chased one rat.
3) The boy's coat is dirty.
4) The bug's stomach is small.
All of the above are sentences.
MATERIAL:
1) Three bats saw the hat.
2) Fatty noodles fell into the pot.
3) The doll's arms were chipped and broken.
4) The pencil's lead was hard.

DIRECTIONS:
Underline the nouns in MATERIAL with one line.

CONCLUSION:
Determiners such as a, the, an come before nouns.
What other kinds of words can come before nouns?

APPLICATION:
Write sentences using, at least, one of each of the following words per sentence: boy's, car's, ten, five.

TEACHER SUPPLEMENT—Experiment 3

CONCEPT:
Simple Modifiers in Sentences

ELABORATION AND STUDENT RESPONSE:
The handling of adjective and verb classification, as well as other parts of speech in this material, is done through paradigm sets where something is classified as a member of a group according to a like set of attributes or features they all hold in common. These attributes or features are generalized according to their syntactic character. Where do they appear in the sentence? What structural character do they possess, e.g. take am, ed ending? and/or according to their semantic character—Do they tell how or where or who, etc.?

Hopefully, students will elaborate such inferences in discussion of the experiments.

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION:
Additional experiences in this area should be provided in such a manner as to allow observation of important characteristics of the verb and adjective.

- e.g. for the adjective
  a) an ending
  b) structural position between determiner and noun
  c) semantic role of descriptor

- for the verb
  a) ed, ing, s inflections
  b) position following a noun phrase
  c) immediately following a helping word such as have, will, may, might, etc.
  d) semantic role of action expressing

EXPERIMENT 4 — Different Kinds of Naming Words

PART A

GIVEN:
1) "Three mush is good to eat", is not a sentence.
2) "A dog's often run" is not a sentence.
3) "Many courage is nice" is not a sentence.
4) "Some mush is good to eat" is a sentence.
5) "The dog's often run" is a sentence.
6) "Courage is nice" is a sentence.

MATERIAL:
1) A wheat is in the field
2) A blood fell on/the floor
3) The blood fell on the floor
4) Wheat is in the field
5) Some wheat is in the field
6) The wheat is in the field

DIRECTIONS:
Study the groups of words in MATERIAL.
1) Label those which are sentences with an S.
2) Change the nonsentences so they become sentences.

CONCLUSION:
1) A will not go in front of words like
2) Does a word like the or some often come in front of a word like 'blood'? __________________________________________________________________________

3) Does any word at all have to come in front of a word like 'blood'? ____________________________________________________________________

APPLICATION:
Write sentences using the following words: love, courage, paint, milk, grass, and sky.

______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________

PART B
GIVEN:
1) "Mary punched Judy" is a sentence.
2) "Four Mary punched Judy" is not a sentence.
3) "Somebody stole my pink pirate pistol" is a sentence.
4) "The somebody stole my pink pirate pistol" is not a sentence.
5) "Five boys sat on six rats" is a sentence.
6) "Five bloods were here" is not a sentence.

MATERIAL:
1) Pete poked the plumbers
2) The Pete ate a pizza
3) Of course courage were shown.
4) The anybody ate a horse.
5) Ten somebody ate green plums.
6) Nobody ate pears.

DIRECTIONS:
Study the above in MATERIAL then do the following:
1) Label the sentences with an 'S'.
2) Rewrite nonsentences so they become sentences.

NEW, CONCLUSIÓN:
How are words such as Pete, Mary and Joe-like somebody, nobody and anybody? (Clue: Look at the determiner in a nonsentence.)

APPLICATION:
Write different sentences using: Jane, Harry, nobody, anybody, he, she, and I.

______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________

CONCLUSIÓN:
How are words such as Pete, Mary and Joe-like somebody, nobody and anybody? (Clue: Look at the determiner in a nonsentence.)

APPLICATION:
Write different sentences using: Jane, Harry, nobody, anybody, he, she, and I.
PART C

GIVEN:
1) "The old dog ate the apple" is a sentence.
2) "The old snorflie ate a dailyfam" is a sentence.
3) "A little bear could not find his way home" is a sentence.

MATERIAL:
1) The dog's apple was rotten
2) The snorflie's dailyflam was rotten
3) The apple's worm
4) The dailyfam's flein
5) The apple's worm's stomach was itching
6) Dailyfam the rotten was snorflie's

DIRECTIONS:
Study the groups of words in MATERIAL.
1) Which are sentences? Label with 'S'.
2) Can the nonsentences be made into sentences? If so, make them sentences.
3) Underline the nouns in all of the sentences with one line.
4) Underline the determiners with two lines.

ELABORATION:
The internal structure of the noun phrase is quite sophisticated. Certain words appear only in concert with certain others, some words must appear in particular slots, etc.

One significant characteristic is the division of common noun into count and mass nouns, the former simply nouns you can count, e.g., one boy, two rocks, etc.; the mass noun (noncount noun) can't be counted, e.g., one wheat? or two bloods?

Count nouns will follow all determiners, but mass nouns will not follow determiners 'a and an.'

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION AND STUDENT RESPONSE:
In constructing additional exercises, be aware of two possible trouble spots:
1) Words such as 'love' are actually, capable of functioning in either count or mass capacity, e.g.
   a) Love is great.
   b) He has three loves.

   Love is technically a homonym. There is a 'love', which is mass and 'love,' which is count.

   2) A second matter has to do with a group of count nouns which are best viewed as instantiations of mass nouns, e.g.

   crowd, throng; horde, group, pile, flock, tribe, family, set, etc:

   They imply unit of mass but are used as singular exemplifications of the mass meaning.

   When constructing additional exercises, care should be exhibited in handling nouns of this type since the degree of abstraction involved may be too complex for some students.

PART B

CONCEPT:
Determiner-Noun Relationships

ELABORATION:
No formal determiner construction appears before indefinite pronouns (somebody, anybody, nobody, someone, etc.) and personal pronouns. Some grammarians contend that the determiner is built into the indefinite pronoun. Some also say that a determiner slot is found in all common noun constructions but are not always filled. It is used to symbolize this slot:

The proper noun is not in the class of common nouns. It requires no determiner.
PART C

CONCEPT:
Word Order as Structural Factor in Language System

ELABORATION
This is an exercise with specific attention to total structure. Students need to see subject-predicate relationship as a structural one.

In addition, the role of possessive is introduced informally here to be pursued in more depth later.

EXPERIMENT 5—More on Two Parts In Sentences

PART A

GIVEN:
1) "Joe laughed" is a sentence.
   Joe is the subject; laughed is the predicate.
2) "Pat sat" is a sentence.
   Pat is the subject; sat is the predicate.
3) "The fat rat munched a thin pin" is a sentence.
   The fat rat is the subject; munching a thin pin is the predicate.

MATERIAL:
1) Zeke fell
2) Mary cried.
3) A purple turtle sat on a log.
4) A purple turtle sat on a log with Jake the snake.

DIRECTIONS:
Divide the sentences in MATERIAL into two parts each. Underline the subject with one line, the predicate with two lines.

CONCLUSION:
1) What kinds of words are in the subject?

2) With what kind of word does the predicate begin?

APPLICATION:
Make up three sentences. Write them down. Underline the subject of each sentence with one line, the predicate with two lines.

PART B

GIVEN:
1) "The green goat with the red coat jumped down" is a sentence.
   The green goat with the red coat is the subject; jumped down is the predicate.
2) "The little girl gave Myrtle the turtle a terrible scare" is a sentence.
   The little girl is the subject; gave Myrtle the turtle a terrible scare is the predicate.

MATERIAL:
1) The fat rat ate the skinny bat.
2) The little boy with the huge toy is my friend.
3) My friend gave his dog a large bone that was old.

DIRECTIONS:
Study the sentences in MATERIAL. Underline the subject of each sentence, with one line; the predicate with two lines.

CONCLUSION:
Are the two parts of a sentence always the same length?
APPLICATION
Make up three sentences. Write the sentences and underline the two parts, subject one line, predicate two lines.

1) 
2) 
3) 

PART C

GIVEN:
1) The young boy was chasing the cat.
The young boy is the subject; was chasing the cat is the predicate.
2) The boy might not be leaving town.
The boy is the subject; might not be leaving town is the predicate.
3) The little girl with pigtails will be my friend.
The little girl with pigtails is the subject; will be my friend is the predicate.

MATERIAL:
1) A sweet kitten was eating my mitten.
2) Two pups will be drinking from cups.
3) The old dinosaur could not find his glasses.
4) My pal might not like this idea.

DIRECTIONS:
1) Divide each of the sentences in MATERIAL into two parts.

2) List the first word of each predicate.

CONCLUSION:
Is the verb always the first word in the predicate of each sentence?

APPLICATION:
Make up three sentences. Write the sentences and underline the two parts, subject one line, predicate two lines.

1) 
2) 
3) 

TEACHER SUPPLEMENT—Experiment 5

CONCEPT:
Two-Part Nature of the Sentence—Subject-Predicate Relationship

ELABORATION:
The subject-predicate relationship is one of the most conspicuous and basic of language concepts. Represented here as Subject (noun phrase) and Predicate (verb phrase), this experiment concentrates on two specific points:

1) Actual word length of either of the two sentence parts is not an important factor.
2) Have (have, has, had), To Be (am, are, is, was, were), or modal (can, could, may, might, will, would, must), as well as a basic verb, introduce the predicate.

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION:
If you wish to construct additional sentences for practice, try to include the following in your sentences:
1) Short and long sentences
2) Short noun phrase + long verb phrase
3) Long noun phrase + short verb phrase
4) Noun phrase + modal + verb phrase
5) Noun phrase + to be + verb phrase
6) Noun phrase + have + verb phrase
EXPERIMENT 8 — Helping Words in a Sentence

PART A

GIVEN:
1) "The rat will eat" is a sentence.
   a) Rat is like boy.
   b) Eat is like drink.
2) "Kitten chew string" is a sentence.
   a) Kitten is a noun.
   b) Chew is a verb.

