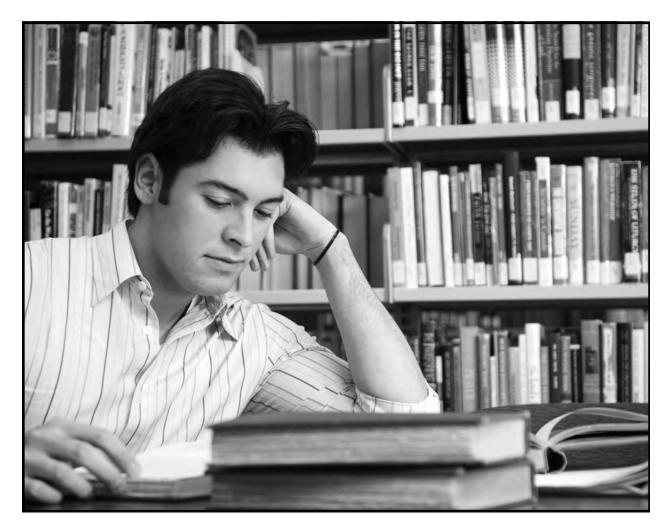
Structure for Communicating Effectively



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Moes, Garry J.

APPLICATIONS OF GRAMMAR, BOOK 2 STRUCTURE FOR COMMUNICATING EFFECTIVELY Includes glossary and index 1. English Language—Grammar

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PREFACE

This book is intended to lay a proper foundation for the student's effectiveness in communicating with the English language. The student will learn the basics of English grammar, including the definition and usage of verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and other parts of speech. In addition, the student will examine how these are to be properly used in phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, and composition. The *Applications of Grammar* series is designed to develop students' skills in using the rules of grammar to communicate effectively for the glory of God.

While some today would discard the need for grammar, this text affirms that the learning of grammatical rules and their proper usage is foundational to good communication. The distinctions between words, their relation to each other in a sentence, and the rules that govern language are the basic building blocks of writing well.

This text is designed to be read carefully by the student so that he may review the grammar knowledge he has already learned and build upon it with new skills. Each lesson should be read carefully and reviewed as necessary. Some of the words used in the text may be new to the student's vocabulary, and their spelling unfamiliar. Therefore, a glossary and index are located at the back of this volume to provide students and teachers with additional reference material.

Many of the lessons will require use of a dictionary. While an unabridged dictionary would be useful, a standard, full-sized, collegiate-level dictionary will be more useful. Small, pocketsize, or greatly abridged desktop editions will likely not provide the amount of information which the student will need to complete many of the lessons in this book. It would also be helpful if the student had access to a set of encyclopedias or other reference works. These will be useful in the several writing assignments included in this textbook. If your school or home does not have adequate resources of this nature, you should visit your local library.

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Introduction

THE CHRISTIAN VIEW OF LANGUAGE

Students often wonder why they have to study grammar and composition when they already know how to talk and write. Although basic communication skills may be evident, every student needs to thoroughly learn not only how language works but how to use it accurately. In order to speak and write well, students must acquire a proper understanding of grammatical definitions, functions, structures, and rules so that they may verbalize their thoughts with clarity and precision. Few skills are more important to Christian students than the ability to effectively communicate through the written and spoken word.

The student will be able to study language more purposefully if he begins with an understanding of the Christian view of language. Sadly, some students merely study language and grammar because they have been made to do so. They fail to grasp that, because we are made in God's image, good communication is essential to our service of God. As an image bearer of God, the student should consider how the Bible can direct his study of language. Through faith in Jesus Christ he can be reconciled to God and learn how to use language to the end for which it was created. Because language did not originate with us, we do not have the right to use it any way we wish. We must be guided by the Bible. Language skills are not neutral; they must be oriented toward reading, writing, and speaking the truth in love. Linguistic abilities should be developed as part of the student's chief end to glorify God and enjoy Him forever.

GOD IS THE ORIGIN OF LANGUAGE

In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth. And the earth was without form and void; and darkness was upon the face of the deep. And the Spirit of God moved over the face of the waters. And God *said* ... (Genesis 1:1–3).

God is the origin of language, for the three persons of the Trinity spoke to each other before time began. When the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit speak to each other eternally, their communication is perfect; there is never one word of misunderstanding! The Son of God is called the *Word* of God and the Holy Spirit searches the mind of God and communicates with spiritual words (1 Corinthians 2:10–13). When God created the heavens and the earth, He spoke it into existence by the Word of His power. When He spoke, He uttered a series of sounds—audible symbols which communicated His meaning and brought the creation into being. When God spoke, His Word conveyed both infinite power and eternal meaning—*infinite power* because He manifested His absolute will, and *eternal meaning* because He expressed His infinite mind. His infinite wisdom is revealed in creation, and the creatures He has made serve the purpose of communicating His glory. Thus the rock, for example, is used as a picture of God's unchanging character. Creation itself was designed to provide the basic terms and environment for language.

