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ABSTRACT

The present document comprises a preliminary version of the introductory section and the appendix of a forthcoming ESL textbook, "Developing Fluency in English," by R. Crymes, G. James, L. Smith, and H. Taylor. The book was test taught during 1969-70 in the English Language Institute of the University of Hawaii, and an analysis of the findings is now in progress. The text is designed to help high intermediate and advanced students of English as a second language improve their fluency in English through two avenues: (1) practice in listening and speaking in informal situations, where emphasis is on what is said, and (2) exercises incorporating systematic presentation of one aspect of English sentence embedding, which will help the students internalize some of the system of English syntax. (AMM)

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A TEXTBOOK FOR STUDENTS OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE:

An Attempt to Separate Practice in Language Use from
Manipulative Exercises Aimed to Give Insights into
How Language Works, with the Hope That
the Exercises Will Indirectly
Facilitate the Practice

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(Note: Following are the front matter and the appendix of an ESL textbook, Developing Fluency in English by Ruth Crymes, Gary James, Larry Smith, and Harvey Taylor. The book was test taught during 1969-70 in the English Language Institute of the University of Hawaii, and an analysis of the findings is now in progress. The question being posed in the analysis is: Is there any foundation to the hope expressed in the sub-title above?)

TO THE TEACHER

This book is designed to help high intermediate and advanced students of English as a second language improve their fluency in English through two avenues: (1) practice in listening and speaking in informal situations, where emphasis is on what is said, and (2) exercises incorporating systematic presentation of one aspect of English sentence embedding, that is, nominalization-- exercises which will help the students internalize some of the system of English syntax.

Thus, the first avenue is practice in performance, in actually using English. The second avenue is development of competence in English nominalizing processes. And although the

performance emphasized in this book is speaking and listening, competence in nominalization underlies reading and writing as well. So the knowledge that the student gains, either intuitively or explicitly, about nominalizing process^s in English through doing these exercises should provide him with a resource for developing fluency in either the oral or written mode. By fluency is meant the ability to understand and produce sentences--either spoken or written--which contain embedded sentences; it is the ability to compress a number of ideas into a single sentence and to understand sentences which contain ideas so compressed.

The main features of this book are as follows:

1. Practice in using the language is kept separate from study about the language, on the assumption that the relationship between the two is indirect. Experimental evidence supporting this assumption can be found in John C. Mellon, Transformational Sentence Combining, A Method of Enhancing the Development of Syntactic Fluency, Final Report, Cooperative Research Project No. 5-8418, Office of English Education and Laboratory for Research in Instruction, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1967. This study was published by the National Council of Teachers of English in Champaign, Illinois, in 1968. The subjects of Mellon's study were native-speaking seventh-graders, not second-language learners, and they

were children whose native language was still in the process of development, not people who already had mature knowledge of their own language. However, field-testing of this book has indicated that with adult second-language learners, study about the nominalizing process^b in English does in fact correlate with an increased comprehension and use of nominalizations.

2. Each of nine lessons is built around a set of texts on a topic chosen because it stimulates talk among the students. The nine topics are Proverbs, Folk Medicine, Non-verbal Communication, Intelligence, Propaganda, Words in Context, Forms of Address, Standard and Non-standard English, and Food for Thought (Food Fads).
3. Each lesson has a set of four texts:
 - (1) Reading text--either an original or an adaptation
 - (2) Listening text--the information in the reading selection presented in oral style
 - (3) Summary--brief presentation of the main ideas of the listening text to be used as a preview at the start of each lesson to provide a mental "set."
 - (4) Discussion text--an unrehearsed, unedited discussion by native speakers related to the topic of the lesson.Texts (2), (3), and (4) are on tape, and a transcription of each tape is provided in the lessons. There is no grammatical structuring of the language of these texts,

though the language of the listening texts is in general structurally simpler than that of the reading texts. The aim is for the students to use the ideas in the texts as a take-off for speaking activities, not to understand in detail everything that is in them.

4. Each lesson provides suggestions for several speaking activities that will engage the students in real communication with each other, on the assumption that students learn a second language more effectively through their attempts at real communication than through drills which simulate communication.
5. Each lesson has vocabulary exercises built around words occurring in the texts, showing their meanings in the texts and also in other contexts.
6. Each lesson has sentence study exercises aimed to give students insight into ways that sentences are embedded in other sentences, especially through nominalization transforms. The grammatical material in these exercises is based on the analysis of nominals by Zeno Vendler in Adjectives and Nominalizations (Papers on Formal Linguistics, No. 5, The Hague, Mouton, 1968) and by Paul Kiparsky and Carol Kiparsky in "Fact," to appear in Semantics: An Interdisciplinary Reader, Danny Steinberg and Leon Jakobovits, eds. (Cambridge and New

York, Cambridge University Press). There are, however many theoretical problems in the analysis of nominals, and so these sources have been used in a pragmatic way and certain adaptations have been made for pedagogical ends.