MATERIAL:
1) A goat might go.
2) A flea could bite.
3) Some rain must fall.
4) The sun will shine.

DIRECTIONS:
1) Try to take words out of the sentences in MATERIAL and still have sentences. Can you?

   2) Man is a word like goat in sentence no. 1. What are words like man in sentences 2, 3 and 4?

   3) Fight is a word like go in sentence no. 1. What are words like fight in sentences 2, 3 and 4?

   4) May is a word like might in sentence no. 1. What are words like may in sentences 2, 3 and 4?

   5) Which of the following is a word similar to will: a) of, b) the, c) might, d) go

   6) If you have a word like a, then you will have a word immediately following like: a) some, b) sat, c) be

   7) If you have a word like will, then you'll have a word immediately following like: a) the, b) of, c) go, d) man

CONCLUSION:
How are words such as: may, will, might and could like a, the and some? (Clue: What kind of word comes after each?)

APPLICATION:
Make up three sentences. Write them down. Underline words like will, might, could, would. Now drop all words you can and still have sentences. Did you drop any of the underlined words?

NEW CONCLUSION:
Are words like will important to a sentence? Why or why not?

PART B

GIVEN:
"The purple frill can leave the room."
frown is like man; can is like could

MATERIAL:
1) Myrtle the turtle might stay for lunch
2) Myrtle the turtle was stay for lunch
3) Myrtle the turtle can might for lunch

DIRECTIONS:
1) Which of the above in MATERIAL are sentences?

   2) Underline words like will.

   3) Name all the words you know like will.

   4) Name the words like man in the sentences.
CONCLUSION: Can words like will appear right next to will in a sentence?

APPLICATION: Make up three sentences using words like will in each.

ELABORATION: Many grammarians assert that the structure of the verb phrase is the most systematic and sophisticated of the various sub-systems of the English language.

A number of elements may appear within the verb phrase structure but slots in which they may fit are tightly fixed, e.g.

- tense + modal + have + en + be + ing + verb

will + have + been + chasing

is the order of possible support elements. If a modal appears, it must be first and will carry tense. Only one modal may appear, so it is said to be a mutually exclusive element. In active voice sentences, the appearance of a to be form requires an ing inflection on the following verb.

In this experiment, special attention is given to the makeup of the modal and its relationship to other verb phrase elements.

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION: Provide additional practice by making up sentences containing all of the modals with attention to their position within the verb phrase structure.

TEACHER SUPPLEMENT—Experiment 8

PARTS A & B

CONCEPT: Helping Words — Their Role in the Verb Phrase

EXPERIMENT 7 — Kinds of Verbs and What They Do

PART A

GIVEN:
1) A big dog chases cats.
2) We shall find the treasure.
   cats and treasure are nouns (words like man, boy, car, etc.)

MATERIAL:
1) A green furple fights frams.
2) I shall find the food.
3) I threw the rock.
4) We elected Joe president.
5) The boat has an anchor.

DIRECTIONS:
1) List the nouns in the predicate of each of the sentences in MATERIAL.

2) List the verbs in each of the sentences.

CONCLUSION: Do words like find, elect and have need words after them in order for them to make a sentence?

3) Rewrite each of the sentences by leaving out all words after the verb. How many are still sentences?
APPLICATION:
Make-up three sentences that have words after the verb.

PART B

GIVEN:
1) The boys seem funny.
2) The red rattle is noisy.
3) The frog was a toy.
4) Jenny is a jerk.
5) Joe became the captain.

MATERIAL:
1) The girls seem
2) The boys become
3) He is a friend
4) The fighter beat the champion

DIRECTIONS:
1) Which of the above in MATERIAL are non-sentences?
2) Add something to the non-sentences so they become sentences.

CONCLUSION:
What are some words which need others after them to make sentences?

PART C

GIVEN:
1) The frog is pretty.
2) The frog is an animal.
3) The dress became pretty.
4) The dress became a rag.

MATERIAL:
1) The flea is a bug
2) The flea is old
3) The flea is in the corner
4) The boy became the captain
5) The boy became tired
6) The boy became in the corner

DIRECTIONS:
1) Which of the above in MATERIAL are non-sentences?
2) Change the non-sentences so they become sentences.
3) Will a noun come after become?
4) Will an adjective come after become?

CONCLUSION:
What will come after is that will not come after become?
PART D

GIVEN:
1) in the corner
   here
   somewhere
   up the stairs
2) quickly
   slowly
   in a hurry
   with much speed

MATERIAL:
1) The bug is in the barn
2) The bee flew up the stairs
3) The bee is a bug
4) The spider became a monster
5) The spider became ill
6) The spider became quickly
7) The spider became up the stairs

DIRECTIONS:
1) Which of the above in MATERIAL are sentences and which are not sentences?
2) Rewrite the nonsentences so they become sentences.

CONCLUSION:
Will words that tell where come after become?

TEACHER SUPPLEMENT—Experiment 7

CONCEPT:
Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

ELABORATION.
There are operating within the language a number of kernel sentence (noun phrase + verb phrase) patterns. There appear to be at least five patterns (some grammarians prefer more; it is simply a matter of how specifically one wishes to subdivide and/or what one considers to be a transform).

In this material, we shall refer to the basic characteristics of all. For practical purposes, five are outlined below:

1) Noun phrase + intransitive verb
2) Noun phrase + transitive verb + noun phrase
3) Noun phrase + become + noun phrase or adjective
4) Noun phrase + seem + adjective
5) Noun phrase + to be + noun phrase of adjective or verb of place

Notice that the basic difference is in what the possible structures are which can follow the verb. This in turn is determined by the nature of the verb itself. For instance, the so-called "linking verbs" are subdivided in patterns 3-5 because of the different complements possible for each. A noun phrase or an adjective can follow a verb like become, e.g.

He became the leader,
He became ill.

However, you cannot say:
Now be became in the corner

Notice the to be possibilities:
He is the leader
He is ill.
He is in the corner.

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION:
1) To be verbs (am, are, is, was, were)
2) Transitive verbs (take an object)
3) Intransitive verbs (do not take an object)
4) Seem verbs (look, taste)
PART A

GIVEN:
1. today
   yesterday
   in a week
2. in the house
   here
   there
3. slept
   sat
   waited
4. 1 + 2 + 5
   2) 4 + 1 + 5 + 6 + 9
   3) 1 + 6 + 1 + 4 + 5 + 3

DIRECTIONS:
Make sentences of the above number formulas in
MATERIAL, by replacing the numbers with words
chosen from the list of words under the numbers.

EXAMPLE:
1 + 5 + 6 + 9
The boy + by the rock + left + it.

CONCLUSION:
1) Can word order of sentences be changed?
2) Can word order be changed any way you want to?

APPLICATION:
Make up three separate sentences using combinations
of words chosen from the lists in MATERIAL.

PART B

GIVEN:
1) today
   yesterday
   in a week
2) in the house
   here
   there
3) slowly
   in a hurry
   hurriedly

MATERIAL:
1) The boy
   A mouse
   Some rocks
   Pete
   Anyone
2) was
   is
   are
   were
3) yesterday now in a year
6) found hit lifted
7) slept arose sat waited
9) it then him

1) $1 + 7 + 4 + 5 + 3$
2) $1 + 6 + 1 + 4 + 5 + 3$
3) $1 + 8 + 5 + 3$
4) $1 + 2 + 1 + 5 + 3$

**DIRECTIONS**
Rewrite the above number formulas in MATERIAL as sentences.

---

**TEACHER SUPPLEMENT—Experiment 8**

**CONCEPT:**
Word Modifier Structure — Possibilities Within the Sentence

**ELABORATION:**
There are three sets of adverbials operating in our language:

1) Adverbials of Time:
   - today
   - in the morning
   - next week
   - etc.;

2) Adverbials of Place:
   - in the barn
   - here
   - there
   - etc.;

3) Adverbials of Manner:
   - quickly
   - slowly
   - in a rush
   - etc.

Observe that most prepositional phrases are adverbials (a few fall into other roles). Notice too, that the adverbial can be one word.

Within language structure these adverbials function in tightly fixed ways. For instance, adverbials of place immediately follow to be verbs; adverbials of manner will come after intransitive verbs, transitive verbs, and become verbs; but not after seem verbs or to be verbs. In sentences where all three appear, the normal order is adverbial of manner + adverbial of place + adverbial of time.

**APPLICATION:**
Make up three sentences. Try to include when, where, and how words in every sentence.

---

**ADDITIONAL APPLICATION:**
In providing additional practice, use the column format under MATERIAL. Notice especially that there are four columns of verb types. Be sure to include all types given here.

Notice that some adverbials which are adverbials of manner look, at first glance, to be adverbials of time, e.g. in a hurry. Normally, however, this should not be a problem.
EXPERIMENT 9—More on Describing Words Again

GIVEN:
1) The old car
2) The running car
3) The model car
4) The red car

The italicized words are describing words.

MATERIAL:
1) running
   - big
   - little
   - small
   - pretty
2) whistling
   - orange
   - blue
   - white
3) splashing
   - red
   - model
   - village
   - town
4) smiling
   - toy
   - white
   - blue
   - model
5) car
   - train
   - dog
   - frog

DIRECTIONS:
1) Rewrite the number groups in MATERIAL as combinations of words using words given in the columns. (Look at Experiment 8 for example.)
2) Which of the word groups will fit in a blank like the following: ______ “was very nice”? 3) Can you change the other groups so they will fit the blank?

CONCLUSION:
Do certain kinds of describing words come before other kinds in a sentence? Which kinds seem to come first?