GOD GAVE MAN THE GIFT OF LANGUAGE

When God created man in His own image, He gave him the gift of language—the ability to communicate with words. He gave man the ability, like Himself, to convey meaning with his words, but He did not impart the infinite creative power of His speech. Thus, God's Word is the final authority, and men are to speak in submission to that Word. The language of man is to be subject to God, for man by his speech has no power to create or change what God has made. Yet there is a great power to human speech. It not only sets on fire the course of our lives but the course of history as well (James 3:6).

Because language is a gift of God, it has a purpose. It was given first of all as the means by which God would communicate to man. As such, it has a high and holy place in our lives. From the beginning God chose to communicate with man. The first words spoken to Adam and Eve were His charge, "Be fruitful, and multiply, and replenish the earth…" (Genesis 1:28). God's desire to communicate with Adam and Eve in the Garden of Eden was central to their fellowship. They "heard the voice of the Lord God walking in the cool of the day…" (Genesis 3:8). Secondly, language was given so that man would respond to God. God created mankind to praise His name and answer His call. Thirdly, it was given for men to communicate with each other in subjection to God's word. People were given the ability to talk to one another and thereby develop marriage, the family, and other social relationships. The primary instrument for building these relationships is verbal communication. God's purpose for language should direct our study of it.

RULES FOR COMMUNICATION

For many students, rules are a burden to be disregarded. But the student who is willing to submit to God's order will seek to develop precision in communicating. Because God is a God of order and truth, He has demonstrated the proper use of language in His speech from the dawn of history. For people to communicate properly and effectively with one another, God not only gave language but with it the basic principles of good communication. This does not mean that we have a divinely revealed set of rules from God, but we can learn from the Bible's use of language and build upon the principles that have been learned in the past. In particular, the Bible and the Christian religion have had a central role in molding the English language.

Consequently, the study of grammar—the body of rules for speaking and writing—should be based on the fact that God is the Creator of language and thereby the originator of its order. Good grammar reflects His logic and manifests the orderly structure of His mind. By learning the rules of proper usage, the student will know how to make his thoughts known and communicate in a compelling manner. His purpose is not simply to be able to communicate, however, but to use language effectively to communicate God's truth.

Language and grammar are not mere human conventions which spring from chance evolution to fill a human need. Language expresses a people's culture, religion, and history. This is why language changes over time. Each language has its own characteristics and rules of usage. But every language displays an underlying unity with other languages. Every language is a verbal system of communication. Each has similar patterns of grammar, though not expressed in exactly the same way. Yet at bottom, the basic principles of grammatical structure are common to every language, which is why writings from one language can be translated into another. While the basic principles of grammar may be adapted in unique ways, these are derived from the original language given by God to man.

LANGUAGE CORRUPTED BY SIN

After our first parents sinned, the same Voice that spoke the world into existence now stood in judgment over mankind. And the language that had been given as a gift to man by the Father of Truth had now been distorted by the Father of Lies. That which was created to praise and worship God had now been used to rebel against the Author of language. Man's fellow-ship with the Living God had been broken and he no longer desired to hear Him speak.

In addition, the Bible tells us that after the Great Flood, men united by a common language sought unity apart from God at the Tower of Babel. Seeing this, God confused their one language by dividing it into many, and scattered them over the face of the whole earth. Language was thus changed by God to keep men from disobeying His mandate. Because of these different languages there are now barriers between men when they communicate. And sin has continued to pervert the use of language, making it an instrument of lies and manipulation. Today, there are those who would reject all form and grammar and seek to justify any use of language and any breaking of the rules of grammar. As a result, confusion reigns in many quarters, and many people have great difficulty clearly articulating their thoughts in speech and writing.

THE RESTORATION OF LANGUAGE IN JESUS CHRIST

God chose to restore language in His Son. Jesus, as the second Adam, was sent into the world to undo the sin of the first Adam and its consequences (Romans 5:19). Jesus, who is the Word, was with God in the creation because He is God (John 1:1–3). Jesus is the *logos* or revelation of God to man, for God has spoken to us in His Son (Hebrews 1:1). There is no other name under heaven given among men, whereby we must be saved (Acts 4:12). God's will to communicate with man was one factor that motivated Him to restore language to its rightful state in Christ Jesus. By His death and resurrection, Christ not only provides forgiveness of sin, but also newness of life to those who receive Him by faith. As the Truth, Christ calls his disciples to speak the oracles of God (1 Peter 4:11), lay aside lies, and speak truth to one another (Ephesians 4:25). Jesus is the true source of the meaning of all things. He declared, "I am the Alpha and Omega, the beginning and the ending, saith the Lord, which is, and which was, and which is to come, the Almighty" (Rev. 1:8). As R. J. Rushdoony states:

Christ's statement has reshaped Western languages and grammars, and, through Bible translation, is reshaping the languages of peoples all over the world. Bible translation is an exacting task, because it involves in effect the reworking of a language in order to make it carry the meaning of the Bible. This means a new view of the world, of God, time and language.... Our ideas of grammar, of tense, syntax, and structure, of thought and meaning, bear a Christian imprint.¹

Students who profess the Christian faith should have a unique appreciation of the role of verbal communication. It is the Christian, above all, who should seek to be clear and accurate