7. The vocabulary and sentence study exercises are designed for self-study and self-checking and have built-in allowances for students of varying abilities.
8. The vocabulary and sentence study exercises are designed to encourage the student to think about the meanings of the sentences as he works with them.
9. The lessons can be taken up in any order. No lesson is dependent on any other lesson.
10. The teaching time for each lesson is about 5 hours, but the materials provided are ample for up to 10 hours of work, depending upon both the number of speaking activities used and the amount of class time spent in discussing the homework. In the beginning, students will probably need to spend two hours on the homework for each lesson, on an average. Later on they will be able to do the work faster

Each of the nine lessons has seven parts: Preview, Reading Text, Listening Text, Discussion Text, Speaking Activities, Vocabulary Study, and Sentence Study. Answers to the Vocabulary Study and Sentence Study are provided for the student following each set of exercises.

Each of these seven parts is described below, with suggested procedures for teaching.

PREVIEW

What it is. The preview consists of (1) a listing of key vocabulary items, (2) questions over the taped summary of the listening text, and (3) a transcription of the taped summary. The preview concludes with suggestions for ways of presenting the reading and listening texts.

Aim. The aim is to provide the student with a mental "set," that is, an expectation about what he is going to learn about in the listening (and reading) texts, to help him in comprehending them. The assumption is that if the student has some idea of what the content of the texts is going to be he can make educated guesses about what the texts say even when he does not pick up all the language signals. Even a native speaker can have trouble comprehending parts of what he hears or reads unless he has some general idea of what it is all about. In fact, experiments have shown that people sometimes hear what they are told they will hear, even though what they in fact listen to says something quite different from what they have been told to expect. It does not seem reasonable to demand of non-native speakers what one does not demand of native speakers; hence the provision for establishing "set" through the discussion of key vocabulary items and the taped (or read) summary .

Suggested procedures. First discuss the vocabulary items listed at the beginning of the preview. Talk about the meanings of these items within the context of the lesson. Then go over the questions that the student will be asked to answer after he has listened to or read the summary. Finally present the summary. This can be done in different ways: play the taped summary either before or after or simultaneously with with reading it to the students, either with or without their books open, or having them read it either silently or orally. The length of time spent on going over the questions will depend on the teacher's assessment of how much background information the students need before proceeding to the listening text.

READING TEXT

What it is. The reading text is sometimes an excerpt from a longer work, sometimes a complete article, and in one case a summary of a longer work. Footnotes indicate the source of each reading text. The reading texts were chosen primarily on the basis of their content--they are the source of the content of all the activities and exercises in each lesson. They vary in reading difficulty.

Aim. A reading text is included in each lesson to make the original source of the listening text available to teachers and students for optional reading. The texts also provide examples of unsimplified written English and a source for contrasting written and spoken English, since the listening text is an oral version of the reading text.

Suggested procedures. Reading the reading text is not essential to any lesson. The teacher, at his discretion, might assign some of the texts for homework. It is recommended that if a reading text is assigned as homework, no class time be taken for discussion of it. The students should read it on their own for the gist of what it says--for whatever they can get out of it--without worrying about details. Some of the vocabulary study exercises make use of parts of the reading texts, but the student, in these exercises, has only to work with the words and expressions in the context of individual sentences. So, in these exercises, he will be dealing with only parts of the reading text.

LISTENING TEXT

What it is. The listening text is a restatement of the main ideas of the reading text by a native speaker. The native speaker has, in each case, thought in advance about what he is going to say. Hence, the language is premeditated rather than spontaneous. However, the vocabulary and sentence structure are characteristic of spoken, rather than written English. The language is something like the language of a lecture or talk which has been thought out in advance and then presented orally with or without notes.

Aim. The purpose of the listening text is to provide listening comprehension practice on a topic that the students

have had some acquaintance with (through the preview) and to provide subject matter for the speaking activities and for the sentences in the sentence study exercises.

Suggested procedures. The listening text may be presented and discussed in class with or without the accompanying tape (see suggested procedures on the first page of each lesson). The teacher can have the students listen to the text as many times as seems helpful. After the initial presentation and discussion, the teacher may want to play the tape or present the text himself orally on subsequent days, to provide additional listening practice.

DISCUSSION TEXT

What it is. The discussion text is an unrehearsed, unpremeditated conversation between native speakers on some aspect of the subject matter of the listening text. It is taped, and a transcription is provided in each lesson.

Aim. One aim is to provide practice in listening to spontaneous native-speaker English. Spontaneous speech contains hesitations, false starts, interruptions of one speaker by another, and grammatical tangles. Yet, native speakers understand each other's language (though, of course, they may not always understand each other's ideas). Another aim is to provide practice in obtaining non-linguistic information about people from the way they talk to each other, that is, information about such things as the age

and education, the relationship, and the personalities of the speakers.