APPLICATION:
Make up three different sentences using words in the lists in MATERIAL.

TEACHER SUPPLEMENT—Experiment 9

CONCEPT:
Modifier-Noun Relationship Within the Noun Phrase Structure

ELABORATION:
The expansion of a noun phrase through modifiers is performed in an orderly manner: Certain types of elements appear before or after certain other types. The structure is relatively complex and degrees of grammaticality can be discerned, e.g.
1) the whistling toy train
2) the toy whistling train

STUDENT RESPONSE:
How many specific observations students will be able to make after performing the required manipulations will obviously depend upon ability and maturity. Hopefully, they will at least note the beginning position of the determiner and the position of the noun adjunct (group 4) immediately before the noun headword (group 5).

In addition, they might observe that group 3 words normally follow group 2 words.

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION:
Using the MATERIAL groups as models, list other words similar in structural makeup and let students use them in forming new sentences.
EXPERIMENT 10—Some Verbs

PART A

GIVEN:
1) drive - drove - driven
2) speak - spoke - spoken
3) ring - rang - rung
4) walk - walked - walked

MATERIAL:
1) a) Today I
   b) Yesterday I
   c) Many times I have
2) a) jumped
   b) told - told -
   c) swam -
   d) wrote - wrote -
   e) set -
   f) forgot - forgot -

DIRECTIONS:
Fill in the blanks in no. 1 of MATERIAL with appropriate words. Fill in the blanks in no. 2 of MATERIAL with the correct missing word.

CONCLUSION:
1) How do verbs change?
2) How do the words in GIVEN work in sentences?

APPLICATION:
Make up three sentences using some form of the above verbs.

PART B

GIVEN:
1) have - has - had
2) could - can -
3) may - might -
4) shall - should -
5) will - would -
6) must -
7) am
8) are
9) is
10) was
11) were

MATERIAL:
1) The man
   2) The man
   3) The man

DIRECTIONS:
Write the above in MATERIAL as sentences by choosing a word or words from the GIVEN and placing it in the appropriate blank.

CONCLUSION:
1) How do the words in GIVEN work in sentences?
2) What do they signal the appearance of?

APPLICATION:
Make up three sentences using words like those in GIVEN.
TEACHER SUPPLEMENT—Experiment '10

CONCEPT:

Verb Forms

ELABORATION:

This is an important concept to develop. Verb form changes are perhaps the most complex and difficult part of our language. Note that the "helping verbs" are classified into three groups:

1) Modals - can, could, will, would, shall, should, may, might, must

2) To be - am, are, is, was, were

3) Have - have, has, had

To be forms are also considered separately because of their distinctive and unique forms and their semantic characteristics (note Supplement to Experiment 7)

"Have" functions as a modal does, but it will also function as a base verb, e.g., He has measles.

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION:

In building practice exercises, include all three types of helpers, (modal, to be, have).

EXPERIMENT 11—More on Verbs

PART A

GIVEN:

Rewrite as
Put out the dog. Put the dog out.

MATERIAL:

1) Look up the word.
2) Joe will get the paper.
3) The cat ran up the tree.
4) He jumped in the tub.

DIRECTIONS:

In each of the above sentences in MATERIAL, move the italicized word to the end. How many are still sentences?

CONCLUSION:

If a word like in, up, or out comes right after the verb, what can you sometimes do?

APPLICATION:

Make up three sentences using in, or up right after the verb. Then rewrite the sentences by moving in, out, or up, to the end. How many are still sentences?

PART B

GIVEN:

1) Sue expects to leave.
2) Harry will try to stay.

MATERIAL:

1) Do you expect Joe?
2) I shall try
3) Will you persuade Jill?

DIRECTIONS:

Fill in the above blanks in MATERIAL so you will have a sentence for each.

CONCLUSION:

If you use a verb like try or expect in a sentence, what word or words will often appear after it?

APPLICATION:

Make up three sentences using try or, expect as verbs.
PART C

GIVEN:
1) The pink gnat enjoys skating.
2) A purple furple often likes skiing.
3) I'll avoid painting the house.

MATERIAL:
1) Do you enjoy ____________________________?
2) I like ________________________________
3) Will you avoid ____________________________?

DIRECTIONS:
Fill in the blanks in MATERIAL so you have complete sentences.

CONCLUSION:
1) Do you have words in the blanks with ing endings?
2) What often comes after verbs like enjoy and avoid?

APPLICATION:
Make up three sentences using enjoy and avoid.

TEACHER SUPPLEMENT—Experiment 1T

PART A

CONCEPT:
The Particle Transformation

ELABORATION:
A limited number of words such as in, up, and out, when appearing immediately after a verb, are appropriately considered as particles and as part of the verb. This represents a departure from traditional grammars which considered them as either prepositions or adverbs.

As particles they possess flexibility and can be moved to the end of the sentence. Thus it is a relatively simple matter to test whether a given word is a particle or not. Simply try moving the word to the end of the sentence. If the result is a grammatical sentence, the word is a particle.

1) He ran up a grocery bill. ➔ He ran a grocery bill up.
2) The cat ran up the tree. ➔ will not change to
   The cat ran the tree up.

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION AND STUDENT RESPONSE:
Probably very little additional work need be done here. Remember, if desired, to test possible exercise sentences to see whether they contain a particle or not.

PARTS B & C

ELABORATION AND STUDENT RESPONSE:
As was noted earlier, the nature of the verb bears sharply on the kinds of expressions or constructions which can follow in the same sentence. In the case of verbs like expect, try and persuade, the resulting complement is often to + verb, e.g.

I expect Joe to go.
We persuaded Mary to play
We tried to win.

While with verbs such as enjoy and avoid, the result is often verb + ing, e.g.

I enjoy skiing.
They avoided failing.
I like swimming.

It is easy to note, however, that many other complement types can easily occur instead, e.g.

I enjoy food.
I like to eat.
We fried the steak.
etc.

Ask students themselves to record samples of talk of their parents, friends, etc. and chart the complement patterns.

Note carefully that this experiment does not strive for a right or wrong answer.
EXPERIMENT 12—Extending Modifiers

PART A

GIVEN:
1) The boy's cat itched.
2) The boy's cat's paw itched.
3) The boy's cat's paw's nail scratched.

MATERIAL:
1) The girl's dog barked.
2) The girl's
dog
collared.
3) The girls
dogs
collars
looked
t funny.

DIRECTIONS:
Fill in the blanks in MATERIAL with words to make a sentence using more words ending with 's in each blank. (Look at GIVEN.)

CONCLUSION:
How many 's words can you put in front of a noun and still have a sentence?

APPLICATION:
1) Make a sentence of the following according to the instructions:
"The ______ looked funny.
   a) Use two words ending with 's for example.
   b) Use three words ending with 's.
   c) Use five words ending with 's.
2) Make up a funny-looking sentence with many 's words.
"The ______ looked funny.

PART B

GIVEN:
1) A few of those dogs can fly.
2) Some of the twenty girls can stay.
3) One of the ropes is mine.

MATERIAL:
1) ten
2) six
3) boys
4) the
five
these
those
forty
A few of
rocks
some of
cars
Many of
boats
A lot of

DIRECTIONS:
Rewrite the following in English using the above words in MATERIAL under the given numbers.

a) 2 + 1 + 3
b) 1 + 3
c) 4 + 2 + 3
d) 4 + 2 + 1 + 3
e) 1 + 2 + 3

2) How many of the above word groups will fit in this blank?

CONCLUSION:
1) If you choose a no. 4, where will it appear in the word group?
2) If a no. 4 appears, a no. ______ must come right after it.
3) A no. 3 is always which word in the group?
4) Will a no. 1 word come before or after a no. 2 word?
APPLICATION:
Make up three more sentences using the word lists under MATERIAL.

PART C
GIVEN:
1) A few of the cats have tails.
2) Some of the red birds have feathers.
3) Many of the old red church buildings need painting.
4) A few of those nice young running birds are robins.

MATERIAL:
1) old
2) running
3) Many of
4) red
5) church
6) streets
7) the

DIRECTIONS:
Using words under MATERIAL, rewrite the following according to the numbers and their matched words:

1) 3 + 7 + 6
2) 7 + 1 + 2 + 6
3) 3 + 7 + 1 + 5 + 6
4) 7 + 4 + 6
5) 7 + 1 + 4 + 6
6) 7 + 4 + 5 + 6

CONCLUSION:
1) Whenever a no. 3 appears, a no. ______ word immediately follows.
2) If there is a no. 5 word, it will appear in front of a no. ______ word.
3) Will a no. 1 word appear in front of a no. 7 word?
4) If a no. 3 appears, it will always be:
   a) second
   b) first
   c) third
   d) fourth

APPLICATION:
Make up three different sentences using words from the lists in MATERIAL.

PART D
GIVEN:
1) The boy's pretty black dog
2) Some of the cat's paw's nails
3) A few of the twenty cars' engines' pistons
DIRECTIONS:
1) Using words under MATERIAL rewrite the following according to the numbers and their matched words.

a) 2 + 3 + 4 + 5
b) 2 + 1 + 3 + 1 + 5
c) 2 + 1 + 3 + 1 + 1 + 5
d) 2 + 3 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 4 + 5
e) 2 + 2 + 5
f) 2 + 3 + 3 + 1 + 5

2) Which of the above word groups will fit this blank? ________________ are quite lovely.

CONCLUSION:
1) Can some words in the same number group be used more than once? ________________
2) Which, if any? ________________

APPLICATION:
Make up three sentences using the word lists in MATERIAL.

The a boy
but you could have
The boy's dog's collar
where two possessives appear in a row. They are said to fill the same slot since there is theoretically one slot for possessive modifiers in the noun phrase.