¹ Rousas J. Rushdoony, The Philosophy of the Christian Curriculum (Vallecito, CA: Ross House Books, 1985), p. 49–50.

in his use of the written word. His God-given duty is to use language with integrity and accuracy for the sake of promoting the gospel and Kingdom of Jesus Christ. Noah Webster saw this in his day when he wrote:

If the language can be improved in regularity, so as to be more easily acquired by our own citizens, and by foreigners, and thus be rendered a more useful instrument for the propagation of science, arts, civilization and Christianity; if it can be rescued from the mischievous influence of ...that dabbling spirit of innovation which is perpetually disturbing its settled usages and filling it with anomalies; if, in short, our vernacular language can be redeemed from corruptions, and...our literature from degradation; it would be a source of great satisfaction to me to be one among the instruments of promoting these valuable objects.²

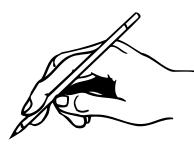
To show that the Christian has the marvelous opportunity to employ language and its power for the service of the gospel, Gary DeMar asserts:

Ideas put to paper and acted upon with the highest energy and uncompromising zeal can change the world. Even the worst ideas have been used for this very purpose. If minds are going to be transformed and civilizations changed, then Christians must learn to write and write well. Writing is a sword, mightier than all the weapons of war because writing carries with it ideas that penetrate deeper than any bullet. Writing about the right things in the right way can serve as an antidote to the writings of skepticism and tyranny that have plundered the hearts and minds of generations of desperate people around the world....³

Language as the gift of God needs to be cultivated for serving God. It will not only help the student in academic studies, but in every area of communication, at home, at church, and on the job. Proper English skills are a great asset in serving Christ effectively in one's calling. The student's skill in using English will make a good first impression when he sits for an interview and as he labors in the workplace. The student should take advantage of the time and opportunity he now has available to develop proficiency in English communication. May God bless you as you seek to glorify Him, not only by learning the proper use of English, but in using God's gift of language to spread His Word to every nation.

² Noah Webster, *An American Dictionary of the English Language* (New York, NY: S. Converse, 1828); reprint by (San Francisco, CA: Foundation for American Christian Education, 1987), preface.

³ Gary DeMar, Surviving College Successfully (Brentwood, TN: Wolgemuth & Hyatt Publishers, Inc., 1988), p.225.



Unit 3 Using Clauses

A CLAUSE is a group of words containing both a subject and a predicate and forming a part of a sentence.

When a group of related words contains a subject and a predicate, it needs to be distinguished from the sentence as a whole. These are called clauses. Clauses come in two varieties: *independent* clauses and *dependent* clauses. Independent clauses may be called principal or main clauses, while dependent clauses may be called subordinate clauses.

LESSON 10: INDEPENDENT CLAUSES

An INDEPENDENT CLAUSE expresses a complete thought and could stand alone if the rest of the sentence containing it were eliminated.

Every complete sentence must have at least one independent clause. Sentences with one independent clause are called *simple sentences*. Sentences with two or more independent clauses are called *compound sentences*.

The following examples are sentences with independent clauses. The subject of each clause is underlined. The verb is double-underlined.

Simple Sentences (One Independent Clause)

The sun is shining.

The <u>man</u> from the insurance company is here to see you.

<u>Nobody</u> in his right mind <u>would try</u> to cross that raging stream without a life preserver.

Compound Sentences (Two Or More Independent Clauses)

The sun is shining and the wind is calm.

The <u>man</u> from the insurance company <u>is</u> here to see you, and <u>he wants</u> to explain his company's policies.

<u>Nobody</u> in his right mind <u>would try</u> to cross that stream unaided, but <u>ropes</u> and other safety <u>gear</u> <u>should be used</u>.

As the last example above shows, independent clauses may have more than one subject. A sentence or independent clause with one subject has a *simple subject*. A simple subject consists of one noun, pronoun, or noun-like expression about which the sentence makes a statement. A *complete subject* is the simple subject plus all of its modifying words and phrases. An independent clause with two or more subjects has a *compound subject*.

All sentences and clauses may also have *simple* and *compound predicates*. A *simple predicate* is the verb or verb phrase that makes a statement about the subject. A *complete predicate* is the simple predicate plus all of its objects and modifying words and phrases.

The following chart contains several simple sentences with the complete subjects and complete predicates separated. Even though some have compound subjects or compound predicates, they still contain only *one* independent clause. The simple or compound subject and predicate in each sentence are in **dark print**.

SIMPLE SENTENCES (1 independent clause)			
COMPLETE SUBJECT COMPLETE PREDICATE			
The sun	is shining brightly.		
My science teacher	always explains things thoroughly.		
Dogs and cats	are the most common house pets.		
My TV-loving uncle	always eats popcorn and drinks sodas during football games.		

The next chart contains several compound sentences with their independent clauses separated and the complete subjects and complete predicates also separated. The simple or compound subjects and predicates are in **dark print**.

