

UNDERSTANDING
AND USING

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Third Edition

CHARTBOOK

A Reference Grammar

Betty Schramper Azar



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Preface

This is a reference grammar for students of English as a second or foreign language. With a minimum of terminology and a broad table of contents, it seeks to make essential grammar understandable and easily accessible. The charts are concise presentations of information that second/foreign language learners want and need to know in order to use English clearly, accurately, and communicatively.

Intended as a useful tool for students and teachers alike, the *Chartbook* can be used alone as a desk reference or in conjunction with the *Workbook*. The practices in the *Workbook* are keyed to the charts in the *Chartbook*.

In the *Workbook*, the answers are given to all the practices. The *Chartbook/Workbook* combination allows learners to study independently. Upper-level students can work through much of the grammar on their own. They can investigate and correct their usage problems, as well as expand their usage repertoire, by doing selfstudy practices in the *Workbook*; they can find answers to most of their grammar questions in the charts in the *Chartbook*.

Writing classes (or other courses, tutorials, or rapid reviews in which grammar is not the main focus but needs attention) may find the *Chartbook/Workbook* combination especially useful.

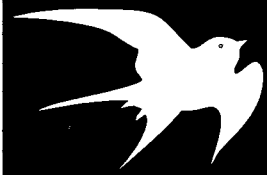
Differences in structure usage between American and British English are noted throughout the text. The differences are few and relatively insignificant.

The *Teacher's Guide for Understanding and Using English Grammar* contains additional notes on many grammar points; each chart is discussed and amplified in some way.



Acknowledgments

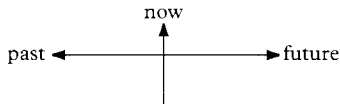
The support I receive from the publishing professionals I work with is much appreciated. I wish specifically to thank Shelley Hartle for directing this project and, along with Janet Johnston, seeing every aspect of this project through from beginning to end. I admire their professionalism and value their cheerful friendship. They are two very special and wonderful people.



CHAPTER 1

Overview of Verb Tenses

The diagram shown below will be used in the tense descriptions:



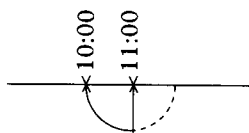
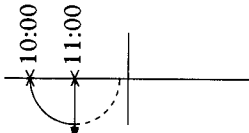
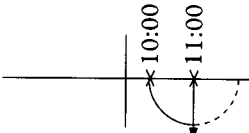
1-1 THE SIMPLE TENSES

TENSE	EXAMPLES	MEANING
SIMPLE PRESENT 	(a) It <i>snows</i> in Alaska. (b) Tom <i>watches</i> television every day.	In general, the simple present expresses events or situations that exist <i>always, usually, habitually</i> ; they exist now, have existed in the past, and probably will exist in the future.
SIMPLE PAST 	(c) It <i>snowed</i> yesterday. (d) Tom <i>watched</i> television last night.	<i>At one particular time in the past</i> , this happened. It began and ended in the past.
SIMPLE FUTURE 	(e) It <i>will snow</i> tomorrow. It <i>is going to snow</i> tomorrow. (f) Tom <i>will watch</i> television tonight. Tom <i>is going to watch</i> television tonight.	<i>At one particular time in the future</i> , this will happen.

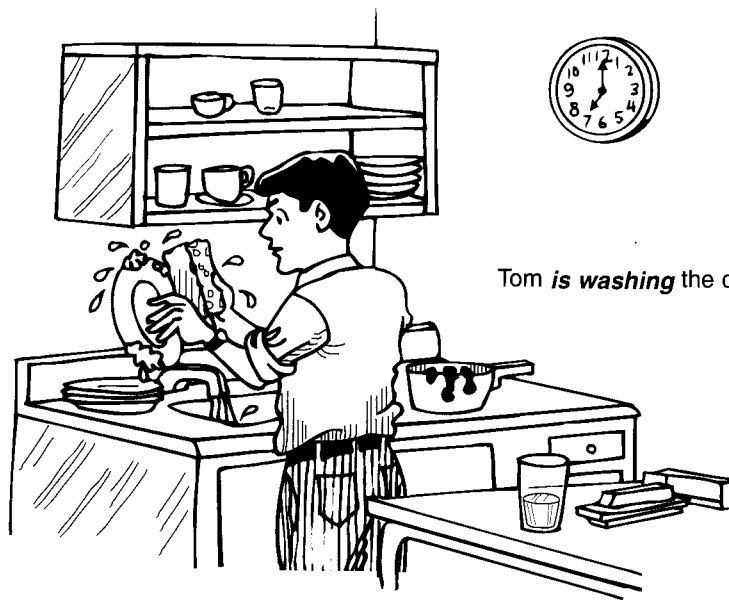
1-2 THE PROGRESSIVE TENSES

Form: **be + -ing** (present participle)

Meaning: The progressive tenses* give the idea that an action is in progress during a particular time. The tenses say that an action *begins before*, *is in progress during*, and *continues after* another time or action.

<p>PRESENT PROGRESSIVE</p> 	<p>(a) Tom <i>is sleeping</i> right now.</p>	<p>It is now 11:00. Tom went to sleep at 10:00 tonight, and he is still asleep. His sleep began in the past, <i>is in progress at the present time</i>, and probably will continue.</p>
<p>PAST PROGRESSIVE</p> 	<p>(b) Tom <i>was sleeping</i> when I arrived.</p>	<p>Tom went to sleep at 10:00 last night. I arrived at 11:00. He was still asleep. His sleep began before and <i>was in progress at a particular time in the past</i>. It continued after I arrived.</p>
<p>FUTURE PROGRESSIVE</p> 	<p>(c) Tom <i>will be sleeping</i> when we arrive.</p>	<p>Tom will go to sleep at 10:00 tomorrow night. We will arrive at 11:00. The action of sleeping will begin before we arrive, and it <i>will be in progress at a particular time in the future</i>. Probably his sleep will continue.</p>

*The progressive tenses are also called the "continuous" tenses: present continuous, past continuous, and future continuous.

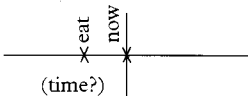

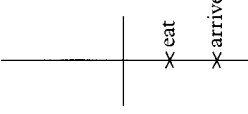


Tom *is washing* the dishes right now.

1-3 THE PERFECT TENSES

Form: **have + past participle**

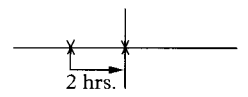
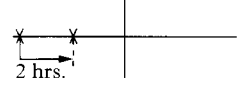
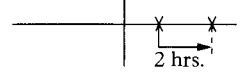
Meaning: The perfect tenses all give the idea that one thing *happens before* another time or event.

<p>PRESENT PERFECT</p> 	<p>(a) Tom has already eaten.</p>	<p>Tom <i>finished</i> eating <i>sometime before now</i>. The exact time is not important.</p>
<p>PAST PERFECT</p> 	<p>(b) Tom had already eaten when his friend arrived.</p>	<p>First Tom finished eating. Later his friend arrived. Tom's eating was completely <i>finished before another time in the past</i>.</p>
<p>FUTURE PERFECT</p> 	<p>(c) Tom will already have eaten when his friend arrives.</p>	<p>First Tom will finish eating. Later his friend will arrive. Tom's eating will be completely <i>finished before another time in the future</i>.</p>

1-4 THE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE TENSES

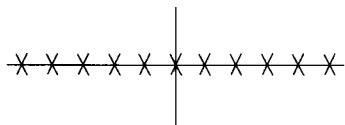
Form: **have + been + -ing (present participle)**

Meaning: The perfect progressive tenses give the idea that one event is *in progress immediately before, up to, until another time or event*. The tenses are used to express the *duration* of the first event.

<p>PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE</p> 	<p>(a) Tom has been studying for two hours.</p>	<p>Event in progress: studying. When? <i>Before now, up to now</i>. How long? For two hours.</p>
<p>PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE</p> 	<p>(b) Tom had been studying for two hours before his friend came.</p>	<p>Event in progress: studying. When? <i>Before another event in the past</i>. How long? For two hours.</p>
<p>FUTURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE</p> 	<p>(c) Tom will have been studying for two hours by the time his friend arrives.</p>	<p>Event in progress: studying. When? <i>Before another event in the future</i>. How long? For two hours.</p>

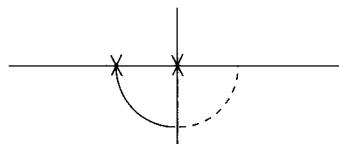
1-5 SUMMARY CHART OF VERB TENSES

SIMPLE PRESENT



Tom ***studies*** every day.

PRESENT PROGRESSIVE



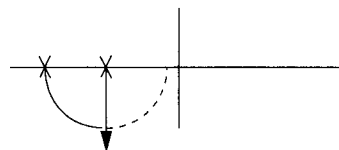
Tom ***is studying*** right now.

SIMPLE PAST



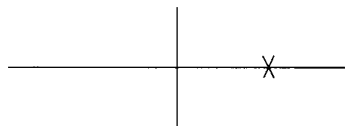
Tom ***studied*** last night.

PAST PROGRESSIVE



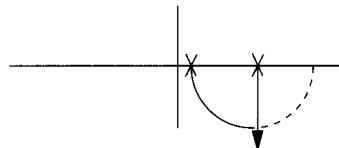
Tom ***was studying*** when they came.

SIMPLE FUTURE



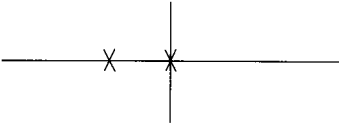
Tom ***will study*** tomorrow.

FUTURE PROGRESSIVE



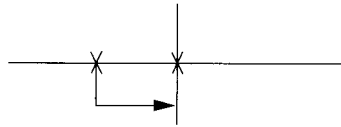
Tom ***will be studying*** when you come.

PRESENT PERFECT



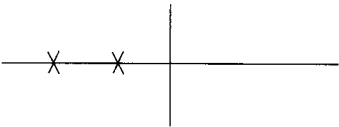
Tom *has* already *studied* Chapter One.

PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE



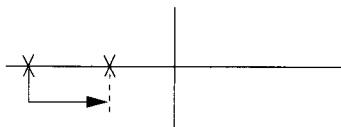
Tom *has been studying* for two hours.

PAST PERFECT



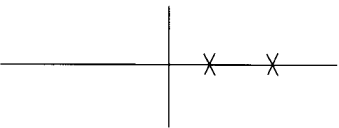
Tom *had* already *studied* Chapter One before he began studying Chapter Two.

PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE



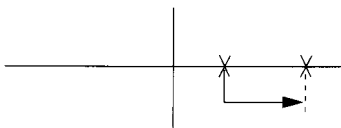
Tom *had been studying* for two hours before his friends came.

FUTURE PERFECT



Tom *will* already *have studied* Chapter Four before he studies Chapter Five.

FUTURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE



Tom *will have been studying* for two hours by the time his roommate gets home.

1-6 SPELLING OF *-ING* AND *-ED* FORMS

(1) VERBS THAT END IN A CONSONANT AND <i>-E</i>	(a) hope hoping hoped date dating dated injure injuring injured	<i>-ING</i> FORM: If the word ends in <i>-e</i> , drop the <i>-e</i> and add <i>-ing</i> . <i>-ED</i> FORM: If the word ends in a consonant and <i>-e</i> , just add <i>-d</i> .
(2) VERBS THAT END IN A VOWEL AND A CONSONANT	<p style="text-align: center;">ONE-SYLLABLE VERBS</p> <p>(b) stop stopping stopped rob robbing robbed beg begging begged</p> <p>(c) rain raining rained fool fooling fooled dream dreaming dreamed</p>	<p>1 vowel → 2 consonants**</p> <p>2 vowels → 1 consonant</p>
	<p style="text-align: center;">TWO-SYLLABLE VERBS</p> <p>(d) listen listening listened offer offering offered open opening opened</p> <p>(e) begin beginning (began) prefer preferring preferred control controlling controlled</p>	<p>1st syllable stressed → 1 consonant</p> <p>2nd syllable stressed → 2 consonants</p>
(3) VERBS THAT END IN TWO CONSONANTS	(f) start starting started fold folding folded demand demanding demanded	If the word ends in two consonants, just add the ending.
(4) VERBS THAT END IN <i>-Y</i>	<p>(g) enjoy enjoying enjoyed pray praying prayed buy buying (bought)</p> <p>(h) study studying studied try trying tried reply replying replied</p>	<p>If <i>-y</i> is preceded by a vowel, keep the <i>-y</i>.</p> <p>If <i>-y</i> is preceded by a consonant: <i>-ING</i> FORM: keep the <i>-y</i>, add <i>-ing</i>. <i>-ED</i> FORM: change <i>-y</i> to <i>-i</i>, add <i>-ed</i>.</p>
(5) VERBS THAT END IN <i>-IE</i>	(i) die dying died lie lying lied	<i>-ING</i> FORM: Change <i>-ie</i> to <i>-y</i> , add <i>-ing</i> . <i>-ED</i> FORM: Add <i>-d</i> .

*Exception: If a verb ends in *-ee*, the final *-e* is not dropped: *seeing, agreeing, freeing*.

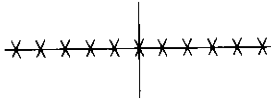
**Exception: *-w* and *-x* are not doubled: *plow* → *plowed*; *fix* → *fixed*.



CHAPTER 2

Present and Past, Simple and Progressive

2-1 SIMPLE PRESENT

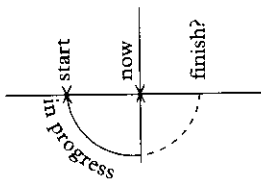


- (a) Water *consists* of hydrogen and oxygen.
- (b) The average person *breathes* 21,600 times a day.
- (c) The world *is* round.
- (d) I *study* for two hours *every night*.
- (e) I *get up* at seven *every morning*.
- (f) He *always eats* a sandwich for lunch.

The simple present says that something was true in the past, is true in the present, and will be true in the future. It expresses *general statements of fact and timeless truths*.

The simple present is used to express *habitual or everyday activities*.

2-2 PRESENT PROGRESSIVE



- (g) John *is sleeping* right now.
- (h) I need an umbrella because it *is raining*.
- (i) The students *are sitting* at their desks right now.
- (j) I *am taking* five courses this semester.
- (k) John *is trying* to improve his work habits.
- (l) Susan *is writing* another book this year.

The present progressive expresses an activity that is *in progress at the moment of speaking*. It is a temporary activity that began in the past, is continuing at present, and will probably end at some point in the future.

Often the activity is of a general nature: something generally in progress this week, this month, this year.
 Note (l): The sentence means that writing a book is a general activity Susan is engaged in at present, but it does not mean that at the moment of speaking she is sitting at her desk with pen in hand.

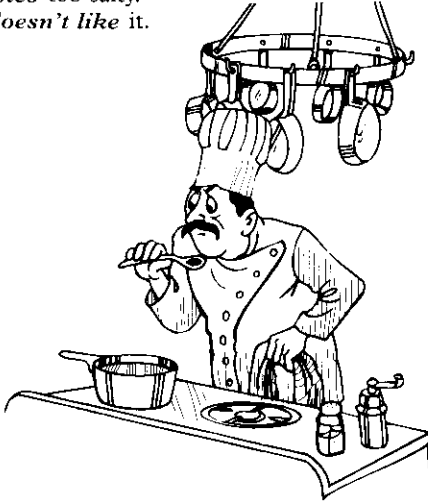
2-3 STATIVE VERBS

- (a) Yum! This food *tastes* good.
I *like* it very much.
(b) *INCORRECT*: This food *is tasting* good.
I *am liking* it very much.

Some English verbs have *stative* meanings. They describe states: conditions or situations that exist. When verbs have stative meanings, they are usually not used in progressive tenses.

In (a): *tastes* and *like* have stative meanings. Each describes a state that exists.

- (c) The chef is in his kitchen.
He *is tasting* the sauce.
(d) It *tastes* too salty.
(e) He *doesn't like* it.



The chef is tasting the sauce. It tastes too salty. He doesn't like it.

A verb such as *taste* has a *stative* meaning, but also a *progressive* meaning. In (c): *tasting* describes the action of the chef putting something in his mouth and actively testing its flavor (progressive). In (d): *tastes* describes the person's awareness of the quality of the food (stative).

A verb such as *like* has a stative meaning. It is rarely, if ever, used in progressive tenses.

In (e): It is incorrect to say *He isn't liking it*.

COMMON VERBS THAT HAVE STATIVE MEANINGS

Note: Verbs with an asterisk (*) are like the verb *taste*: they can have both stative and progressive meanings and uses.

(1) MENTAL STATE	<i>know</i> <i>realize</i> <i>understand</i> <i>recognize</i>	<i>believe</i> <i>feel</i> <i>suppose</i> <i>think*</i>	<i>imagine*</i> <i>doubt*</i> <i>remember*</i> <i>forget*</i>	<i>want*</i> <i>need</i> <i>desire</i> <i>mean*</i>
(2) EMOTIONAL STATE	<i>love</i> <i>like</i> <i>appreciate</i> <i>please</i> <i>prefer</i>	<i>hate</i> <i>dislike</i> <i>fear</i> <i>envy</i>	<i>mind</i> <i>care</i>	<i>astonish</i> <i>amaze</i> <i>surprise</i>
(3) POSSESSION	<i>possess</i>	<i>have*</i>	<i>own</i>	<i>belong</i>
(4) SENSE PERCEPTIONS	<i>taste*</i> <i>smell*</i>	<i>hear</i> <i>feel*</i>	<i>see*</i>	
(5) OTHER EXISTING STATES	<i>seem</i> <i>look*</i> <i>appear*</i> <i>sound</i> <i>resemble</i> <i>look like</i>	<i>cost*</i> <i>owe</i> <i>weigh*</i> <i>equal</i>	<i>be*</i> <i>exist</i> <i>matter</i>	<i>consist of</i> <i>contain</i> <i>include*</i>

2-4 AM / IS / ARE BEING + ADJECTIVE

<p>(a) Ann <i>is sick</i> today. Alex <i>is nervous</i> about the exam. Tom <i>is tall</i> and <i>handsome</i>.</p>	<p>Be + an adjective usually expresses a stative meaning, as in the examples in (a). (See Appendix Chart A-3, p. A2, for information about adjectives.)</p>
<p>(b) Jack doesn't feel well, but he refuses to see a doctor. He <i>is being foolish</i>. (c) Sue <i>is being</i> very quiet today. I wonder if anything is wrong.</p>	<p>Sometimes main verb be + an adjective is used in the progressive. It is used in the progressive when it describes temporary, in-progress <i>behavior</i>. In (b): Jack's foolishness is temporary and probably uncharacteristic of him.</p>
<p>(d) <i>INCORRECT</i>: Mr. Smith <i>is being</i> old. <i>CORRECT</i>: Mr. Smith <i>is old</i>.</p>	<p>In (d): Age does not describe a temporary behavior. Be + old cannot be used in the progressive. Examples of other adjectives that cannot be used with am/is/are being: <i>angry, beautiful, handsome, happy, healthy, hungry, lucky, nervous, sick, tall, thirsty, young</i>.</p>

ADJECTIVES THAT CAN BE USED WITH AM/IS/ARE BEING

bad (ill-behaved)
careful
cruel
fair
foolish
funny
generous

good (well-behaved)
illogical
impolite
irresponsible
kind
lazy
logical

loud
nice
noisy
patient
pleasant
polite
quiet

responsible
rude
serious
silly
unfair
unkind
unpleasant



Martha is doing an experiment with dangerous chemicals. She *is being careful*.

2-5 REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS

REGULAR VERBS: The simple past and past participle end in **-ed**.

SIMPLE FORM	SIMPLE PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	PRESENT PARTICIPLE
<i>hope</i>	<i>hoped</i>	<i>hoped</i>	<i>hoping</i>
<i>stop</i>	<i>stopped</i>	<i>stopped</i>	<i>stopping</i>
<i>listen</i>	<i>listened</i>	<i>listened</i>	<i>listening</i>
<i>study</i>	<i>studied</i>	<i>studied</i>	<i>studying</i>
<i>start</i>	<i>started</i>	<i>started</i>	<i>starting</i>

English verbs have four principal parts:

- (1) simple form
- (2) simple past
- (3) past participle
- (4) present participle

IRREGULAR VERBS: The simple past and past participle do not end in **-ed**.

SIMPLE FORM	SIMPLE PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	PRESENT PARTICIPLE
<i>break</i>	<i>broke</i>	<i>broken</i>	<i>breaking</i>
<i>come</i>	<i>came</i>	<i>come</i>	<i>coming</i>
<i>find</i>	<i>found</i>	<i>found</i>	<i>finding</i>
<i>hit</i>	<i>hit</i>	<i>hit</i>	<i>hitting</i>
<i>swim</i>	<i>swam</i>	<i>swum</i>	<i>swimming</i>

Some verbs have irregular past forms.

Most of the irregular verbs in English are given in the alphabetical list in Chart 2-7, p. 12.



Alexei **played** the violin on stage last night.
 He *has* **played** before audiences many times.
 We **went** to hear him play last night.
 We *have* **gone** to several of his concerts.

2-6 REGULAR VERBS: PRONUNCIATION OF *-ED* ENDINGS

Final *-ed* has three different pronunciations: /t/, /d/, and /əd/.

<p>a</p> <p><i>looked</i> → look/t/ <i>clapped</i> → clap/t/ <i>missed</i> → miss/t/ <i>watched</i> → watch/t/ <i>finished</i> → finish/t/ <i>laughed</i> → laugh/t/</p>	<p>Final <i>-ed</i> is pronounced /t/ after voiceless sounds. Voiceless sounds are made by pushing air through your mouth; no sound comes from your throat. Examples of voiceless sounds: “k,” “p,” “s,” “ch,” “sh,” “f.”</p>
<p>b</p> <p><i>smell</i> → smell/d/ <i>saved</i> → save/d/ <i>cleaned</i> → clean/d/ <i>robbed</i> → rob/d/ <i>played</i> → play/d/</p>	<p>Final <i>-ed</i> is pronounced /d/ after voiced sounds. Voiced sounds come from your throat. If you touch your neck when you make a voiced sound, you can feel your voice box vibrate. Examples of voiced sounds: “l,” “v,” “n,” “b,” and all vowel sounds.</p>
<p>c</p> <p><i>decided</i> → decide/əd/ <i>needed</i> → need/əd/ <i>wanted</i> → want/əd/ <i>invited</i> → invite/əd/</p>	<p>Final <i>-ed</i> is pronounced /əd/ after “t” and “d” sounds. The sound /əd/ adds a whole syllable to a word. COMPARE: <i>looked</i> = one syllable → look/t/ <i>smelled</i> = one syllable → smell/d/ <i>needed</i> = two syllables → need/əd/ <i>wanted</i> = two syllables → want/əd/</p>

She **mopped** the kitchen floor,
vacuumed the carpet, and
dusted the furniture.



2-7 IRREGULAR VERBS: AN ALPHABETICAL LIST

Note: Verbs followed by a bullet (•) are defined at the end of the list.

SIMPLE FORM	SIMPLE PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	SIMPLE FORM	SIMPLE PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
arise	arose	arisen	forbid	forbade	forbidden
be	was,were	been	forecast•	forecast	forecast
bear	bore	borne/born	forget	forgot	forgotten
beat	beat	beaten/beat	forgive	forgave	forgiven
become	became	become	forsake•	forsook	forsaken
begin	began	begun	freeze	froze	frozen
bend	bent	bent	get	got	gotten/got*
bet•	bet	bet	give	gave	given
bid•	bid	bid	go	went	gone
bind•	bound	bound	grind•	ground	ground
bite	bit	bitten	grow	grew	grown
bleed	bled	bled	hang**	hung	hung
blow	blew	blown	have	had	had
break	broke	broken	hear	heard	heard
breed•	bred	bred	hide	hid	hidden
bring	brought	brought	hit	hit	hit
broadcast•	broadcast	broadcast	hold	held	held
build	built	built	hurt	hurt	hurt
burn	burned/burnt	burned/burnt	keep	kept	kept
burst•	burst	burst	kneel	kneeled/knelt	kneeled/knelt
buy	bought	bought	know	knew	known
cast•	cast	cast	lay	laid	laid
catch	caught	caught	lead	led	led
choose	chose	chosen	lean	leaned/leant	leaned/leant
cling•	clung	clung	leap	leaped/leapt	leaped/leapt
come	came	come	learn	learned/ learnt	learned/ learnt
cost	cost	cost	leave	left	left
creep•	crept	crept	lend	lent	lent
cut	cut	cut	let	let	let
deal•	dealt	dealt	lie	lay	lain
dig	dug	dug	light	lighted/lit	lighted/lit
do	did	done	lose	lost	lost
draw	drew	drawn	make	made	made
dream	dreamed/ dreamt	dreamed/ dreamt	mean	meant	meant
eat	ate	eaten	meet	met	met
fall	fell	fallen	mislay	mislaid	mislaid
feed	fed	fed	mistake	mistook	mistaken
feel	felt	felt	pay	paid	paid
fight	fought	fought	put	put	put
find	found	found	quit***	quit	quit
fit	fit/fitted	fit/fitted	read	read	read
flee•	fled	fled	rid	rid	rid
fling•	flung	flung	ride	rode	ridden
fly	flew	flown	ring	rang	rung

*In British English: *get-got-got*. In American English: *get-got-gotten/got*.