Most adjectives are mutually inclusive while constructions such as pre-articles are mutually exclusive.

Pre-articles are constructions such as: some of, a few of, many of, several of, etc. These, when appearing in a noun phrase, will always be first and will be followed by an article, often definite article the. In some instances, a writer chooses to delete the 'of' in which case there is an accompanying obligatory deletion of the article as well.
The obligatory order for elements within a noun phrase, exclusive of adjectives is:

(Pre-article) + article + (demonstrative) + (no) + noun

() = optional.

That is, only the article is obligatory. If any of the others appear, they will appear in this order,

e.g. pre-art + art + number + noun

A few of + the + twenty + demonstratives

Notice that if a demonstrative (this, that, these) appears, it has the article built in.

Many of + those + six + boys

pre-art + art + demonstrative + number + noun

If the noun is an indefinite pronoun, the article is built into it.

e.g. Somebody + left

noun phrase verb phrase

art + noun

EXPERIMENT 13 — Remaining Parts of Sentences

PART A

GIVEN:
1) A purple frog ate a ferocious flea.
2) A frog ate a flea.
3) The young boy on the sled is my cousin.
4) The boy is my cousin.

MATERIAL:
1) A drunk parrot devoured an old purple flup.
2) The tiny lion with rotten teeth sipped a sweet soda.
3) The sad lizard gobbled a chicken gizzard.
4) The funny fat lady is in the circus.
5) The dippy duck quacked endlessly.

DIRECTIONS:
1) Cross out as many words from these sentences as you can and still have sentences.
2) Underline the subject of the new sentences with one line; the predicate with two.

CONCLUSION:
What kinds of words must a sentence have in order to be a sentence?

If the noun is a proper noun, there is no article, while the article is said to precede a personal pronoun,

e.g. Mary hit me.

noun phrase verb phrase

proper + noun + tense + verb + noun phrase

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION:
This is a rather sophisticated concept, and as such requires close attention. Don't feel that your students must see all of the possible built-in relationships. However, do strive for an understanding of at least the following:

1) Pre-article (first element in noun phrase)
2) Possessive (can appear in series)
3) Adjective (can appear in series)
4) Noun adjunct (normally comes right before the noun headword)
5) Numbers (usually precede adjective)

When making additional exercises include some of these in all of your examples.

PART B

APPLICATION:
Make up three sentences. Now scratch out as many words as you can and still have sentences.

GIVEN:
1) Some young boys in faded jeans with patched knees were slowly eating wormy apples.
2) Boys were eating apples:
3) Onto the roof of the old church on the corner, the girl hit the ball.
4) The girl hit the ball.
DIRECTIONS:
1) Cross out as many words as you can from the above sentences in MATERIAL and still have sentences.
2) Underline the subject of the new sentences with one line and the predicate with two.

CONCLUSION:
How are your new sentences here like the sentences you made in PART A?

APPLICATION:
Do the same as asked in APPLICATION of PART A.

EXPERIMENT 14 — Making Yes/No Questions

PART A
GIVEN:
1) The boy is my friend. ⇒ Is the boy my friend?
2) I can go. ⇒ Can I go?
3) Mary has left. ⇒ Has Mary left?

MATERIAL:
1) The orange bat is my friend. ⇒
2) Pete was a little grey squirrel. ⇒
3) Louise has hit the fat cat. ⇒
4) Some of the boys will leave. ⇒
5) The group of children can stay. ⇒

DIRECTIONS:
Change each of the above sentences in MATERIAL to questions that a listener can answer with either 'yes' or 'no'.

CONCLUSION:
1) What did you do to the word order when you made questions out of the sentences?
2) What kind of word now comes first after you have a question?

APPLICATION:
1) Make up three sentences like those in MATERIAL. Write them below.

CONCLUSION:
1) What new word was added?
2) What happened to the verb?

APPLICATION:
1) Make up three sentences like those in MATERIAL. Write them below.

2) Change them into questions which can be answered with 'yes' or 'no'.

PART B

GIVEN:
1) The child hit the ball. ⇒ Did the child hit the ball?
2) A worm ate the apple. ⇒ Did a worm eat the apple?

MATERIAL:
1) A small goat swallowed a can. ⇒
2) The perfume smelled like roses. ⇒
3) The poodle swam across the pool. ⇒
4) A limply shriveled old orangutan ⇒

DIRECTIONS:
Change the above sentences into questions which can be answered with 'yes' or 'no'.

TEACHER SUPPLEMENT—Experiment 14

CONCEPT:
Yes/No—the Question Forming Transformation

ELABORATION:
Of the many transformations operating in our language, this is one of the easiest to observe as a permutation type (reordering type).

The transformation is quite simple in sentences with a to be form of verb, have, or a modal (can, could, may, might, will, would, must, shall, should) acting as part of the verb phrase. The to be, have, or modal is simply moved in front of the subject noun phrase.
In a kernel sentence containing a base verb instead, two major operations are involved (PART B):

1) Do is added to the front of the sentence.
2) The tense is moved from the verb to the Do.

The latter operation is the most difficult to describe in a nontechnical fashion, and there doesn't appear to be any reason to do so in the middle grades.

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION:
If students have difficulties with this transformation, make up additional exercises similar to those in PART A first, since that transformation is a one-step operation.

EXPERIMENT 15 — Making Wh-Questions

PART A

GIVEN:
1) Alice can go to the party. => Where can Alice go?
2) Pete is playing football. => What is Pete playing?

MATERIAL:
1) Harry owns a bicycle. =>
2) Kerwin hit the ball. =>
3) A green gimples gobbled a snickly niggle. =>
4) Jody is going to town. =>
5) Mary is leaving school. =>

DIRECTIONS:
1) Change nos. 1, 2, and 3 in MATERIAL to questions using the word what.

2) Change nos. 4 and 5 to questions using the word where. (Notice you will have to drop some words and in some cases add new words.)

CONCLUSION:
1) Where took the place of __________________________

2) What took the place of __________________________

3) What new word was added to nos. 1-3 in addition to what? __________________________

4) What happens to is in nos. 4-5 when these sentences become questions? __________________________

APPLICATION:
Make up three questions. Write them down. Change them into statements. Notice what changes you made.

PART B

GIVEN:
1) Mary is leaving school. => Who is leaving the school?

2) Jo Ann will be leaving tomorrow. => When will Jo Ann be leaving?

MATERIAL:
1) The captain came on the field. =>
2) The old dog fought the mean cat. =>
3) The sale will end next week. =>
4) Peggy will arrive tomorrow. =>
DIRECTIONS:

1) Rewrite statement nos. 1 and 2 in MATERIAL as questions using **who**.

2) Rewrite statement nos. 3 and 4 as questions which question the time. (Clue: **when**)

CONCLUSION:

1) What did the word **who** take the place of in nos. 1 and 2?

2) Is it possible to write two different questions for no. 2?

3) What did **when** take the place of in nos. 3 and 4?

4) What did you do with will?

APPLICATION:

Make up three questions. Write them down. Change them to statements.

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TEACHER SUPPLEMENT—Experiment 15

CONCEPT:

- **Wh-Questions**—Question Transformation Requiring More Than a Yes/No Answer.

ELABORATION:

Note in this experiment, as well as all others involving transformations, that changes are made on kernel sentences, and new sentences are derived through alteration of kernel sentences. One should also note that a series of transformations can be performed on a kernel to produce a new sentence. In fact, that is what is involved here.

In this experiment we are concerned with changing statements to questions that question time (when?), situation or incident (what?), place (where?), or person (who?). Notice that Experiment 14 produced yes/no questions and in doing so reordered certain sentence elements, namely modal or have or to be with the first noun phrase.

Alice can go to the party. ⇒ Can Alice go to the party?

If we wish to question the place, we must substitute _where_ for _to the party_ and place _where_ in front of the sentence. You will observe then that the yes/no change must be performed prior to the wh-question change, e.g.

1) Alice can go to the party. ⇒ Can Alice go to the party?

(by transformation: yes/no)

2) Where can Alice go?

(by transformation: wh)

If the yes/no change had not been performed, the result would have been:

1) Alice can go to the party. ⇒ Where can Alice go?

(which is ungrammatical)

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION:

This is not a complex operation so students should have little difficulty with it. If you need to construct additional practice assertions, include a variety of place, time, person, incident (action), phrases or words in the kernel sentences.

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EXPERIMENT 16—Adding “There”

GIVEN:

1) A few bugs are in the butter. ⇒ There are a few bugs in the butter.

2) Six kings were in a coat. ⇒ There were six kings in a coat.
MATERIAL:
1) Some petunias were blooming.
2) A pesep in the canary.
3) Six chirps were in the parrot.

DIRECTIONS:
Change the sentences in MATERIAL to different sentences by starting each one with there. You will need to make some other changes in the sentences also.

CONCLUSION:
What changes must be made in a sentence if you add there to the front?

APPLICATION:
Make up three sentences beginning with there. Write them down. Change them by dropping there and doing whatever else you need to.

TEACHER SUPPLEMENT—Experiment 16

CONCEPT:
The There Transformation

ELABORATION:
This experiment covers only the simplest application situation of the transformation; that is those dealing with sentences employing to be. Those sentences with base verbs require more complex operations, e.g.

Some boys sat = There were some boys

Note the change in verb from sat to sitting plus an addition and a reordering operation.

Sentences with proper nouns and/or personal pronouns are especially troublesome and need to be treated separately if desired.

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION:
If students handle this experiment with little difficulty, it might be worthwhile to give them base verb type sentences to try, e.g.

A few girls left school.
A bird ate a worm.
Or sentences with proper nouns and/or personal pronouns, e.g.

John was in the car.
She was the new president.