COMPOUND SENTENCES (2 or more independent clauses)						
INDEPENDENT CLAUSE		CONNECTOR	INDEPENDENT CLAUSE			
		COMPLETE SUBJECT	COMPLETE PREDICATE			
The bright, noonday sun	is shining right now,	and	the sky overhead	is a deep blue.		
My science teacher	explains things well,	but	my math teacher	always confuses me.		
The price and size	are acceptable;	however,	we	cannot buy the car right now.		
This old car	neither looks good nor runs well	;	my brother and I	do not want to keep it.		

CONNECTORS AND PUNCTUATION

Independent clauses in compound sentences may be connected by *coordinating conjunctions* (*simple or correlative conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs*) or by a *semicolon*.

Rule 3.1 If a simple conjunction is used, it is preceded by a comma unless the independent clauses are very short and closely related in thought. (At times, a semicolon may be used instead of a comma; see page 186, Rule 9.54.)

EXAMPLE:

We reached the fairground early in the day, **and** our father arrived in the afternoon.

Rule 3.2 If a conjunctive adverb with more than one syllable is used, it is preceded by a semicolon and followed by a comma. If a conjunctive adverb with one syllable is used, it is preceded by a semicolon and followed by no punctuation.

EXAMPLE:

This is a difficult recipe; however, you should be able to make it.

I did my homework for two hours; then I went to bed.

Some of the groups of words in the following exercise express a complete thought and therefore could be a simple sentence or an independent clause in a compound sentence. Put a check mark (\checkmark) in the blank before such statements. Write a *capital letter* at the beginning and a period at the end. Some of the groups of words are not complete thoughts. Put an (\checkmark) in the blank before these incomplete statements.

- \checkmark 1. the tree in front of our school is an oak.
- _____ 2. to become a great baseball player
- _____ 3. with a smiling face, she accepted the award
- 4. the music of mozart
 - _____ 5. the engine was running
 - _____6. the dog with the black spots on his back
- 7. the baseball season is almost over
- 8. he plans to save the money earned last summer
- 9. this lesson is about independent clauses
- _____ 10. a very good friend of mine
- _____ 11. the power to give life or take it away
- _____ 12. that lamp needs a new light bulb

Solution EXERCISE B Write five compound sentences, punctuating them correctly. Underline each independent clause. Circle the connecting word or punctuation mark. Try to include some compound subjects and/or predicates.

EXAMPLE:

Jan is an excellent singer, (and) she will perform at tonight's concert.

1.	
2.	
3.	
5.	
4.	
5.	
J.	

LESSON 11: DEPENDENT CLAUSES

A DEPENDENT CLAUSE contains a subject and verb but does not express a complete thought and cannot stand alone as a sentence.

The second kind of clause is the *dependent clause*, also known as the *subordinate clause*. While dependent clauses do contain both a subject and a predicate, they do not express a complete and independent thought, usually because of their introductory words. The introductory words of dependent clauses "link" them to words in the independent clause. The thoughts that dependent clauses do express seem to "depend" on additional information which is not contained within the clause itself. The meaning of information in subordinate clauses is *dependent* upon information in an independent clause in the same sentence. This shows us that dependent clauses must always be part of a sentence which also contains at least one independent clause. Otherwise, they are just sentence fragments that cannot stand alone.

Sentences which contain a dependent clause are called *complex sentences*. A complex sentence consists of at least one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. Differ-

ent kinds of complex sentences are shown below. The words in regular type represent independent clauses. The words in **dark print** are dependent clauses.

EXAMPLES OF COMPLEX SENTENCES

While walking through the park this morning, I met an old friend.

She is the kind of person who is always willing to help others.

My grandfather told me *that he would be happy to take me fishing*.

Although I had not heard that song before, it immediately became one of my favorites.

Dependent clauses may also *interrupt* independent clauses in a complex sentence. The chart below shows some examples.

INDEPENDENT	PENDENT DEPENDENT INDEPENDENT (continued	
My teacher,	who is always fair,	gave me a reasonable score.
The barber	who cuts my hair	is an immigrant from Poland.
The television set	which he bought	has remote controls and stereo sound.

RESTRICTIVE AND NON-RESTRICTIVE CLAUSES

Like phrases, clauses can be *restrictive* and *non-restrictive*. **Restrictive clauses** are those which are *essential* to the meaning of the sentence. They are NOT set off with commas. **Non-restric***tive clauses* are those which are *not essential* to the meaning of the sentence. Non-restrictive clauses ARE set off with commas. In the examples above, the first sentence contains a non-restrictive clause. The second and third contain restrictive clauses and therefore no commas are needed.

Section 2012 EXERCISE Underline the dependent clauses in the following sentences. Punctuate the clause with a comma(s) if the clause is non-restrictive.

- 1. Your comment, that you do not like math, disappointed your teacher.
- 2. I will make a payment when I receive the order.
- 3. You seem to be less shy than I am.
- 4. The crops that the farmers planted last spring need moisture.
- 5. Able-bodied people who refuse to work should not be given free handouts.
- 6. My grandmother who was quite an accomplished pianist in her youth still enjoys music.
- 7. Jeff is the person whom I nominated for class president.