***Hang* is a regular verb when it means to kill someone with a rope around his/her neck. COMPARE: *I hung my clothes in the closet. They **hanged** the murderer by the neck until he was dead.*

***Also possible in British English: *quit-quit-quit*.

SIMPLE FORM	SIMPLE PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	SIMPLE FORM	SIMPLE PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
rise	rose	risen	spring•	sprang/sprung	sprung
run	ran	run	stand	stood	stood
say	said	said	steal	stole	stolen
see	saw	seen	stick	stuck	stuck
seek•	sought	sought	sting•	stung	stung
sell	sold	sold	stink•	stank/stunk	stunk
send	sent	sent	strike•	struck	struck/stricken
set	set	set	strive•	strove/strived	striven/strived
shake	shook	shaken	string	strung	strung
shed•	shed	shed	swear	swore	sworn
shine	shone/shined	shone/shined	sweep	swept	swept
shoot	shot	shot	swim	swam	swum
show	showed	shown/showed	swing•	swung	swung
shrink•	shrank/shrunk	shrunk	take	took	taken
shut	shut	shut	teach	taught	taught
sing	sang	sung	tear	tore	torn
sink•	sank	sunk	tell	told	told
sit	sat	sat	think	thought	thought
sleep	slept	slept	throw	threw	thrown
slide•	slid	slid	thrust•	thrust	thrust
slit•	slit	slit	understand	understood	understood
smell	smelled/smelt	smelled/smelt	undertake	undertook	undertaken
speak	spoke	spoken	upset	upset	upset
speed	sped/speeded	sped/speeded	wake	woke/waked	woken/waked
spell	spelled/spelt	spelled/spelt	wear	wore	worn
spend	spent	spent	weave•	wove	woven
spill	spilled/spilt	spilled/spilt	weep•	wept	wept
spin•	spun	spun	win	won	won
spit	spit/spat	spit/spat	wind•	wound	wound
split•	split	split	withdraw	withdrew	withdrawn
spoil	spoiled/spoilt	spoiled/spoilt	write	wrote	written
spread•	spread	spread			

•Definitions of some of the less frequently used irregular verbs:

<i>bet</i>	wager; offer to pay money if one loses	<i>forecast</i> . . .	predict a future occurrence	<i>spring</i> . .	jump or rise suddenly from a still position
<i>bid</i>	make an offer of money, usually at a public sale	<i>forsake</i> . . .	abandon or desert	<i>sting</i> . . .	cause pain with a sharp object (e.g., pin) or bite (e.g., by an insect)
<i>bind</i>	fasten or secure	<i>grind</i>	crush, reduce to small pieces	<i>stink</i> . . .	have a bad or foul smell
<i>breed</i>	bring animals together to produce young	<i>seek</i>	look for	<i>strike</i> . .	hit something with force
<i>broadcast</i> . .	send information by radio waves; announce	<i>shed</i>	drop off or get rid of	<i>strive</i> . .	try hard to achieve a goal
<i>burst</i>	explode; break suddenly	<i>shrink</i>	become smaller	<i>swing</i> . .	move back and forth
<i>cast</i>	throw	<i>sink</i>	move downward, often under water	<i>thrust</i> . .	push forcibly; shove
<i>cling</i>	hold on tightly	<i>slide</i>	glide smoothly; slip or skid	<i>weave</i> . .	form by passing pieces of material over and under each other (as in making baskets, cloth)
<i>creep</i>	crawl close to the ground; move slowly and quietly	<i>slit</i>	cut a narrow opening	<i>weep</i> . . .	cry
<i>deal</i>	distribute playing cards to each person; give attention to (deal with)	<i>spin</i>	turn rapidly around a central point	<i>wind</i> . . .	(sounds like <i>find</i>) turn around and around
<i>fee</i>	escape; run away	<i>split</i>	divide into two or more parts		
<i>fling</i>	throw with force	<i>spread</i> . . .	push out in all directions (e.g., butter on bread, news)		

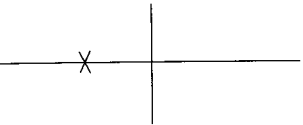
2-8 TROUBLESOME VERBS: RAISE | RISE, SET | SIT, LAY | LIE

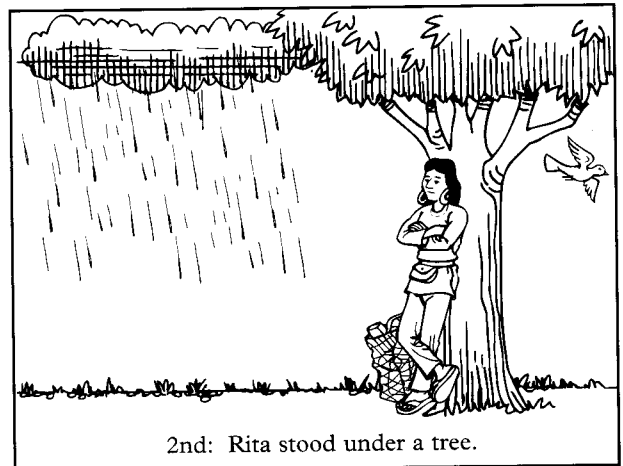
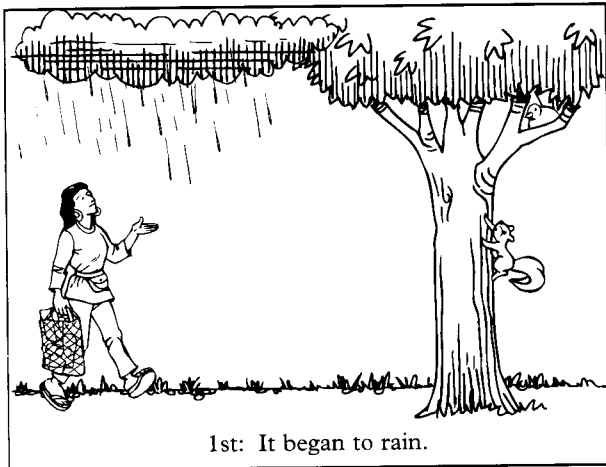
TRANSITIVE	INTRANSITIVE	<p>Raise, set, and lay are transitive verbs; they are followed by an object. Rise, sit, and lie are intransitive; i.e., they are NOT followed by an object.*</p> <p>In (a): raised is followed by the object hand.</p> <p>In (b): rises is not followed by an object.</p> <p>Note: Lay and lie are troublesome for native speakers too and are frequently misused.</p>
(a) <i>raise, raised, raised</i> Tom raised his hand.	(b) <i>rise, rose, risen</i> The sun rises in the east.	
(c) <i>set, set, set</i> I will set the book on the desk.	(d) <i>sit, sat, sat</i> I sit in the front row.	
(e) <i>lay, laid, laid</i> I am laying the book on the desk.	(f) <i>lie, ** lay, lain</i> He is lying on his bed.	

*See Appendix Chart A-1, p. A1, for information about transitive and intransitive verbs.

****Lie** is a regular verb (*lie, lied*) when it means "not tell the truth": *He lied to me about his age.*

2-9 SIMPLE PAST

	<p>(a) I walked to school yesterday.</p> <p>(b) John lived in Paris for ten years, but now he lives in Rome.</p> <p>(c) I bought a new car three days ago.</p>	<p>The simple past indicates that an activity or situation <i>began and ended at a particular time in the past.</i></p>
	<p>(d) Rita stood under a tree <i>when it began to rain.</i></p> <p>(e) <i>When Mrs. Chu heard a strange noise, she got up to investigate.</i></p> <p>(f) <i>When I dropped my cup, the coffee spilled on my lap.</i></p>	<p>If a sentence contains when and has the simple past in both clauses, the action in the <i>when</i> clause happens first. In (d): 1st: The rain began. 2nd: She stood under a tree.</p>



Rita **stood** under a tree when it **began** to rain.

2-10 PAST PROGRESSIVE

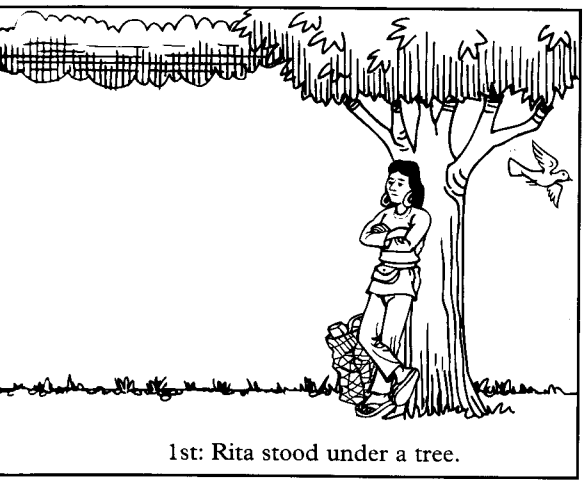


- (g) I *was walking* down the street when it began to rain.
- (h) While I *was walking* down the street, it began to rain.
- (i) Rita *was standing* under a tree when it began to rain.
- (j) At eight o'clock last night, I *was studying*.
- (k) Last year at this time, I *was attending* school.

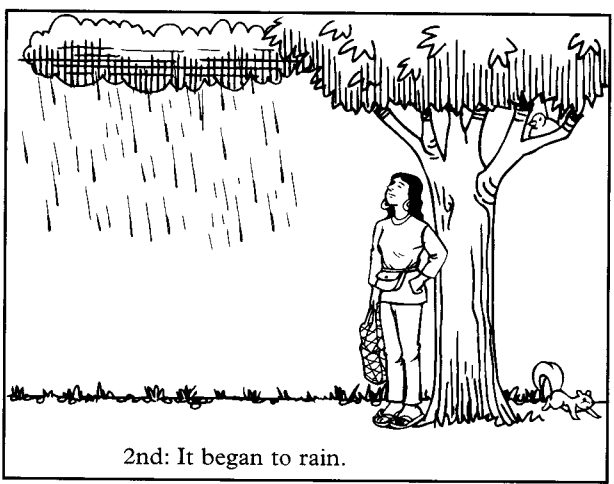
In (g): 1st: I was walking down the street.
 2nd: It began to rain.
 Both actions occurred at the same time, but *one action began earlier and was in progress when the other action occurred.*
 In (j): My studying began before 8:00, was in progress at that time, and probably continued.

- (l) While I *was studying* in one room of our apartment, my roommate *was having* a party in the other room.

Sometimes the past progressive is used in both parts of a sentence when two actions are in progress simultaneously.



1st: Rita stood under a tree.



2nd: It began to rain.

Rita *was standing* under a tree when it *began* to rain.

2-11 USING PROGRESSIVE VERBS WITH *ALWAYS* TO COMPLAIN

(a) Mary <i>always leaves</i> for school at 7:45.	In sentences referring to present time, usually the simple present is used with <i>always</i> to describe habitual or everyday activities, as in (a).
(b) Mary <i>is always leaving</i> her dirty socks on the floor for me to pick up! Who does she think I am? Her maid?	In special circumstances, a speaker may use the present progressive with <i>always</i> to complain, i.e., to express annoyance or anger, as in (b).*
(c) I <i>am always / forever / constantly picking up</i> Mary's dirty socks!	In addition to <i>always</i> , the words <i>forever</i> and <i>constantly</i> are also used with the present progressive to express annoyance.
(d) I didn't like having Sam for my roommate last year. He <i>was always leaving</i> his dirty clothes on the floor.	<i>Always, forever, and constantly</i> can also be used with the past progressive to express annoyance or anger.

*COMPARE:

- (1) "Mary *is always leaving her dirty socks on the floor*" expresses annoyance.
- (2) "Mary *always leaves her dirty socks on the floor*" is a statement of fact in which the speaker is not necessarily expressing an attitude of annoyance. Annoyance may, however, be shown by the speaker's tone of voice.

2-12 USING EXPRESSIONS OF PLACE WITH PROGRESSIVE VERBS

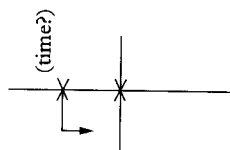
(a) — What is Kay doing? — She's <i>studying in her room</i> .	<p>An expression of place can sometimes come between the auxiliary <i>be</i> and the <i>-ing</i> verb in a progressive tense, as in (b) and (d):</p> <p style="padding-left: 2em;"><i>is + in her room + studying</i> <i>was + in bed + reading</i></p> <p>In (a): The focus of both the question and the answer is on Kay's activity in progress, i.e., on what she is doing.</p> <p>In (b): The focus of both the question and the answer is on Kay's location, i.e., on where Kay is.</p>
(b) — Where's Kay? — She's <i>in her room studying</i> .	
(c) — What was Jack doing when you arrived? — He <i>was reading</i> a book <i>in bed</i> .	
(d) — Where was Jack when you arrived? — He <i>was in bed reading</i> a book.	



CHAPTER 3

Perfect and Perfect Progressive Tenses

3-1 PRESENT PERFECT

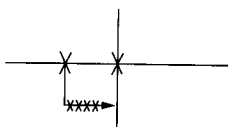


- (a) They **have moved** into a new apartment.
- (b) **Have** you ever **visited** Mexico?
- (c) I **have never seen** snow.
- (d) I **have already seen** that movie.
- (e) Jack **hasn't seen** it yet.
- (f) Ann started a letter to her parents last week, but she **still hasn't finished** it.
- (g) Alex feels bad. He **has just heard** some bad news.

The present perfect expresses the idea that something happened (or never happened) *before now, at an unspecified time in the past*. The exact time it happened is not important.

If there is a specific mention of time, the simple past is used: *They moved into a new apartment last month.*

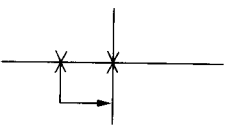
Notice in the examples: the adverbs **ever**, **never**, **already**, **yet**, **still**, and **just** are frequently used with the present perfect.



- (h) We **have had** four tests *so far* this semester.
- (i) I **have written** my wife a letter every other day *for* the last two weeks.
- (j) I **have met** many people *since* I came here in June.
- (k) I **have flown** on an airplane *many times*.

The present perfect also expresses the *repetition of an activity before now*. The exact time of each repetition is not important.

Notice in (h): **so far** is frequently used with the present perfect.



- (l) I **have been** here *since seven o'clock*.
- (m) We **have been** here *for two weeks*.
- (n) I **have had** this same pair of shoes *for three years*.
- (o) I **have liked** cowboy movies ever *since I was a child*.
- (p) I **have known** him *for many years*.

The present perfect, when used with **for** or **since**, also expresses a situation that *began in the past and continues to the present*.*

In the examples, notice the difference between **since** and **for**:

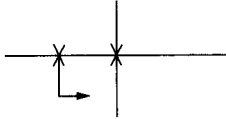
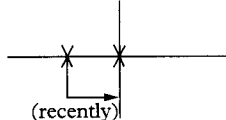
since + a particular time
for + a duration of time

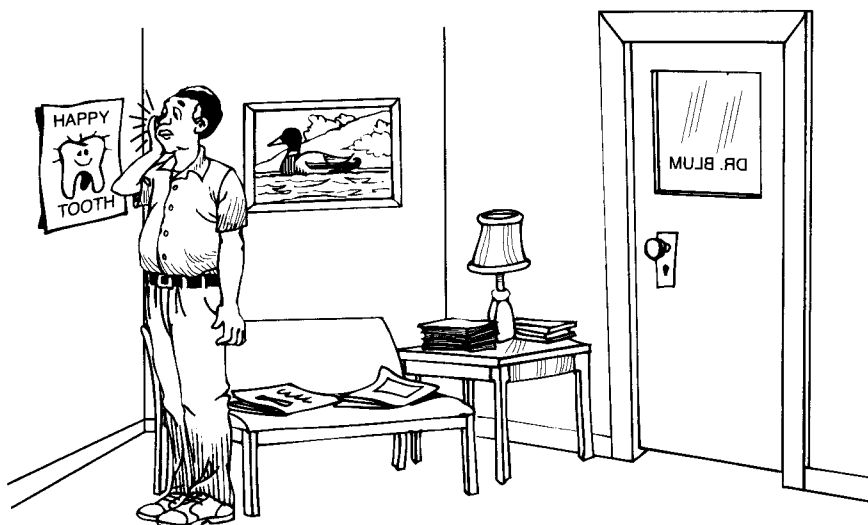
*The verbs used in the present perfect to express a *situation* that began in the past and still exists are typically verbs with a stative meaning (see Chart 2-3, p. 8).

The present perfect progressive, rather than the present perfect, is used with action verbs to express an *activity* that began in the past and continues to the present (see Chart 3-2, p. 18):

I've been sitting at my desk for an hour. Jack has been watching TV since seven o'clock.

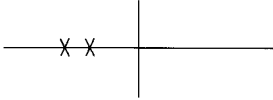
3-2 PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE

	<p>Right now I am sitting at my desk.</p> <p>(a) I have been sitting here <i>since</i> seven o'clock.</p> <p>(b) I have been sitting here <i>for</i> two hours.</p> <p>(c) You have been studying <i>for</i> five straight hours. Why don't you take a break?</p> <p>(d) It has been raining <i>all day</i>. It is still raining right now.</p>	<p>This tense is used to indicate the <i>duration</i> of an activity that <i>began in the past and continues to the present</i>. When the tense has this meaning, it is used with time words, such as for, since, all morning, all day, all week.</p>
	<p>(e) I have known Alex since he was a child.</p> <p>(f) INCORRECT: I have been knowing Alex since he was a child.</p>	<p>Reminder: verbs with stative meanings are not used in the progressive. (See Chart 2-3, p. 8.) The present perfect, NOT the present perfect progressive, is used with stative verbs to describe the duration of a <i>state</i> (rather than an activity) that began in the past and continues to the present.</p>
	<p>(g) I have been thinking about changing my major.</p> <p>(h) All of the students have been studying hard. Final exams start next week.</p> <p>(i) My back hurts, so I have been sleeping on the floor lately. The bed is too soft.</p>	<p>When the tense is used without any specific mention of time, it expresses a <i>general activity in progress recently, lately</i>.</p>
	<p>(j) I have lived here since 1995. I have been living here since 1995.</p> <p>(k) He has worked at the same store for ten years. He has been working at the same store for ten years.</p>	<p>With certain verbs (most notably <i>live</i>, <i>work</i>, <i>teach</i>), there is little or no difference in meaning between the two tenses when since or for is used.</p>



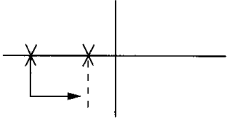
Mr. Ford **has been waiting** in the dentist's office for 20 minutes.

3-3 PAST PERFECT

	<p>(a) Sam had already left by the time Ann got there.</p> <p>(b) The thief simply walked in. Someone had forgotten to lock the door.</p>	<p>The past perfect expresses an activity that was <i>completed before another activity or time in the past.</i></p>
	<p>(c) Sam had already left when Ann got there.</p>	<p>In (c): <i>First: Sam left.</i> <i>Second: Ann got there.*</i></p>
	<p>(d) Sam had left <i>before</i> Ann got there.</p> <p>(e) Sam left <i>before</i> Ann got there.</p> <p>(f) <i>After</i> the guests had left, I went to bed.</p> <p>(g) <i>After</i> the guests left, I went to bed.</p>	<p>If either <i>before</i> or <i>after</i> is used in the sentence, the past perfect is often not necessary because the time relationship is already clear. The simple past may be used, as in (e) and (g). Note: (d) and (e) have the same meaning; (f) and (g) have the same meaning.</p>

*COMPARE: *Sam left when Ann got there.* = *First: Ann got there.*
Second: Sam left.

3-4 PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE

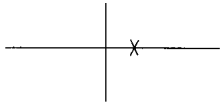
	<p>(a) The police had been looking for the criminal <i>for</i> two years before they caught him.</p> <p>(b) Eric finally came at six o'clock. I had been waiting for him <i>since</i> four-thirty.</p>	<p>The past perfect progressive emphasizes the <i>duration</i> of an activity that was <i>in progress before another activity or time in the past.</i></p>
	<p>(c) When Judy got home, her hair was still wet because she had been swimming.</p> <p>(d) I went to Jane's house after the funeral. Her eyes were red because she had been crying.</p>	<p>This tense also may express an activity <i>in progress close in time to another activity or time in the past.</i></p>



CHAPTER 4

Future Time

4-1 SIMPLE FUTURE: WILL AND BE GOING TO



- (a) Jack *will finish* his work tomorrow.
- (b) Jack *is going to finish* his work tomorrow.
- (c) Anna *will not be* here tomorrow.
- (d) Anna *won't be* here tomorrow.

Will or *be going to* is used to express future time.* In speech, *going to* is often pronounced "gonna."
In (d): The contracted form of *will + not* is *won't*.

*The use of *shall* with *I* or *we* to express future time is possible but uncommon in American English. *Shall* is used more frequently in British English than in American English.



- A: Who wants to erase the board?
Are there any volunteers?
- B: I'll do it!
- C: I'll do it!

- A: Why does he have an eraser in his hand?
- B: He's *going* to erase the board.



4-2 WILL vs. BE GOING TO

To express a PREDICTION: Use either WILL or BE GOING TO.

- (a) According to the weather report, it **will be** cloudy tomorrow.
- (b) According to the weather report, it **is going to be** cloudy tomorrow.
- (c) Be careful! You **'ll hurt** yourself!
- (d) Watch out! You **'re going to hurt** yourself!

When the speaker is making a prediction (a statement about something s/he thinks will be true or will occur in the future), either **will** or **be going to** is possible. There is no difference in meaning between (a) and (b). There is no difference in meaning between (c) and (d).

To express a PRIOR PLAN: Use only BE GOING TO.

- (e) A: Why did you buy this paint?
B: I **'m going to paint** my bedroom tomorrow.
- (f) I talked to Bob yesterday. He is tired of taking the bus to work. He **'s going to buy** a car. That's what he told me.

When the speaker is expressing a prior plan (something the speaker intends to do in the future because in the past s/he has made a plan or decision to do it), only **be going to** is used.*

In (e): Speaker B has made a prior plan. Last week she decided to paint her bedroom. She intends to paint it tomorrow.

In (f): The speaker knows Bob intends to buy a car. Bob made the decision in the past, and he plans to act on this decision in the future.

Will is not appropriate in (e) and (f).

To express WILLINGNESS: Use only WILL.

- (g) A: The phone's ringing.
B: I **'ll get** it.
- (h) A: I don't understand this problem.
B: Ask your teacher about it. She **'ll help** you.

In (g): Speaker B is saying "I am willing; I am happy to get the phone." He is not making a prediction. He has made no prior plan to answer the phone. He is, instead, volunteering to answer the phone and uses **will** to show his willingness.

In (h): Speaker B feels sure about the teacher's willingness to help. **Be going to** is not appropriate in (g) and (h).

*COMPARE:

Situation 1: A: *Are you busy this evening?*

B: *Yes. I'm going to meet Jack at the library at seven. We're going to study together.*

In Situation 1, only **be going to** is possible. The speaker has a prior plan, so he uses **be going to**.

Situation 2: A: *Are you busy this evening?*

B: *Well, I really haven't made any plans. I'll eat OR I'm going to eat dinner, of course. And then I'll probably watch OR I'm probably going to watch TV for a little while.*

In Situation 2, either **will** or **be going to** is possible. Speaker B has not planned his evening. He is "predicting" his evening (rather than stating any prior plans), so he may use either **will** or **be going to**.

4-3 EXPRESSING THE FUTURE IN TIME CLAUSES

<p>(a) Bob will come soon. <i>When Bob comes</i>, we will see him.</p> <p>(b) Linda is going to leave soon. <i>Before she leaves</i>, she is going to finish her work.</p> <p>(c) I will get home at 5:30. <i>After I get home</i>, I will eat dinner.</p> <p>(d) The taxi will arrive soon. <i>As soon as it arrives</i>, we'll be able to leave for the airport.</p> <p>(e) They are going to come soon. I'll wait here <i>until they come</i>.</p>	<p>In (a): When Bob comes is a time clause.* <i>when + subject + verb = a time clause</i> Will or be going to is NOT used in a time clause. The meaning of the clause is future, but the simple present tense is used.</p> <p>A time clause begins with such words as when, before, after, as soon as, until, while and includes a subject and a verb. The time clause can come either at the beginning of the sentence or in the second part of the sentence: <i>When he comes</i>, we'll see him. OR We'll see him <i>when he comes</i>.</p>
<p>(f) <i>While I am traveling in Europe next year</i>, I'm going to save money by staying in youth hostels.</p>	<p>Sometimes the present progressive is used in a time clause to express an activity that will be in progress in the future, as in (f).</p>
<p>(g) I will go to bed <i>after I finish my work</i>.</p> <p>(h) I will go to bed <i>after I have finished my work</i>.</p>	<p>Occasionally, the present perfect is used in a time clause, as in (h). Examples (g) and (h) have the same meaning. The present perfect in the time clause emphasizes the completion of the act before the other act occurs in the future.</p>

*A "time clause" is an adverb clause. See Charts 5-1 (p. 24), 5-2 (p. 25), and 17-1 (p. 88) for more information.

4-4 USING THE PRESENT PROGRESSIVE AND THE SIMPLE PRESENT TO EXPRESS FUTURE TIME

<p>PRESENT PROGRESSIVE</p> <p>(a) My wife has an appointment with a doctor. She is seeing Dr. North <i>next Tuesday</i>.</p> <p>(b) Sam has already made his plans. He is leaving <i>at noon tomorrow</i>.</p> <p>(c) A: What are you going to do this afternoon? B: <i>After lunch</i> I am meeting a friend of mine. We are going shopping. Would you like to come along?</p>	<p>The present progressive may be used to express future time when the idea of the sentence concerns a planned event or definite intention. (COMPARE: A verb such as <i>rain</i> is not used in the present progressive to indicate future time because rain is not a planned event.) A future meaning for the present progressive tense is indicated either by future time words in the sentence or by the context.</p>
<p>SIMPLE PRESENT</p> <p>(d) The museum opens <i>at ten tomorrow morning</i>.</p> <p>(e) Classes begin <i>next week</i>.</p> <p>(f) John's plane arrives <i>at 6:05 P.M. next Monday</i>.</p>	<p>The simple present can also be used to express future time in a sentence concerning events that are on a definite schedule or timetable. These sentences usually contain future time words. Only a few verbs are used in this way: e.g., <i>open, close, begin, end, start, finish, arrive, leave, come, return</i>.</p>

4-5 FUTURE PROGRESSIVE

	<p>(a) I will begin to study at seven. You will come at eight. I will be studying when you come.</p> <p>(b) Right now I am sitting in class. At this same time tomorrow, I will be sitting in class.</p>	<p>The future progressive expresses an activity that will <i>be in progress at a time in the future</i>.</p>
	<p>(c) Don't call me at nine because I won't be home. I am going to be studying at the library.</p>	<p>The progressive form of be going to: be going to + be + -ing</p>
	<p>(d) Don't get impatient. She will be coming soon.</p> <p>(e) Don't get impatient. She will come soon.</p>	<p>Sometimes there is little or no difference between the future progressive and the simple future, especially when the future event will occur at an indefinite time in the future, as in (d) and (e).</p>

4-6 FUTURE PERFECT

	<p>(a) I will graduate in June. I will see you in July. By the time I see you, I will have graduated.</p> <p>(b) I will have finished my homework by the time I go out on a date tonight.</p>	<p>The future perfect expresses an activity that will be <i>completed before another time or event in the future</i>. (Note: by the time introduces a time clause; the simple present is used in a time clause.)</p>
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4-7 FUTURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE

	<p>(c) I will go to bed at ten P.M. Ed will get home at midnight. At midnight I will be sleeping. I will have been sleeping for two hours by the time Ed gets home.</p>	<p>The future perfect progressive emphasizes the <i>duration</i> of an activity that will be <i>in progress before another time or event in the future</i>.</p>
	<p>(d) When Professor Jones retires next month, he will have taught for 45 years.</p> <p>(e) When Professor Jones retires next month, he will have been teaching for 45 years.</p>	<p>Sometimes the future perfect and the future perfect progressive have the same meaning, as in (d) and (e). Also, notice that the activity expressed by either of these two tenses may begin in the past.</p>



CHAPTER 5

Adverb Clauses of Time and Review of Verb Tenses

5-1 ADVERB CLAUSES OF TIME: FORM

<p style="text-align: center;">adverb clause main clause</p> <p>(a) <i>When the phone rang</i>, the baby woke up.</p>	<p>In (a): <i>When the phone rang</i> is an adverb clause of time. An adverb clause is one kind of dependent clause. A dependent clause must be attached to an independent, or main, clause. In (a): <i>the baby woke up</i> is the main clause.</p>
<p>(b) <i>INCORRECT</i>: When the phone rang. The baby woke up.</p> <p>(c) The phone rang. The baby woke up.</p>	<p>Example (b) is incorrect because the adverb clause is not connected to the main clause.</p> <p>Example (c) is correct because there is no adverb clause. The two main clauses are both independent sentences.</p>
<p>(d) <i>When the phone rang</i>, the baby woke up.</p> <p>(e) The baby woke up <i>when the phone rang</i>.</p>	<p>Examples (d) and (e) have the same meaning. An adverb clause can come in front of a main clause, as in (d), or follow the main clause, as in (e).</p> <p>Notice that a comma is used to separate the two clauses when the adverb clause comes first.</p>



When Jennifer went for a ride yesterday, she fell off her horse.