EXPERIMENT 17 — Negating in Sentences

GIVEN:
1) The dog is in the yard. ⇐ The dog is not in the yard.
2) His father owns a car. ⇐ His father does not own a car.

MATERIAL:
1) The bird was in a bush. ⇐
2) I am a new student. ⇐
3) A freebie is a purple. ⇐
4) A snirkle uggled a smiffle. ⇐
5) A green dog bit a pink postmark. ⇐
DIRECTIONS:
Change the sentences in MATERIAL so that *not* will be in each.

CONCLUSION:
1) Where is *not* added in sentences like nos. 1-3?

2) What other changes must be made in sentences like nos. 4-5?

APPLICATION:
Make up four sentences using the word *not*. Two of the four sentences should include the word *did*. Now write these four sentences without the *not*.

EXPERIMENT 18 — Objects of Verbs

GIVEN:
1) The boy gave a bone to his dog. ⇒ The boy gave his dog a bone.
2) The garage man sold a car to the lady. ⇒ The garage man sold the lady a car.

MATERIAL
1) A teacher bought a gift for Billy. ⇒
2) Some people gave a cow to the farmer. ⇒
3) The pitcher threw a ball to the catcher. ⇒

DIRECTIONS:
Change the sentences in MATERIAL so that the italicized word comes in front of the word in bold face. Do whatever else you need to in order to keep it a sentence. (Clue: you might have to drop words.)

CONCLUSION:
What changes must be made in sentences like these if some words are moved to other positions?
APPLICATION:
1) Make up three sentences like those you wrote in DIRECTIONS. Write them down.

2) Now rewrite them as they would have looked before they were written in this way. (Clue: look at sentences in MATERIAL.)

CONCEPT:
The Indirect Object Transformation

ELABORATION AND STUDENT RESPONSE:
This transformation operates only in conjunction with a limited number of verbs, specifically, buy, throw, give, and a few others.

Notice that both reordering and deletion are involved here.

Notice that the receiver noun phrase moves in front of the direct object (object to be received) noun phrase. This means that the determiner plus any modifiers must accompany the noun headword. Some students might fail to move the determiner along with the noun. Call their attention to the instructions that tell them to do "whatever else you need in order to keep it a sentence."

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION:
In making up additional exercises for practice, consider adding extended noun phrases, e.g.

A teacher bought some of the young children a lovely gift. ⇒ A teacher bought some of the young children a lovely gift.

EXPERIMENT 19 — Passive Voice Sentences

GIVEN:
1) The boy hit the ball. ⇒ The ball was hit by the boy.
2) The bird ate the worm. ⇒ The worm was eaten by the bird.

MATERIAL:
1) The soldier carried a flag.
2) The player hit the ball.
3) An axe chipped the ice.

DIRECTIONS:
Change the sentences in MATERIAL so that words in italics are moved in front of the verb and the words in bold face are placed at the end of the sentence with the word "by" in front of them. Do whatever else you need to in order to have a sentence. (Clue: you might have to add a word.)

CONCLUSION:
What happens to the emphasis in the sentence when you make the changes?
APPLICATION:
Make up three sentences like the four in MATERIAL. Then change them the way you did in DIRECTIONS.

CONCEPT:
The Passive Voice Transformation

ELABORATION AND STUDENT RESPONSE:
This is a very sophisticated transformation with close ties to sentence rhetoric. Especially sophisticated is alteration in the makeup of the verb phrase with the addition of to be and the accompanying change in base verb form:

The emphasis in the experiment is upon the change in structural makeup, so your students might miss some of the semantic implications called for in CONCLUSION. Address this semantic shift when discussing the CONCLUSION.

Some students might observe the possibility of deleting the "by + noun phrase" at the end of the passive voice sentence. Point this out as one of the many deletion practices operating in our language, e.g. like understood, you.

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION:
If students need additional practice, try to keep the noun phrases short until they master the basic operations of the transformation.

EXPERIMENT 20 — Building Noun Modifiers

PART A

GIVEN:
The dress is blue. ⇒ The blue dress

MATERIAL:
1) The boy is young. ⇒
2) The car is new. ⇒
3) The dog is sick. ⇒

DIRECTIONS:
Change each of the sentences in MATERIAL by moving the last word between the first two and dropping is.

CONCLUSION:
1) Do you still have a sentence? __________
2) Can the new word group be used in a sentence? __________

APPLICATION:
Change the following to sentences like those in MATERIAL:
1) The old ball ⇒
2) The sick cat ⇒
3) A fast pitch ⇒
4) A cold winter ⇒
5) Some wool sweaters ⇒

PART B

GIVEN:
a) The boy is friendly. ⇒ The friendly boy b) ________________ helped me. ⇒ helped me.

MATERIAL:
1) a) The dress is blue. ⇒
b) ________________ is pretty. ⇒
2) a) The dog is mean.  
   - b) __________ chased me home.  

3) a) Some food is spoiled.  
   - b) __________ made me sick.  

4) a) A few of the sentences are easy.  
   - b) __________ are interesting.  

**DIRECTIONS:**  
Change sentence (a) in each of the groups in MATERIAL so that it will fit in the blank space of (b) and make one sentence *(Clue: You will have to drop some words and change the order of others.)*

**CONCLUSION:**  
From what two sentences does a sentence like this come:

"A hungry cat ate the food."?

**APPLICATION:**  
Below are some sentences. Change sentence (a) in each pair so that it will fit in the blank space of (b) sentence and form a new sentence.

1) a) Some soap is strong.  
   - b) __________ will make you cry.  

2) a) The soda is sweet.  
   - b) __________ is not good for you.  

3) a) A boy is sleepy.  
   - b) __________ came to school.  

**TEACHER SUPPLEMENT—Experiment 20**

**CONCEPT:**  
The Noun Modifier Transformation

**ELABORATION AND STUDENT RESPONSE:**  
This experiment is the first that deals with what is known as a double-base transformation; that is, a transformation which takes two or more kernel sentences and changes them in such a way as to combine them and produce one new one. The result is a transformed sentence.

All of these transformations are quite sophisticated, and what is actually included in the student experiments is usually a short cut application that, at times, skips steps which would be discussed in a more formal presentation. The noun modifier change is an example of this short cut method, e.g.:

"The old ball" is derived from "the ball is old" by a series of related operations:

The ball is old ➔ (By Relative Transformation)

The ball which is old ➔ (By Relative Deletion Transformation)

The ball old ➔ (By Noun Modifier Reordering Transformation)

The old ball.

However, students can obviously attend to the actual structural changes without analysis of all operations and that is what is done here. Practically, they should come away recognizing that there is some sort of derivational process which produces a noun modifier. 

Notice in PART B, MATERIAL: no. 4, that a pre-article begins the noun phrase of sentence (a). This might cause trouble for some students. Simply emphasize that the adjective should be moved in front of the noun and not in front of the pre-article.

**ADDITIONAL APPLICATION:**  
Making "up noun modifier-producing sentences is relatively easy. Simply use the noun phrase + is + adjective pattern, e.g.

Then leave a blank for this newly created noun phrase to fill in another sentence, e.g.

The nice boy  

hit the ball.

**EXPERIMENT 21 — Putting in Relative Clauses**

**PART A**

**GIVEN:**

1) The boy hit the ball.  
2) The boy is my friend.  

**MATERIAL:**

1) The girl was very noisy.  
2) The girl had long pigtails.  
3) The lady quickly left the room.  
4) The lady was the oldest.
DIRECTIONS:
1) In sentence no. 2 in MATERIAL change the girl to who. Now place sentence no. 2 between girl and was in sentence no. 1. Write the new sentence below.

2) In sentence no. 4 change the lady to who. Now place sentence no. 4 between lady and quickly in sentence no. 3. Write the new sentence below.

CONCLUSION:
What can you do with two sentences that have the same first part?

APPLICATION:
Make up three sentences that look like the two you made in DIRECTIONS.

PART B

GIVEN:
1) The dog ate the bone.
2) The dog had fleas.

The dog which had fleas ate the bone.
TEACHER SUPPLEMENT—Experiment 21

CONCEPT: The Relative Clause Transformation

ELABORATION AND STUDENT RESPONSE:
This too is a double-base transformation. It combines two sentences which have an identical noun phrase by substituting a relative pronoun (who, which, or that) for one noun phrase and then placing the newly created clause in an imaginary slot immediately following the duplicated noun phrase in the consumer sentence (containing sentence or sentence with the slot to be filled), e.g.

Consumer = The boy left town.
Input = The boy is my cousin (slot) who is my cousin to consumer slot
The boy who is my cousin left town.

Notice that who is normally reserved for human referents, which for inanimate referents, and that for animate or inanimate. (This is the type of conclusion called for in PART B.)

Students on their toes will note that the noun phrase repeated need not be in the first part of each sentence, e.g.

The boy spilled the milk (slot)
The milk was spoiled, which was spoiled to
The boy spilled the milk which was spoiled (slot)

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION: In constructing additional exercises you might want to include sentence combinations of the type described in the ELABORATION section above.

EXPERIMENT 22—Reordering Modifiers

PART A:

GIVEN:
1) The girl who was unhappy entered the room.
The unhappy girl entered the room.
2) The train that is was broken.
The toy train toy was broken.

MATERIAL:
1) The girl who was smiling left.
2) The dog that was tired slept.
3) The animal that was hunted ran wearily.

DIRECTIONS:
1) In sentence no. 1 in MATERIAL drop who was and move smiling in front of girl. Do you still have a sentence?

CONCLUSION:
Can "describing words" be used in different places in sentences?

APPLICATION:
Make up three sentences like the ones you made in DIRECTIONS: Can any of these be changed the way the sentences were in this Part? If so, change them and write them down.