Suggested procedures. Go over any study helps that are given in the notes preceding the text in each lesson. Also go over the questions about the speakers that the students will be asked to respond to on the basis of cues in the conversation. Then play the tape several times, allowing the students to follow the transcription with their cassettes, if this helps them to understand. Then discuss the questions, and, if the students are interested, have them continue the discussion that they have just heard on tape.

SPEAKING ACTIVITIES

What they are. In each lesson there are from four to six speaking activities listed. These are open-ended discussion questions on topics related to the topic of the listening text. The students can discuss most of the questions on the basis of their own experience.

Aim. The aim is to give the students an opportunity to communicate with each other in realistic communication situations with primary attention to what is said rather than how it is said.

Suggested procedures. It is recommended that normally three or four class periods be spent on the speaking activities of each lesson. Teachers and students should not feel under any compulsion to do all the speaking

activities. Rather, they should pursue the ones that they are most interested in. It may be that, in some cases, if the subject of a lesson is of particular interest, the class might want to spend extra days talking about it. The teacher might want to show a movie related to the subject or bring in related reading material. The handling of the speaking activities should be flexible, the main guideline being that the students should carry the burden of the talk, with the teacher in the role of resource person and moderator. Various types of class organization can be used: pairs of students working together and then making presentations to the whole class; small group discussions going on simultaneously; panel discussions; debates. The teacher can exercise his ingenuity in creating situations which require students to speak to and understand each other. The teacher can stand ready to "put words in a student's mouth" when the opportunity arises to do so. In this way, the student will hear a model of English at the time he feels a need for it. But under no circumstances should discussion of grammar and pronunciation interfere with the communication going on. The students should concern themselves with what they want to say, and not be inhibited by concern for correctness in how they are saying it. If a class is working on writing as well as speaking, some of the speaking activities can be used as writing activities, again with the emphasis on what is said--on communicating ideas.

VOCABULARY EXERCISES

What they are. Each lesson has some vocabulary exercises over items which occur in the listening and/or reading texts.

Aim. These exercises give the student further exposure to words and expressions found in the listening and reading texts. They give practice in using those items both in the meaning they have in the texts and in the meanings they may have in other contexts. A special effort has been made to deal with the form and distribution of the vocabulary items as well as with their lexical meanings.

Suggested procedures. It is recommended that the students do these exercises on their own as homework. Answers are provided for self-checking. Each time a new lesson is begun, the teacher can assign the students to start working on the vocabulary (and sentence study) exercises and can set a completion date.

SENTENCE STUDY EXERCISES

What they are. These exercises give practice in nominalization; that is, they give practice in taking one sentence, changing it into a clause or into a gerund or infinitive phrase, and inserting it into another sentence. Attention is given to the meaning of the sentences in the exercises: the subject matter of the sentences is related to the topic of the

lesson (this is the only connection between the sentence study exercises and the reading and listening texts), and, further, each lesson has an exercise which checks the ability of the student to comprehend the meaning of sentences of the type studied in that lesson. See the OUTLINE OF ENGLISH NOMINALIZATIONS in the Appendix for a summary of the particular features of nominalization which are presented in the exercises.

Aim. The aim is to help the student develop competence in the nominalizing processes of English. It is expected that by doing these exercises, the student's competence will develop to the point that he will be better able to comprehend and produce English sentences which contain nominalizations. No attempt is made to relate the work in the sentence study exercises with the communication that goes on in connection with the speaking activities, since language is stimulus-free, and it is therefore not possible to force production of particular types of sentences in a real communication situation. Any effect that the sentence study exercises may have on the student's performance will be indirect.

Suggested procedures. The student should do these exercises and check them on his own outside class--the answers are provided for him following each set of exercises.

As with the vocabulary exercises, it is suggested that the teacher, when he begins each new lesson, assign the sentence study exercises to be done as homework, to be completed by the time the lesson as a whole is completed. It is recommended that at the completion of each lesson, the teacher devote some class time to going over any questions that the students may have about any of the sentence study exercises. It is also recommended that at the completion of each lesson the teacher give a quiz over the sentence study exercises, consisting of (1) dictation of some of the sentences from the exercises, with the teacher dictating each sentence only once, and (2) portions (or wholes) of the Summary Exercise and the What About Meaning Exercise simply copied out and duplicated for the students to do without reference to their books.

The OUTLINE OF ENGLISH NOMINALIZATIONS which appears in the appendix is primarily for the teacher's reference, though some advanced students who have a particular interest in language might also want to refer to it. It is not intended as a basis for class discussion. Discussing difficult theoretical problems relating to nominalization has no place in a second-language class.

GRAMMATICAL CONTENT OF THE LESSONS

LESSON ONE---Proverbs

- I. "THAT-clause" as subject, and the "ING-nominal" and "FOR-TO nominal" paraphrases
- II. "IT" paraphrase for the subject "THAT-clause"
- III. "THAT-clause" after the verb, and the "ING-nominal" paraphrase
- IV. "THAT-clause" after the verb, with and without the "Noun/Pronoun + TO-nominal" paraphrase
- V. Summary exercise
- VI. What about meaning?