5-2 USING ADVERB CLAUSES TO SHOW TIME RELATIONSHIPS

after*	(a) <i>After she graduates, she will get a job.</i> (b) <i>After she (had) graduated, she got a job.</i>	A present tense, NOT a future tense, is used in an adverb clause of time, as in examples (a) and (c). (See Chart 4-3, p. 22, for tense usage in future time clauses.)
before*	(c) I will leave <i>before</i> he comes. (d) I (had) left <i>before</i> he came.	
when	(e) <i>When I arrived, he was talking</i> on the phone. (f) <i>When I got there, he had</i> already left. (g) <i>When it began to rain, I stood</i> under a tree. (h) <i>When I was in Chicago, I visited</i> the museums. (i) <i>When I see him tomorrow, I will ask</i> him.	<i>when = at that time</i> Notice the different time relationships expressed by the tenses.
while as	(j) <i>While I was walking home, it began</i> to rain. (k) <i>As I was walking home, it began</i> to rain.	<i>while, as = during that time</i>
by the time	(l) <i>By the time he arrived, we had</i> already left. (m) <i>By the time he comes, we will have</i> already left.	<i>by the time = one event is completed before another event</i> Notice the use of the past perfect and future perfect in the main clause.
since	(n) I <i>haven't seen him since</i> he left this morning. (o) I've <i>known her ever since</i> I was a child.	<i>since = from that time to the present</i> In (o): <i>ever</i> adds emphasis. Note: The present perfect is used in the main clause.
until till	(p) We stayed there <i>until</i> we finished our work. (q) We stayed there <i>till</i> we finished our work.	<i>until, till = to that time and then no longer</i> (<i>Till</i> is used more in speaking than in writing; it is generally not used in formal English.)
as soon as once	(r) <i>As soon as it stops raining, we will</i> leave. (s) <i>Once it stops raining, we will</i> leave.	<i>as soon as, once = when one event happens, another event happens soon afterward</i>
as long as so long as	(t) I will never speak to him again <i>as long as</i> I live. (u) I will never speak to him again <i>so long as</i> I live.	<i>as long as, so long as = during all that time, from beginning to end</i>
whenever every time	(v) <i>Whenever I see her, I say</i> hello. (w) <i>Every time I see her, I say</i> hello.	<i>whenever = every time</i>
the first time the last time the next time	(x) <i>The first time (that) I went to New York, I went</i> to an opera. (y) I saw two plays <i>the last time (that) I went to</i> New York. (z) <i>The next time (that) I go to New York, I'm going</i> to see a ballet.	Adverb clauses can be introduced by the following: <div style="display: flex; align-items: center; justify-content: center;"> { <div style="text-align: center;"> <p><i>first</i></p> <p><i>second</i></p> <p><i>third, etc.</i></p> <p><i>last</i></p> <p><i>next</i></p> <p><i>etc.</i></p> </div> } <i>time (that)</i> </div>

*After and before are commonly used in the following expressions:

<i>shortly after</i>	<i>shortly before</i>
<i>a short time after</i>	<i>a short time before</i>
<i>a little while after</i>	<i>a little while before</i>
<i>not long after</i>	<i>not long before</i>
<i>soon after</i>	



CHAPTER 6

Subject-Verb Agreement

6-1 FINAL *-S/-ES*: USE, PRONUNCIATION, AND SPELLING

<p>(a) NOUN + <i>-s</i>: <i>Friends</i> are important. NOUN + <i>-ES</i>: I like my <i>classes</i>.</p>	<p>A final <i>-s</i> or <i>-es</i> is added to a noun to make the noun plural. <i>friend</i> = a singular noun <i>friends</i> = a plural noun</p>
<p>(b) VERB + <i>-s</i>: <i>Mary works</i> at the bank. VERB + <i>-ES</i>: <i>John watches</i> birds.</p>	<p>A final <i>-s</i> or <i>-es</i> is added to a simple present verb when the subject is a singular noun (e.g., <i>Mary, my father, the machine</i>) or third person singular pronoun (<i>she, he, it</i>). <i>Mary works</i> = singular <i>She works</i> = singular <i>The students work</i> = plural <i>They work</i> = plural</p>
<h4>PRONUNCIATION OF <i>-S/-ES</i></h4>	
<p>(c) seats → <i>seat/s/</i> ropes → <i>rope/s/</i> backs → <i>back/s/</i></p>	<p>Final <i>-s</i> is pronounced /s/ after voiceless sounds, as in (c): “t,” “p,” and “k” are examples of voiceless sounds.*</p>
<p>(d) seeds → <i>seed/z/</i> robes → <i>robe/z/</i> bags → <i>bag/z/</i> sees → <i>see/z/</i></p>	<p>Final <i>-s</i> is pronounced /z/ after voiced sounds, as in (h): “d,” “b,” “g,” and “ee” are examples of voiced sounds.*</p>
<p>(e) dishes → <i>dish/əz/</i> catches → <i>catch/əz/</i> kisses → <i>kiss/əz/</i> mixes → <i>mix/əz/</i> prizes → <i>prize/əz/</i> edges → <i>edge/əz/</i></p>	<p>Final <i>-s</i> and <i>-es</i> are pronounced /əz/ after “-sh,” “-ch,” “-s,” “-z,” and “-ge”/“-dge” sounds. The /əz/ ending adds a syllable. All of the words in (e) are pronounced with two syllables. COMPARE: All of the words in (c) and (d) are pronounced with one syllable.</p>
<h4>SPELLING: FINAL <i>-S</i> vs. <i>-ES</i></h4>	
<p>(f) sing → <i>sings</i> song → <i>songs</i></p>	<p>For most words (whether a verb or a noun), simply a final <i>-s</i> is added to spell the word correctly.</p>
<p>(g) wash → <i>washes</i> watch → <i>watches</i> class → <i>classes</i> buzz → <i>buzzes</i> box → <i>boxes</i></p>	<p>Final <i>-es</i> is added to words that end in <i>-sh, -ch, -s, -z,</i> and <i>-x</i>.</p>
<p>(h) toy → <i>toys</i> buy → <i>buys</i> (i) baby → <i>babies</i> cry → <i>cries</i></p>	<p>For words that end in <i>-y</i>: In (h): If <i>-y</i> is preceded by a vowel, only <i>-s</i> is added. In (i): If <i>-y</i> is preceded by a consonant, the <i>-y</i> is changed to <i>-i</i> and <i>-es</i> is added.</p>

*See Chart 2-6, p. 11, for an explanation of voiced vs. voiceless sounds.

6-2 BASIC SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT

SINGULAR VERB	PLURAL VERB	
(a) My friend <i>lives</i> in Boston.	(b) My friends <i>live</i> in Boston.	<i>verb + -s/-es</i> = third person singular in the simple present tense <i>noun + -s/-es</i> = plural
	(c) My brother <i>and</i> sister <i>live</i> in Boston. (d) My brother, sister, <i>and</i> cousin <i>live</i> in Boston.	Two or more subjects connected by <i>and</i> require a plural verb.
(e) <i>Every</i> man, woman, <i>and</i> child <i>needs</i> love. (f) <i>Each</i> book <i>and</i> magazine <i>is</i> listed in the card catalog.		EXCEPTION: <i>Every</i> and <i>each</i> are always followed immediately by singular nouns. (See Chart 7-13, p. 37.) In this case, even when there are two (or more) nouns connected by <i>and</i> , the verb is singular.
(g) That <i>book</i> on political parties <i>is</i> interesting. (i) My <i>dog</i> , as well as my cats, <i>likes</i> cat food. (k) The <i>book</i> that I got from my parents <i>was</i> very interesting.	(h) The <i>ideas</i> in that book <i>are</i> interesting. (j) My <i>dogs</i> , as well as my cat, <i>like</i> cat food. (l) The <i>books</i> I bought at the bookstore <i>were</i> expensive.	Sometimes a phrase or clause separates a subject from its verb. These interrupting structures do not affect basic agreement. For example, in (g) the interrupting prepositional phrase <i>on political parties</i> does not change the fact that the verb <i>is</i> must agree with the subject <i>book</i> . In (k) and (l): The subject and verb are separated by an adjective clause. (See Chapter 13.)
(m) <i>Growing</i> flowers <i>is</i> her hobby.		A gerund used as the subject of the sentence requires a singular verb. (See Chart 14-11, p. 81.)



Annie had a hard time when she was coming home from the store because the *bag* of groceries *was* too heavy for her to carry.

6-3 SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT: USING EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY

SINGULAR VERB	PLURAL VERB	
(a) <i>Some of the book is</i> good. (c) <i>A lot of the equipment is</i> new. (e) <i>Two-thirds of the money is</i> mine.	(b) <i>Some of the books are</i> good. (d) <i>A lot of my friends are</i> here. (f) <i>Two-thirds of the pennies are</i> mine.	In most expressions of quantity, the verb is determined by the noun (or pronoun) that follows <i>of</i> . For example: In (a): Some of + <i>singular noun</i> = <i>singular verb</i> . In (b): Some of + <i>plural noun</i> = <i>plural verb</i> .
(g) <i>One of my friends is</i> here. (h) <i>Each of my friends is</i> here. (i) <i>Every one of my friends is</i> here.		EXCEPTIONS: One of , each of , and every one of take singular verbs. $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{one of} \\ \text{each of} \\ \text{every one of} \end{array} \right\} + \text{plural noun} = \text{singular verb}$
(j) <i>None of the boys is</i> here.	(k) <i>None of the boys are</i> here. (informal)	Subjects with none of are considered singular in very formal English, but plural verbs are often used in informal speech writing.
(l) <i>The number of students in the class is</i> fifteen.	(m) <i>A number of students were</i> late for class.	COMPARE: In (l): The number is the subject. In (m): A number of is an expression of quantity meaning "a lot of." It is followed by a plural noun and a plural verb.

6-4 SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT: USING THERE + BE

(a) <i>There are</i> twenty students in my class. (b) <i>There's</i> a fly in the room.		In the structure there + be , <i>there</i> is called an "expletive." It has no meaning as a vocabulary word. It introduces the idea that something exists in a particular place. Pattern: there + be + subject + expression of place
(c) <i>There are</i> seven continents.		Sometimes the expression of place is omitted when the meaning is clear. In (c): The implied expression of place is clearly <i>in the world</i> .
SINGULAR VERB	PLURAL VERB	
(d) <i>There is</i> a book on the shelf.	(e) <i>There are</i> some books on the shelf.	The subject follows be when there is used. In (d): The subject is <i>book</i> . In (e): The subject is <i>books</i> .
(f) INFORMAL: <i>There's</i> some books on the shelf.		In very informal spoken English, some native speakers use a singular verb even when the subject is plural, as in (f). The use of this form is fairly frequent but is not generally considered to be grammatically correct.

6-5 SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT: SOME IRREGULARITIES

SINGULAR VERB		
(a) <i>The United States</i> is big. (b) <i>The Philippines</i> consists of more than 7,000 islands. (c) <i>The United Nations</i> has its headquarters in New York City. (d) <i>Sears</i> is a department store.		Sometimes a proper noun that ends in -s is singular. In the examples, if the noun is changed to a pronoun, the singular pronoun it is used (not the plural pronoun they) because the noun is singular. In (a): The United States = it (not they).
(e) <i>The news</i> is interesting.		News is singular.
(f) <i>Mathematics</i> is easy for her. <i>Physics</i> is easy for her too.		Fields of study that end in -ics require singular verbs.
(g) <i>Diabetes</i> is an illness.		Certain illnesses that end in -s are singular: <i>diabetes, measles, mumps, rabies, rickets, shingles</i> .
(h) <i>Eight hours of sleep</i> is enough. (i) <i>Ten dollars</i> is too much to pay. (j) <i>Five thousand miles</i> is too far to travel.		Expressions of <i>time, money, and distance</i> usually require a singular verb.
(k) <i>Two and two</i> is four. <i>Two and two</i> equals four. <i>Two plus two</i> is/equals four. (l) <i>Five times five</i> is twenty-five.		Arithmetic expressions require singular verbs.
PLURAL VERB		
(m) <i>Those people</i> are from Canada. (n) <i>The police</i> have been called. (o) <i>Cattle</i> are domestic animals.		People, * police, and cattle do not end in -s , but are plural nouns and require plural verbs.
SINGULAR VERB	PLURAL VERB	
(p) <i>English</i> is spoken in many countries. (r) <i>Chinese</i> is his native language.	(q) <i>The English</i> drink tea. (s) <i>The Chinese</i> have an interesting history.	In (p): English = language. In (q): The English = people from England. Some nouns of nationality that end in -sh, -ese, and -ch can mean either language or people, e.g., <i>English, Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, Vietnamese, Portuguese, French</i> .
	(t) <i>The poor</i> have many problems. (u) <i>The rich</i> get richer.	A few adjectives can be preceded by the and used as a plural noun (without final -s) to refer to people who have that quality. Other examples: <i>the young, the elderly, the living, the dead, the blind, the deaf, the disabled</i> .

*The word "people" has a final **-s** (*peoples*) only when it is used to refer to ethnic or national groups: *All the peoples of the world desire peace*.



CHAPTER 7

Nouns

7-1 REGULAR AND IRREGULAR PLURAL NOUNS

(a) <i>song-songs</i>		The plural of most nouns is formed by adding final -s .*
(b) <i>box-boxes</i>		Final -es is added to nouns that end in -sh, -ch, -s, -z, and -x .*
(c) <i>baby-babies</i>		The plural of words that end in a consonant + -y is spelled -ies .*
(d) <i>man-men</i> <i>woman-women</i> <i>child-children</i>	<i>ox-oxen</i> <i>foot-feet</i> <i>goose-geese</i>	<i>tooth-teeth</i> <i>mouse-mice</i> <i>louse-lice</i>
(e) <i>echo-echoes</i> <i>hero-heroes</i>	<i>potato-potatoes</i> <i>tomato-tomatoes</i>	Some nouns that end in -o add -es to form the plural.
(f) <i>auto-autos</i> <i>ghetto-ghettos</i> <i>kangaroo-kangaroos</i> <i>kilo-kilos</i> <i>memo-memos</i>	<i>photo-photos</i> <i>piano-pianos</i> <i>radio-radios</i> <i>solo-solos</i> <i>soprano-sopranos</i>	<i>studio-studios</i> <i>tatoo-tatoos</i> <i>video-videos</i> <i>zoo-zoos</i>
(g) <i>memento-mementoes/mementos</i> <i>mosquito-mosquitoes/mosquitos</i> <i>tornado-tornadoes/tornados</i>	<i>volcano-volcanoes/volcanos</i> <i>zero-zeroes/zeros</i>	Some nouns that end in -o add either -es or -s to form the plural (with -es being the more usual plural form).
(h) <i>calf-calves</i> <i>half-halves</i> <i>knife-knives</i> <i>leaf-leaves</i>	<i>life-lives</i> <i>loaf-loaves</i> <i>self-selves</i> <i>shelf-shelves</i>	<i>thief-thieves</i> <i>wolf-wolves</i> <i>scarf-scarves/scarfs</i>
(i) <i>belief-beliefs</i> <i>chief-chiefs</i>	<i>cliff-cliffs</i> <i>roof-roofs</i>	Some nouns that end in -f simply add -s to form the plural.
(j) <i>one deer-two deer</i> <i>one fish-two fish**</i> <i>one means-two means</i> <i>one offspring-two offspring</i>	<i>one series-two series</i> <i>one sheep-two sheep</i> <i>one shrimp-two shrimp***</i> <i>one species-two species</i>	Some nouns have the same singular and plural form: e.g., <i>One deer is Two deer are</i>
(k) <i>criterion-criteria</i> <i>phenomenon-phenomena</i>	(o) <i>analysis-analyses</i> <i>basis-bases</i> <i>crisis-crises</i> <i>hypothesis-hypotheses</i> <i>oasis-oases</i> <i>parenthesis-parentheses</i> <i>thesis-theses</i>	Some nouns that English has borrowed from other languages have foreign plurals.
(l) <i>cactus-cacti/cactuses</i> <i>fungus-fungi</i> <i>nucleus-nuclei</i> <i>stimulus-stimuli</i> <i>syllabus-syllabi/syllabuses</i>	(p) <i>bacterium-bacteria</i> <i>curriculum-curricula</i> <i>datum-data</i> <i>medium-media</i> <i>memorandum-memoranda</i>	
(m) <i>formula-formulae/formulas</i> <i>vertebra-vertebrae</i>		
(n) <i>appendix-appendices/appendixes</i> <i>index-indices/indexes</i>		

*For information about the pronunciation and spelling of words ending in **-s/-es**, see Chart 6-1, p. 26.

***Fishes* is also possible, but rarely used.

***Especially in British English, but also occasionally in American English, the plural of *shrimp* can be *shrimps*.

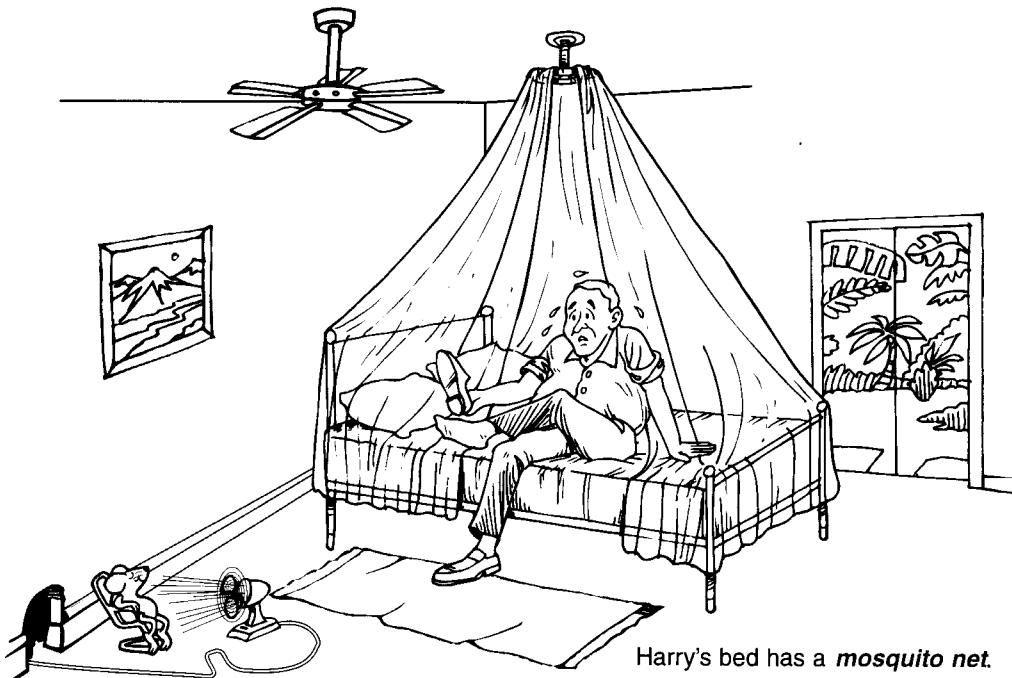
7-2 POSSESSIVE NOUNS

SINGULAR NOUN	POSSESSIVE FORM	To show possession, add an apostrophe (') and -s to a singular noun: <i>The girl's book is on the table.</i>
(a) <i>the girl</i> (b) <i>Tom</i> (c) <i>my wife</i> (d) <i>a lady</i> (e) <i>Thomas</i>	<i>the girl's</i> <i>Tom's</i> <i>my wife's</i> <i>a lady's</i> <i>Thomas's/Thomas'</i>	If a singular noun ends in -s , there are two possible forms: 1. Add an apostrophe and -s : <i>Thomas's book.</i> 2. Add only an apostrophe: <i>Thomas' book.</i>
PLURAL NOUN	POSSESSIVE FORM	Add only an apostrophe to a plural noun that ends in -s : <i>The girls' books are on the table.</i>
(f) <i>the girls</i> (g) <i>their wives</i> (h) <i>the ladies</i> (i) <i>the men</i> (j) <i>my children</i>	<i>the girls'</i> <i>their wives'</i> <i>the ladies'</i> <i>the men's</i> <i>my children's</i>	Add an apostrophe and -s to plural nouns that do not end in -s : <i>The men's books are on the table.</i>

7-3 USING NOUNS AS MODIFIERS

The soup has vegetables in it. (a) It is <i>vegetable soup</i> .	When a noun is used as a modifier, it is in its singular form.* In (a): <i>vegetable</i> modifies <i>soup</i> .
The building has offices in it. (b) It is an <i>office building</i> .	In (b): <i>office</i> modifies <i>building</i> .
The test lasted two hours. (c) It was a <i>two-hour test</i> .	When a noun used as a modifier is combined with a number expression, the noun is singular and a hyphen (-) is used. <i>INCORRECT</i> : She has a <i>five years old</i> son.
Her son is five years old. (d) She has a <i>five-year-old son</i> .	

*Adjectives never take a final **-s**. (*INCORRECT: beautifuls pictures*) See Appendix Chart A-3, p. A2. Similarly, nouns used as adjectives never take a final **-s**. (*INCORRECT: vegetables soup*)



7-4 COUNT AND NONCOUNT NOUNS

- (a) I bought *a chair*. Sam bought *three chairs*.
 (b) We bought *some furniture*.
 INCORRECT: We bought *some furnitures*.
 INCORRECT: We bought *a furniture*.

Chair is a count noun; chairs are items that can be counted.
Furniture is a noncount noun. In grammar, furniture cannot be counted.

	SINGULAR	PLURAL	
COUNT NOUN	<i>a chair</i> <i>one chair</i>	<i>∅ chairs*</i> <i>two chairs</i> <i>some chairs</i> <i>a lot of chairs</i> <i>many chairs</i>	A count noun: (1) may be preceded by <i>a/an</i> in the singular. (2) takes a final <i>-s/-es</i> in the plural.
NONCOUNT NOUN	<i>∅ furniture*</i> <i>some furniture</i> <i>a lot of furniture</i> <i>much furniture</i>		A noncount noun: (1) is not immediately preceded by <i>a/an</i> . (2) has no plural form, so does not take a final <i>-s/-es</i> .

*∅ = nothing.

7-5 NONCOUNT NOUNS

- (a) I bought some chairs, tables, and desks. In other words, I bought some *furniture*.
 (b) I put some *sugar* in my *coffee*.

Many noncount nouns refer to a “whole” that is made up of different parts.
 In (a): **furniture** represents a whole group of things that is made up of similar but separate items.
 In (b): **sugar** and **coffee** represent whole masses made up of individual particles or elements.*

- (c) I wish you *luck*.

Many noncount nouns are abstractions. In (c): **luck** is an abstract concept, an abstract “whole.” It has no physical form; you can’t touch it. You can’t count it.

- (d) *Sunshine* is warm and cheerful.

A phenomenon of nature, such as **sunshine**, is frequently used as a noncount noun, as in (d).

- (e) NONCOUNT: Ann has brown *hair*.
 COUNT: Tom has a *hair* on his jacket.
 (f) NONCOUNT: I opened the curtains to let in some *light*.
 COUNT: Don’t forget to turn off the *light* before you go to bed.

Many nouns can be used as either noncount or count nouns, but the meaning is different; e.g., **hair** in (e) and **light** in (f).
 (Dictionaries written especially for learners of English as a second language are a good source of information on count/noncount usages of nouns.)

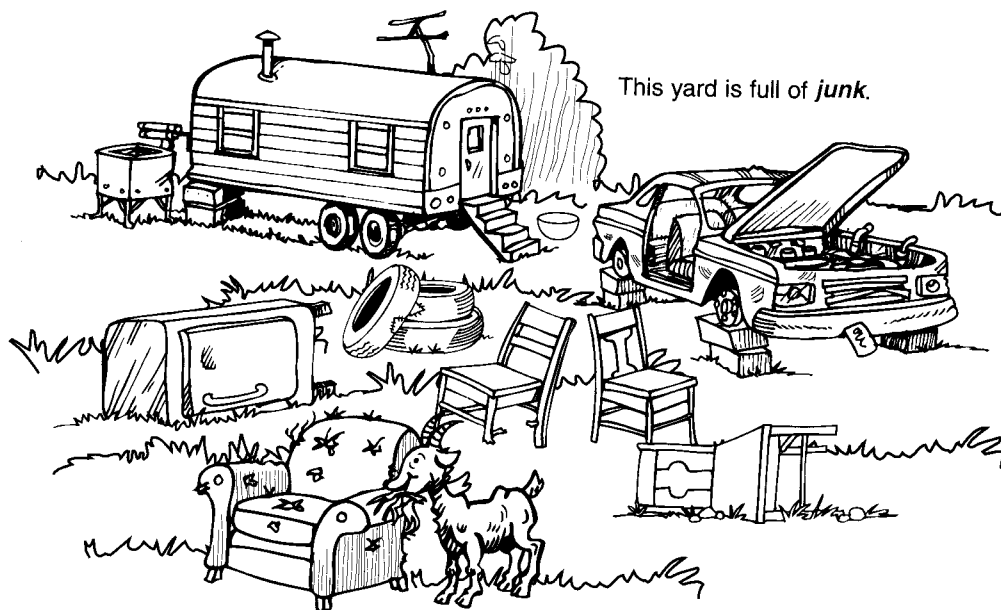
*To express a particular quantity, some noncount nouns may be preceded by unit expressions: *a spoonful of sugar, a glass of water, a cup of coffee, a quart of milk, a loaf of bread, a grain of rice, a bowl of soup, a bag of flour, a pound of meat, a piece of furniture, a piece of paper, a piece of jewelry.*

7-6 SOME COMMON NONCOUNT NOUNS

This list is a sample of nouns that are commonly used as noncount nouns. Many other nouns can also be used as noncount nouns.