- 8. Her latest album which was recorded last month is available on both compact disc and cassette.
- 9. The textbook that we use in history class is written from a Christian perspective.
- 10. The time that you spent with our family was most enjoyable.
- 11. Our team which won all but one of its games will advance to the playoffs.
- 12. She is the kind of person whom you can always trust.
- 13. This sofa is more comfortable than that one.
- 14. My little brother seems to have adopted that stray dog which appeared at our house last week.
- 15. The dog which did not have a collar or identification tags appears to be a border collie.
- 16. Unless I am mistaken that girl is new to our school.
- 17. I will come as soon as I can get ready.
- 18. As long as you are going into the kitchen would you get me something to drink?
- 19. Take as much as you like, but eat all that you take.
- 20. Since you left I have been lonely.
- 21. The first person who finishes his slice of pie will be the winner.

LESSON 12: ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

The next three lessons will explain the three types of dependent clauses: *adjective, adverb,* and *noun*. They are called this because they are used in sentences in the same way that individual adjectives, adverbs, and nouns are used.

In this lesson, we will consider adjective clauses.

An ADJECTIVE CLAUSE is a dependent clause used as an adjective to modify a noun or pronoun.

RELATIVES

Adjective clauses always begin with words known as *relatives*, which are either expressed or understood. A relative is a word that "relates" the adjective clause to the word or words it modifies. The following words are relatives:

Relative pronouns:

who, whom, which, that, whichever, whoever, whomever, whatever

whichsoever, whosoever, whomsoever, whatsoever

Note: Whichsoever, whosoever, whomsoever, and whatsoever are rarely used in modern English.

Relative adjective:

whose ("which" is occasionally also a relative adjective.)

Relative adverbs:

when, where

Relatives have no gender or number, that is, the same forms are used to modify masculine, feminine, or neuter nouns and pronouns, as well as both singular and plural nouns and pronouns. However, the antecedent of a relative pronoun does affect the choice of pronoun in other ways:

Rule 3.3	who, whom, whoever, and whomever refer only to people.
Rule 3.4	whose and that may refer to people, places, things, or animals.
Rule 3.5	<i>which</i> and <i>whichever</i> refer only to places, things, or animals, but not people.

Characteristics of Relatives

Adjective clauses have one characteristic: the *whole clause* modifies a noun or pronoun. However, you should note and learn these characteristics of relatives:

- Relatives serve a grammatical function within the adjective clause itself (subject, object, adjective, adverb, etc.).
- Relatives join the adjective clause which they introduce to an independent clause.
- Relative pronouns refer to an antecedent in the independent clause.

EXAMPLES: (The italicized words show the adjective clause.)

Jesus, Who was born as a human baby, is the Son of God.

Note: Who is the subject of its clause and refers to its antecedent in the independent clause, Jesus; the whole adjective clause modifies Jesus, the subject of the independent clause.

A person to whom much is given has special responsibilities to others.

Note: *Whom* is the **object of a preposition** within the adjective clause; it refers to its antecedent in the independent clause, **person**; and the whole adjective clause modifies the subject of the independent clause, **person**.

Yours is the best apple pie *that I* have ever eaten.

K

Note: *That* is the **direct object** of "have eaten" within the adjective clause; it refers to its antecedent, **pie**, in the independent clause; and the whole adjective clause modifies **pie**, the predicate nominative of the independent clause.

A Marxist is a person *whose* philosophy is derived from the teachings of Karl Marx.

Note: Within the adjective clause, *whose* is an **adjective** modifying "philosophy"; it refers to its antecedent, **person**, in the independent clause; and the whole adjective clause modifies **person**, the predicate nominative of the independent clause.

After dinner is the traditional time when our family has prayer and Bible-reading.

Note: Within the adjective clause, *when* is an **adverb** modifying the verb of the clause, "has"; it is a relative because it introduces the adjective clause and "relates" the clause to the word it modifies in the independent clause, **time**.

Implied Relatives

In some clauses, the relative introducing an adjective clause is *implied or understood*, rather than expressed.

EXAMPLES:

The wrench I needed was missing. = The wrench [that] I needed was missing.

He is the kind of person you can trust. = He is the kind of person [whom] you can trust.

■ Who vs. Whom, etc.

Rule 3.6 Use *who* or *whoever* when the relative pronoun is the subject of the adjective clause.

EXAMPLE:

Mike is the one *who* deserves the award.

Rule 3.7 Use *whom* or *whomever* when the relative pronoun is an object in the adjective clause.

EXAMPLE:

Am I the person to whom you are speaking?

Rule 3.8	Use <i>whose</i> when the relative	pronoun shows possession.	
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EXAMPLE:

My sister, whose hair is red, does not have a temper.

Rule 3.9 *That* and *which* may be used when the relative is either a subject or an object in the adjective clause.

EXAMPLES:

This is an idea *that* interests me. (subject)

This is an idea *that* you will love. (*direct object*)

We saw the house which your parents want to buy. (direct object)

We saw the house *which* is for sale. (*subject*)

We saw the house *about* which you spoke. (object of a preposition)

Note: Remember *which* and *that* may be used interchangeably, except *which* may not be used to refer to people.