LESSON TWO---Folk Medicine

- I. "TO-nominals" after a verb + noun/pronoun: urge him to go, etc. and the passive paraphrase. Verbs: urge, ask, order, advise, permit, encourage, persuade, allow, compel, force, help
- II. "TO-nominals" after a verb (+ noun/pronoun): want (him) to go, etc. and the split sentence paraphrase. Verbs: want, prefer, like, wish
- III. From + "ING-nominal" after prevent, stop, keep (+ noun/pronoun): prevent him from ---ing, etc.
- IV. Summary exercise
- V. What about meaning?

LESSON THREE---Non-verbal Communication

- I. "TO-nominals" after the verb: prefer to do, etc. Verbs: prefer, like, want, wish, plan, hope, expect, promise, decide, resolve, remember, forget. The use of the "THAT-clause" after all except prefer, like, want.
- II. "TO-nominals" after the verb: prefer to do, etc. compared with "TO-nominals" after the verb + noun/pronoun: prefer him to do, etc. Verbs: prefer, like, want, wish, plan(for), hope(for), expect
- III. Summary exercise
- IV. What about meaning?

LESSON FOUR--Intelligenc

- I. "THAT-clause" and "WHETHER OR NOT CLAUSE clause" after the verb
- II. "THAT-clause" after the verb, and the "ING-nominal" paraphrase
- III. "TEAT-clause" after the verb, and the "IT" paraphrase of the passive
- IV. "THAT-clause" as subject and the "IT" paraphrase of the sentence
- V. Summary exercise
- VI. What about meaning?

LESSON FIVE--Propaganda

- I. "Plain nominal"/"ING-nominal" after see/hear/feel/watch + Noun/Pror.oun; ING-nominal" compared with "ING-adverbial"
- II. Variation of the "Plain nominal"/"ING-nominal" after see/hear/feel/watch
- III. "Plain nominal" after: make/let + Noun/Pronoun
- IV. "ING-nominal" variaions after by, in, at
- V. Summary Exercise
- VI. What about meaning?

LESSON SIX--Words in Context

- I. Adjective followed by OF + nominal compared with adjective followed by FOR + nominal, and four paraphrases of each: "IT," "SOMEONE/SOMETHING," "FOR-TO," and "ING"
- II. "FOR-TO nominal" compared with "THAT-clause"
- III. Four paraphrases of Noun followed by FOR + nominal: "IT," "SOMETHING," "FOR-TO," and "ING"
- IV. Summary exercise
- V. What about meaning?

LESSON SEVEN--Forms of Address

- I. "THAT-clause" after forget, remember, and remind someone (about); the "ING-nominal" and "split sentence" paraphrases
- II. "THAT-clause" after forget, remember, and remind someone (about); the "TO-nominal" and "split-sentence" paraphrases
- III. "THAT-nominal"/"ING-nominal" compared with "THAT-nominal"/"TO-nominal"
- IV. Pronouns before "ING-nominals"
- V. Summary exercise
- VI. What about meaning?

LESSON EIGHT--Standard and Non-standard English

- I. "ING-nominal" after begin, continue, start, resume, finish, stop, keep on, consider, and resist
- II. Two kinds of "ING-nominals," state and action, in subject position, and the "FOR-TO nominal" paraphrase of the state "ING-nominal"
- III. Summary exercise
- IV. What about meaning?

LESSON NINE--Food for Thought

- I. "WH-clause" after the verb and as subject. Clause introducers: who(m), what, which, where, when, why, how
- II. "Reduced WH-clause": who(m) to see, what to do, which (Noun) to see, where to go, when to go, how to go, why to eat
- III. "WHETHER OR NOT clause" after the verb and in subject position, and the "Reduced WHETHER OR NOT clause"
- IV. The "split sentence" paraphrase of "WH-clauses" and "WHETHER OR NOT clauses"
- V. Summary exercise
- VI. What about meaning?

APPENDIX

OUTLINE OF ENGLISH NOMINALIZATIONS

The following outline brings together into one presentation the main points about nominalization which are taken up and practiced in the Sentence Study sections of the nine lessons.

The outline has two kinds of marginal references. One is a cross-reference to the particular lesson and the Sentence Study exercise within that lesson which deals with the feature being summarized. For example One(I) is a reference to Lesson One, Exercise I, of the Sentence Study. The other marginal reference is a labelling of the feature being referred to, so that if the reader is looking for a particular feature, for example, IT-sentence, he can quickly locate the pertinent section of the outline.

Perhaps a word should be said about the use of the terms paraphrase, paraphrased, paraphraseable, etc. as used in this outline. These terms refer to grammatical paraphrasing (as contrasted with lexical paraphrasing). Sequences of words which are grammatical paraphrases of each other use the same major lexical items but different grammatical forms and arrangements to express the same idea. For example, the fact that he knew the answer and his knowing the answer are grammatical paraphrases of each other in The fact that he knew the answer surprised us and His knowing the answer surprised us.