- (a) WHOLE GROUPS MADE UP OF SIMILAR ITEMS: *baggage, clothing, equipment, food, fruit, furniture, garbage, hardware, jewelry, junk, luggage, machinery, mail, makeup, money/cash/change, postage, scenery, traffic, etc.*
- (b) FLUIDS: *water, coffee, tea, milk, oil, soup, gasoline, blood, etc.*
- (c) SOLIDS: *ice, bread, butter, cheese, meat, gold, iron, silver, glass, paper, wood, cotton, wool, etc.*
- (d) GASES: *steam, air, oxygen, nitrogen, smoke, smog, pollution, etc.*
- (e) PARTICLES: *rice, chalk, corn, dirt, dust, flour, grass, hair, pepper, salt, sand, sugar, wheat, etc.*
- (f) ABSTRACTIONS:
—*beauty, confidence, courage, education, enjoyment, fun, happiness, health, help, honesty, hospitality, importance, intelligence, justice, knowledge, laughter, luck, music, patience, peace, pride, progress, recreation, significance, sleep, truth, violence, wealth, etc.*
—*advice, information, news, evidence, proof, etc.*
—*time, space, energy, etc.*
—*homework, work, etc.*
—*grammar, slang, vocabulary, etc.*
- (g) LANGUAGES: *Arabic, Chinese, English, Spanish, etc.*
- (h) FIELDS OF STUDY: *chemistry, engineering, history, literature, mathematics, psychology, etc.*
- (i) RECREATION: *baseball, soccer, tennis, chess, bridge, poker, etc.*
- (j) ACTIVITIES: *driving, studying, swimming, traveling,* walking, etc.* (and other gerunds)
- (k) NATURAL PHENOMENA: *weather, dew, fog, hail, heat, humidity, lightning, rain, sleet, snow, thunder, wind, darkness, light, sunshine, electricity, fire, gravity, etc.*

*British spelling: *travelling*.



7-7 BASIC ARTICLE USAGE

I. USING *A* or \emptyset : GENERIC NOUNS

SINGULAR COUNT NOUN	(a) <i>A banana</i> is yellow.*	<p>A speaker uses generic nouns to make generalizations. A generic noun represents a whole class of things; it is not a specific, real, concrete thing, but rather a symbol of a whole group.</p> <p>In (a) and (b): The speaker is talking about any banana, all bananas, bananas in general. In (c): The speaker is talking about any and all fruit, fruit in general.</p> <p>Notice that no article (\emptyset) is used to make generalizations with plural count nouns, as in (b), and with noncount nouns, as in (c).</p>
PLURAL COUNT NOUN	(b) \emptyset <i>Bananas</i> are yellow.	
NONCOUNT NOUN	(c) \emptyset <i>Fruit</i> is good for you.	

II. USING *A* or *SOME*: INDEFINITE NOUNS

SINGULAR COUNT NOUN	(d) I ate <i>a banana</i> .	<p>Indefinite nouns are actual things (not symbols), but they are not specifically identified.</p> <p>In (d): The speaker is not referring to "this banana" or "that banana" or "the banana you gave me." The speaker is simply saying that s/he ate one banana. The listener does not know nor need to know which specific banana was eaten; it was simply one banana out of that whole group of things in this world called bananas.</p> <p>In (e) and (f): <i>Some</i> is often used with indefinite plural count nouns and indefinite noncount nouns. In addition to <i>some</i>, a speaker might use <i>two</i>, <i>a few</i>, <i>several</i>, <i>a lot of</i>, <i>etc.</i>, with plural count nouns, or <i>a little</i>, <i>a lot of</i>, <i>etc.</i>, with noncount nouns. (See Chart 7-4, p. 32.)</p>
PLURAL COUNT NOUN	(e) I ate <i>some bananas</i> .	
NONCOUNT NOUN	(f) I ate <i>some fruit</i> .	

III. USING *THE*: DEFINITE NOUNS

SINGULAR COUNT NOUN	(g) Thank you for <i>the banana</i> .	<p>A noun is definite when both the speaker and the listener are thinking about the same specific thing.</p> <p>In (g): The speaker uses <i>the</i> because the listener knows which specific banana the speaker is talking about, i.e., that particular banana which the listener gave to the speaker.</p> <p>Notice that <i>the</i> is used with both singular and plural count nouns and with noncount nouns.</p>
PLURAL COUNT NOUN	(h) Thank you for <i>the bananas</i> .	
NONCOUNT NOUN	(i) Thank you for <i>the fruit</i> .	

*Usually *a/an* is used with a singular generic count noun. Examples:

A window is made of glass. *A doctor* heals sick people. *Parents* must give *a child* love. *A box* has six sides. *An apple* can be red, green, or yellow.

However, *the* is sometimes used with a singular generic count noun (not a plural generic count noun, not a generic noncount noun). "Generic *the*" is commonly used with, in particular:

(1) species of animals: *The blue whale* is the largest mammal on earth.

The elephant is the largest land mammal.

(2) inventions: *Who invented the telephone? the wheel? the refrigerator? the airplane?*

The computer will play an increasingly large role in all of our lives.

(3) musical instruments: *I'd like to learn to play the piano.*

Do you play the guitar?

7-8 GENERAL GUIDELINES FOR ARTICLE USAGE

<p>(a) <i>The sun</i> is bright today. Please hand this book to <i>the teacher</i>. Please open <i>the door</i>. Omar is in <i>the kitchen</i>.</p>	<p>GUIDELINE: Use the when you know or assume that your listener is familiar with and thinking about the same specific thing or person you are talking about.</p>
<p>(b) Yesterday I saw <i>some dogs</i>. The dogs were chasing <i>a cat</i>. The cat was chasing <i>a mouse</i>. The mouse ran into <i>a hole</i>. The hole was very small.</p>	<p>GUIDELINE: Use the for the second mention of an indefinite noun.* In (b): first mention = <i>some dogs, a cat, a mouse, a hole</i>; second mention = <i>the dogs, the cat, the mouse, the hole</i>.</p>
<p>(c) CORRECT: Apples are my favorite fruit. INCORRECT: <i>The apples</i> are my favorite fruit. (d) CORRECT: Gold is a metal. INCORRECT: <i>The gold</i> is a metal.</p>	<p>GUIDELINE: Do NOT use the with a plural count noun (e.g., <i>apples</i>) or a noncount noun (e.g., <i>gold</i>) when you are making a generalization.</p>
<p>(e) CORRECT: (1) I drove a car. / I drove the car. (2) I drove that car. (3) I drove his car. INCORRECT: I drove <i>car</i>.</p>	<p>GUIDELINE: A singular count noun (e.g., <i>car</i>) is always preceded by: (1) an article (<i>a/an</i> or <i>the</i>); OR (2) this/that; OR (3) a possessive pronoun.</p>

***The** is not used for the second mention of a generic noun. COMPARE:

- (1) *What color is a banana* (generic noun)? **A banana** (generic noun) *is yellow*.
- (2) *Joe offered me a banana* (indefinite noun) *or an apple*. I chose **the banana** (definite noun).

7-9 EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY

EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY	USED WITH COUNT NOUNS	USED WITH NONCOUNT NOUNS	An expression of quantity may precede a noun. Some expressions of quantity are used only with count nouns, as in (a) and (b).
(a) <i>one</i> <i>each</i> <i>every</i>	<i>one apple</i> <i>each apple</i> <i>every apple</i>	Ø* Ø Ø	
(b) <i>two, etc.</i> <i>both</i> <i>a couple of</i> <i>a few</i> <i>several</i> <i>many</i> <i>a number of</i>	<i>two apples</i> <i>both apples</i> <i>a couple of apples</i> <i>a few apples</i> <i>several apples</i> <i>many apples</i> <i>a number of apples</i>	Ø Ø Ø Ø Ø Ø	
(c) <i>a little</i> <i>much</i> <i>a great deal of</i>	Ø Ø Ø	<i>a little rice</i> <i>much rice</i> <i>a great deal of rice</i>	Some are used only with noncount nouns, as in (c).
(d) <i>no</i> <i>some/any</i> <i>a lot of/lots of</i> <i>plenty of</i> <i>most</i> <i>all</i>	<i>no apples</i> <i>some/any apples</i> <i>a lot of/lots of apples</i> <i>plenty of apples</i> <i>most apples</i> <i>all apples</i>	<i>no rice</i> <i>some/any rice</i> <i>a lot of/lots of rice</i> <i>plenty of rice</i> <i>most rice</i> <i>all rice</i>	Some are used with both count and noncount nouns, as in (d).

*Ø = not used. For example, you can say "I ate one apple" but NOT "I ate one rice."

7-10 USING A FEW AND FEW; A LITTLE AND LITTLE

<i>a few</i>	(a) She has been here only two weeks, but she has already made a few friends . (Positive idea: <i>She has made some friends.</i>)	A few and a little* give a positive idea; they indicate that something exists, is present, as in (a) and (b).
<i>a little</i>	(b) I'm very pleased. I've been able to save a little money this month. (Positive idea: <i>I have saved some money instead of spending all of it.</i>)	
<i>few</i>	(c) I feel sorry for her. She has (very) few friends . (Negative idea: <i>She does not have many friends; she has almost no friends.</i>)	Few and little (without a) give a negative idea; they indicate that something is largely absent. Very (+ few/little) makes the negative stronger, the number/amount smaller.
<i>little</i>	(d) I have (very) little money . I don't even have enough money to buy food for dinner. (Negative idea: <i>I do not have much money; I have almost no money.</i>)	

***A few** and **few** are used with plural count nouns. **A little** and **little** are used with noncount nouns.

7-11 USING OF IN EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY

(a) CORRECT: A lot of books are paperbacks. (b) CORRECT: A lot of my books are paperbacks. (c) INCORRECT: A lot books are paperbacks.	Some expressions of quantity (such as <i>a lot of</i>) always contain of , as in (a) and (b). See GROUP ONE below.
(d) CORRECT: Many of my books are paperbacks. (e) INCORRECT: Many my books are paperbacks. (f) CORRECT: Many books are paperbacks. (g) INCORRECT: Many of books are paperbacks.	Sometimes of is used with an expression of quantity, as in (d), and sometimes of is NOT used with the same expression of quantity, as in (f). See GROUP TWO below.
GROUP ONE: EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY THAT ALWAYS CONTAIN OF	
<i>a lot of</i> <i>a number of</i> <i>a majority of</i> <i>lots of</i> <i>a great deal of</i> <i>plenty of</i>	
GROUP TWO: EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY THAT SOMETIMES CONTAIN OF AND SOMETIMES NOT	
<i>all (of)</i> <i>many (of)</i> <i>one (of)</i> <i>both (of)</i> <i>some (of)</i> <i>most (of)</i> <i>much (of)</i> <i>two (of)</i> <i>several (of)</i> <i>any (of)</i> <i>almost all (of)</i> <i>a few (of)</i> <i>three (of)</i> <i>a little (of)</i> <i>etc.</i>	
(h) Many of my books are in English. (i) Many of those books are in English. (j) Many of the books on that shelf are in English.	Of is used with the expressions of quantity in GROUP TWO when the noun is specific. A noun is specific when it is preceded by: 1. <i>my, John's</i> (or any possessive), as in (h). 2. <i>this, that, these, or those</i> , as in (i). 3. <i>the</i> , as in (j)
(k) Many books are in English.	Of is NOT used with the expressions of quantity in GROUP TWO if the noun it modifies is <i>nonspecific</i> . In (k): The noun books is nonspecific; i.e., the speaker is not referring to "your books" or "these books" or "the books on that desk." The speaker is not referring to specific books, but to books in general.

7-12 ALL (OF) AND BOTH (OF)

(a) CORRECT: <i>All of the students</i> in my class are here. (b) CORRECT: <i>All the students</i> in my class are here.	When a noun is specific (e.g., <i>the students</i>), using <i>of</i> after <i>all</i> is optional as in (a) and (b).
(c) CORRECT: <i>All students</i> must have an I.D. card. (d) INCORRECT: <i>All of students</i> must have an I.D. card.	When a noun is nonspecific, <i>of</i> does NOT follow <i>all</i> , as in (c).
(e) I know <i>both (of) those men</i> . (f) CORRECT: I know <i>both men</i> . (g) INCORRECT: I know <i>both of men</i> .	Similarly, using <i>of</i> after <i>both</i> is optional when the noun is specific, as in (e). When a noun is nonspecific, <i>of</i> does NOT follow <i>both</i> , as in (f).

7-13 SINGULAR EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY: ONE, EACH, EVERY

(a) <i>One student</i> was late to class. (b) <i>Each student</i> has a schedule. (c) <i>Every student</i> has a schedule.	<i>One, each, and every</i> are followed immediately by <i>singular count nouns</i> (never plural nouns, never noncount nouns).
(d) <i>One of the students</i> was late to class. (e) <i>Each (one) of the students</i> has a schedule. (f) <i>Every one of the students</i> has a schedule.	<i>One of, each of, and every one of*</i> are followed by <i>specific plural count nouns</i> (never singular nouns; never noncount nouns).

*COMPARE:

Every one (two words) is an expression of quantity; e.g., *I have read every one of those books.*

Everyone (one word) is an indefinite pronoun; it has the same meaning as **everybody**; e.g., *Everyone/Everybody has a schedule.*

NOTE: **Each** and **every** have essentially the same meaning.

Each is used when the speaker is thinking of one person/thing at a time: *Each student has a schedule. = Mary has a schedule. Hiroshi has a schedule. Carlos has a schedule. Sabrina has a schedule. (etc.)*

Every is used when the speaker means "all": *Every student has a schedule. = All of the students have schedules.*



CHAPTER 8

Pronouns

8-1 PERSONAL PRONOUNS

	SUBJECT PRONOUN	OBJECT PRONOUN	POSSESSIVE PRONOUN	POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE
SINGULAR	<i>I</i> <i>you</i> <i>she, he, it</i>	<i>me</i> <i>you</i> <i>her, him, it</i>	<i>mine</i> <i>your</i> <i>hers, his, its</i>	<i>my name</i> <i>your name</i> <i>her, his, its name</i>
PLURAL	<i>we</i> <i>you</i> <i>they</i>	<i>us</i> <i>you</i> <i>them</i>	<i>ours</i> <i>yours</i> <i>theirs</i>	<i>our names</i> <i>your names</i> <i>their names</i>

(a) I read a book. It was good.

(b) I read some books. They were good.

(c) *I* like tea. Do *you* like tea too?

(d) John has a car. *He* drives to work.

(e) John works in my office. I know *him* well.

(f) I talk to *him* every day.

(g) That book is *hers*.
Yours is over there.

(h) *INCORRECT*: That book is *her's*.
Your's is over there.

(i) *Her* book is here.
Your book is over there.

(j) A bird uses *its* wings to fly.

(k) *INCORRECT*: A bird uses *it's* wings to fly.

(l) *It's* cold today.

(m) The Harbour Inn is my favorite old hotel. *It's* been in business since 1933.

A pronoun is used in place of a noun. The noun it refers to is called the "antecedent."

In (a): The pronoun *it* refers to the antecedent noun *book*.

A singular pronoun is used to refer to a singular noun, as in (a). A plural pronoun is used to refer to a plural noun, as in (b).

Sometimes the antecedent noun is understood, not explicitly stated. In (c): *I* refers to the speaker, and *you* refers to the person the speaker is talking to.

Subject pronouns are used as subjects of sentences, as *he* in (d).

Object pronouns are used as the objects of verbs, as in (e), or as the objects of prepositions, as in (f).

Possessive pronouns are not followed immediately by a noun; they stand alone, as in (g).

In (h): Possessive pronouns do NOT take apostrophes. (See Chart 7-2, p. 31, for the use of apostrophes with possessive nouns.)

Possessive adjectives are followed immediately by a noun; they do not stand alone.

COMPARE: *Its* has NO APOSTROPHE when it is used as a possessive, as in (j).

It's has an apostrophe when it is used as a contraction of *it is*, as in (l), or *it has* when *has* is part of the present perfect tense, as in (m).

8-2 PERSONAL PRONOUNS: AGREEMENT WITH GENERIC NOUNS AND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

(a) <i>A student</i> walked into the room. <i>She</i> was looking for the teacher.	In (a) and (b): The pronouns refer to particular individuals whose gender is known. The nouns are not generic.
(b) <i>A student</i> walked into the room. <i>He</i> was looking for the teacher.	
(c) <i>A student</i> should always do <i>his</i> assignments.	A generic noun* does not refer to any person or thing in particular; rather, it represents a whole group. In (c): <i>A student</i> is a generic noun; it refers to <i>anyone who is a student</i> . With a generic noun, a singular masculine pronoun has been used traditionally, but many English speakers now use both masculine and feminine pronouns to refer to a singular generic noun, as in (d). The use of both masculine and feminine pronouns can create awkward-sounding sentences.
(d) <i>A student</i> should always do <i>his /her</i> assignments. <i>A student</i> should always do <i>his or her</i> assignments.	
(e) <i>Students</i> should always do <i>their</i> assignments.	Problems with choosing masculine and/or feminine pronouns can often be avoided by using a plural rather than a singular generic noun, as in (e).

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

<i>everyone</i>	<i>someone</i>	<i>anyone</i>	<i>no one**</i>
<i>everybody</i>	<i>somebody</i>	<i>anybody</i>	<i>nobody</i>
<i>everything</i>	<i>something</i>	<i>anything</i>	<i>nothing</i>

(f) <i>Somebody</i> left <i>his</i> book on the desk.	A singular pronoun is used in formal English to refer to an indefinite pronoun, as in (f) and (g). In everyday informal English, a plural personal pronoun is often used to refer to an indefinite pronoun, as in (h).
(g) <i>Everyone</i> has <i>his or her</i> own ideas.	
(h) INFORMAL: <i>Somebody</i> left <i>their</i> book on the desk. <i>Everyone</i> has <i>their</i> own ideas.	

*See Chart 7-7, p. 34, *Basic Article Usage*.

***No one* can also be written with a hyphen in British English: *No-one* heard me.

8-3 PERSONAL PRONOUNS: AGREEMENT WITH COLLECTIVE NOUNS

EXAMPLES OF COLLECTIVE NOUNS

<i>audience</i>	<i>couple</i>	<i>family</i>	<i>public</i>
<i>class</i>	<i>crowd</i>	<i>government</i>	<i>staff</i>
<i>committee</i>	<i>faculty</i>	<i>group</i>	<i>team</i>

(a) <i>My family</i> is large. <i>It</i> is composed of nine members.	When a collective noun refers to a single impersonal unit, a singular gender-neutral pronoun (<i>it, its</i>) is used, as in (a).
(b) <i>My family</i> is loving and supportive. <i>They</i> are always ready to help me.	When a collective noun refers to a collection of various individuals, a plural pronoun (<i>they, them, their</i>) is used, as in (b).*

*NOTE: When the collective noun refers to a collection of individuals, the verb may be either singular or plural: *My family is OR are loving and supportive*. A singular verb is generally preferred in American English. A plural verb is used more frequently in British English, especially with the words *government* or *public*. (American: *The government is planning many changes*. British: *The government are planning many changes*.)

8-4 REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

SINGULAR <i>myself</i> <i>yourself</i> <i>herself, himself, itself, oneself</i>	PLURAL <i>ourselves</i> <i>yourselves</i> <i>themselves</i>
<p>(a) Larry was in the theater. I <i>saw him</i>. I talked <i>to him</i>.</p> <p>(b) I <i>saw myself</i> in the mirror. I looked <i>at myself</i> for a long time.</p> <p>(c) <i>INCORRECT</i>: I saw <i>me</i> in the mirror.</p>	<p>Compare (a) and (b): Usually an object pronoun is used as the object of a verb or preposition, as <i>him</i> in (a). (See Chart 8-1, p. 38.)</p> <p>A <i>reflexive pronoun</i> is used as the object of a verb or preposition when the subject of the sentence and the object are the same person, as in (b).* <i>I</i> and <i>myself</i> are the same person.</p>
<p>—Did someone fax the report to Mr. Lee? —Yes. —Are you sure?</p> <p>(d) —Yes. <i>I myself</i> faxed the report to him.</p> <p>(e) —<i>I</i> faxed the report to him <i>myself</i>.</p>	<p>Reflexive pronouns are also used for emphasis. In (d): The speaker would say “I myself” strongly, with emphasis. The emphatic reflexive pronoun can immediately follow a noun or pronoun, as in (d), or come at the end of the clause, as in (e).</p>
<p>(f) Anna lives <i>by herself</i>.</p>	<p>The expression <i>by + a reflexive pronoun</i> means “alone.”</p>

*Sometimes, but relatively infrequently, an object pronoun is used as the object of a preposition even when the subject and object pronoun are the same person. Examples: *I took my books with me*. *Bob brought his books with him*. *I looked around me*. *She kept her son close to her*.



Anna drew a picture of *herself*.
All of the students drew pictures of *themselves*.

8-5 USING YOU, ONE, AND THEY AS IMPERSONAL PRONOUNS

<p>(a) One should always be polite. (b) How does one get to 5th Avenue from here? (c) You should always be polite. (d) How do you get to 5th Avenue from here?</p>	<p>In (a) and (b): One means “any person, people in general.” In (c) and (d): You means “any person, people in general.” One is much more formal than you. Impersonal you, rather than one, is used more frequently in everyday English.</p>
<p>(e) One should take care of one's health. (f) One should take care of his health. (g) One should take care of his or her health.</p>	<p>Notice the pronouns that may be used in the same sentence to refer back to one: (e) is typical in British usage and formal American usage. (f) is principally American usage. (g) is stylistically awkward.</p>
<p>(h) — Did Ann lose her job? — Yes. They fired her. (i) — They mine graphite in Brazil, don't they? — Yes. Brazil is one of the leading graphite producers in the world.</p>	<p>They is used as an impersonal pronoun in spoken or very informal English to mean “some people or somebody.”* They has no stated antecedent. The antecedent is implied. In (h): They = the people Ann worked for.</p>

*In written or more formal English, the passive is generally preferred to the use of impersonal **they**:

Active: *They fired her.* Active: *They mine graphite in Brazil, don't they?*
 Passive: *She was fired.* Passive: *Graphite is mined in Brazil, isn't it?*

8-6 FORMS OF OTHER

		ADJECTIVE	PRONOUN	
SINGULAR		another book (is)	another (is)	Forms of other are used as either adjectives or pronouns. Notice: A final -s is used only for a plural pronoun (others).
PLURAL		other books (are)	others (are)	
SINGULAR		the other book (is)	the other (is)	
PLURAL		the other books (are)	the others (are)	
(a)	The students in the class come from many countries. One of the students is from Mexico. Another student is from Iraq. Another is from Japan. Other students are from Brazil. Others are from Algeria.			The meaning of another : <i>one more in addition to the one(s) already mentioned.</i> The meaning of other / others (without the): <i>several more in addition to the one(s) already mentioned.</i>
(b)	I have three books. Two are mine. The other book is yours. (The other is yours.)			The meaning of the other(s) : <i>all that remains from a given number; the rest of a specific group.</i>
(c)	I have three books. One is mine. The other books are yours. (The others are yours.)			
(d)	I will be here for another three years .			Another is used as an adjective with expressions of time, money, and distance, even if these expressions contain plural nouns. Another means “an additional” in these expressions.
(e)	I need another five dollars .			
(f)	We drove another ten miles .			

8-7 COMMON EXPRESSIONS WITH *OTHER*

<p>(a) We write to <i>each other</i> every week. We write to <i>one another</i> every week.</p>	<p><i>Each other</i> and <i>one another</i> indicate a reciprocal relationship.* In (a): I write to him every week, and he writes to me every week.</p>
<p>(b) Please write on <i>every other</i> line. I see her <i>every other</i> week.</p>	<p><i>Every other</i> can give the idea of “alternate.” In (b): Write on the first line. Do not write on the second line. Write on the third line. Do not write on the fourth line. (Etc.)</p>
<p>(c) —Have you seen Ali recently? —Yes. I saw him just <i>the other day</i>.</p>	<p><i>The other</i> is used in time expressions such as <i>the other day</i>, <i>the other morning</i>, <i>the other week</i>, etc., to refer to the recent past. In (c): <i>the other day</i> means “a few days ago, not long ago.”</p>
<p>(d) The ducklings walked in a line behind the mother duck. Then the mother duck slipped into the pond. The ducklings followed her. They slipped into the water <i>one after the other</i>. (e) They slipped into the water <i>one after another</i>.</p>	<p>In (d): <i>one after the other</i> expresses the idea that separate actions occur very close in time. In (e): <i>one after another</i> has the same meaning as <i>one after the other</i>.</p>
<p>(f) No one knows my secret <i>other than</i> Rosa. (g) No one knows my secret <i>except (for)</i> Rosa.</p>	<p>In (f): <i>other than</i> is usually used after a negative to mean “except.” (g) has the same meaning.</p>
<p>(h) Fruit and vegetables are full of vitamins and minerals. <i>In other words</i>, they are good for you.</p>	<p>In (h): <i>In other words</i> is used to explain, usually in simpler or clearer terms, the meaning of the preceding sentence(s).</p>

*In typical usage, *each other* and *one another* are interchangeable; there is no difference between them. Some native speakers, however, use *each other* when they are talking about only two persons or things, and *one another* when there are more than two.



CHAPTER 9

Modals, Part 1

9-1 INTRODUCTION

The modal auxiliaries in English are *can, could, had better, may, might, must, ought (to), shall, should, will, would*.