PLACEMENT OF ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

Rule 3.10 Adjective clauses usually should be placed immediately after the word they modify.

Putting an adjective clause anywhere else results in what grammarians call a *misplaced modifier*. Misplaced modifiers create confusion—and, sometimes, silly results.

MISPLACED AND SILLY:

Mom fixed some food for the team which smelled delicious.

CORRECTLY PLACED:

Mom fixed for the team some food which smelled delicious.

MISPLACED AND CONFUSING:

Dad bought a car from a junkyard which had been damaged.

CORRECTLY PLACED AND CLEAR:

Dad bought from a junkyard a car which had been damaged.

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- 1. Ernest Hemingway was a novelist whose life ended with suicide.
- 2. The Pilgrims, who had been persecuted in England, went to Holland and then America.
- 3. I know a quiet place where the wind seldom blows.
- 4. An adjective clause is one which modifies a noun or pronoun.
- 5. A facsimile ("fax") machine is a device which can transmit images over telephone lines.
- 6. George Washington, whom we remember as the "Father of our Country," was a man of prayer.
- 7. The person who receives the greatest number of votes will be declared the winner.
- 8. He is a man whose name is unfamiliar to me.
- 9. Aunt Carol, from whom I received my name, was my favorite relative.
- 10. Where is a man who will stand up for righteousness these days?

Solution EXERCISE B Underline the correct choice of relative in each of the following sentences. In the blank, tell how the relative is used within its clause (as a subject, direct object, object of a preposition, adjective, or adverb).

- 1. My parents are the people to (who, whom) I am mostly indebted. object of a preposition
- 2. John Foxe was a 16th-century English clergyman (who, whom) wrote the Book of Martyrs.
- 3. O.J. Simpson, (who, whom) was once a football star and sportscaster, was tried in 1995 for the murder of his wife and another man. _____

4. There is the clerk (who, whom) you must pay.

- 5. The lamp (who, which) he broke was an antique.
- Your good name—(which, whom) name you must guard with great care—is one of your most precious assets.
- 7. John Wesley, (who, whom) was one of the founders of Methodism, was a great evangelist.
- 8. The next person (whose, who's) name I call will be the winner.
- 9. The hour (when, which) I awoke was before daylight.
- 10. I would like to present Mrs. Clarkson, (who, whom) we honor tonight, as our special guest.

EXERCISE C Rewrite the following sentences, correcting the misplacement of the adjective clauses.

1. I petted the dog of my cousin that has fleas.

I petted my cousin's dog, that has fleas.

- 2. My parents will be given a party whose anniversary is next week.
- 3. Our teacher read a poem to our class that was written by Robert Burns.
- 4. The boy put his bicycle into the garage that lives next door.
- 5. The man was taken to a hospital that was in an accident.

LESSON 13: ADVERB CLAUSES

Like phrases, dependent clauses may be used as adverbs. The second type of dependent clause we will consider, therefore, is the *adverb clause*. You will recall that adverbs answer such questions as *how?*, *when?*, *where?*, *why?*, *how much?*, *how long?*, *under what condition?*, *in what way?*, or *to what extent?* about the words they modify. Adverb clauses can answer those same kinds of questions.

An ADVERB CLAUSE is a dependent clause which is used as an adverb to modify a verb, verb phrase, verbal, adjective, or adverb.

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

Adverb clauses are introduced by **subordinating conjunctions**. A subordinating conjunction relates the clause to the word it modifies. Following is a list of subordinating conjunctions that may come at the beginning of adverb clauses:

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS							
after	as long as in order that that whenever						
although	as soon as	lest	though	where			
as	because since		unless	wherever			
as if	before so that		until	whether			
as much as	as much as if than when while						

Conjunction, **Preposition**, **Or Relative**?

You may notice that some of these words, such as *after, before, since,* and *until,* can also be used as prepositions. Similarly, the word *that* may be used as a relative pronoun. These words are subordinating conjunctions when they signal the beginning of an adverb clause which is "subordinate" to or "dependent" upon an independent clause and which modifies a verb, adjective, or adverb in the independent clause. Do not confuse prepositional phrases or adjective clauses for adverb clauses just because they may begin with one of these double-duty words. Check carefully how the group of words they introduce is *used* when determining what kind of phrase or clause the group of words is.

EXAMPLES OF ADVERB CLAUSES:

The subordinating conjunction is in bold italics.

As long as you persist in your stubbornness, you will be denied your privileges.

The adverb clause modifies the verb in the main clause, "will be denied," and answers the question "how long?" or "to what extent?" about that verb.

We must honor those who died in our country's wars, lest we forget their sacrifice.

The adverb clause modifies the verb in the main clause, "must honor," and answers the question "why?" about that verb.

I will go where You want me to go, dear Lord.

The adverb clause modifies the verb in the main clause, "will go," and answers the question "where?" about that verb.

We were certain *that* you would not be able to come.