All example sentences are taken from the Sentence Study exercises in this book.

"THAT-clause" as subject

One(I)

THAT/ING/FOR-TO

A subject "THAT-clause" in front of the verb can often be paraphrased by either an "ING-nominal" or a "FOR-TO nominal."

(The fact) that almost every language has its share of proverbs doesn't surprise me.

Almost every language('g) having its share of proverbs doesn't surprise me.

For almost every language to have its share of proverbs doesn't surprise me.

One(II)

IT-sentence

A subject "THAT-clause" can be moved to the end of the sentence, with it taking its place in front of the verb, in the following kinds of sentences: (1) sentences where the verb is be followed by a noun phrase like a fact, our guess, his idea, etc.; or (2) sentences where the verb is a verb like astonish, surprise, etc. (which take human objects).

That people everywhere have much in common is a fact.

It is a fact that people everywhere have much in common.

That people everywhere have much in common doesn't surprise me.

It doesn't surprise me that people everywhere have much in common.

Four(IV)

IT-sentence

The same kind of "IT-sentence" as that above can occur when the verb be is followed by an adjective

like probable, possible, likely, or
certain.

That a person starts off stupid is unlikely.

It is unlikely that a person starts off
stupid.

Six(II)

THAT/FOR-TO in
IT-sentences

After It is possible...., a "FOR-TO nominal,"
as well as a "THAT-clause" can occur, but
with a difference in meaning.

It is possible that he will figure out
the meaning of the word from context.
(This is a guess about the possibility
of his figuring something out. Maybe
he will figure it out and maybe he won't.)

It is possible for him to figure out the
meaning of the word from context. (This
means that he can figure the meaning out—
he knows how. But no guess is made about
the possibility of his actually doing it.)

Four(III)

IT-sentence
(Passive)

The "IT-sentence" can also occur when a "THAT-
clause is subject of a passive verb. The it
takes the place of the "THAT-clause" in
front of the verb, and the "THAT-clause moves
to the end of the sentence.

(The fact) that IQ tests are only indicators
of intelligence is mentioned.

It is mentioned that IQ tests are only
indicators of intelligence.

Emotive verbs

In passive sentences with an emotive verb,
the verb often takes a to be form. An emotive

verb is a verb like regret or deplore which expresses an emotional feeling.

(The fact) that we lose our ability to learn is to be deplored.

It is to be deplored that we lose our ability to learn.

Fact and non-fact
"THAT-clauses"

In some passive sentences, the subject "THAT-clause" must be moved to the end of the sentence and the sentence must as a consequence begin with it. This is the case when the fact cannot occur in front of the "THAT-clause." For example, the fact cannot occur in front of the "THAT-clause" in these sentences: *He says the fact that we lose our ability to learn. *That we lose our ability to learn is said. (The * in front of a sentence means that it is not grammatical.) When a "THAT-clause" cannot have the fact occur in front of it, it is a non-fact "THAT-clause." In sentences which contain non-fact "THAT-clauses" the "IT-sentence" paraphrases must be used.

It is said that we lose our ability to learn.
A fact "THAT-clause" is one which can have the fact occur in front of it. For example:
He mentions the fact that we lose our ability to learn. The fact that we lose our ability

to learn is mentioned. A fact "THAT-clause" which is the subject of a passive verb can be replaced by it and moved to the end of the sentence, but this paraphrase is optional, not obligatory, as it is with a non-fact "THAT-clause."

It is mentioned that we lose our ability to learn.

"THAT-clause" as object

One(III)
Four(II)
Seven(I)
Seven(III)

THAT/ING

Fact "THAT-clauses" can be paraphrased by "ING-nominals."

He recalled (the fact) that the Iranians have a similar proverb.

He recalled the Iranians having a similar proverb.

One(IV)

THAT/Noun +
TO-nominal
paraphrase

Non-fact "THAT-clauses" cannot be paraphrased by "ING-nominals." Some of them, however, can be paraphrased by a "Noun/Pronoun + TO-nominal." This paraphrase is possible after verbs like believe and suppose.

Milner believes that the origin of proverbs lies in the universality of human thought.

Milner believes the origin of proverbs to lie in the universality of human thought.

Other non-fact "THAT-clauses"--those after verbs like say, claim, maintain--cannot be

be paraphrased by any other nominal at all.

They say that haste makes waste. (No nominal paraphrase is possible.)

Four(VI)

Negation

Sentences with "THAT-clauses" like the one which contains believe (that is, the kind of "THAT-clause" that can be paraphrased by "Noun/Pronoun + TO-nominal") can be made negative in two ways.

Milner believes that the origin of proverbs does not lie in the universality of human thought.

Milner does not believe that the origin of proverbs lies in the universality of human thought.

Both these sentences mean the same thing.

It is only those sentences which have non-fact "THAT-clauses" paraphraseable by a "Noun/Pronoun + TO-nominal" that can be negated in these two ways with no difference in meaning.