PART B

GIVEN:
1) The man is working hard.
The hard-working man
2) The dog eats bananas.
The banana-eating dog
3) The shark eats the man.
The man-eating shark
MATERIAL:
1) The cowboy ropes cattle. ⇔
2) The lizard eats gizzards. ⇔
3) The car burns oil. ⇔
4) The dog herds sheep. ⇔
5) A cat laps milk. ⇔
6) The badger swims fast. ⇔

DIRECTIONS:
Rewrite the sentences in MATERIAL the way the sentences in GIVEN were rewritten. (For example: The cowboy ropes cattle. ⇔ The cattle-roping cowboy. Don't forget to use a hyphen (-) between words where it is needed.)

APPLICATION:
Make up three sentences like those in MATERIAL. Rewrite the sentences the way you did in DIRECTIONS.

TEACHER SUPPLEMENT—Experiment 22

PART A

CONCEPT:
Noun Modifier Deletion and Reordering

ELABORATION:
As was noted earlier, the process for formulating modifiers in a transformed sentence can be formalized in a series of major transformation operations. In this experiment, as in a number of others, students are exposed to the language manipulating without the formalized description and analysis. For clarification purposes here, however, it might be well to briefly go through the major steps of one common approach to production of noun modifiers.

Let us assume that we start with the following two sentences:

Consumer = The girl ______ entered the room.
(slot)

Input = The girl was unhappy. ⇔ who was unhappy

Consumer = The girl ______ entered the room.
(slot)

Thus
(Transformed Input Sentence) ⇔

The girl who was unhappy entered the room.
(slot)

Now the next step is a transformation known as a Relative Deletion Transformation which says:

noun + relative + to be + adjective + verb phrase ⇔ noun phrase + adjective + verb phrase (the relative pronoun and the to be form are deleted)

Thus:

noun phrase + relative + to be + adjective + verb phrase

The girl who was unhappy entered the room ⇔

The girl unhappy entered the room.
The final step is the actual noun modifier reordering transformation which transposes the adjective and the noun being modified. Thus:

The girl unhappy entered the room ⇒ The unhappy girl entered the room.

It is well to note here that certain post-nominal modifiers do not lend themselves to this last transposition step. For instance, adverbials of place used as noun modifiers, e.g.

The mouse in the garden is cute.

This will usually not change to:

The in-the-garden mouse is cute.

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION:
In constructing additional practice exercises be certain that the sentences to be combined have identical noun phrases and use a to be form in the sentence which will be the input sentence.

EXPERIMENT 23 — Longer Modifiers

PART A

GIVEN.

The bugs that are swarming in the yard are dying.

MATERIAL:
1) The girls who are listening to the story are my friends. ⇒
2) The rocks which are lying on the table are mine. ⇒
3) Some of the people who are resting should be studying their lessons. ⇒

DIRECTIONS:
Change the sentences in MATERIAL by dropping who are or which are from them. Rewrite them below.

CONCLUSION:
How can sentences containing who + verb + ing word be changed?

APPLICATION:
Make up three sentences like those given in MATERIAL. Change them the way you did in DIRECTIONS.
PART B

GIVEN:
The bugs, gasping their last, are dying. ⇒ Gasping their last, the bugs are dying.

MATERIAL:
1) A young boy, swimming as hard as possible, is heading for shore. ⇒
2) The old bird, slowly losing strength, headed for its nest. ⇒
3) A few of the soldiers, tired from the battle, tripped and fell. ⇒

DIRECTIONS:
Change the sentences in MATERIAL by moving the words between the commas to the front of the sentence. (Don't forget to separate the words at the front with a comma.)

CONCLUSION:
How does movement of the describing words affect the sentence meaning?

APPLICATION:
Make up three sentences like those provided in MATERIAL. Change the position of the words before the comma to a position in the sentence like that which you did in DIRECTIONS.

PART C

GIVEN:
1) We lay on the beach. ⇒ We lay on the beach, the sun burning our backs.
2) The sun burned our backs. ⇒

MATERIAL:
1) a) The teacher called loudly. ⇒
b) Her voice echoed in the halls. ⇒
2) a) The old man shuffled across the room. ⇒
b) His legs dragged with each step. ⇒
3) a) The dog eyed the bone. ⇒
b) His mouth drooled. ⇒
4) a) We rushed home from school. ⇒
b) The rain pounded down on us. ⇒

DIRECTIONS:
Change the ed ending of sentence (b) to an ing ending in each of the sentence pairs under MATERIAL. Now add this to the end of sentence (a).
(Don't forget to keep (a) and (b) separated by a comma.)

CONCLUSION:
Can you move the (b) part of your new sentence to the front and still have a sentence?
APPLICATION: Make up three sentences like those you produced in DIRECTIONS.


TEACHER SUPPLEMENT — Experiment 23

CONCEPT: Sentence Modifier

ELABORATION: The sentence modifier concept is closely tied to the noun modifier concept in at least one way and that is method of production. The direction and sequence of transforming operations are basically the same for both types.

In terms of end results, however, there are significant differences. The sentence modifier construction is much broader in scope and relates to the entire sentence rather than an isolated noun phrase. As such, it is flexible and can be moved to different structural slots of the sentence and still be part of a grammatical sentence, e.g.

The boy, chewing gum nervously, watched the election results.

Chewing gum nervously, the boy watched the election results.

You might note that sentence modifier constructions are derived from nonrestrictive clauses (clauses which add more information to the sentence, but whose deletion would not seriously impair the main meaning intent of the sentence), whereas noun modifiers are derived from restrictive clauses (clauses necessary to the central meaning of the sentence: to delete the information in them would seriously impair the meaning of the whole sentence).

PART A deals with the process of deriving noun modifier constructions from restrictive clauses. Grammatical constructions called ‘participial phrases’ result but do not have sentence modifier flexibility.

In PART B, we derive participial phrases which are sentence modifiers. Notice that they do have flexibility or portability. They can move to the front of the sentence. Notice too that they are derived from nonrestrictive clauses.

PART C deals with production of a grammatical construction called the nominative absolute as a sentence modifier:

Notice that the subject noun phrase of the input sentence is retained in the sentence modifier construction.

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION: In constructing additional sentence modifier exercises, try to avoid relative clause possibilities which could be ambiguous, e.g.

that + clause, since that is typically restrictive, thus related to noun modifier construction as opposed to sentence modifier constructions.

Try to include some action or behavior which appears almost inadvertent or even irrelevant to the major action or development of the sentence.

EXPERIMENT 24 — How to Get Longer Modifiers

PART A

GIVEN:

1) a) The flag was tied to a pole.  
   b) The flag was streaming in the wind.
   
2) a) The ballplayer was sad.  
   b) The ballplayer was hit by a ball.

MATERIAL:

1) a) The girl rode her bicycle.  
    b) The girl was eating an apple.
   

DIRECTIONS: Put sentence 'b' “inside” sentence 'a' in both 1 and 2 in MATERIAL. (Clue: Look at GIVEN for clue. You will have to drop some words.) You should still have actual sentences.

2) a) The buggy was in bad shape.  
    b) The buggy was squeaking along.
CONCLUSION:
What word or words was/were dropped from the 'b' sentences when they were placed within the 'a' sentences?

APPLICATION:
Make new sentences below by combining the pairs the way you did in DIRECTIONS.

1) a) The leaves fell to the ground. 
b) The leaves were turning color.

2) a) The dog ran home. 
b) The dog was panting vigorously.

3) a) The book seemed tired. 
b) The book was tattered and torn.

PART B
GIVEN:
a) Jim is leaving. 
b) Jim is our captain.

MATERIAL:
1) a) Mary is sweet. 
b) Mary is my friend.

2) a) Our car is old. 
b) Our car is a 1932 Ford.

3) a) The doctor is new in town. 
b) The doctor is a young man.

DIRECTIONS:
"Put the two sentences marked 'a' and 'b' in MATERIAL together so that a sentence like that in GIVEN is made. (Clue: Delete repeated words.)"

TEACHER SUPPLEMENT → Experiment 24

PART A
CONCEPT: Sentence Modifier Derivation

ELABORATION:
This is an additional experiment with noun modifiers designed to reinforce earlier Experiments 22 and 23.

PART B
CONCEPT: Appositive

ELABORATION:
Note that the appositive is derived from an additional source input sentence and its presence indicates a sentence is a transform.
Notice too that formulating procedures are simple and can be handled through simple deletion operations on the input sentence.

ADDITIONAL APPLICATION:
Input sentences from which appositives may be derived are of the following type:

**EXPERIMENT 25 — Subordinating Sentences**

**PART A**

**GIVEN:**
- a) I didn't go to school today.
- b) I had a cold.

**MATERIAL:**
1) a) I got my lessons finished.
   - b) I worked hard.
2) a) Joe had a stomach ache.
   - b) He gobbled his supper.
3) a) We stayed indoors today.
   - b) The weather was terrible.

**DIRECTIONS:**
Add 'because' to the front of each 'b' sentence in MATERIAL. Now put this with sentence 'a' to form a new sentence like that produced in GIVEN.

**CONCLUSION**
Can 'because' + sentence 'b' be added to either front or back of sentence 'a'?

**APPLICATION:**
Make up three sentences using 'because' like those you produced in DIRECTIONS.

---

**PART B**

**GIVEN:**
- a) You will get a reward.
- b) You will find the purse.

**MATERIAL:**
1) a) You will win the prize.
   - b) You will dress best.
2) a) She will hit the ball.
   - b) She will practice.
3) a) He will be my friend.
   - b) He will move next door.
4) a) I will stay late.
   - b) You will take me home.
5) a) You will be a good football player.
   - b) You will practice hard.