The adverb clause modifies the predicate adjective of the main clause, "certain," and answers the question "in what way?" about that adjective.

Your juice-maker seems to work better than ours does.

The adverb clause modifies the adverb "better" in the main clause and answers the question "to what extent?" about that adverb.

PLACEMENT OF ADVERB CLAUSES

Unlike adjective clauses, which usually must be placed immediately after the word they modify, adverb clauses may be placed in *various locations* to add clarity, emphasis, or variety to the sentence. Quite often they are placed at the beginning of a sentence.

Rule 3.11 When adverb clauses introduce a sentence, they are followed by a comma.

An adverb clause at the end of a sentence does not need a comma unless it is a non-restrictive clause, as in the case of the sentence you are now reading.

EXAMPLES:

If you love me, keep my commandments. (introductory, with comma)

Do not let the day end while you are still angry. (end of sentence, restrictive, no comma)

You do not have to wash the car now, though I will not object if you do. (non-restrictive)

Note: The adverb clause in the third sentence above under EXAMPLES has another adverb clause within it. Can you identify both?

ELLIPTICAL CLAUSES

In some cases, part of an adverb clause may be omitted when the omitted part is clearly understood from the context of the sentence, especially from words in the main clause. Such clauses are called *elliptical clauses*.

EXAMPLES:

feel ill today.

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She can run faster than I. = She can run faster than I [can run].

While praying, he received a vision. = While [he was] praying, he received a vision.

Although generally healthy, I feel ill today. = Although [I am] generally healthy, I
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Problems arise when the words omitted (but understood) in the adverb clause have no counterpart, reference, or basis in the independent clause. Such clauses are called *dangling elliptical clauses*. Here are two ways to correct dangling elliptical clauses:

- Insert into a dangling elliptical clause the subject and/or verb needed to make the sentence clear.
- Change the subject and/or verb in the independent clause so they would be clear and logical if they were also expressed in the elliptical clause.

EXAMPLES:

DANGLING:	When driving, traffic conditions should be watched carefully.*
CORRECTED:	When driving, you should watch traffic conditions carefully.
DANGLING:	Unless watered, gardeners will not grow good vegetables.**
CORRECTED:	Unless watered, good vegetables will not grow.

Note: Optional Explanations for Advanced Students and Instructors

* In this example, the clause *When driving* is an elliptical clause because the implied words "you are" have been omitted (*When [you are] driving ...*). However, in the incorrect version given first, there is no counterpart or reference to the implied word "you" in the main clause. This makes the elliptical clause "dangle," and the sentence appears to be saying that traffic conditions are doing the driving. The problem is corrected in the next sentence by the addition of the words "you should" (*When [you are] driving, you should ...*).

** In the dangling version, one cannot tell what the omitted (implied) words "they are" (Unless [they are] watered ...) refer to in the main clause—gardeners or vegetables. The clause is made to seem like a nonsense adjective clause modifying "gardeners." In the corrected version, the sentence arrangement makes it clear that the antecedent to the implied "they" in the adverb clause is "vegetables" in the main clause, and the whole dependent clause is more clearly seen to be an adverb clause modifying "will grow."

Section 2017 EXERCISE A Underline the adverb clauses in the following sentences. Circle the word or words they modify.

1. You should always remember to wash your hands before you eat.

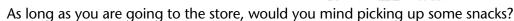
Note: In this example, the underlined adverb clause modifies a verbal, an infinitive introducing an infinitive phrase used as a noun [direct object of the verb "should remember"]. Since verbals are verb forms, they may be modified by adverbs, including adverb clauses, even when used as nouns. Notice that the adverb clause is part of the whole infinitive phrase, "to wash your hands before you eat."

- 2. Although I slept until 9:30 this morning, I still feel tired.
- 3. The authorities will issue an "all clear" bulletin when the tornado has passed.
- 4. I have never been happier than I am now.
- 5. Jesus shed His blood in order that I might be saved from the penalty for my sin.
- 6. Please wait until I am finished.
- 7. Wherever you go, I will be thinking of you.

- 8. I could not tell whether she understood me or not.
- 9. She does not remember where she put her ring.
- 10. Hannah called Jeannie after they had seen each other at church.

EXERCISE B Underline the adverb clauses in the following sentences. Double-underline the subordinating conjunctions which introduce the clauses. (Some sentences may have more than one adverb clause.)

- 1. I will let you know <u>if I can come</u>.
- 2. Katie can sing better than I can.
- 3. She acted as if she did not know me.



- 5. They did it because they love you.
- 6. Since you are smarter than I am, perhaps you can help me with this problem.
- 7. I am certain that you did not write me a letter after I wrote my last one to you.
- 8. "Take heed lest any man deceive you" (Mark 13:5).
- 9. "Even a child is known by his doings, whether his work be pure, and whether it be right" (Proverbs 20:11).
- 10. "...Who satisfieth thy mouth with good things; so that thy youth is renewed like the eagle's" (Psalm 103:5).
- 11. Feel free to sit wherever you like.
- 12. They hired their neighbor's boy to water the lawn while they were on vacation.
- 13. As you may know, our guest speaker has authored several books.
- 14. Adverb clauses at the end of a sentence do not require commas unless they are non-restrictive.
- 15. Parts of an adverb clause may be omitted if no misunderstanding will occur.