Modal auxiliaries generally express speakers' attitudes. For example, modals can express that a speaker feels something is necessary, advisable, permissible, possible, or probable; and, in addition, they can convey the strength of those attitudes.

Each modal has more than one meaning or use. See Chart 10-10, p. 54, for a summary overview of modals.

<p>(a) BASIC MODALS</p> <table style="border: none;"> <tr> <td style="border: none;"> <p>I You He She It We You They</p> </td> <td style="border: none; vertical-align: middle; text-align: center;"> <p>+</p> </td> <td style="border: none;"> <p><i>can</i> do it. <i>could</i> do it. <i>had better</i> do it. <i>may</i> do it. <i>might</i> do it. <i>must</i> do it. <i>ought to</i> do it. <i>shall</i> do it. <i>should</i> do it. <i>will</i> do it. <i>would</i> do it.</p> </td> </tr> </table>	<p>I You He She It We You They</p>	<p>+</p>	<p><i>can</i> do it. <i>could</i> do it. <i>had better</i> do it. <i>may</i> do it. <i>might</i> do it. <i>must</i> do it. <i>ought to</i> do it. <i>shall</i> do it. <i>should</i> do it. <i>will</i> do it. <i>would</i> do it.</p>	<p>Modals do not take a final <i>-s</i>, even when the subject is <i>she, he, or it</i>. CORRECT: <i>She can</i> do it. INCORRECT: She <i>cans</i> do it.</p> <hr/> <p>Modals are followed immediately by the simple form of a verb. CORRECT: <i>She can</i> do it. INCORRECT: She can <i>to</i> do it. / She can <i>does</i> it. / She can <i>did</i> it. The only exception is <i>ought</i>, which is followed by an infinitive (<i>to + the simple form of a verb</i>). CORRECT: He <i>ought to go</i> to the meeting.</p>
<p>I You He She It We You They</p>	<p>+</p>	<p><i>can</i> do it. <i>could</i> do it. <i>had better</i> do it. <i>may</i> do it. <i>might</i> do it. <i>must</i> do it. <i>ought to</i> do it. <i>shall</i> do it. <i>should</i> do it. <i>will</i> do it. <i>would</i> do it.</p>		
<p>(b) PHRASAL MODALS</p> <p><i>be able to</i> do it <i>be going to</i> do it <i>be supposed to</i> do it <i>have to</i> do it <i>have got to</i> do it <i>used to</i> do it</p>	<p>Phrasal modals are common expressions whose meanings are similar to those of some of the modal auxiliaries. For example: <i>be able to</i> is similar to <i>can</i>; <i>be going to</i> is similar to <i>will</i>.</p> <p>An infinitive (<i>to + the simple form of a verb</i>) is used in these similar expressions.</p>			

9-2 POLITE REQUESTS WITH "I" AS THE SUBJECT

MAY I COULD I	(a) <i>May I</i> (please) <i>borrow</i> your pen? (b) <i>Could I borrow</i> your pen (please)?	<i>May I</i> and <i>could I</i> are used to request permission. They are equally polite.* Note in (b): In a polite request, <i>could</i> has a present or future meaning, not a past meaning.
CAN I	(c) <i>Can I borrow</i> your pen?	<i>Can I</i> is used informally to request permission, especially if the speaker is talking to someone s/he knows fairly well. <i>Can I</i> is usually considered a little less polite than <i>may I</i> or <i>could I</i> .
	TYPICAL RESPONSES Certainly. Yes, certainly. Of course. Yes, of course. Sure. (<i>informal</i>)	Often the response to a polite request is an action, such as a nod or shake of the head, or a simple "uh-huh."

**Might* is also possible: *Might I borrow your pen?* *Might I* is quite formal and polite; it is used much less frequently than *may I* or *could I*.

9-3 POLITE REQUESTS WITH "YOU" AS THE SUBJECT

WOULD YOU WILL YOU	(a) <i>Would you pass</i> the salt (please)? (b) <i>Will you</i> (please) <i>pass</i> the salt?	The meaning of <i>would you</i> and <i>will you</i> in a polite request is the same. <i>Would you</i> is more common and is often considered more polite. The degree of politeness, however, is often determined by the speaker's tone of voice.
COULD YOU	(c) <i>Could you pass</i> the salt (please)?	Basically, <i>could you</i> and <i>would you</i> have the same meaning. The difference is slight: <i>Would you</i> = <i>Do you want to do this please?</i> <i>Could you</i> = <i>Do you want to do this please, and is it possible for you to do this?</i> <i>Could you</i> and <i>would you</i> are equally polite.
CAN YOU	(d) <i>Can you</i> (please) <i>pass</i> the salt?	<i>Can you</i> is often used informally. It usually sounds less polite than <i>could you</i> or <i>would you</i> .
	TYPICAL RESPONSES Yes, I'd (I would) be happy to/be glad to. Certainly. Sure. (<i>informal</i>)	A person usually responds in the affirmative to a polite request. If a negative response is necessary, a person might begin by saying "I'd like to, but . . ." (e.g., "I'd like to pass the salt, but I can't reach it").
	(e) <i>INCORRECT: May you</i> pass the salt?	<i>May</i> is used only with <i>I</i> or <i>we</i> in polite requests.

9-4 POLITE REQUESTS WITH WOULD YOU MIND

<p>ASKING PERMISSION</p> <p>(a) <i>Would you mind if I closed</i> the window? (b) <i>Would you mind if I used</i> the phone?</p>	<p>Notice in (a): Would you mind if I is followed by the simple past.* The meaning in (a): <i>May I close the window? Is it all right if I close the window? Will it cause you any trouble or discomfort if I close the window?</i></p>
<p>TYPICAL RESPONSES</p> <p>No, not at all/of course not. No, that would be fine.</p>	<p>Another typical response might be “unh-unh,” meaning “no.”</p>
<p>ASKING SOMEONE TO DO SOMETHING</p> <p>(c) <i>Would you mind closing</i> the window? (d) Excuse me. <i>Would you mind repeating</i> that?</p>	<p>Notice in (c): Would you mind is followed by -ing (a gerund). The meaning in (c): <i>I don't want to cause you any trouble, but would you please close the window? Would that cause you any inconvenience?</i></p>
<p>TYPICAL RESPONSES</p> <p>No. I'd be happy to. Not at all. I'd be glad to. Sure./Okay. (<i>informal</i>)</p>	<p>The informal responses of “Sure” and “Okay” are common, but are not logical: the speaker means “No, I wouldn't mind” but seems to be saying “Yes, I would mind.” Native speakers understand that the response “Sure” or “Okay” in this situation means that the speaker agrees to the request.</p>

*Sometimes, in informal spoken English, the simple present is used: *Would you mind if I close the window?*

(NOTE: The simple past does not refer to past time after **would you mind**; it refers to present or future time. See Chart 20-3, p. 101, for more information.)

9-5 EXPRESSING NECESSITY: MUST, HAVE TO, HAVE GOT TO

<p>(a) All applicants must take an entrance exam. (b) All applicants have to take an entrance exam.</p>	<p>Must and have to both express necessity. In (a) and (b): It is necessary for every applicant to take an entrance exam. There is no other choice. The exam is required.</p>
<p>(c) I'm looking for Sue. I have to talk to her about our lunch date tomorrow. I can't meet her for lunch because I have to go to a business meeting at 1:00. (d) Where's Sue? I must talk to her right away. I have an urgent message for her.</p>	<p>In everyday statements of necessity, have to is used more commonly than must. Must is usually stronger than have to and can indicate urgency or stress importance. In (c): The speaker is simply saying, “I need to do this, and I need to do that.” In (d): The speaker is strongly saying, “This is very important!”</p>
<p>(e) I have to (“hafta”) be home by eight. (f) He has to (“hasta”) go to a meeting tonight.</p>	<p>Note: have to is usually pronounced “hafta”; has to is usually pronounced “hasta.”</p>
<p>(g) I have got to go now. I have a class in ten minutes. (h) I have to go now. I have a class in ten minutes.</p>	<p>Have got to also expresses the idea of necessity: (g) and (h) have the same meaning. Have got to is informal and is used primarily in spoken English. Have to is used in both formal and informal English.</p>
<p>(i) I have got to go (“I've gotta go/I gotta go”) now.</p>	<p>Usual pronunciation of got to is “gotta.” Sometimes have is dropped in speech: “I gotta do it.”</p>
<p>(j) PRESENT OR FUTURE I have to / have got to / must study tonight. (k) PAST I had to study last night.</p>	<p>The idea of past necessity is expressed by had to. There is no other past form for must (when it means necessity) or have got to.</p>

9-6 LACK OF NECESSITY AND PROHIBITION: *HAVE TO* AND *MUST* IN THE NEGATIVE

LACK OF NECESSITY

- a) Tomorrow is a holiday. We *don't have to go* to class.
 b) I can hear you. You *don't have to shout*.*

When used in the negative, *must* and *have to* have different meanings.

do not have to = lack of necessity

In (a): It is not necessary for us to go to class tomorrow because it is a holiday.

PROHIBITION

- c) You *must not look* in the closet. Your birthday present is hidden there.
 d) You *must not tell* anyone my secret. Do you promise?

must not = prohibition (DO NOT DO THIS!)

In (c): Do not look in the closet. I forbid it. Looking in the closet is prohibited.

Negative contraction: *mustn't*. (The first "t" is silent: "muss-ənt.")

*Lack of necessity may also be expressed by *need not* + the simple form of a verb: *You needn't shout*. The use of *needn't* as an auxiliary is chiefly British except in certain common expressions such as "You needn't worry."

9-7 ADVISABILITY: *SHOULD*, *OUGHT TO*, *HAD BETTER*

- a) You *should study* harder.
 You *ought to study* harder.
 b) Drivers *should obey* the speed limit.
 Drivers *ought to obey* the speed limit.

Should and *ought to* have the same meaning: they express advisability. The meaning ranges in strength from a suggestion ("This is a good idea") to a statement about responsibility or duty ("This is a very important thing to do"). In (a): "This is a good idea. This is my advice." In (b): "This is an important responsibility."

- c) You *shouldn't leave* your keys in the car.

Negative contraction: *shouldn't*.*

- d) I *ought to* ("otta") *study* tonight, but I think I'll watch TV instead.

Ought to is often pronounced "otta" in informal speaking.

- e) The gas tank is almost empty. We *had better stop* at the next service station.
 f) You *had better take* care of that cut on your hand soon, or it will get infected.

In meaning, *had better* is close to *should/ought to*, but *had better* is usually stronger. Often *had better* implies a warning or a threat of possible bad consequences. In (e): If we don't stop at a service station, there will be a bad result. We will run out of gas.

Notes on the use of *had better*:

- It has a present or future meaning.
- It is followed by the simple form of a verb.
- It is more common in speaking than writing.

- g) You'd *better* take care of it.
 h) You *better* take care of it.

Contraction: 'd *better*, as in (g).
 Sometimes in speaking, *had* is dropped, as in (h).

- i) You'd *better not* be late.

Negative form: *had better* + *not*.

**Ought to* is not commonly used in the negative. If it is used in the negative, the *to* is sometimes dropped: *You oughtn't (to) leave your keys in the car*.

9-8 THE PAST FORM OF SHOULD

a) I had a test this morning. I didn't do well on the test because I didn't study for it last night. I <i>should have studied</i> last night.	Past form: should have + past participle .*
b) You were supposed to be here at 10 P.M., but you didn't come until midnight. We were worried about you. You <i>should have called</i> us. (You did not call.)	In (a): <i>I should have studied</i> means that studying was a good idea, but I didn't do it. I made a mistake.
c) My back hurts. I <i>should not have carried</i> that heavy box up two flights of stairs. (I carried the box, and now I'm sorry.)	Usual pronunciation of should have : "should-əv" or "should-ə."
d) We went to a movie, but it was a waste of time and money. We <i>should not have gone</i> to the movie.	In (c): <i>I should not have carried</i> means that I carried something, but it turned out to be a bad idea. I made a mistake.
	Usual pronunciation of should not have : "shouldn't-əv" or "shouldn't-ə."

*The past form of **ought to** is **ought to have + past participle**. (*I ought to have studied*.) It has the same meaning as the past form of **should**. In the past, **should** is used more commonly than **ought to**. **Had better** is used only rarely in a past form (e.g., *He had better have taken care of it*) and usually only in speaking, not writing.

9-9 EXPECTATIONS: BE SUPPOSED TO

(a) The game <i>is supposed to begin</i> at 10:00. (b) The committee <i>is supposed to vote</i> by secret ballot.	Be supposed to expresses the idea that someone (I, we, they, the teacher, lots of people, my father, etc.) expects something to happen. Be supposed to often expresses expectations about scheduled events, as in (a), or correct procedures, as in (b).
(c) I <i>am supposed to go</i> to the meeting. My boss told me that he wants me to attend. (d) The children <i>are supposed to put away</i> their toys before they go to bed.	Be supposed to also expresses expectations about behavior. In (c) and (d): be supposed to gives the idea that someone else expects (requests or requires) certain behavior.
(e) Jack <i>was supposed to call</i> me last night. I wonder why he didn't.	Be supposed to in the past (<i>was/were supposed to</i>) expresses unfulfilled expectations. In (e): The speaker expected Jack to call, but he didn't.

9-10 MAKING SUGGESTIONS: *LET'S, WHY DON'T, SHALL I/WE*

<p>a) <i>Let's go</i> to a movie. b) <i>Let's not go</i> to a movie. <i>Let's stay</i> home instead.</p>	<p>Let's = let us. <i>Let's</i> is followed by the simple form of a verb. Negative form: <i>let's + not + simple verb</i> The meaning of <i>let's</i>: "I have a suggestion for us."</p>
<p>(c) <i>Why don't we go</i> to a movie? (d) <i>Why don't you come</i> around seven? (e) <i>Why don't I give</i> Mary a call?</p>	<p>Why don't is used primarily in spoken English to make a friendly suggestion. In (c): Why don't we go = <i>let's go</i>. In (d): I suggest that you come around seven. In (e): Should I give Mary a call? Do you agree with my suggestion?</p>
<p>(f) <i>Shall I open</i> the window? Is that okay with you? (g) <i>Shall we leave</i> at two? Is that okay? (h) Let's go, <i>shall we</i>? (i) Let's go, <i>okay</i>?</p>	<p>When shall is used with I or we in a question, the speaker is usually making a suggestion and asking another person if s/he agrees with this suggestion. This use of shall is relatively formal and infrequent. Sometimes "shall we?" is used as a tag question after let's, as in (h). More informally, "okay?" is used as a tag question, as in (i).</p>

9-11 MAKING SUGGESTIONS: *COULD* vs. *SHOULD*

<p>—<i>What should we do tomorrow?</i> (a) Why don't we go on a picnic? (b) We could go on a picnic.</p>	<p>Could can be used to make suggestions. (a) and (b) are similar in meaning: the speaker is suggesting a picnic.</p>
<p>—<i>I'm having trouble in math class.</i> (c) You should talk to your teacher. (d) Maybe you should talk to your teacher.</p> <p>—<i>I'm having trouble in math class.</i> (e) You could talk to your teacher. Or you could ask Ann to help you with your math lessons. Or I could try to help you.</p>	<p>Should gives definite advice. In (c), the speaker is saying: "I believe it is important for you to do this. This is what I recommend." In (d), the use of maybe softens the strength of the advice. Could offers suggestions or possibilities. In (e), the speaker is saying: "I have some possible suggestions for you. It is possible to do this. Or it is possible to do that."*</p>
<p>—<i>I failed my math class.</i> (f) You should have talked to your teacher and gotten some help from her during the term.</p> <p>—<i>I failed my math class.</i> (g) You could have talked to your teacher. Or you could have asked Ann to help you with your math. Or I could have tried to help you.</p>	<p>Should have gives "hindsight advice."** In (f), the speaker is saying: "It was important for you to talk to the teacher, but you didn't do it. You made a mistake." Could have offers "hindsight possibilities."** In (g), the speaker is saying: "You had the chance to do this or that. It was possible for this or that to happen. You missed some good opportunities."</p>

***Might** (but not **may**) can also be used to make suggestions (*You might talk to your teacher*), but the use of **could** is more common.

**"Hindsight" refers to looking at something after it happens.



CHAPTER 10

Modals, Part 2

10-1 DEGREES OF CERTAINTY: PRESENT TIME

<p>—<i>Why isn't John in class?</i></p> <p>100% sure: He is sick.</p> <p>95% sure: He must be sick.</p> <p>less than 50% sure: { He may be sick. He might be sick. He could be sick.</p>	<p>“Degree of certainty” refers to how sure we are—that something is true. If we are sure something is true in the present, we don't need to use a modal. For example, if I say, “John is sick,” I am sure; I am stating a fact that I am sure is true. My degree of certainty is 100%.</p>
<p>—<i>Why isn't John in class?</i></p> <p>(a) He must be sick. (Usually he is in class every day, but when I saw him last night, he wasn't feeling good. So my best guess is that he is sick today. I can't think of another possibility.)</p>	<p>Must expresses a strong degree of certainty about a present situation, but the degree of certainty is still less than 100%.</p> <p>In (a): The speaker is saying, “Probably John is sick. I have evidence to make me believe that he is sick. That is my logical conclusion, but I do not know for certain.”</p>
<p>—<i>Why isn't John in class?</i></p> <p>(b) He may be sick.</p> <p>(c) He might be sick.</p> <p>(d) He could be sick. (I don't really know. He may be at home watching TV. He might be at the library. He could be out of town.)</p>	<p>May, might, and could express a weak degree of certainty.</p> <p>In (b), (c), and (d): The speaker is saying, “Perhaps, maybe,* possibly John is sick. I am only making a guess. I can think of other possibilities.”</p> <p>(b), (c), and (d) have the same meaning.</p>

***Maybe** (one word) is an adverb: *Maybe he is sick.*
May be (two words) is a verb form: *He may be sick.*



Harry is coughing and sneezing, blowing his nose, and running a fever. He **must have** the flu.

10-2 DEGREES OF CERTAINTY: PRESENT TIME NEGATIVE

<p>100% sure: Sam <i>isn't</i> hungry.</p> <p>99% sure: { Sam <i>couldn't be</i> hungry. Sam <i>can't be</i> hungry.</p> <p>95% sure: Sam <i>must not be</i> hungry.</p> <p>less than 50% sure: { Sam <i>may not be</i> hungry. Sam <i>might not be</i> hungry.</p>	
(a) Sam doesn't want anything to eat. He <i>isn't</i> hungry. He told me his stomach is full. I heard him say that he isn't hungry. I believe him.	In (a): The speaker is sure that Sam is not hungry.
(b) Sam <i>couldn't/can't be</i> hungry! That's impossible! I just saw him eat a huge meal. He has already eaten enough to fill two grown men. Did he really say he'd like something to eat? I don't believe it.	In (b): The speaker believes that there is no possibility that Sam is hungry (but the speaker is not 100% sure). When used in the negative to show degree of certainty, <i>couldn't</i> and <i>can't</i> forcefully express the idea that the speaker believes something is impossible.
(c) Sam isn't eating his food. He <i>must not be</i> hungry. That's the only reason I can think of.	In (c): The speaker is expressing a logical conclusion, a "best guess."
(d) I don't know why Sam isn't eating his food. He <i>may not/might not be</i> hungry right now. Or maybe he doesn't feel well. Or perhaps he ate just before he got here. Who knows?	In (d): The speaker uses <i>may not/might not</i> to mention a possibility.

10-3 DEGREES OF CERTAINTY: PAST TIME

<p>PAST TIME: AFFIRMATIVE</p> <p>—<i>Why wasn't Mary in class?</i></p> <p>(a) 100%: She <i>was</i> sick.</p> <p>(b) 95%: She <i>must have been</i> sick.</p> <p>(c) less than 50%: { She <i>may have been</i> sick. She <i>might have been</i> sick. She <i>could have been</i> sick.</p>	<p>In (a): The speaker is sure.</p> <p>In (b): The speaker is making a logical conclusion, e.g., "I saw Mary yesterday and found out that she was sick. I assume that is the reason why she was absent. I can't think of any other good reason."</p> <p>In (c): The speaker is mentioning one possibility.</p>
<p>PAST TIME: NEGATIVE</p> <p>—<i>Why didn't Sam eat?</i></p> <p>(d) 100%: Sam <i>wasn't</i> hungry.</p> <p>(e) 99%: { Sam <i>couldn't have been</i> hungry. Sam <i>can't have been</i> hungry.</p> <p>(f) 95%: Sam <i>must not have been</i> hungry.</p> <p>(g) less than 50%: { Sam <i>may not have been</i> hungry. Sam <i>might not have been</i> hungry.</p>	<p>In (d): The speaker is sure.</p> <p>In (e): The speaker believes that it is impossible for Sam to have been hungry.</p> <p>In (f): The speaker is making a logical conclusion.</p> <p>In (g): The speaker is mentioning one possibility.</p>

10-4 DEGREES OF CERTAINTY: FUTURE TIME

100% sure: Kay *will do* well on the test. → The speaker feels sure.

90% sure: { Kay *should do* well on the test.
Kay *ought to do* well on the test. } → The speaker is almost sure.

less than 50% sure: { She *may do* well on the test.
She *might do* well on the test.
She *could do* well on the test. } → The speaker is guessing.

(a) Kay has been studying hard. She <i>should do</i> / <i>ought to do</i> well on the test tomorrow.	Should / ought to can be used to express expectations about future events. In (a): The speaker is saying, "Kay will probably do well on the test. I expect her to do well. That is what I think will happen."
(b) I wonder why Sue hasn't written us. We <i>should have heard</i> / <i>ought to have heard</i> from her last week.	The past form of should / ought to is used to mean that the speaker expected something that did not occur.

10-5 PROGRESSIVE FORMS OF MODALS

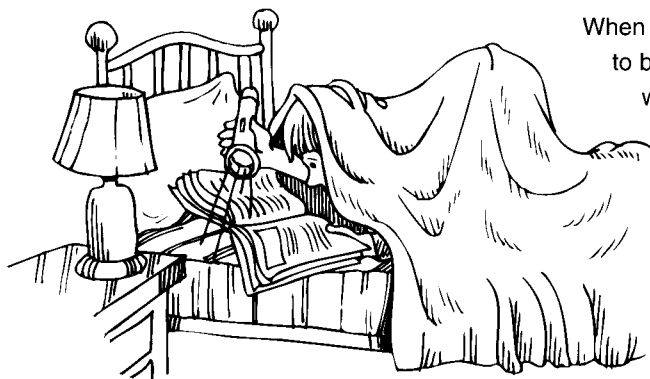
(a) Let's just knock on the door lightly. Tom <i>may be sleeping</i> . (right now) (b) All of the lights in Ann's room are turned off. She <i>must be sleeping</i> . (right now)	Progressive form, present time: <i>modal + be + -ing</i> Meaning: <i>in progress right now</i>
(c) Sue wasn't at home last night when we went to visit her. She <i>might have been studying</i> at the library. (d) Joe wasn't at home last night. He has a lot of exams coming up soon, and he is also working on a term paper. He <i>must have been studying</i> at the library.	Progressive form, past time: <i>modal + have been + -ing</i> Meaning: <i>in progress at a time in the past</i>

10-6 ABILITY: CAN AND COULD

<p>(a) Tom is strong. He can lift that heavy box.</p> <p>(b) I can see Central Park from my apartment.</p>	<p>Can is used to express physical ability, as in (a).</p> <p>Can is frequently used with verbs of the five senses: <i>see, hear, feel, smell, taste</i>, as in (b).</p>
<p>(c) Maria can play the piano. She's been taking lessons for many years.</p>	<p>Can is used to express an acquired skill. In (c), <i>can play</i> = <i>knows how to play</i>.</p>
<p>(d) You can buy a hammer at the hardware store.</p>	<p>Can is used to express possibility. In (d), <i>you can buy</i> = <i>it is possible for one to buy</i>.</p>
<p>COMPARE</p> <p>(e) I'm not quite ready to go, but you can leave if you're in a hurry. I'll meet you later.</p> <p>(f) When you finish the test, you may leave.</p>	<p>Can is used to give permission in informal situations, as in (e). In formal situations, may rather than can is usually used to give permission, as in (f).</p>
<p>(g) Dogs can bark, but they cannot / can't talk.</p>	<p>Negative form: cannot or can't.</p>
<p>(h) Tom could lift the box, but I couldn't.</p>	<p>The past form of can meaning "ability" is could, as in (h).</p> <p>Negative = could not or couldn't.</p>

10-7 USING WOULD TO EXPRESS A REPEATED ACTION IN THE PAST

<p>(a) When I was a child, my father would read me a story at night before bedtime.</p> <p>(b) When I was a child, my father used to read me a story at night before bedtime.</p>	<p>Would can be used to express an <i>action</i> that was repeated regularly in the past. When would is used to express this idea, it has the same meaning as used to (<i>habitual past</i>).</p> <p>(a) and (b) have the same meaning.</p>
<p>(c) I used to live in California. He used to be a Boy Scout. They used to have a Ford.</p>	<p>Used to expresses an habitual situation that existed in the past, as in (c). In this case, would may not be used as an alternative. Would is used only for regularly repeated actions in the past.</p>



When I was a child, I **would take** a flashlight to bed with me so that I could read comic books without my parents' knowing about it.