Seven(I)

Split-sentence

Sentences with a "THAT-clause" or an "ING-nominal" after the verb can have a split-sentence paraphrase.

Tom forgot that they didn't know each other.

What Tom forgot (about) was that they didn't know each other.

Tom forgot about their not knowing each other.

What Tom forgot about was their not knowing each other.

They say that haste makes waste.

What they say is that haste makes waste.

Summary of paraphrase possibilities of fact and non-fact "THAT-clauses"

As a general guide, we can say:

- (1) Fact "THAT-clauses" can be paraphrased by "ING-nominals."
- (2) Non-fact "THAT-clauses" which come after verbs of 'believing' can be paraphrased by "Noun/Pronoun + TO-nominals."
- (3) Non-fact "THAT-clauses" which come after verbs of 'saying' have no nominal paraphrase available to them.

The situation, however, is not so simple as this guide might suggest. Sometimes the same verb can occur with more than one kind of "THAT-clause." For example, suppose can be used to report a belief, and in such a case the "THAT-clause" which follows it can be paraphrased by a "Noun/Pronoun + TO-nominal."

Milner supposes that the origin of proverbs lies in the universality of human thought.

Milner supposes the origin of proverbs to lie in the universality of human thought.

But in the following sentence, suppose is not used to report a belief but simply to make a tentative statement, and it acts like a verb of 'saying.'

I suppose that John told you about that. It is therefore not paraphraseable by the "Noun/Pronoun + TO-nominal." Despite these complications, the three-way classification of "THAT-clauses" into clauses of fact, belief, and saying is helpful to keep in mind when looking for connections between meaning on the one hand and paraphrase possibilities on the other.

"WH-clause" and "WHETHER OR NOT clause" as subject and object

Nine(I)

WH

"WH-clauses" are introduced by what are commonly called WH-words: who(m), what, which, where, when, why, and how. These clauses use statement word order, in contrast with questions, which use question word order.

What does he think about food fads?
(question word order)

I don't know what he thinks about food fads. (statement word order)

Nine(II)

Reduced WH

"WH-clauses" can sometimes be reduced to WH + "TO-nominal." as in who(m) to see, what to do,

where to go.

Nine(II)

WHETHER OR NOT

"WHETHER OR NOT clauses" can have several variations in object position.

whether or not she bought
the rice.
whether she bought the
rice or not.
She didn't say whether she bought the rice.
if she bought the rice or
not.
if she bought the rice.

The if-variation cannot occur in subject position.

Nine(VI)

Reduced WH

In WH reduced clauses the subject of the "TO-nominal" is understood to be the same as the object of the main verb, if there is an object, or otherwise the same as the subject of the main sentence.

He told her where to go. (she will do the going)

He knows what to do. (he will do the doing)

However, when the verb is ask, and an object occurs, the subject of the "TO-nominal" is understood to be the same as the subject of ask, not the same as the object of ask.

He asked her where to go. (he will do the going--not she)

Reduced
WHETHER OR NOT

In a similar way, in WHETHER OR NOT reduced clauses, the subject of the "TO-nominal" is understood to be the same as the object of the main verb, if there is an object, or otherwise the same as the subject of the main sentence.

He didn't tell us whether to go. (It is we who will do the going or not do the going.)

He doesn't know whether to go. (It is he who will do the going or not do the going.)

However, when the verb is say (or a verb of 'saying' like indicate or explain) this is not the case.

He didn't say whether to go or stay. (The going or staying will be done by someone other than us.)

Notice that in such a sentence, it is understood that the speaker says something to somebody:

He didn't say (to us)....
(to them).... etc.

Nine(IV)
Split-sentence

Sentences with "WH-clauses" and "WHETHER OR NOT clauses" (full or reduced) which occur as objects can undergo the split-sentence paraphrase.

He wanted to know how to grow vegetables.

What he wanted to know was how to grow vegetables.

She didn't say whether or not she bought whole grain rice.

What she didn't say was whether or not she bought whole grain rice.

"THAT-clause" as object compared with "WHETHER OR NOT clause" as object

Four(I)

THAT
WHETHER OR NOT

After some verbs, either a "THAT-clause" or a "WHETHER OR NOT clause" can occur, depending on the meaning which is intended.

The occurrence of a "THAT-clause" means that the idea expressed in the "THAT-clause" is to be understood as a fact.

Holt doesn't mention (the fact) that it is possible to teach dull children to experiment. (It is possible to teach dull children to experiment, but Holt doesn't mention that fact.)

The occurrence of a "WHETHER OR NOT clause" means that the idea expressed in the clause is open to question.

Holt doesn't mention whether or not it is possible to teach dull children to experiment. (Is it possible to teach dull children to experiment? Holt doesn't take a stand on this question.)

"ING-nominal" as subject, object, and object of preposition

Five(IV)

Action ING
State ING

The "ING-nominal" has two variations, which will be illustrated below in object of preposition position, though both variations can also occur in subject and object positions.