4.

Sexercise C Rewrite the following sentences, correcting errors in the use of the elliptical clauses.

1. Though a good athlete, the coach did not put Tim on the team.

Though a good athlete, Tim did not make the team.

- 2. While studying our homework, the lights went out.
- 3. Before broken in, you can get blisters from new shoes.
- 4. When still a toddler, my grandfather gave me a football.
- 5. Though passing the course, his teacher says he needs extra study to fully grasp the subject.
- 6. While in the Los Angeles area, Disneyland should be visited.
- 7. Unless boiled for several minutes, you should not drink water directly from a stream.

LESSON 14: NOUN CLAUSES

A NOUN CLAUSE is a dependent clause that serves the function of a noun within a sentence.

The third type of dependent clause is the *noun clause*. This clause may be used in the same way as a noun is—as a subject, a direct object, an indirect object, a predicate nominative, an object of a preposition, or an appositive.

USE OF CLAUSE	EXAMPLES
Subject	What he said was very confusing.
Direct Object	She promised <i>that she would work for me on Saturday</i> .
Indirect Object	We will send <i>whoever wants one</i> a free copy of our magazine.
Object of a Preposition	I would like to ask about <i>what you had in mind</i> .
Predicate Nominative	His comment was <i>that everyone is entitled to his own opinion</i> .
Appositive	Her remark, <i>that all men are brutes</i> , was ill-tempered and unfounded.

SIGNAL WORDS

Noun clauses are introduced by *signal words*. Following is a list of signal words that may come at the beginning of noun clauses:

SIGNAL WORDS					
how whatever which whom what whoever					
if	when	whichever	whomever	whether	why
that	where	who	whose		

The signal words *that, whether*, and *if* are merely introductory words which serve no other grammatical function within the clause. The other signal words, however, in addition to introducing the noun clause, serve a particular grammatical function *within* the clause.

When a noun clause is a direct object, the signal word **that** is sometimes omitted (see last example below). Study the chart below to understand how noun clauses function within sentences and how the signal words are used within the clauses.

SENTENCES WITH NOUN CLAUSES	USE OF CLAUSE WITHIN SENTENCE	USE OF SIGNAL WORD WITHIN THE NOUN CLAUSE
You should do <i>whatever</i> seems right.	direct object	<i>whatever</i> = subject of clause
Making friends is <i>what I do best.</i>	predicate nominative	<i>what</i> = direct object of "do"
She has a suggestion about <i>where</i> we should go for dinner.	object of a preposition	<i>where</i> = adverb modifying "should go"
Tell me <i>whether</i> you like my cookies.	direct object	<i>whether</i> = introductory word only
Our teacher said [that] we had done good work.	direct object	<i>[that]</i> = implied introductory word only

EXERCISE A Underline the noun clauses in the following sentences. In the blank, tell how the *clause* is used in the sentence. Refer to the preceding chart.

- 1. <u>That he lied</u> is a certainty. <u>subject</u>
- 2. The police asked what the witnesses had seen.
- 3. When you come is not important.

4. The map described where the treasure was buried.

5. The circus announcer said who would perform the next act.

6. The gun was found near to where the crime was committed.

7. Whom you elect will make a difference in your policies.

8. Which god you serve has eternal consequences.

9. Your score will depend on how well you do on the final test.

10. Jefferson's idea, that all men are created equal, is expressed in the Declaration of Independence.

^{11.} Whatever you do you should do with all your might.

^{12.} You should do whatever you do with excellence.

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1.	introductory word only	7.	
2.		8.	
3.		9.	
4.		10.	
5.		11.	
6.		12.	

LESSON 15: UNIT REVIEW

S	EXERCISE A Fill in the blanks below:
1.	A clause is a group of words containing both a and a and forming
2.	There are two main classifications of clauses. These two are and
3.	A compound sentence consists of two or more clauses.
4.	A complex sentence consists of at least one clause and one or more
	clauses.
5.	A(n) clause modifies a noun or pronoun.
6.	A(n) clause modifies a verb, verbal, adjective, or adverb.
7.	A(n) clause may be used as a subject, object, predicate nominative, or appositive.
8.	Adjective clauses are introduced by words called

Unit 3 Using Clauses

- 9. Adverb clauses are introduced by words called ______.
- 10. Noun clauses are introduced by words called ______ words.
- 11. Except for the words ______, ____, and _____, the words that introduce noun clauses serve a grammatical function within the clause.
- 12. Independent clauses in compound sentences may be connected by a _____ con-

junction or by a ______.

So **EXERCISE B** Identify the clause in **dark print** as an **adjective clause**, **adverb clause**, or **noun clause**:

 1.	This is an idea that makes no sense .
 2.	What you said about me is very flattering.
 3.	Do not leave the room until you are finished .
 4.	That is the book about which I was speaking .
 5.	Words that express action are called verbs.
 6.	He is a man whose words can be trusted.