10-8 EXPRESSING PREFERENCE: WOULD RATHER

<p>(a) I <i>would rather go</i> to a movie tonight <i>than study</i> grammar.</p> <p>(b) I'd <i>rather study</i> history than (<i>study</i>) biology.</p>	<p>Would rather expresses preference.</p> <p>In (a): Notice that the simple form of a verb follows both would rather and than.</p> <p>In (b): If the verb is the same, it usually is not repeated after than.</p>
<p>—How much do you weigh?</p> <p>(c) I'd <i>rather not tell</i> you.</p>	<p>Contraction: I would = I'd</p> <p>Negative form: would rather + not</p>
<p>(d) The movie was okay, but I <i>would rather have gone</i> to the concert last night.</p>	<p>The past form: would rather have + past participle</p> <p>Usual pronunciation: "I'd rather-əv"</p>
<p>(e) I'd <i>rather be lying</i> on a beach in India than (<i>be sitting</i>) in class right now.</p>	<p>Progressive form: would rather + be + -ing</p>

10-9 COMBINING MODALS WITH PHRASAL MODALS

<p>(a) INCORRECT: Janet <i>will can</i> help you tomorrow.</p>	<p>A modal cannot be immediately followed by another modal. In (a): The modal will cannot be followed by can, which is another modal.</p>
<p>(b) CORRECT: Janet <i>will be able to</i> help you tomorrow.</p>	<p>A modal can, however, be followed by the phrasal modals be able to and have to. In (b): The modal will is correctly followed by the phrasal modal be able to.</p>
<p>(c) CORRECT: Tom <i>isn't going to be able to</i> help you tomorrow.</p>	<p>It is also sometimes possible for one phrasal modal to follow another phrasal modal. In (c): be going to is followed by be able to.</p>

10-10 SUMMARY CHART OF MODALS AND SIMILAR EXPRESSIONS

AUXILIARY	USES	PRESENT/FUTURE	PAST
<i>may</i>	(1) polite request (<i>only with I or we</i>)	<i>May I borrow</i> your pen?	
	(2) formal permission	You <i>may leave</i> the room.	
	(3) less than 50% certainty	— <i>Where's John?</i> He <i>may be</i> at the library.	He <i>may have been</i> at the library.
<i>might</i>	(1) less than 50% certainty	— <i>Where's John?</i> He <i>might be</i> at the library.	He <i>might have been</i> at the library.
	(2) polite request (<i>rare</i>)	<i>Might I borrow</i> your pen?	
<i>should</i>	(1) advisability	I <i>should study</i> tonight.	I <i>should have studied</i> last night, but I didn't.
	(2) 90% certainty (<i>expectation</i>)	She <i>should do</i> well on the test. (<i>future only, not present</i>)	She <i>should have done</i> well on the test.
<i>ought to</i>	(1) advisability	I <i>ought to study</i> tonight.	I <i>ought to have studied</i> last night, but I didn't.
	(2) 90% certainty (<i>expectation</i>)	She <i>ought to do</i> well on the test. (<i>future only, not present</i>)	She <i>ought to have done</i> well on the test.
<i>had better</i>	(1) advisability with threat of bad result	You <i>had better be</i> on time, or we will leave without you.	(<i>past form uncommon</i>)
<i>be supposed to</i>	(1) expectation	Class <i>is supposed to begin</i> at 10:00.	
	(2) unfulfilled expectation		Class <i>was supposed to begin</i> at 10:00, but it didn't begin until 10:15.
<i>must</i>	(1) strong necessity	I <i>must go</i> to class today.	(I <i>had to go</i> to class yesterday.)
	(2) prohibition (<i>negative</i>)	You <i>must not</i> open that door.	
	(3) 95% certainty	Mary isn't in class. She <i>must be</i> sick. (<i>present only</i>)	Mary <i>must have been</i> sick yesterday.
<i>have to</i>	(1) necessity	I <i>have to go</i> to class today.	I <i>had to go</i> to class yesterday.
	(2) lack of necessity (<i>negative</i>)	I <i>don't have to go</i> to class today.	I <i>didn't have to go</i> to class yesterday.
<i>have got to</i>	(1) necessity	I <i>have got to go</i> to class today.	(I <i>had to go</i> to class yesterday.)
<i>will</i>	(1) 100% certainty	He <i>will be</i> here at 6:00. (<i>future only</i>)	
	(2) willingness	— <i>The phone's ringing.</i> I'll <i>get</i> it.	
	(3) polite request	<i>Will you please pass</i> the salt?	

AUXILIARY	USES	PRESENT/FUTURE	PAST
<i>be going to</i>	(1) 100% certainty (<i>prediction</i>)	He is going to be here at 6:00. (<i>future only</i>)	
	(2) definite plan (<i>intention</i>)	I'm going to paint my bedroom. (<i>future only</i>)	
	(3) unfulfilled intention		I was going to paint my room, but I didn't have time.
<i>can</i>	(1) ability/possibility	I can run fast.	I could run fast when I was a child, but now I can't.
	(2) informal permission	You can use my car tomorrow.	
	(3) informal polite request	Can I borrow your pen?	
	(4) impossibility (<i>negative only</i>)	That can't be true!	That can't have been true!
<i>could</i>	(1) past ability		I could run fast when I was a child.
	(2) polite request	Could I borrow your pen? Could you help me?	
	(3) suggestion (<i>affirmative only</i>)	— <i>I need help in math.</i> You could talk to your teacher.	You could have talked to your teacher.
	(4) less than 50% certainty	— <i>Where's John?</i> He could be at home.	He could have been at home.
	(5) impossibility (<i>negative only</i>)	That couldn't be true!	That couldn't have been true!
<i>be able to</i>	(1) ability	I am able to help you. I will be able to help you.	I was able to help him.
<i>would</i>	(1) polite request	Would you please pass the salt? Would you mind if I left early?	
	(2) preference	I would rather go to the park than stay home.	I would rather have gone to the park.
	(3) repeated action in the past		When I was a child, I would visit my grandparents every weekend.
	(4) polite for "want" (<i>with like</i>)	I would like an apple, please.	
	(5) unfulfilled wish		I would have liked a cookie, but there were none in the house.
<i>used to</i>	(1) repeated action in the past		I used to visit my grandparents every weekend.
	(2) past situation that no longer exists		I used to live in Spain. Now I live in Korea.
<i>shall</i>	(1) polite question to make a suggestion	Shall I open the window?	
	(2) future with "I" or "we" as subject	I shall arrive at nine. (<i>will = more common</i>)	

NOTE: Use of modals in reported speech is discussed in Chart 12-7, p. 65. Use of modals in conditional sentences is discussed in Chapter 20.



CHAPTER 11

The Passive

11-1 FORMING THE PASSIVE

ACTIVE: (a) $\overbrace{\text{Mary}}^{\text{subject}}$ $\overbrace{\text{helped}}^{\text{verb}}$ $\overbrace{\text{the boy.}}^{\text{object}}$

PASSIVE: (b) $\overbrace{\text{The boy}}^{\text{subject}}$ $\overbrace{\text{was helped}}^{\text{verb}}$ by Mary.

In the passive, *the object* of an active verb becomes *the subject* of the passive verb: **the boy** in (a) becomes the subject of the passive verb in (b).

Notice that the subject of an active verb follows **by** in a passive sentence. The noun that follows **by** is called the “agent.” In (b): **Mary** is the agent.

(a) and (b) have the same meaning.

ACTIVE: (c) An accident **happened**.

PASSIVE: (d) (none)

Only transitive verbs (verbs that can be followed by an object) are used in the passive. It is not possible to use intransitive verbs (such as *happen, sleep, come, seem*) in the passive. (See Appendix Chart A-1, p. A1.)

Form of the passive: **be** + *past participle*

	ACTIVE			PASSIVE		
<i>simple present</i>	Mary	helps	the boy.	The boy	is	helped by Mary.
<i>present progressive</i>	Mary	is helping	the boy.	The boy	is being	helped by Mary.
<i>present perfect*</i>	Mary	has helped	the boy.	The boy	has been	helped by Mary.
<i>simple past</i>	Mary	helped	the boy.	The boy	was	helped by Mary.
<i>past progressive</i>	Mary	was helping	the boy.	The boy	was being	helped by Mary.
<i>past perfect*</i>	Mary	had helped	the boy.	The boy	had been	helped by Mary.
<i>simple future*</i>	Mary	will help	the boy.	The boy	will be	helped by Mary.
<i>be going to</i>	Mary	is going to help	the boy.	The boy	is going to be	helped by Mary.
<i>future perfect*</i>	Mary	will have helped	the boy.	The boy	will have been	helped by Mary.

(e) **Was the boy** *helped* by Mary?

(f) **Is the boy** *being helped* by Mary?

(g) **Has the boy** *been helped* by Mary?

In the question form of passive verbs, an auxiliary verb precedes the subject. (See Appendix Chart B-1, p. A5, for information about question forms.)

*The progressive forms of the *present perfect*, *past perfect*, *future*, and *future perfect* are very rarely used in the passive.

11-2 USING THE PASSIVE

<p>(a) Rice <i>is grown</i> in India. (b) Our house <i>was built</i> in 1980. (c) This olive oil <i>was imported</i> from Crete.</p>	<p>Usually the passive is used without a <i>by</i>-phrase. The passive is most frequently used when it is not known or not important to know exactly who performs an action. In (a): Rice is grown in India by people, by farmers, by someone. It is not known or important to know exactly who grows rice in India. (a), (b), and (c) illustrate the most common use of the passive, i.e., without the <i>by</i>-phrase.</p>
<p>(d) <i>Life on the Mississippi was written</i> by Mark Twain.</p>	<p>The <i>by</i>-phrase is included only if it is important to know who performs an action, as in (d), where <i>by Mark Twain</i> is important information.</p>
<p>(e) My aunt <i>made</i> this rug. (<i>active</i>)</p>	<p>If the speaker knows who performs an action, usually the active is used, as in (e).</p>
<p>(f) This rug <i>was made</i> by my aunt. That rug <i>was made</i> by my mother.</p>	<p>Sometimes, even when the speaker knows who performs an action, s/he chooses to use the passive with the <i>by</i>-phrase because s/he wants to focus attention on the subject of a sentence. In (f): The focus of attention is on two rugs.</p>

11-3 INDIRECT OBJECTS AS PASSIVE SUBJECTS

<p>(a) Someone gave ^{I.O.} <i>Mrs. Lee</i> ^{D.O.} an award. (b) <i>Mrs. Lee</i> was given an award.</p>	<p>I.O. = <i>indirect object</i>; D.O. = <i>direct object</i> Either an indirect object or a direct object may become the subject of a passive sentence. (a), (b), (c), and (d) have the same meaning.</p>
<p>(c) Someone gave ^{D.O.} an award ^{I.O.} to Mrs. Lee. (d) <i>An award</i> was given to Mrs. Lee.</p>	<p>Notice in (d): When the direct object becomes the subject, <i>to</i> is usually kept in front of the indirect object.*</p>

*The omission of *to* is more common in British English than American English: *An award was given Mrs. Lee.*

11-4 THE PASSIVE FORM OF MODALS AND PHRASAL MODALS

THE PASSIVE FORM:		modal*	+ be	+ past participle	
(a)	Tom	<i>will</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>invited</i>	to the picnic.
(b)	The window	<i>can't</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>opened.</i>	
(c)	Children	<i>should</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>taught</i>	to respect their elders.
(d)		<i>May I</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>excused</i>	from class?
(e)	This book	<i>had better</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>returned</i>	to the library before Friday.
(f)	This letter	<i>ought to</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>sent</i>	before June 1st.
(g)	Mary	<i>has to</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>told</i>	about our change in plans.
(h)	Fred	<i>is supposed to</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>told</i>	about the meeting.
THE PAST-PASSIVE FORM:		modal	+ have been	+ past participle	
(i)	The letter	<i>should</i>	<i>have been</i>	<i>sent</i>	last week.
(j)	This house	<i>must</i>	<i>have been</i>	<i>built</i>	over 200 years ago.
(k)	Jack	<i>ought to</i>	<i>have been</i>	<i>invited</i>	to the party.

*See Chapters 9 and 10 for a discussion of the form, meaning, and use of modals and phrasal modals.

11-5 STATIVE PASSIVE

(a) The door <i>is old</i> . (b) The door <i>is green</i> . (c) The door <i>is locked</i> .	In (a) and (b): <i>old</i> and <i>green</i> are adjectives. They describe the door. In (c): <i>locked</i> is a past participle. It is used as an adjective. It describes the door.
(d) I locked the door five minutes ago. (e) The door was locked by me five minutes ago. (f) Now the door <i>is locked</i> .	When the passive form is used to describe an existing situation or state, as in (c), (f), and (i), it is called the "stative passive." In the stative passive: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • no action is taking place; the action happened earlier. • there is no <i>by</i>-phrase. • the past participle functions as an adjective.
(g) Ann broke the window yesterday. (h) The window was broken by Ann. (i) Now the window <i>is broken</i> .	
(j) I <i>am interested in</i> Chinese art. (k) He <i>is satisfied with</i> his job. (l) Ann <i>is married to</i> Alex.	Prepositions other than <i>by</i> can follow stative passive verbs. (See Chart 11-6, p. 59.)
(m) I don't know where I am. I <i>am lost</i> . (n) I can't find my purse. It <i>is gone</i> . (o) I <i>am finished with</i> my work. (p) I <i>am done with</i> my work.	(m) through (p) are examples of idiomatic usage of the passive form in common, everyday English. These sentences have no equivalent active sentences.

11-6 COMMON STATIVE PASSIVE VERBS + PREPOSITIONS

- (a) I'm interested **in** Greek culture.
(b) He's worried **about** losing his job.

Many stative passive verbs are followed by prepositions other than **by**.

COMMON STATIVE PASSIVE VERBS + PREPOSITIONS

be accustomed to
be acquainted with
be addicted to
be annoyed with, by
be associated with

be bored with, by

be cluttered with
be composed of
be concerned about
be connected to
be coordinated with
be covered with
be crowded with

be dedicated to
be devoted to
be disappointed in, with
be discriminated against
be divorced from
be done with
be dressed in

be engaged to
be equipped with
be excited about
be exhausted from
be exposed to

be filled with
be finished with
be frightened of, by

be gone from

be interested in
be involved in

be known for

be limited to
be located in

be made of
be married to

be opposed to

be pleased with
be prepared for
be protected from
be provided with

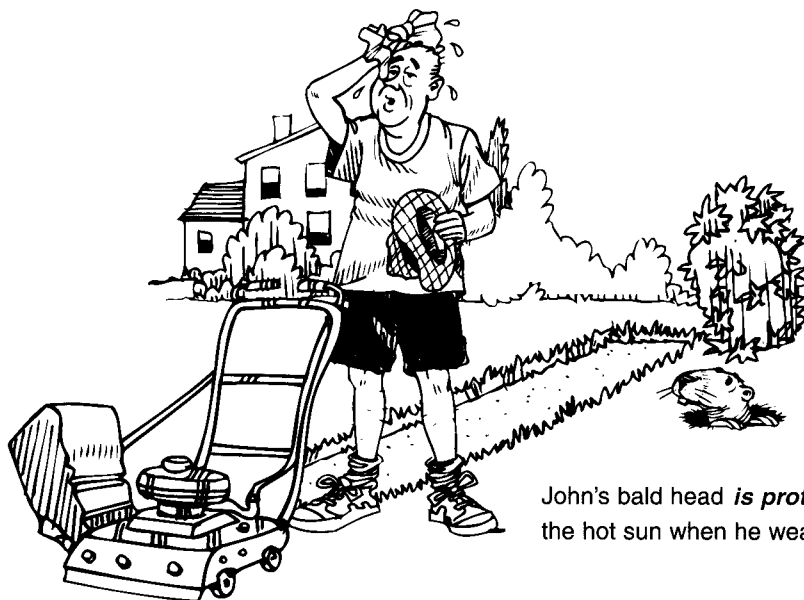
be qualified for

be related to
be remembered for

be satisfied with
be scared of, by

be terrified of, by
be tired of, from

be worried about



John's bald head *is protected from* the hot sun when he wears his hat.

11-7 THE PASSIVE WITH *GET*

GET + ADJECTIVE

- (a) I'm *getting hungry*. Let's eat soon.
 (b) You shouldn't eat so much. You'll *get fat*.
 (c) I stopped working because I *got sleepy*.

Get may be followed by certain adjectives.* *Get* gives the idea of change — the idea of becoming, beginning to be, growing to be.
 In (a): *I'm getting hungry* = I wasn't hungry before, but now I'm beginning to be hungry.

GET + PAST PARTICIPLE

- (d) I stopped working because I *got tired*.
 (e) They *are getting married* next month.
 (f) I *got worried* because he was two hours late.

Get may also be followed by a past participle. The past participle functions as an adjective; it describes the subject. The passive with *get* is common in spoken English, but is often not appropriate in formal writing.

*Some of the common adjectives that follow *get* are:

<i>angry</i>	<i>chilly</i>	<i>fat</i>	<i>hungry</i>	<i>old</i>	<i>thirsty</i>
<i>anxious</i>	<i>cold</i>	<i>full</i>	<i>late</i>	<i>rich</i>	<i>warm</i>
<i>bald</i>	<i>dark</i>	<i>good</i>	<i>light</i>	<i>sick</i>	<i>well</i>
<i>better</i>	<i>dizzy</i>	<i>heavy</i>	<i>mad</i>	<i>sleepy</i>	<i>wet</i>
<i>big</i>	<i>empty</i>	<i>hot</i>	<i>nervous</i>	<i>tall</i>	<i>worse</i>
<i>busy</i>					

11-8 PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVES

- The problem confuses the students.
 (a) It is a *confusing problem*.
 —The students are confused by the problem.
 (b) They are *confused students*.

The *present participle* serves as an adjective with an active meaning. The noun it modifies performs an action. In (a): The noun *problem* does something; it *confuses*. Thus, it is described as a "confusing problem."
 The *past participle* serves as an adjective with a passive meaning. In (b): The students are confused by something. Thus, they are described as "confused students."

- The story amuses the children.
 (c) It is an *amusing story*.
 —The children are amused by the story.
 (d) They are *amused children*.

In (c): The noun *story* performs the action.
 In (d): The noun *children* receives the action.



CHAPTER 12

Noun Clauses

12-1 INTRODUCTION

<p>independent clause (a) Sue lives in Tokyo.</p> <p>independent clause (b) Where does Sue live?</p>	<p>A clause is a group of words containing a subject and a verb.* An <i>independent clause</i> (or <i>main clause</i>) is a complete sentence. It contains the main subject and verb of a sentence. Examples (a) and (b) are complete sentences. (a) is a statement, and (b) is a question.</p>
<p>dependent clause (c) where Sue lives</p>	<p>A <i>dependent clause</i> (or <i>subordinate clause</i>) is not a complete sentence. It must be connected to an independent clause. Example (c) is a dependent clause.</p>
<p>indep. cl. dependent cl. (d) I know <i>where Sue lives</i>.</p>	<p>Example (d) is a complete sentence. It has an independent clause with the main subject (I) and verb (know) of the sentence. Where Sue lives is a dependent clause connected to an independent clause. Where Sue lives is called a <i>noun clause</i>.</p>
<p>noun phrase (e) <i>His story</i> was interesting.</p> <p>noun clause (f) <i>What he said</i> was interesting.</p>	<p>A <i>noun phrase</i> is used as a subject or an object. A <i>noun clause</i> is used as a subject or an object. In other words, a noun clause is used in the same ways as a noun phrase. In (e): His story is a noun phrase. It is used as the subject of the sentence. In (f): What he said is a noun clause. It is used as the subject of the sentence. The noun clause has its own subject (he) and verb (said).</p>
<p>noun phrase (g) I heard <i>his story</i>.</p> <p>noun clause (h) I heard <i>what he said</i>.</p>	<p>In (g): his story is a noun phrase. It is used as the object of the verb heard. In (h): what he said is a noun clause. It is used as the object of the verb heard.</p>
<p>noun phrase (i) I listened to <i>his story</i>.</p> <p>noun clause (j) I listened to <i>what he said</i>.</p>	<p>In (i): his story is a noun phrase. It is used as the object of the preposition to. In (j): what he said is a noun clause. It is used as the object of the preposition to.</p>

*A *phrase* is a group of words that does NOT contain a subject and a verb.

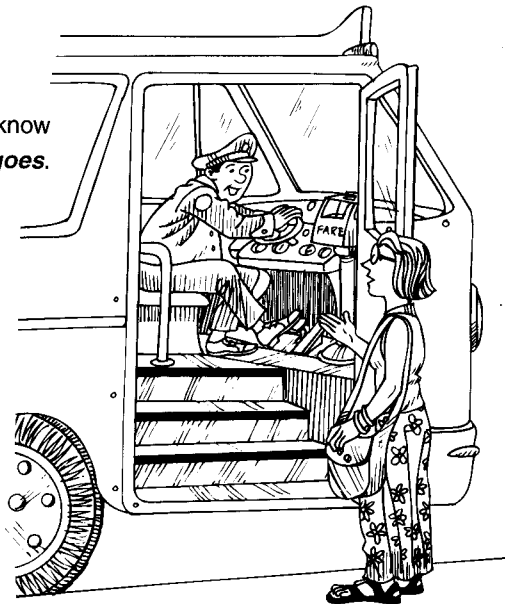
**See Appendix Unit B for more information about question words and question forms.

12-2 NOUN CLAUSES BEGINNING WITH A QUESTION WORD

QUESTION	NOUN CLAUSE	
Where does she live? What did he say? When do they arrive?	(a) I don't know <i>where she lives</i> . (b) I couldn't hear <i>what he said</i> . (c) Do you know <i>when they arrive</i> ?	In (a): <i>where she lives</i> is the object of the verb know . In a noun clause, the subject precedes the verb. Do not use question word order in a noun clause. Notice: does , did , and do are used in questions, but not in noun clauses. See Appendix Unit B for more information about question words and question forms.
<u>S</u> <u>V</u> Who lives there? What happened? Who is at the door?	(d) I don't know <u>S</u> <u>V</u> <i>who lives there</i> . (e) Please tell me <i>what happened</i> . (f) I wonder <i>who is at the door</i> .	In (d): The word order is the same in both the question and the noun clause because who is the subject in both.
<u>V</u> <u>S</u> Who is she? Who are those men? Whose house is that?	(g) I don't know <u>S</u> <u>V</u> <i>who she is</i> . (h) I don't know <i>who those men are</i> . (i) I wonder <i>whose house that is</i> .	In (g): she is the subject of the question, so it is placed in front of the verb be in the noun clause.*
What did she say? What should they do?	(j) <i>What she said</i> surprised me. (k) <i>What they should do</i> is obvious.	In (j): <i>What she said</i> is the subject of the sentence. Notice in (k): A noun clause subject takes a singular verb (e.g., is).

*COMPARE: *Who is at the door?* = **who** is the subject of the question
Who are those men? = **those men** is the subject of the question, so **be** is plural.

Sally wants to know
where this bus goes.



12-3 NOUN CLAUSES BEGINNING WITH *WHETHER* OR *IF*

YES/NO QUESTION	NOUN CLAUSE	
Will she come?	(a) I don't know <i>whether she will come</i> . I don't know <i>if she will come</i> .	When a yes/no question is changed to a noun clause, <i>whether</i> or <i>if</i> is used to introduce the clause. (Note: <i>Whether</i> is more acceptable in formal English, but <i>if</i> is quite commonly used, especially in speaking.)
Does he need help?	(b) I wonder <i>whether he needs help</i> . I wonder <i>if he needs help</i> .	
	(c) I wonder <i>whether or not</i> she will come. (d) I wonder <i>whether</i> she will come <i>or not</i> . (e) I wonder <i>if</i> she will come <i>or not</i> .	In (c), (d), and (e): Notice the patterns when <i>or not</i> is used.
	(f) <i>Whether she comes or not</i> is unimportant to me.	In (f): Notice that the noun clause is in the subject position.

12-4 QUESTION WORDS FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVES

(a) I don't know <i>what I should do</i> . (b) I don't know <i>what to do</i> . (c) Pam can't decide <i>whether she should go or stay home</i> . (d) Pam can't decide <i>whether to go or (to) stay home</i> . (e) Please tell me <i>how I can get to the bus station</i> . (f) Please tell me <i>how to get to the bus station</i> . (g) Jim told us <i>where we could find it</i> . (h) Jim told us <i>where to find it</i> .	Question words (<i>when, where, how, who, whom, whose, what, which</i>) and <i>whether</i> may be followed by an infinitive. Each pair of sentences in the examples has the same meaning. Notice that the meaning expressed by the infinitive is either <i>should</i> or <i>can/could</i> .
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12-5 NOUN CLAUSES BEGINNING WITH *THAT*

STATEMENT	NOUN CLAUSE	
He is a good actor.	(a) I think <i>that he is a good actor</i> . (b) I think <i>he is a good actor</i> .	In (a): <i>that he is a good actor</i> is a noun clause. It is used as the object of the verb <i>think</i> . The word <i>that</i> , when it introduces a noun clause, has no meaning in itself. It simply marks the beginning of the clause. Frequently it is omitted, as in (b), especially in speaking. (If used in speaking, it is unstressed.)
The world is round.	(c) We know (<i>that</i>) <i>the world is round</i> .	
She doesn't understand spoken English.	(d) <i>That she doesn't understand spoken English</i> is obvious. (e) <i>It is obvious (that) she doesn't understand spoken English</i> .	In (d): The noun clause (<i>That she doesn't understand spoken English</i>) is the subject of the sentence. The word <i>that</i> is not omitted when it introduces a noun clause used as the subject of a sentence, as in (d) and (f). More commonly, the word <i>it</i> functions as the subject and the noun clause is placed at the end of the sentence, as in (e) and (g).
The world is round.	(f) <i>That the world is round</i> is a fact. (g) <i>It is a fact that the world is round</i> .	

12-6 QUOTED SPEECH

Quoted speech refers to reproducing words exactly as they were originally spoken.*
Quotation marks (“ . . .”) are used.**

<p>QUOTING ONE SENTENCE</p> <p>(a) She said, “My brother is a student.”</p> <p>(b) “My brother is a student,” she said.</p> <p>(c) “My brother,” she said, “is a student.”</p>	<p>In (a): Use a comma after <i>she said</i>. Capitalize the first word of the quoted sentence. Put the final quotation marks outside the period at the end of the sentence.</p> <p>In (b): Use a comma, not a period, at the end of the quoted sentence when it precedes <i>she said</i>.</p> <p>In (c): If the quoted sentence is divided by <i>she said</i>, use a comma after the first part of the quote. Do not capitalize the first word after <i>she said</i>.</p>
<p>QUOTING MORE THAN ONE SENTENCE</p> <p>(d) “My brother is a student. He is attending a university,” she said.</p> <p>(e) “My brother is a student,” she said. “He is attending a university.”</p>	<p>In (d): Quotation marks are placed at the beginning and end of the complete quote. Notice: There are no quotation marks after <i>student</i>.</p> <p>In (e): If <i>she said</i> comes between two quoted sentences, the second sentence begins with quotation marks and a capital letter.</p>
<p>QUOTING A QUESTION OR AN EXCLAMATION</p> <p>(f) She asked, “When will you be here?”</p> <p>(g) “When will you be here?” she asked.</p> <p>(h) She said, “Watch out!”</p>	<p>In (f): The question mark is inside the quotation marks.</p> <p>In (g): If a question mark is used, no comma is used before <i>she asked</i>.</p> <p>In (h): The exclamation point is inside the quotation marks.</p>
<p>(i) “My brother is a student,” <i>said Anna</i>. “My brother,” <i>said Anna</i>, “is a student.”</p>	<p>In (i): The noun subject (<i>Anna</i>) follows <i>said</i>. A noun subject often follows the verb when the subject and verb come in the middle or at the end of a quoted sentence. (Note: A pronoun subject almost always precedes the verb. Very rare: “<i>My brother’s a student</i>,” <i>said she</i>.)</p>
<p>(j) “Let’s leave,” <i>whispered Dave</i>.</p> <p>(k) “Please help me,” <i>begged</i> the unfortunate man.</p> <p>(l) “Well,” Jack <i>began</i>, “it’s a long story.”</p>	<p><i>Say</i> and <i>ask</i> are the most commonly used quote verbs. Some others: <i>add, agree, announce, answer, beg, begin, comment, complain, confess, continue, explain, inquire, promise, remark, reply, respond, shout, suggest, whisper</i>.</p>

**Quoted speech* is also called “direct speech.” *Reported speech* (discussed in Chart 12-7, p. 65) is also called “indirect speech.”