**DIRECTIONS:**
Add 'if' to sentence 'b' in each pair of sentences in MATERIAL. Then place sentence 'b' in front of 'a' to make a new sentence.
MATERIAL:
1) a) She's mean.
   b) She's pretty.
2) a) The dog runs fast.
   b) The dog has a sore paw.
3) a) The old man ate the food.
   b) The old man had an upset stomach.
4) a) The boy had dessert.
   b) The boy did not eat his supper.
5) a) A little frog tried to leap from the bank.
   b) The bank was a long way off.

DIRECTIONS:
1) Place 'although' in front of sentence 'b' in groups 1 and 2 in MATERIAL. Place the 'b' sentence in front of the 'a' sentence.

CONCLUSION:
1) Does 'if' change the meaning of the sentence?
   2) Can 'if' sentence 'b' be placed after sentence 'a' as well as before it?

APPLICATION:
1) Make up three sentences containing 'if'.
2) Now change them by moving 'if' + words before the comma to the end of the sentence.

PART C

GIVEN:
1) a) I'll stay.
   b) I'm unhappy.

CONCLUSION:
Can the 'b' sentences be placed behind the 'a' sentences?

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APPLICATION:
Make up three sentences using 'although'. Two of the three should have 'although' inside the sentence instead of at the front.

---

TEACHER SUPPLEMENT — Experiment 25

CONCEPT:
Subordinate Clause Transformation

ELABORATION:
You will notice that the structural process of creating subordinate clauses is relatively simple. It is primarily a matter of adding an introductory subordinator to a kernel sentence.

---

EXPERIMENT 26 — Coordinating Sentences

PART A

GIVEN:
1) a) Children play. b) Children work.
2) a) Children play. b) Children work.

MATERIAL:
1) a) I like cake. b) I like ice cream.
2) a) The boys have a hot rod. b) The boys have a club.
3) a) You leave. b) You stay.

DIRECTIONS:
Join sentences 'a' and 'b' in each group in MATERIAL.

---

CONCLUSION:
How did you know which sentence group to use 'either-or' with?

---

APPLICATION:
Write a short paragraph using 'and' and 'either-or' in the writing.
PART B

GIVEN:
1) a) Mary stayed.
   b) He left.
   \( \Rightarrow \) Mary stayed but he left.
2) a) John did not laugh.
    b) John did not smile.
    \( \Rightarrow \) John did not laugh, nor did he smile.

MATERIAL:
1) a) The pilot flew the plane.
    b) The mechanic stayed on the ground.
2) a) It had quit raining.
    b) The road was still wet.
3) a) Joe didn't come to class.
    b) Joe didn't stay home.
4) a) The wind didn't blow.
    b) The rains didn't come.

DIRECTIONS:
Join sentences 'a' and 'b' in each group in MATERIAL. Use 'but' for two of the groups. Use 'nor' for the other two. Drop the italicized word.

CONCLUSION:
1) What happens to word order of sentence 'b' when you use 'nor'?

2) How did you know when to use 'nor'?

APPLICATION:
1) Write three sentences using 'nor'.

2) Write three sentences using 'but'.

TEACHER SUPPLEMENT—Experiment 26

CONCEPT:
Coordination Transformation

ELABORATION:
This is a transformational process all too familiar to some students who attempt to expand sentences only by tagging on others by way of coordinating conjunctions.

Notice that deletion often works in conjunction with coordination (usually applying, however, to the second element conjoined and not the first).

The 'neither-nor' conjunctions offer the greatest chance of difficulty due to the semantic nature of same, involved possible deletions, and in some cases, the reordering which must take place.
EXPERIMENT 27 — Building Bigger Noun Forms

PART A

GIVEN:

a) They know.
b) He is going.

MATERIAL:

1) a) The coach hopes.
b) He will go.
2) a) ______ is a promise.
b) He will get a puppy.
3) a) Mary said.
b) Joann is leaving.

DIRECTIONS:

Add 'that' to sentence 'b' of each group in MATERIAL, then put the sentence in the blank of sentence 'a'.

CONCLUSION:
How does the word 'that' differ in each of the following sentences?

a) That boy is my friend.
b) The team knew that they would win.

APPLICATION:
Make up four sentences. 'That' should be the first word in two sentences and should appear inside the sentence in two of them.

PART B

GIVEN:

1) Pete hit the ball. ⇒ for Pete to hit the ball
2) The dog ate a worm. ⇒ for the dog to eat a worm

MATERIAL:

1) The girl studied hard. ⇒
2) The teacher looked unhappy. ⇒
3) Some people left town. ⇒
4) The lamp fell off the table. ⇒

DIRECTIONS:

Change the sentences in MATERIAL the same way those in GIVEN were changed.

CONCLUSION:
1) Do you still have a sentence after the change?
2) Can the new constructions be used in other sentences?

APPLICATION:

1) Make three sentences like those provided in MATERIAL.
PART C

GIVEN:
1) The boy left town. → the boy’s leaving town
2) Mary ate the apple. → Mary’s eating the apple

MATERIAL:
1) The wind blew.
2) The cat drank milk.
3) The student studied.

DIRECTIONS:
Change the sentences in MATERIAL like those in GIVEN were changed.

CONCLUSION:
1) Do you still have sentences after the change?
2) Can the new constructions be used in other sentences?

APPLICATION:
1) Make up three sentences like those provided in MATERIAL.

TEACHER SUPPLEMENT—Experiment 27

CONCEPT:
Nominalization Transformation

ELABORATION AND STUDENT RESPONSE:
There are a number of grammatical structures in the English language which can be changed in such a way that they can then function as a particular unit within a transformed sentence. One of the most systematic is the nominalizing (noun producing) type. That is, we take a kernel sentence and change it in such a way that it is no longer a sentence but is a group of related words which can fit into a noun-slot of a container sentence.

Notice that in this experiment three different types are used:

1) Subordinate Clause:
   That he is going is nice.

2) Gerundive:
   Joe’s staying was nice.

3) Infinitival:
   For Mary to cry is sad.

All kernel sentence types lend themselves to nominalization transformations but the to be forms might be more difficult for students since they are irregular, e.g.

Joe is the one ⇒ for Joe to be the one
or
Joe is the one ⇒ Joe’s being the one
EXPERIMENT 26 — Putting Bigger Noun Forms into "Consumer" Sentences

PART A

GIVEN:

Something was a stupid act. For John to jump the fence was a stupid act.

MATERIAL:

1) Something was natural.
   a) Mary hated her cooking.

2) Something was very nice.
   a) The class sent the teacher flowers.

3) Something seemed awful.
   a) The boy hurt the puppy.

DIRECTIONS:
Change sentence 'a' in each group in MATERIAL so that it will fit into the "something" place above it. (Clue: The first word in the new sentence should be 'for'. Also you will have to change the verb.)

PART B

GIVEN:

Something was not nice.
   a) Joe stole a crayon.

MATERIAL:

1) Something was unusual.
   a) Mary kept a secret.

2) What was interesting was something.
   a) Joe worked.

3) There was a question about something.
   a) Sally left early.

DIRECTIONS:
Change sentence 'a' in each group in MATERIAL so that it will fit into the "something" place above it like the GIVEN sentence was changed. (Clue: The first word will be the same word that is in sentence 'a' + 's'. Again, you will have to change the verb.)

CONCLUSION:
When you change the sentence and make it become an input sentence, does the meaning change?

APPLICATION:
What is the input sentence in each of the following:
1) For Joe to leave is sad.

2) For the girl to smile is nice.

3) For the team to quit trying would be very sad.

APPLICATION:
Write out the complete input sentence in each of the following:
1) The team's playing has improved.
2) Sally’s broken arm is not funny.

3) Our teacher’s wearing glasses seemed different.

---

**EXPERIMENT 29 — Combined Sentences**

**GIVEN:**

1) We elected Tom.
2) Tom is captain.

**MATERIAL:**

1) a) They elected Joe.
   b) Joe is president.

2) a) We painted the barn.
   b) The barn is red.

3) a) They named the new baby.
   b) The new baby is Mary.

**DIRECTIONS:**

Combine the 'a' and 'b' sentences in MATERIAL as they were in GIVEN. (Clue: Sentence 'b' is an 'input sentence'.)

**CONCLUSION:**

1) At least how many sentences does it take to build one like:

   "The class elected Mary president."?

2) What are the sentences it is built from?

---

**APPLICATION:**

Below are several sentences. What original sentences are each of these built from?

1) We made him a leader.

---

**TEACHER SUPPLEMENT — Experiment 28-31**

**GIVEN:**

- Combining Sentences

**ELABORATION:**

The last four experiments serve as transition from the study of sentence structure concepts in the experiment set to the more specific business of sentence-combining as elaborated in the final section of this material.

The specific focus of Experiments 28-31 is upon expansion of the noun or nominal constructs within consumer or container sentences.

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**EXPERIMENT 29 — Combined Sentences**

**GIVEN:**

1) We shall paint the car green.
2) We shall paint the car green.

**MATERIAL:**

1) a) They elected Joe.
   b) Joe is president.

2) a) We painted the barn.
   b) The barn is red.

3) a) They named the new baby.
   b) The new baby is Mary.

**DIRECTIONS:**

Combine the 'a' and 'b' sentences in MATERIAL as they were in GIVEN. (Clue: Sentence 'b' is an 'input sentence'.)

**CONCLUSION:**

1) At least how many sentences does it take to build one like:

   "The class elected Mary president."?

2) What are the sentences it is built from?

---

**APPLICATION:**

Below are several sentences. What original sentences are each of these built from?

1) We made him a leader.

---

**CONCEPT:**

The Object Complement Transformation

**ELABORATION:**

Although a significant transformation in terms of grammatical and rhetorical potential, from the standpoint of actual use it is somewhat limited. It is handicapped with the same problem that plagues the indirect object transform; that is, there are a very limited number of verbs which will allow the object complement situation to occur.