We were awakened by the cat('s) noisily chasing the dog.

We were awakened by the noisy chasing of the dog by the cat.

The first variation--the cat's noisily chasing the dog--is a state "ING-nominal."

The second--the noisy chasing of the dog by the cat--is an action "ING-nominal."

Noun counterparts
of ING-words

If a noun counterpart of the ING-word exists (for example, explanation is a noun counterpart of explaining), then that noun counterpart is often used in the action "ING-nominal" instead of the ING-word (providing that it has the same meaning as the ING-word). Such a noun counterpart, however, cannot occur in the state "ING-nominal."

I was interested in your explaining how to soothe the baby. (state)

I was interested in your explanation of how to soothe the baby. (action)

Eight(II)

Action ING and
State ING

In object of preposition position and in object position, state "ING-nominals" and action "ING-nominals" are often interchangeable. In subject position, however, the situation is more complicated.

In the following sentence, for example, only the action "ING-nominal" can occur.

His understanding of the differences between dialects proceeded gradually.

If the verb phrase refers to a process or activity, as in the above sentence (proceeded gradually), rather than to a state of affairs, the action "ING-nominal" must occur. If, however, the verb refers to a state of affairs, then either a state or an action "ING-nominal" may be used, interchangeably.

Their using his local dialect makes him feel uneasy. (state)

Their use of his local dialect makes him feel uneasy. (action)

State ING/
FOR-TO

Further, state "ING-nominals" can be paraphrased by "FOR-TO nominals." but action "ING-nominals" cannot.

Action ING

A "THAT-clause" cannot be subject of a verb that expresses an activity or a process. Such a verb requires an action "ING-nominal."

His understanding of the differences between dialects proceeded gradually.

State ING/THAT/
FOR-TO

However, a "THAT-clause" can be the subject of a verb that expresses a state of affairs. Such a "THAT-clause" can be paraphrased

either by a state or action "ING-nominal" or
or be a "FOR-TO nominal."

(The fact) that they use his local
dialect makes him feel uneasy.

Their using his local dialect makes
him feel uneasy.

For them to use his local dialect makes
him feel uneasy.

Seven(IV)
Seven(VI)

Fronouns in
front of
ING-words

When "ING-nominals" occur in subject, object
or object of preposition positions, a pronoun
(or noun) sometimes occurs in front of the
ING-word, and when the pronoun occurs in that
spot, it is sometimes possessive in form and
sometimes objective.

The rules which are at work here are complicated
and have never been adequately described. So
about all that can be done here is to give
some examples to show how the presence or
absence of the pronoun and how its form--when
it does occur--can affect meaning.

I was thinking about calling him by his
first name. (thinking about means
'considering'--I haven't yet called him
by his first name.)

I was thinking about my calling him by his
first name. (thinking about means
'remembering'--I have already called him
by his first name.)

He forgot about introducing (OR to introduce) them. (He didn't introduce them.)

He forgot about his introducing them. (He--or some male third person other than he--did in fact introduce them.)

The anthropologist mentioned something about collecting some data. (Either the anthropologist or the person or persons he spoke to collect the data.)

The anthropologist mentioned something about his collecting some data. (Either the anthropologist or some male third person collect the data.)

The anthropologist mentioned something about him collecting some data. (Some male other than the anthropologist collects the data.)

"ING-nominal as complement

Complement distinguished from object

"ING-nominals" which are complements occur after the verb. The "ING-nominal" complement cannot have a noun or pronoun in front of it in subject relation to it. For example, writing letters in He started writing letters is a complement. It is not acceptable to say *He started his writing the letters. If his occurs, the sentence must be He started his writing of the letters, and in this sentence his writing of the letters is object not complement.

Eight(I)

ING/TO

Complement "ING-nominals" can sometimes be replaced by "TO-nominals": start writing/start to write; continue reading the book/continue to read the book. But: keep on reading (not *keep on to read); resist going (not *resist to go). Where both the ING and TO forms are possible, there is sometimes a subtle difference in meaning. For example, He started speaking means that he in fact spoke, but He started to speak doesn't necessarily mean that he in fact spoke. Maybe he started and then stopped before he got a single word said. In other instances where both forms can occur, there seems to be no difference in meaning. In at least one instance--after stop--only the ING-form is a nominal, the TO-form being an adverbial, and the meanings are completely different. For example, He stopped talking means that he is not talking any more, although he had been talking, but He stopped to talk means that he is talking, although he had not been talking before--he stopped in order to talk.

Three(I)

ING/TO

Notice also the difference between He forgot mailing the letter (which means that he mailed

the letter), and He forgot to mail the letter (which means that he did not mail the letter). Notice also He remembered mailing the letter (He recalled mailing the letter) and He remembered to mail the letter (He did not forget to mail the letter).