**In British English, quotation marks are called “inverted commas” and can consist of either double marks (“) or a single mark (’): She said, ‘My brother is a student.’



“What’s wrong, Officer?” I asked.
“Was I speeding?”

12-7 REPORTED SPEECH: VERB FORMS IN NOUN CLAUSES

QUOTED SPEECH	REPORTED SPEECH	
(a) "I <i>watch</i> TV every day." (b) "I <i>am watching</i> TV." (c) "I <i>have watched</i> TV." (d) "I <i>watched</i> TV." (e) "I <i>had watched</i> TV." (f) "I <i>will watch</i> TV." (g) "I <i>am going to watch</i> TV." (h) "I <i>can watch</i> TV." (i) "I <i>may watch</i> TV." (j) "I <i>must watch</i> TV." (k) "I <i>have to watch</i> TV."	→ She said she <i>watched</i> TV every day. → She said she <i>was watching</i> TV. → She said she <i>had watched</i> TV. → She said she <i>had watched</i> TV. → She said she <i>had watched</i> TV. → She said she <i>would watch</i> TV. → She said she <i>was going to watch</i> TV. → She said she <i>could watch</i> TV. → She said she <i>might watch</i> TV. → She said she <i>had to watch</i> TV. → She said she <i>had to watch</i> TV.	<p><i>Reported speech</i> refers to using a noun clause to report what someone has said. No quotation marks are used.</p> <p>If the reporting verb (the main verb of the sentence, e.g., <i>said</i>) is simple past, the verb in the noun clause will usually also be in a past form, as in the examples.</p>
(l) "I <i>should watch</i> TV." "I <i>ought to watch</i> TV." "I <i>might watch</i> TV."	→ She said she <i>should watch</i> TV. → She said she <i>ought to watch</i> TV. → She said she <i>might watch</i> TV.	In (l): should , ought to , and might do not change to a past form.
(m) Immediate reporting: —What did the teacher just say? I didn't hear him. —He said he <i>wants</i> us to read Chapter Six. (n) Later reporting: —I didn't go to class yesterday. Did Mr. Jones make any assignments? —Yes. He said he <i>wanted</i> us to read Chapter Six.		Changing verbs to past forms in reported speech is common in both speaking and writing. However, sometimes in spoken English, no change is made in the noun clause verb, especially if the speaker is reporting something immediately or soon after it was said.
(o) "The world <i>is</i> round."	→ She said the world <i>is</i> round.	Also, sometimes the present tense is retained even in formal English when the reported sentence deals with a general truth, as in (o).
(p) "I <i>watch</i> TV every day." (q) "I <i>watch</i> TV every day." (r) "I <i>watch</i> TV every day."	→ She <i>says</i> she <i>watches</i> TV every day. → She <i>has said</i> that she <i>watches</i> TV every day. → She <i>will say</i> that she <i>watches</i> TV every day.	When the reporting verb is simple present, present perfect, or future, the noun clause verb is not changed.
(s) "Watch TV."	→ She <i>told me to watch</i> TV.*	In reported speech, an imperative sentence is changed to an infinitive. Tell is used instead of say as the reporting verb. See Chart 14-7, p. 77, for other verbs followed by an infinitive that are used to report speech.

*NOTE: **Tell** is immediately followed by a (pro)noun object, but **say** is not: *He told me he would be late. He said he would be late.* Also possible: *He said to me he would be late.*

12-8 USING THE SUBJUNCTIVE IN NOUN CLAUSES

- (a) The teacher *demands* that we *be* on time.
 (b) I *insisted* that he *pay* me the money.
 (c) I *recommended* that she *not go* to the concert.
 (d) *It is important* that they *be told* the truth.

A subjunctive verb uses the simple form of a verb. It does not have present, past, or future forms; it is neither singular nor plural. Sentences with subjunctive verbs generally *stress importance or urgency*. A subjunctive verb is used in *that*-clauses that follow the verbs and expressions listed below. In (a): *be* is a subjunctive verb; its subject is *we*. In (b): *pay* (not *pays*, not *paid*) is a subjunctive verb; it is in its simple form, even though its subject (*he*) is singular.

Negative: *not* + *simple form*, as in (c).

Passive: *simple form of be* + *past participle*, as in (d).

- (e) I *suggested* that she *see* a doctor.
 (f) I *suggested* that she *should see* a doctor.

Should is also possible after *suggest* and *recommend*.*

COMMON VERBS AND EXPRESSIONS FOLLOWED BY THE SUBJUNCTIVE IN A NOUN CLAUSE

<i>advise (that)</i>	<i>propose (that)</i>	<i>it is essential (that)</i>	<i>it is critical (that)</i>
<i>ask (that)</i>	<i>recommend (that)</i>	<i>it is imperative (that)</i>	<i>it is necessary (that)</i>
<i>demand (that)</i>	<i>request (that)</i>	<i>it is important (that)</i>	<i>it is vital (that)</i>
<i>insist (that)</i>	<i>suggest (that)</i>		

*The subjunctive is more common in American English than British English. In British English, *should* + *simple form* is more usual than the subjunctive: *The teacher insists that we should be on time.*

12-9 USING -EVER WORDS

The following *-ever* words give the idea of "any." Each pair of sentences in the examples has the same meaning.

<i>whoever</i>	(a) <i>Whoever</i> wants to come is welcome. <i>Anyone who</i> wants to come is welcome.
<i>who(m)ever</i>	(b) He makes friends easily with <i>who(m)ever</i> he meets.* He makes friends easily with <i>anyone who(m)</i> he meets.
<i>whatever</i>	(c) He always says <i>whatever</i> comes into his mind. He always says <i>anything that</i> comes into his mind.
<i>whichever</i>	(d) There are four good programs on TV at eight o'clock. We can watch <i>whichever program (whichever one)</i> you prefer. We can watch <i>any of the four programs that</i> you prefer.
<i>whenever</i>	(e) You may leave <i>whenever</i> you wish. You may leave <i>at any time that</i> you wish.
<i>wherever</i>	(f) She can go <i>wherever</i> she wants to go. She can go <i>anyplace that</i> she wants to go.
<i>however</i>	(g) The students may dress <i>however</i> they please. The students may dress <i>in any way that</i> they please.

*In (b): *whomever* is the object of the verb *meets*. In American English, *whomever* is rare and very formal. In British English, *whoever* (not *whomever*) is used as the object form: *He makes friends easily with whoever he meets.*



CHAPTER 13

Adjective Clauses

13-1 INTRODUCTION

CLAUSE:	<i>A clause</i> is a group of words containing a subject and a verb.
INDEPENDENT CLAUSE:	<i>An independent clause</i> is a complete sentence. It contains the main subject and verb of a sentence. (It is also called “a main clause.”)
DEPENDENT CLAUSE:	<i>A dependent clause</i> is not a complete sentence. It must be connected to an independent clause.
ADJECTIVE CLAUSE:	<i>An adjective clause</i> is a dependent clause that modifies a noun. It describes, identifies, or gives further information about a noun. (An adjective clause is also called “a relative clause.”)
ADJECTIVE CLAUSE PRONOUNS:	An adjective clause uses pronouns to connect the dependent clause to the independent clause. The <i>adjective clause pronouns</i> are <i>who, whom, which, that, and whose</i> . (Adjective clause pronouns are also called “relative pronouns.”)

13-2 ADJECTIVE CLAUSE PRONOUNS USED AS THE SUBJECT

<p>I thanked the woman. <i>She</i> helped me. ↓</p>	<p>In (a): <i>I thanked the woman</i> = an independent clause; <i>who helped me</i> = an adjective clause. The adjective clause modifies the noun <i>woman</i>.</p>
<p>(a) I thanked the woman <i>who</i> helped me. (b) I thanked the woman <i>that</i> helped me.</p>	<p>In (a): <i>who</i> is the subject of the adjective clause. In (b): <i>that</i> is the subject of the adjective clause. Note: (a) and (b) have the same meaning. (c) and (d) have the same meaning.</p>
<p>The book is mine. <i>It</i> is on the table. ↓</p>	<p><i>who</i> = used for people <i>which</i> = used for things <i>that</i> = used for both people and things</p>
<p>(c) The book <i>which</i> is on the table is mine. (d) The book <i>that</i> is on the table is mine.</p>	
<p>(e) <i>INCORRECT</i>: The book is mine that is on the table.</p>	<p>An adjective clause closely follows the noun it modifies.</p>

13-3 ADJECTIVE CLAUSE PRONOUNS USED AS THE OBJECT OF A VERB

The man was Mr. Jones.
I saw **him**.

- (a) The man **who(m)** I saw was Mr. Jones.
(b) The man **that** I saw was Mr. Jones.
(c) The man **Ø** I saw was Mr. Jones.

The movie wasn't very good.
We saw **it** last night.

- (d) The movie **which** we saw last night wasn't very good.
(e) The movie **that** we saw last night wasn't very good.
(f) The movie **Ø** we saw last night wasn't very good.

- (g) **INCORRECT:** The man who(m) I saw **him** was Mr. Jones.
The man that I saw **him** was Mr. Jones.
The man I saw **him** was Mr. Jones.

Notice in the examples: The adjective clause pronouns are placed at the beginning of the clause.

In (a): **who** is usually used instead of **whom**, especially in speaking. **Whom** is generally used only in very formal English.

In (c) and (f): An object pronoun is often omitted from an adjective clause. (A subject pronoun, however, may not be omitted.)

who(m) = used for people
which = used for things
that = used for both people and things

In (g): The pronoun **him** must be removed. It is unnecessary because **who(m)**, **that**, or **Ø** functions as the object of the verb **saw**.

13-4 ADJECTIVE CLAUSE PRONOUNS USED AS THE OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION

She is the woman.
I told you **about her**.

- (a) She is the woman **about whom** I told you.
(b) She is the woman **who(m)** I told you **about**.
(c) She is the woman **that** I told you **about**.
(d) She is the woman **Ø** I told you **about**.

The music was good.
We listened **to it** last night.

- (e) The music **to which** we listened last night was good.
(f) The music **which** we listened **to** last night was good.
(g) The music **that** we listened **to** last night was good.
(h) The music **Ø** we listened **to** last night was good.

In very formal English, the preposition comes at the beginning of the adjective clause, as in (a) and (e). Usually, however, in everyday usage, the preposition comes after the subject and verb of the adjective clause, as in the other examples.

Note: If the preposition comes at the beginning of the adjective clause, only **whom** or **which** may be used. A preposition is never immediately followed by **that** or **who**.*

***INCORRECT:** She is the woman **about who** I told you.

INCORRECT: The music **to that** we listened last night was good.

13-5 USUAL PATTERNS OF ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

<p>(a) USUAL: I like the people who live next to me. LESS USUAL: I like the people that live next to me.</p>	<p>In everyday informal usage, often one adjective clause pattern is used more commonly than another.* In (a): As a subject pronoun, who is more common than that.</p>
<p>(b) USUAL: I like books that have good plots. LESS USUAL: I like books which have good plots.</p>	<p>In (b): As a subject pronoun, that is more common than which.</p>
<p>(c) USUAL: I liked the people Ø I met last night. (d) USUAL: I liked the book Ø I read last week.</p>	<p>In (c) and (d): Object pronouns are commonly omitted, especially in speaking.</p>

*See Chart 13-10, p. 71, for patterns of pronoun usage when an adjective clause requires commas.

13-6 USING WHOSE

<p>I know the man. His bicycle was stolen. ↓ (a) I know the man whose bicycle was stolen.</p> <p>The student writes well. I read her composition. ↓ (b) The student whose composition I read writes well.</p>	<p>Whose is used to show possession. It carries the same meaning as other possessive pronouns used as adjectives: <i>his, her, its, and their</i>. Like <i>his, her, its, and their</i>, whose is connected to a noun: <i>his bicycle</i> → whose bicycle <i>her composition</i> → whose composition Both whose and the noun it is connected to are placed at the beginning of the adjective clause. Whose cannot be omitted.</p>
<p>Mr. Catt has a painting. Its value is inestimable. ↓ (c) Mr. Catt has a painting whose value is inestimable.</p>	<p>Whose usually modifies people, but it may also be used to modify things, as in (c).</p>

13-7 USING WHERE IN ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

<p>The building is very old. He lives there (in that building).</p> <p>(a) The building where he lives is very old. (b) The building in which he lives is very old. The building which he lives in is very old. The building that he lives in is very old. The building Ø he lives in is very old.</p>	<p>Where is used in an adjective clause to modify a place (<i>city, country, room, house, etc.</i>). If where is used, a preposition is NOT included in the adjective clause, as in (a). If where is not used, the preposition must be included, as in (b).</p>
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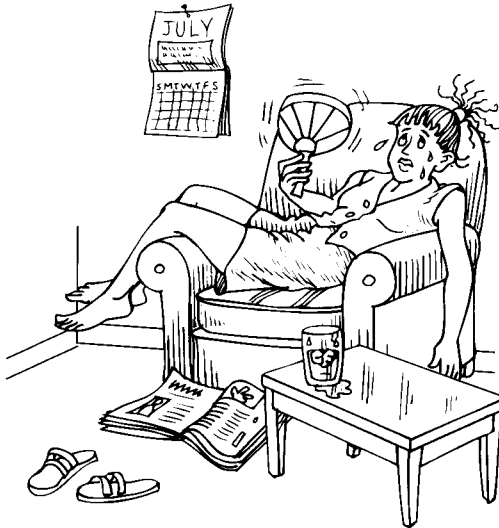
13-8 USING *WHEN* IN ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

I'll never forget the day.
I met you **then** (*on that day*).

- (a) I'll never forget the day **when** I met you.
 (b) I'll never forget the day **on which** I met you.
 (c) I'll never forget the day **that** I met you.
 (d) I'll never forget the day **Ø** I met you.

When is used in an adjective clause to modify a noun of time (*year, day, time, century, etc.*).

The use of a preposition in an adjective clause that modifies a noun of time is somewhat different from that in other adjective clauses: a preposition is used preceding **which**, as in (b). Otherwise, the preposition is omitted.



July is the month **when** the weather is the hottest.

13-9 USING ADJECTIVE CLAUSES TO MODIFY PRONOUNS

- (a) There is **someone** (*whom*) I want you to meet.
 (b) **Everything** he said was pure nonsense.
 (c) **Anybody** *who wants to come* is welcome.

Adjective clauses can modify indefinite pronouns (e.g., *someone, everybody*). Object pronouns (e.g., *who(m), that, which*) are usually omitted in the adjective clause.

- (d) Paula was **the only one** I knew at the party.
 (e) Scholarships are available for **those** *who need financial assistance*.

Adjective clauses can modify **the one(s)** and **those**.*

- (f) INCORRECT: *I who am a student at this school* come from a country in Asia.
 (g) It is **I** *who am responsible*.
 (h) **He** *who laughs last* laughs best.

Adjective clauses are almost never used to modify personal pronouns. Native English speakers would not write the sentence in (f). (g) is possible, but very formal and uncommon. (h) is a well-known saying in which **he** is used as an indefinite pronoun (meaning "anyone," "any person").

*An adjective clause with **which** can also be used to modify the demonstrative pronoun **that**. For example:
 We sometimes fear **that which** we do not understand.

The bread my mother makes is much better than **that which** you can buy at a store.

13-10 PUNCTUATING ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

General guidelines for the punctuation of adjective clauses:

- (1) **DO NOT USE COMMAS IF** the adjective clause is necessary to identify the noun it modifies.*
- (2) **USE COMMAS IF** the adjective clause simply gives additional information and is not necessary to identify the noun it modifies.**

<p>(a) <i>The professor who teaches Chemistry 101</i> is an excellent lecturer.</p> <p>(b) <i>Professor Wilson, who teaches Chemistry 101,</i> is an excellent lecturer.</p>	<p>In (a): No commas are used. The adjective clause is necessary to identify which professor is meant.</p> <p>In (b): Commas are used. The adjective clause is not necessary to identify Professor Wilson. We already know who he is: he has a name. The adjective clause simply gives additional information.</p>
<p>(c) <i>Hawaii, which consists of eight principal islands,</i> is a favorite vacation spot.</p> <p>(d) <i>Mrs. Smith, who is a retired teacher,</i> does volunteer work at the hospital.</p>	<p>Guideline: Use commas, as in (b), (c), and (d), if an adjective clause modifies a proper noun. (A proper noun begins with a capital letter.)</p> <p>Note: A comma reflects a pause in speech.</p>
<p>(e) <i>The man</i> $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{who(m)} \\ \text{that} \\ \text{\textcircled{O}} \end{array} \right\}$ <i>I met</i> teaches chemistry.</p> <p>(f) <i>Mr. Lee, whom I met yesterday,</i> teaches chemistry.</p>	<p>In (e): If no commas are used, any possible pronoun may be used in the adjective clause. Object pronouns may be omitted.</p> <p>In (f): When commas are necessary, the pronoun that may not be used (only who, whom, which, whose, where, and when may be used), and object pronouns cannot be omitted.</p>
<p>COMPARE THE MEANING</p> <p>(g) We took some children on a picnic. <i>The children, who wanted to play soccer,</i> ran to an open field as soon as we arrived at the park.</p> <p>(h) We took some children on a picnic. <i>The children who wanted to play soccer</i> ran to an open field as soon as we arrived at the park. The others played a different game.</p>	<p>In (g): The use of commas means that <i>all</i> of the children wanted to play soccer and <i>all</i> of the children ran to an open field. The adjective clause is used only to give additional information about the children.</p> <p>In (h): The lack of commas means that <i>only some</i> of the children wanted to play soccer. The adjective clause is used to identify which children ran to the open field.</p>

*Adjective clauses that do not require commas are called “essential” or “restrictive” or “identifying.”

**Adjective clauses that require commas are called “nonessential” or “nonrestrictive” or “nonidentifying.”

NOTE: Nonessential adjective clauses are more common in writing than in speaking.

13-11 USING EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY IN ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

<p>In my class there are 20 students. Most of them are from the Far East.</p> <p>(a) In my class there are 20 students, <i>most of whom</i> are from Asia.</p>	<p>An adjective clause may contain an expression of quantity with of: <i>some of, many of, most of, none of, two of, half of, both of, neither of, each of, all of, several of, a few of, little of, a number of, etc.</i></p>
<p>He gave several reasons. Only a few of them were valid.</p> <p>(b) He gave several reasons, <i>only a few of which</i> were valid.</p>	<p>The expression of quantity precedes the pronoun. Only whom, which, and whose are used in this pattern.</p>
<p>The teachers discussed Jim. One of his problems was poor study habits.</p> <p>(c) The teachers discussed Jim, <i>one of whose</i> problems was poor study habits.</p>	<p>Adjective clauses that begin with an expression of quantity are more common in writing than speaking. Commas are used.</p>

13-12 USING NOUN + OF WHICH

<p>We have an antique table. The top of it has jade inlay.</p> <p>(a) We have an antique table, <i>the top of which</i> has jade inlay.</p>	<p>An adjective clause may include a <i>noun + of which</i> (e.g., <i>the top of which</i>). This pattern carries the meaning of whose (e.g., <i>We have an antique table whose top has jade inlay.</i>). This pattern is used in an adjective clause that modifies a thing and occurs primarily in formal written English. A comma is used.</p>
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13-13 USING WHICH TO MODIFY A WHOLE SENTENCE

<p>(a) Tom was late. (b) That surprised me. (c) Tom was late, <i>which</i> surprised me.</p> <p>(d) The elevator is out of order. (e) This is too bad. (f) The elevator is out of order, <i>which</i> is too bad.</p>	<p>The pronouns that and this can refer to the idea of a whole sentence which comes before. In (b): The word that refers to the whole sentence "Tom was late." Similarly, an adjective clause with which may modify the idea of a whole sentence. In (c): The word which refers to the whole sentence "Tom was late." Using which to modify a whole sentence is informal and occurs most frequently in spoken English. This structure is generally not appropriate in formal writing. Whenever it is written, however, it is preceded by a comma to reflect a pause in speech.</p>
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13-14 REDUCING ADJECTIVE CLAUSES TO ADJECTIVE PHRASES: INTRODUCTION

CLAUSE: *A clause* is a group of related words that contains a subject and a verb.

PHRASE: *A phrase* is a group of related words that does not contain a subject and a verb.

(a) ADJECTIVE CLAUSE: The girl <i>who is sitting next to me</i> is Maria.	An adjective phrase is a reduction of an adjective clause. It modifies a noun. It does not contain a subject and verb. The adjective clause in (a) can be reduced to the adjective phrase in (b). (a) and (b) have the same meaning.
(b) ADJECTIVE PHRASE: The girl <i>sitting next to me</i> is Maria.	
(c) CLAUSE: The boy <i>who is playing the piano</i> is Ben.	Only adjective clauses that have a subject pronoun— <i>who</i> , <i>which</i> , or <i>that</i> —are reduced to modifying adjective phrases.
(d) PHRASE: The boy <i>playing the piano</i> is Ben.	
(e) CLAUSE: The boy (<i>whom</i>) <i>I saw</i> was Tom.	The adjective clause in (e) cannot be reduced to an adjective phrase.
(f) PHRASE: (<i>none</i>)	

13-15 CHANGING AN ADJECTIVE CLAUSE TO AN ADJECTIVE PHRASE

(a) CLAUSE: The man <i>who is talking to John</i> is from Korea. PHRASE: The man \emptyset \emptyset <i>talking to John</i> is from Korea.	There are two ways in which an adjective clause is changed to an adjective phrase. 1. If the adjective clause contains the be form of a verb, omit the pronoun and the be form, as in examples (a), (b), (c), and (d).
(b) CLAUSE: The ideas <i>which are presented in that book</i> are good. PHRASE: The ideas \emptyset \emptyset <i>presented in that book</i> are good.	
(c) CLAUSE: Ann is the woman <i>who is responsible for the error</i> . PHRASE: Ann is the woman \emptyset \emptyset <i>responsible for the error</i> .	
(d) CLAUSE: The books <i>that are on that shelf</i> are mine. PHRASE: The books \emptyset \emptyset <i>on that shelf</i> are mine.	
(e) CLAUSE: English has an alphabet <i>that consists of 26 letters</i> . PHRASE: English has an alphabet \emptyset <i>consisting of 26 letters</i> .	2. If there is no be form of a verb in the adjective clause, it is sometimes possible to omit the subject pronoun and change the verb to its -ing form, as in (e) and (f).
(f) CLAUSE: Anyone <i>who wants to come with us</i> is welcome. PHRASE: Anyone \emptyset <i>wanting to come with us</i> is welcome.	
(g) George Washington, <i>who was the first president of the United States</i> , was a wealthy colonist and a general in the army.	If the adjective clause requires commas, as in (g), the adjective phrase also requires commas, as in (h).
(h) George Washington, <i>the first president of the United States</i> , was a wealthy colonist and a general in the army.	
(i) <i>Paris, the capital of France</i> , is an exciting city.	Adjective phrases in which a noun follows another noun, as in (h), (i), and (j), are called "appositives."
(j) I read a book by <i>Mark Twain, a famous American author</i> .	

*If an adjective clause that contains **be** + a single adjective is changed, the adjective is moved to its normal position in front of the noun it modifies.

CLAUSE: **Fruit that is fresh** tastes better than old, soft, mushy fruit.

CORRECT PHRASE: **Fresh fruit** tastes better than old, soft, mushy fruit.

INCORRECT PHRASE: *Fruit fresh* tastes better than old, soft, mushy fruit.



CHAPTER 14

Gerunds and Infinitives, Part 1

14-1 GERUNDS: INTRODUCTION

- (a) **S** **V**
Playing tennis **is** fun.
- (b) **S** **V** **O**
 We enjoy *playing* tennis.
- (c) **PREP** **O**
 He's excited about *playing* tennis.

A *gerund* is the **-ing** form of a verb used as a noun.* A gerund is used in the same ways as a noun, i.e., as a subject or as an object.

In (a): **playing** is a gerund. It is used as the subject of the sentence. **Playing tennis** is a *gerund phrase*.

In (b): **playing** is a gerund used as the object of the verb **enjoy**.

In (c): **playing** is a gerund used as the object of the preposition **about**.

*COMPARE the uses of the **-ing** form of verbs:

- (1) **Walking** is good exercise.
 → **walking** = a gerund used as the subject of the sentence.
- (2) **Bob and Ann are playing** tennis.
 → **playing** = a present participle used as part of the present progressive tense.
- (3) **I heard some surprising** news.
 → **surprising** = a present participle used as an adjective.

14-2 USING GERUNDS AS THE OBJECTS OF PREPOSITIONS

<p>(a) We talked about going to Canada for our vacation.</p> <p>(b) Sue is in charge of organizing the meeting.</p> <p>(c) I'm interested in learning more about your work.</p>	<p>A gerund is frequently used as the object of a preposition.</p>
<p>(d) I'm used to sleeping with the window open.</p> <p>(e) I'm accustomed to sleeping* with the window open.</p> <p>(f) I look forward to going home next month.</p> <p>(g) They object to changing their plans at this late date.</p>	<p>In (d) through (g): to is a preposition, not part of an infinitive form, so a gerund follows.</p>
<p>(h) We talked about not going to the meeting, but finally decided we should go.</p>	<p>Negative form: not precedes a gerund.</p>

*Possible in British English: *I'm accustomed to sleep with the window open.*

14-3 COMMON PREPOSITION COMBINATIONS FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS

be excited }
be worried } *about doing it*

complain }
dream } *about/of doing it*
talk }
think }

apologize }
blame (someone) } *for doing it*
forgive (someone) }
have an excuse }
have a reason }
be responsible }
thank (someone) }

keep (someone) }
prevent (someone) } *from doing it*
prohibit (someone) }
stop (someone) }

believe }
be interested } *in doing it*
participate }
succeed }

be accused }
be capable } *of doing it*
for the purpose }
be guilty }
instead }
take advantage }
take care }
be tired }

insist *on doing it*

be accustomed }
in addition } *to doing it*
be committed }
be devoted }
look forward }
object }
be opposed }
be used }

14-4 COMMON VERBS FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS

verb + gerund
(a) I *enjoy* *playing* tennis.