Nevertheless, it appears useful and it certainly draws attention to the very significant structural and semantic role of the verbs.
EXPERIMENT 30 — Combining More than One Sentence

PART A

GIVEN:
1) The dress is a color.
2) The dress is blue.
3) The color is pretty.

MATERIAL:
1) The buffalo charged the Indian.
2) The buffalo is big.
3) The Indian is brave.

DIRECTIONS:
Combine the above three sentences in MATERIAL so that they are one. The meaning of the new sentence should be the same as the three separate sentences.

CONCLUSION:
1) Two of the sentences are "put" inside the third. Which two are put inside the third? How?

2) How did you decide which two to put in the other?

APPLICATION:
Below are a number of sentence combinations. Combine the two or three sentences in each group and produce one:

1) a) The car hit the fence.
   b) The car was for racing.
   c) The fence was old.

2) a) The fans clapped their hands.
   b) The fans were eager.
   c) Their hands were cold.

3) a) The judge waved the flag.
   b) The judge was uneasy.
   c) The flag was checkered.

PART B

GIVEN:
1) Someone sold something.  
   a) The salesman worked hard.
   b) The vacuum cleaner was broken.

MATERIAL:
1) Something charged something.
   a) The buffalo was arrow-peppered.
   b) The Indian was extremely worried.

2) Someone quickly ate something.
   a) The robin was swift-footed.
   b) The worm was rapidly crawling.

DIRECTIONS:
1) Change sentences 'a' and 'b' in MATERIAL so they can be put into the someone - something slots in the sentence above them.
2) Now put these words into the slots and form sentences.

APPLICATION:

Below are three "containing" sentences. They all contain 'input' sentences. Of course, the 'input' sentences had to be changed first. Write out the 'input' sentences as they looked before being changed.

1) The soapy dish had a strange smell.

2) The sudden-firing gun had an oily smell.

3) The little girl was a hungry eater.

CONCLUSION:

What did you do to the input sentence before it can go into the containing sentence?

EXPERIMENT 31 — More on Combining More than One Sentence

GIVEN:

1) The dress was a color.
2) The dress is blue.
3) The color is pretty.

The blue dress was a pretty color.

MATERIAL:

1) The girl won the contest.
2) The girl was tall.
3) The girl was an American.
4) The contest was for beauty.
5) The contest was in Milwaukee.

DIRECTIONS:

1) Many times sentences are too short. The information in them can be put together. Use the information in the above five sentences and make one sentence. This one sentence should carry the same meaning as the five separate sentences. Of course, you will have to drop some words and change the position of others.

CONCLUSION:

How can sentences often be improved if they are too short?
APPLICATION:
Below are several short choppy sentences. Combine them into one the way you did in this experiment with the MATERIAL sentences.
1) a) The turtle jumped into the pond.
   b) The turtle was funny.
   c) The turtle was little.
   d) The pond was big.

2) a) A few of the girls painted the barn.
   b) The girls were pretty.
   c) The girls were little.
   d) The barn was old.
DESIGNING SENTENCE-COMBINING ACTIVITIES

Sentence-combining calls for the student to take a number of short, choppy sentences and combine them into a single acceptable sentence.

For example:
1) Joe ate an apple.
2) Joe is my friend.

to
Joe, my friend, ate an apple.
or
Joe, who is my friend, ate an apple.
or
My friend, Joe, ate an apple.

etc.

One needs to delete some words, add others, sometimes change or alter inflections, tenses, etc. when combining such sentences.

The kind of sentence that the student will produce is determined to some extent by the structures of the model provided. For instance, if we provide the following,

1) I know SOMETHING.
2) Joe is my friend. (that).

we limit pretty much the possible outcomes. Obviously, sentence 2 is to be modified and placed in the SOMETHING slot of sentence 1. Furthermore, the clue word 'that' suggests that we should change sentence 2 using the given clue word with a resulting combination,

I know that Joe is my friend.

Also, the complexity of the activity can be varied by controlling the number of "insert sentences" to be modified and placed into a "consumer sentence." For example, compare the following, taken from Frank O'Hare, to the sentence-combining we did above,

The office building towered above the apartment houses.
The building was gleaming.
The building was new.
The building was rising high into the sky.
The houses were decrepit.
The houses were brick.
The houses were in the slums.
The slums surrounded this symbol of prosperity.

The prosperity was universal.

One possible result:

"The gleaming new office building, rising high into the sky, towered above the decrepit, brick apartment houses in the slums which (that) surround this symbol of universal prosperity."

In other words, the exact form of the sentence-combining model chosen determines to a lesser or greater extent both the kinds of syntactic structures the student will use and the complexity or sophistication of those structures.

SOME GENERAL ATTRIBUTES OF MANY SENTENCE-COMBINING ACTIVITIES

+ A consumer and one or more insert sentences — the consumer sentence is always listed first in our models and often utilizes SOMETHING to identify the slot to be filled by the insert/s, e.g.

CONSUMER: I know SOMETHING.
INSERT: You are my friend. (that),
to:
I know that you are my friend.

However, the consumer need not always have the word SOMETHING in a blank slot, e.g.

CONSUMER: Mary wore a dress.
INSERT: The dress was blue.
to:
Mary wore a blue dress.

+ More than one "filler" slot in the consumer sentence, e.g.

CONSUMER: SOMEONE lost a coat.
INSERT: The boy is on the bicycle.
to:
The coat is old.

The boy on the bicycle lost an old coat.
CONSUMER: SOMETHING seemed unusual.

SUB-CONSUMER: The man left his horse. (for/to)
The man was old.
The man was feeble.
The horse was hungry.

For the feeble old man to leave his hungry horse seemed unusual:

The following models will utilize most of the above ideas.

**SOME KINDS OF SENTENCE-COMBINING MODELS**

**MODIFICATION MODELS**

+ Adjectives

1) The boy made several mistakes. The mistakes were obvious The mistakes were dumb.

Possible result:
The boy made several obvious dumb mistakes.

2) The dog looked lazy. The dog was quiet. The dog was old.

Possible result:
The quiet old dog looked lazy.

3) The man ate an apple. The man was small. The man was trembling. The apple was red. The apple was wormy.

Possible result:
The small trembling man ate a red wormy apple.

+ Relative Clause and Sentence Modifiers:

1) The sun slipped slowly behind the cloud. The cloud was near the horizon.

Possible result:
The sun slipped slowly behind the cloud which was near the horizon.

2) The book fell from the shelf. The book was old. (that)

Possible result:
The book that was old fell from the shelf.

3) The boy nearly wrecked his bike. The boy was gawking over his shoulder.

Possible result:
The boy, gawking over his shoulder, nearly wrecked his bike.

4) The birds barely missed the plane. The birds veered sharply. (veering)

Possible result:
Sharply veering, the birds barely missed the plane.

5) The pilot asked for a cup of coffee.
The incident shook the pilot. (shaken by)

Possible result:
Shaken by the incident, the pilot asked for a cup of coffee.

**PUTTING VARIOUS KINDS OF MODIFIERS TOGETHER**

1) The man shuffled into the bus station. The man was old. The man shuffled quietly. The bus station was crowded with people. (which) The people were noisy. The people were discourteous.

Possible result:
The old man shuffled quietly into the bus station which was crowded with noisy discourteous people.

2) The sports car shot away from the curb. The sports car was sleek. The sports car was red. The sports car seemed alive. (seeming) The curb bordered the sidewalk. (that) The curb was low. The sidewalk was crowded with shoppers. The shoppers were indifferent.

Possible result:
The sleek red sports car, seeming alive, shot away from the low curb that bordered the sidewalk crowded with indifferent shoppers.

3) The pitcher sized up the batter. The pitcher slowly chewed his tobacco (chewing) The tobacco was soggy. The pitcher was young. The batter appeared much larger than he remembered him to be. (who)

Possible result:
Slowly chewing his soggy tobacco, the young pitcher sized up the batter who appeared much larger than he remembered him to be.

**EXPANDING THE NOUN SLOT**

1) I know SOMETHING. He is very unhappy. (that).

Possible result:
I know that he is very unhappy.

Notice that the inserted sentence is changed to passive voice and then has words deleted.
2) *SOMETHING* seems a tragedy.
   He cannot go (that)
   Possible result:
   That he cannot go seems a tragedy.

3) *SOMETHING* made the coach angry.
   The team lost the game. (fact/that)
   Possible result:
   The fact that the team lost the game made the coach angry.

4) *SOMETHING* was the question.
   The boy left (which)
   Possible result:
   Which boy left was the question.

5) *SOMETHING* was ridiculous.
   The team lost. (for/to)
   Possible result:
   For the team to lose was ridiculous.

6) *SOMETHING* was ridiculous.
   The team lost. (*s/ing)
   Possible result:
   The team's losing was ridiculous.

**PUTTING MODIFIERS AND NOMINALIZATION (NOUN FORMS) TOGETHER**

1) *SOMETHING* appeared strange to the mountain man.
   The trail into the woods ended abruptly.
   Possible result:
   For the well-trodden trail into the dense woods to end abruptly appeared strange to the aged grizzly mountain man.

2) *SOMETHING* appears an inexcusable thing.
   (for/to)
   The girl failed the exam. (for/to)
   The girl is young
   The girl is pretty
   The girl is eating an apple.
   The apple is sour
   The exam was easy
   Possible result:
   For the pretty young girl eating the sour apple to fail the easy exam appears an inexcusable thing.

**CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS ON SENTENCE-COMBINING MODELS**

We should note that the models provided here for sentence-combining activities are not syntactically exhaustive. Many more combinations are obviously possible and desirable. For additional ideas and examples, check the bibliography. Two especially useful resources are William Strong's *Sentence Combining: A Composing Book* and Frank O'Hare's *Sentencecraft: An Elective Course in Writing.*
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