Five(I)
Five(II)

ING/Plain form

There is one kind of "ING-nominal" complement in which a noun or pronoun occurs in front of the ING-word. This noun or pronoun is the object of the main verb and at the same time is understood to be the subject of the ING-word. For example, in They watched the sun rising, sun is the object of watched. It is also understood to be the subject of rising. The meaning is They watched the sun and the sun was rising. This kind of "ING-nominal" complement has a plain-form variation: They watched the sun rise.

When this kind of "ING-nominal" complement contains the ING-word (like rising) instead of the plain form (like rise), the sentence can sometimes be ambiguous. For example, We saw him eating can mean either We saw

him eat or We saw him while he was eating.

She saw him eat OR eating carrots at lunch, and so she didn't cook any carrots for dinner.

She saw him eating carrots, but she doesn't know whether or not he ate all of them because she had to leave. (She saw him while he was eating carrots.)

Five(III)

Plain form

Complements like him eat/eating need to be distinguished from complements like him go in sentences like She let him go and She made him go. Here, it is not possible to use going. Only the plain form--go--can be used.

"TO-nominals" as object and complement

Three(I)

Understood
subject same
as main subject

When a "TO-nominal" comes after the verb as object of the verb, its subject is understood to be the same as the subject of the main verb. For example, in I prefer to go, I am the one who goes.

Three(I)

Two(II)

Expressed
subject

A "TO-nominal" which occurs after the verb as object can have an expressed subject, which will be different from the main subject. For example, him is the expressed subject of the "TO-nominal" in I prefer (for) him to go. In this sentence it is he who does the going.

However, the verb promise is an exceptional case. In both the following sentences I am the one who goes: I promised to go. I promised him to go.

Three(I)
Seven(II)

TO/THAT

After some verbs, the "TO-nominal" object can be paraphrased by a "THAT-clause."

He didn't expect to discomfit the other people with his smiling.

He didn't expect that he would discomfit other people with his smiling.

It is possible for a verb to change its meaning, depending on whether it is followed by a "TO-nominal" or a "THAT-clause."

I didn't think to ask him his first name.
(think means 'remember')

I didn't think that I should ask him his first name. (think means 'believe')

Two(II)

Split sentence

Most sentences with "TO-nominal" objects like those above can have split-sentence paraphrases.

I prefer to go.

What I prefer is to go.

I prefer (for) him to go.

What I prefer is for him to go.

However, when the verb is forget, remember (or think meaning 'remember'), or remind (someone) (and possibly other verbs which require that the understood subject of the nominal always be the same as the main subject, for example, decide and resolve), the split-sentence paraphrase is likely to include to do.

Mr. Olsen never remembers to call her by her first name.

What Mr. Olsen never remembers to do is (to) call her by her first name.

It is possible that in these sentences the "TO-nominals" are complements rather than objects.

Two(I)

Understood
subject same
as object

A "TO-nominal" functioning as complement can occur after certain verbs which are followed by noun or pronoun objects, as in urge him to go, where him is the object of urge. The object him is also the understood subject of the "TO-nominal." Sentences which have this kind of "TO-nominal" can be passivized (whereas sentences which have "TO-nominals" functioning as objects, as in want to go and want him to go cannot be passivized).

His grandmother urged him to wear a sack of garlic around his neck.

He was urged (by his grandmother) to wear a sack of garlic around his neck.

Two(III)

TO/ING

As a general rule, a "TO-nominal" refers to something that does not happen or might not happen, and an "ING-nominal" refers to something that does in fact happen. But after certain verbs, like prevent (someone), stop (someone), and keep (someone), a prepositional phrase consisting of from followed by an ING-form occurs, and the ING-form refers to something which may not occur.

They thought garlic kept one from getting sick.

Here, getting sick refers to something which it is hoped will not happen. However, the ING-form rather than the TO-form must occur, since TO-forms cannot occur after prepositions.

Post-posed "Noun/Pronoun + TO-nominal" after 'of' and 'for'

Six(T)
Six(V)

Adj + of him/
Adj + for him

There are some "IT-sentences" like this:

It + BE + adjective + of + "Noun/Pronoun + TO-nominal"

It was stupid of me to forget my dictionary.

There are other "IT-sentences" like this:

It + BE + adjective + for + "Noun/Pronoun + TO-nominal"

It is easy for her to guess the meanings of words.

Whether the sentence has of or for depends on the adjective. Adjectives like stupid, clever, smart describe persons and are followed by of. Adjectives like easy, difficult, hard describe things and are followed by for. Some adjectives, like good, can fit into either category, depending on their meaning in particular sentences.

Sentences with of and sentences with for have different paraphrase possibilities.

It was stupid of me to forget my dictionary.

I was stupid to forget my dictionary.

It is easy for her to guess the meanings of words.

The meanings of words are easy for her to guess.

Six(III)

Noun +
for him

There are also some "IT-sentences" of the for kind which have a noun after BE, instead of an adjective.

It was a waste of time for him to look up those words.

Those words were a waste of time for him to look up.