Gerunds are used as the objects of certain verbs. In (a), *enjoy* is followed by a gerund (*playing*). *Enjoy* is not followed by an infinitive.

INCORRECT: I enjoy *to play* tennis.

Common verbs that are followed by gerunds are given in the list below.

(b) Joe *quit smoking*.
(c) Joe *gave up smoking*.

(b) and (c) have the same meaning. Some phrasal verbs,* e.g., *give up*, are followed by gerunds. These phrasal verbs are given in parentheses in the list below.

VERB + GERUND

<i>enjoy</i>	<i>quit (give up)</i>	<i>avoid</i>	<i>consider</i>
<i>appreciate</i>	<i>finish (get through)</i>	<i>postpone (put off)</i>	<i>discuss</i>
<i>mind</i>	<i>stop**</i>	<i>delay</i>	<i>mention</i>
		<i>keep (keep on)</i>	<i>suggest</i>

*A *phrasal verb* consists of a verb and a particle (a small word such as a preposition) that together have a special meaning. For example, *put off* means "postpone."

***Stop* can also be followed immediately by an infinitive of purpose (*in order to*). See Chart 15-2, p. 82.

COMPARE the following:

- (1) *stop* + *gerund*: When the professor entered the room, the students *stopped talking*. The room became quiet.
- (2) *stop* + *infinitive of purpose*: While I was walking down the street, I ran into an old friend. I *stopped to talk* to him. (I stopped walking *in order to talk* to him.)

14-3 COMMON PREPOSITION COMBINATIONS FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS

be excited }
be worried } *about doing it*

complain }
dream } *about/of doing it*
talk }
think }

apologize }
blame (someone) } *for doing it*
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have an excuse }
have a reason }
be responsible }
thank (someone) }

keep (someone) }
prevent (someone) } *from doing it*
prohibit (someone) }
stop (someone) }

believe }
be interested } *in doing it*
participate }
succeed }

be accused }
be capable } *of doing it*
for the purpose }
be guilty }
instead }
take advantage }
take care }
be tired }

insist *on doing it*

be accustomed }
in addition } *to doing it*
be committed }
be devoted }
look forward }
object }
be opposed }
be used }

14-4 COMMON VERBS FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS

verb + gerund
(a) I enjoy playing tennis.

Gerunds are used as the objects of certain verbs. In (a), **enjoy** is followed by a gerund (**playing**). **Enjoy** is not followed by an infinitive.

INCORRECT: I enjoy *to play* tennis.

Common verbs that are followed by gerunds are given in the list below.

(b) Joe **quit smoking**.
(c) Joe **gave up smoking**.

(b) and (c) have the same meaning. Some phrasal verbs,* e.g., **give up**, are followed by gerunds. These phrasal verbs are given in parentheses in the list below.

VERB + GERUND

<i>enjoy</i>	<i>quit (give up)</i>	<i>avoid</i>	<i>consider</i>
<i>appreciate</i>	<i>finish (get through)</i>	<i>postpone (put off)</i>	<i>discuss</i>
<i>mind</i>	<i>stop**</i>	<i>delay</i>	<i>mention</i>
		<i>keep (keep on)</i>	<i>suggest</i>

*A *phrasal verb* consists of a verb and a particle (a small word such as a preposition) that together have a special meaning. For example, *put off* means "postpone."

****Stop** can also be followed immediately by an infinitive of purpose (*in order to*). See Chart 15-2, p. 82.

COMPARE the following:

- (1) **stop + gerund:** When the professor entered the room, the students **stopped talking**. The room became quiet.
- (2) **stop + infinitive of purpose:** While I was walking down the street, I ran into an old friend. I **stopped to talk** to him. (I stopped walking *in order to talk* to him.)

14-3 COMMON PREPOSITION COMBINATIONS FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS

be excited } *about doing it*
be worried }

complain } *about/of doing it*
 dream }
 talk }
 think }

apologize } *for doing it*
 blame (someone) }
 forgive (someone) }
 have an excuse }
 have a reason }
 be responsible }
 thank (someone) }

keep (someone) } *from doing it*
 prevent (someone) }
 prohibit (someone) }
 stop (someone) }

believe } *in doing it*
 be interested }
 participate }
 succeed }

be accused } *of doing it*
 be capable }
 for the purpose }
 be guilty }
 instead }
 take advantage }
 take care }
 be tired }

insist *on doing it*

be accustomed } *to doing it*
in addition }
be committed }
be devoted }
 look forward }
 object }
 be opposed }
 be used }

14-4 COMMON VERBS FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS

verb + gerund
 (a) I enjoy playing tennis.

Gerunds are used as the objects of certain verbs. In (a), *enjoy* is followed by a gerund (*playing*). *Enjoy* is not followed by an infinitive.

INCORRECT: I enjoy *to play* tennis.

Common verbs that are followed by gerunds are given in the list below.

(b) Joe *quit smoking*.
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(b) and (c) have the same meaning. Some phrasal verbs,* e.g., *give up*, are followed by gerunds. These phrasal verbs are given in parentheses in the list below.

VERB + GERUND

<i>enjoy</i>	<i>quit (give up)</i>	<i>avoid</i>	<i>consider</i>
<i>appreciate</i>	<i>finish (get through)</i>	<i>postpone (put off)</i>	<i>discuss</i>
<i>mind</i>	<i>stop**</i>	<i>delay</i>	<i>mention</i>
		<i>keep (keep on)</i>	<i>suggest</i>

*A *phrasal verb* consists of a verb and a particle (a small word such as a preposition) that together have a special meaning. For example, *put off* means "postpone."

***Stop* can also be followed immediately by an infinitive of purpose (*in order to*). See Chart 15-2, p. 82. COMPARE the following:

- (1) *stop + gerund*: When the professor entered the room, the students *stopped talking*. The room became quiet.
- (2) *stop + infinitive of purpose*: While I was walking down the street, I ran into an old friend. I *stopped to talk* to him. (I stopped walking *in order to talk* to him.)

14-5 GO + GERUND

(a) Did you <i>go shopping</i> ?	Go is followed by a gerund in certain idiomatic expressions to express, for the most part, recreational activities.
(b) We <i>went fishing</i> yesterday.	
GO + GERUND	
<i>go birdwatching</i> <i>go boating</i> <i>go bowling</i> <i>go camping</i> <i>go canoeing/kayaking</i> <i>go dancing</i>	<i>go fishing*</i> <i>go hiking</i> <i>go hunting</i> <i>go jogging</i> <i>go mountain climbing</i> <i>go running</i>
	<i>go sailing</i> <i>go shopping</i> <i>go sightseeing</i> <i>go skating</i> <i>go skateboarding</i> <i>go skiing</i>
	<i>go skinnydipping</i> <i>go sledding</i> <i>go snorkeling</i> <i>go swimming</i> <i>go tobogganing</i> <i>go window shopping</i>

*Also, in British English: *go angling*

14-6 SPECIAL EXPRESSIONS FOLLOWED BY -ING

(a) We <i>had fun</i> We <i>had a good time</i> } <i>playing</i> volleyball.	-ing forms follow certain special expressions: <i>have fun/a good time + -ing</i> <i>have trouble/difficulty + -ing</i> <i>have a hard time/difficult time + -ing</i>
(b) I <i>had trouble</i> I <i>had difficulty</i> I <i>had a hard time</i> I <i>had a difficult time</i> } <i>finding</i> his house.	
(c) Sam <i>spends most of his time studying</i> . (d) I <i>waste a lot of time watching</i> TV.	<i>spend</i> + expression of time or money + -ing <i>waste</i> + expression of time or money + -ing
(e) She <i>sat at her desk writing</i> a letter. (f) I <i>stood there wondering</i> what to do next. (g) He <i>is lying in bed reading</i> a novel.	<i>sit</i> + expression of place + -ing <i>stand</i> + expression of place + -ing <i>lie</i> + expression of place + -ing
(h) When I walked into my office, I <i>found George using</i> my telephone. (i) When I walked into my office, I <i>caught a thief looking</i> through my desk drawers.	<i>find</i> + (pro)noun + -ing <i>catch</i> + (pro)noun + -ing In (h) and (i): Both find and catch mean "discover." Catch often expresses anger or displeasure.

14-7 COMMON VERBS FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVES

<p>VERB + INFINITIVE</p> <p>(a) I <i>hope to see</i> you again soon. (b) He <i>promised to be</i> here by ten. (c) He <i>promised not to be</i> late.</p>	<p>An <i>infinitive</i> = <i>to</i> + the simple form of a verb (<i>to see, to be, to go, etc.</i>).</p> <p>Some verbs are followed immediately by an infinitive, as in (a) and (b). See Group A below. Negative form: not precedes the infinitive, as in (c).</p>																				
<p>VERB + (PRO)NOUN + INFINITIVE</p> <p>(d) Mr. Lee <i>told me to be</i> here at ten o'clock. (e) The police <i>ordered the driver to stop</i>.</p>	<p>Some verbs are followed by a (pro)noun and then an infinitive, as in (d) and (e). See Group B below.</p>																				
<p>(f) I <i>was told to be</i> here at ten o'clock. (g) The driver <i>was ordered to stop</i>.</p>	<p>These verbs are followed immediately by an infinitive when they are used in the passive, as in (f) and (g).</p>																				
<p>(h) I <i>expect to pass</i> the test. (i) I <i>expect Mary to pass</i> the test.</p>	<p><i>Ask, expect, would like, want, and need</i> may or may not be followed by a (pro)noun object.</p> <p>COMPARE In (h): I think I will pass the test. In (i): I think Mary will pass the test.</p>																				
<p>GROUP A: VERB + INFINITIVE</p> <table style="width: 100%; border: none;"> <tr> <td style="width: 25%;"><i>hope to (do something)</i></td> <td style="width: 25%;"><i>promise to</i></td> <td style="width: 25%;"><i>seem to</i></td> <td style="width: 25%;"><i>expect to</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td><i>plan to</i></td> <td><i>agree to</i></td> <td><i>appear to</i></td> <td><i>would like to</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td><i>intend to*</i></td> <td><i>offer to</i></td> <td><i>pretend to</i></td> <td><i>want to</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td><i>decide to</i></td> <td><i>refuse to</i></td> <td><i>ask to</i></td> <td><i>need to</i></td> </tr> </table>		<i>hope to (do something)</i>	<i>promise to</i>	<i>seem to</i>	<i>expect to</i>	<i>plan to</i>	<i>agree to</i>	<i>appear to</i>	<i>would like to</i>	<i>intend to*</i>	<i>offer to</i>	<i>pretend to</i>	<i>want to</i>	<i>decide to</i>	<i>refuse to</i>	<i>ask to</i>	<i>need to</i>				
<i>hope to (do something)</i>	<i>promise to</i>	<i>seem to</i>	<i>expect to</i>																		
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<i>decide to</i>	<i>refuse to</i>	<i>ask to</i>	<i>need to</i>																		
<p>GROUP B: VERB + (PRO)NOUN + INFINITIVE</p> <table style="width: 100%; border: none;"> <tr> <td style="width: 25%;"><i>tell someone to</i></td> <td style="width: 25%;"><i>permit someone to</i></td> <td style="width: 25%;"><i>force someone to</i></td> <td style="width: 25%;"><i>need someone to</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td><i>advise someone to**</i></td> <td><i>allow someone to</i></td> <td><i>ask someone to</i></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td><i>encourage someone to</i></td> <td><i>warn someone to</i></td> <td><i>expect someone to</i></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td><i>remind someone to</i></td> <td><i>require someone to</i></td> <td><i>would like someone to</i></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td><i>invite someone to</i></td> <td><i>order someone to</i></td> <td><i>want someone to</i></td> <td></td> </tr> </table>		<i>tell someone to</i>	<i>permit someone to</i>	<i>force someone to</i>	<i>need someone to</i>	<i>advise someone to**</i>	<i>allow someone to</i>	<i>ask someone to</i>		<i>encourage someone to</i>	<i>warn someone to</i>	<i>expect someone to</i>		<i>remind someone to</i>	<i>require someone to</i>	<i>would like someone to</i>		<i>invite someone to</i>	<i>order someone to</i>	<i>want someone to</i>	
<i>tell someone to</i>	<i>permit someone to</i>	<i>force someone to</i>	<i>need someone to</i>																		
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<i>invite someone to</i>	<i>order someone to</i>	<i>want someone to</i>																			

***Intend** is usually followed by an infinitive (*I intend to go to the meeting*), but sometimes may be followed by a gerund (*I intend going to the meeting*) with no change in meaning.

A gerund is used after **advise (active) if there is no (pro)noun object.

COMPARE:

- (1) He **advised buying** a Fiat.
- (2) He **advised me to buy** a Fiat. I **was advised to buy** a Fiat.

14-8 COMMON VERBS FOLLOWED BY EITHER INFINITIVES OR GERUNDS

Some verbs can be followed by either an infinitive or a gerund, sometimes with no difference in meaning, as in Group A below, and sometimes with a difference in meaning, as in Group B below.

<p>GROUP A: VERB + INFINITIVE OR GERUND, WITH NO DIFFERENCE IN MEANING</p> <p><i>begin</i> <i>like</i> <i>hate</i> <i>start</i> <i>love</i> <i>can't stand</i> <i>continue</i> <i>prefer*</i> <i>can't bear</i></p>	<p>The verbs in Group A may be followed by either an infinitive or a gerund with little or no difference in meaning.</p>
<p>a) It <i>began to rain.</i> / It <i>began raining.</i> b) I <i>started to work.</i> / I <i>started working.</i> c) It <i>was beginning to rain.</i></p>	<p>In (a): There is no difference between <i>began to rain</i> and <i>began raining.</i></p> <p>If the main verb is progressive, an infinitive (not a gerund) is usually used, as in (c).</p>
<p>GROUP B: VERB + INFINITIVE OR GERUND, WITH A DIFFERENCE IN MEANING</p> <p><i>remember</i> <i>regret</i> <i>forget</i> <i>try</i></p>	<p>The verbs in Group B may be followed by either an infinitive or a gerund, but the meaning is different.</p>
<p>d) Judy always <i>remembers to lock</i> the door. e) Sam often <i>forgets to lock</i> the door. f) I <i>remember seeing</i> the Alps for the first time. The sight was impressive. g) I'll <i>never forget seeing</i> the Alps for the first time.</p>	<p><i>Remember + infinitive</i> = remember to perform responsibility, duty, or task, as in (d). <i>Forget + infinitive</i> = forget to perform a responsibility, duty, or task, as in (e). <i>Remember + gerund</i> = remember (recall) something that happened in the past, as in (f). <i>Forget + gerund</i> = forget something that happened in the past, as in (g).**</p>
<p>h) I <i>regret to tell</i> you that you failed the test. i) I <i>regret lending</i> him some money. He never paid me back.</p>	<p><i>Regret + infinitive</i> = regret to say, to tell someone, to inform someone of some bad news, as in (h). <i>Regret + gerund</i> = regret something that happened in the past, as in (i).</p>
<p>j) I'm <i>trying to learn</i> English. k) The room was hot. I <i>tried opening</i> the window, but that didn't help. So I <i>tried turning</i> on the fan, but I was still hot. Finally, I turned on the air conditioner.</p>	<p><i>Try + infinitive</i> = make an effort, as in (j). <i>Try + gerund</i> = experiment with a new or different approach to see if it works, as in (k).</p>

*Notice the patterns with ***prefer***:

prefer + gerund: I ***prefer staying*** home ***to going*** to the concert.

prefer + infinitive: I'd ***prefer to stay*** home (rather) ***than (to) go*** to the concert.

*****Forget*** followed by a gerund usually occurs in a negative sentence or in a question: e.g., *I'll never forget, I can't forget, Have you ever forgotten*, and *Can you ever forget* are often followed by a gerund phrase.

14-9 REFERENCE LIST OF VERBS FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS

Verbs with a bullet (•) can also be followed by infinitives. See Chart 14-10.

1. admit	He <i>admitted stealing</i> the money.
2. advise•	She <i>advised waiting</i> until tomorrow.
3. anticipate	I <i>anticipate having</i> a good time on vacation.
4. appreciate	I <i>appreciated hearing from</i> them.
5. avoid	He <i>avoided answering</i> my question.
6. can't bear	I <i>can't bear waiting</i> in long lines.
7. begin•	It <i>began raining</i> .
8. complete	I <i>finally completed writing</i> my term paper.
9. consider	I <i>will consider going</i> with you.
10. continue•	He <i>continued speaking</i> .
11. delay	He <i>delayed leaving</i> for school.
12. deny	She <i>denied committing</i> the crime.
13. discuss	They <i>discussed opening</i> a new business.
14. dislike	I <i>dislike driving</i> long distances.
15. enjoy	We <i>enjoyed visiting</i> them.
16. finish	She <i>finished studying</i> about ten.
17. forget•	I'll <i>never forget visiting</i> Napoleon's tomb.
18. hate•	I <i>hate making</i> silly mistakes.
19. can't help	I <i>can't help worrying</i> about it.
20. keep	I <i>keep hoping</i> he will come.
21. like•	I <i>like going</i> to movies.
22. love•	I <i>love going</i> to operas.
23. mention	She <i>mentioned going</i> to a movie.
24. mind	Would you <i>mind helping</i> me with this?
25. miss	I <i>miss being</i> with my family.
26. postpone	Let's <i>postpone leaving</i> until tomorrow.
27. practice	The athlete <i>practiced throwing</i> the ball.
28. prefer•	Ann <i>prefers walking</i> to driving to work.
29. quit	He <i>quit trying</i> to solve the problem.
30. recall	I <i>don't recall meeting</i> him before.
31. recollect	I <i>don't recollect meeting</i> him before.
32. recommend	She <i>recommended seeing</i> the show.
33. regret•	I <i>regret telling</i> him my secret.
34. remember•	I <i>can remember meeting</i> him when I was a child.
35. resent	I <i>resent her interfering</i> in my business.
36. resist	I <i>couldn't resist eating</i> the dessert.
37. risk	She <i>risks losing</i> all of her money.
38. can't stand•	I <i>can't stand waiting</i> in long lines.
39. start•	It <i>started raining</i> .
40. stop	She <i>stopped going</i> to classes when she got sick.
41. suggest	She <i>suggested going</i> to a movie.
42. tolerate	She <i>won't tolerate cheating</i> during an examination.
43. try•	I <i>tried changing</i> the light bulb, but the lamp still didn't work.
44. understand	I <i>don't understand his leaving</i> school.

14-10 REFERENCE LIST OF VERBS FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVES

Verbs with a bullet (•) can also be followed by gerunds. See Chart 14-9.

A. VERBS FOLLOWED IMMEDIATELY BY AN INFINITIVE

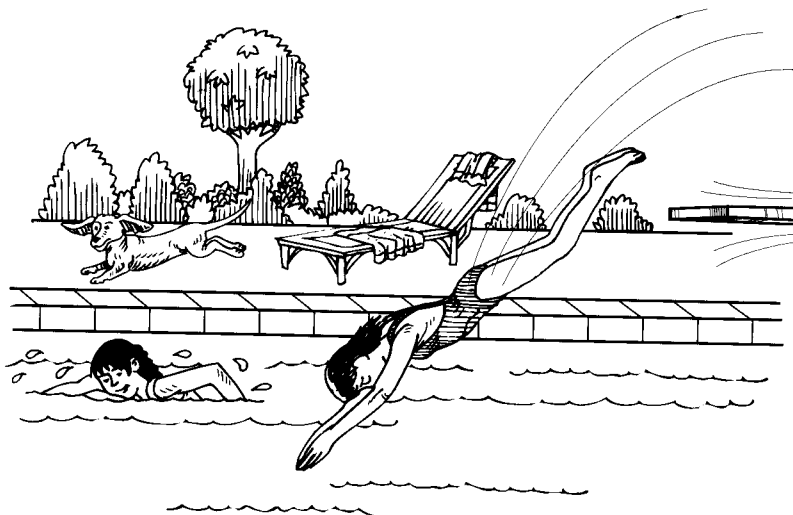
1. <i>afford</i>	I <i>can't afford to buy</i> it.	24. <i>love</i> •	I <i>love to go to</i> operas.
2. <i>agree</i>	They <i>agreed to help</i> us.	25. <i>manage</i>	She <i>managed to finish</i> her work early.
3. <i>appear</i>	She <i>appears to be</i> tired.	26. <i>mean</i>	I <i>didn't mean to hurt</i> your feelings.
4. <i>arrange</i>	I'll <i>arrange to meet</i> you at the airport.	27. <i>need</i>	I <i>need to have</i> your opinion.
5. <i>ask</i>	He <i>asked to come</i> with us.	28. <i>offer</i>	They <i>offered to help</i> us.
6. <i>can't bear</i> •	I <i>can't bear to wait</i> in long lines.	29. <i>plan</i>	I <i>am planning to have</i> a party.
7. <i>beg</i>	He <i>begged to come</i> with us.	30. <i>prefer</i> •	Ann <i>prefers to walk</i> to work.
8. <i>begin</i> •	It <i>began to rain</i> .	31. <i>prepare</i>	We <i>prepared to welcome</i> them.
9. <i>care</i>	I <i>don't care to see</i> that show.	32. <i>pretend</i>	He <i>pretends not to understand</i> .
10. <i>claim</i>	She <i>claims to know</i> a famous movie star.	33. <i>promise</i>	I <i>promise not to be</i> late.
11. <i>consent</i>	She <i>finally consented to marry</i> him.	34. <i>refuse</i>	I <i>refuse to believe</i> his story.
12. <i>continue</i> •	He <i>continued to speak</i> .	35. <i>regret</i> •	I <i>regret to tell</i> you that you failed.
13. <i>decide</i>	I <i>have decided to leave</i> on Monday.	36. <i>remember</i> •	I <i>remembered to lock</i> the door.
14. <i>demand</i>	I <i>demand to know</i> who is responsible.	37. <i>seem</i>	That cat <i>seems to be</i> friendly.
15. <i>deserve</i>	She <i>deserves to win</i> the prize.	38. <i>can't stand</i> •	I <i>can't stand to wait</i> in long lines.
16. <i>expect</i>	I <i>expect to enter</i> graduate school in the fall.	39. <i>start</i> •	It <i>started to rain</i> .
17. <i>fail</i>	She <i>failed to return</i> the book to the library on time.	40. <i>struggle</i>	I <i>struggled to stay</i> awake.
18. <i>forget</i> •	I <i>forgot to mail</i> the letter.	41. <i>swear</i>	She <i>swore to tell</i> the truth.
19. <i>hate</i> •	I <i>hate to make</i> silly mistakes.	42. <i>threaten</i>	She <i>threatened to tell</i> my parents.
20. <i>hesitate</i>	Don't <i>hesitate to ask</i> for my help.	43. <i>try</i> •	I'm <i>trying to learn</i> English.
21. <i>hope</i>	Jack <i>hopes to arrive</i> next week.	44. <i>volunteer</i>	He <i>volunteered to help</i> us.
22. <i>learn</i>	He <i>learned to play</i> the piano.	45. <i>wait</i>	I <i>will wait to hear</i> from you.
23. <i>like</i> •	I <i>like to go</i> to the movies.	46. <i>want</i>	I <i>want to tell</i> you something.
		47. <i>wish</i>	She <i>wishes to come</i> with us.

B. VERBS FOLLOWED BY A (PRO)NOUN + AN INFINITIVE

48. <i>advise</i> •	She <i>advised me to wait</i> until tomorrow.	61. <i>instruct</i>	He <i>instructed them to be</i> careful.
49. <i>allow</i>	She <i>allowed me to use</i> her car.	62. <i>invite</i>	Harry <i>invited the Johnsons to come</i> to his party.
50. <i>ask</i>	I <i>asked John to help</i> us.	63. <i>need</i>	We <i>needed Chris to help</i> us figure out the solution.
51. <i>beg</i>	They <i>begged us to come</i> .	64. <i>order</i>	The judge <i>ordered me to pay</i> a fine.
52. <i>cause</i>	Her laziness <i>caused her to fail</i> .	65. <i>permit</i>	He <i>permitted the children to stay</i> up late.
53. <i>challenge</i>	She <i>challenged me to race</i> her to the corner.	66. <i>persuade</i>	I <i>persuaded him to come</i> for a visit.
54. <i>convince</i>	I <i>couldn't convince him to accept</i> our help.	67. <i>remind</i>	She <i>reminded me to lock</i> the door.
55. <i>dare</i>	He <i>dared me to do</i> better than he had done.	68. <i>require</i>	Our teacher <i>requires us to be</i> on time.
56. <i>encourage</i>	He <i>encouraged me to try</i> again.	69. <i>teach</i>	My brother <i>taught me to swim</i> .
57. <i>expect</i>	I <i>expect you to be</i> on time.	70. <i>tell</i>	The doctor <i>told me to take</i> these pills.
58. <i>forbid</i>	I <i>forbid you to tell</i> him.	71. <i>urge</i>	I <i>urged her to apply</i> for the job.
59. <i>force</i>	They <i>forced him to tell</i> the truth.	72. <i>want</i>	I <i>want you to be</i> happy.
60. <i>hire</i>	She <i>hired a boy to mow</i> the lawn.	73. <i>warn</i>	I <i>warned you not to drive</i> too fast.

14-11 **IT + INFINITIVE; GERUNDS AND INFINITIVES AS SUBJECTS**

(a) <i>It</i> is difficult <i>to learn a second language</i> .	Often an infinitive phrase is used with <i>it</i> as the subject of a sentence. The word <i>it</i> refers to and has the same meaning as the infinitive phrase at the end of the sentence. In (a): <i>It = to learn a second language</i> .
(b) <i>Learning a second language</i> is difficult.	A gerund phrase is frequently used as the subject of a sentence, as in (b).
(c) <i>To learn a second language</i> is difficult.	An infinitive can also be used as the subject of a sentence, as in (c), but far more commonly an infinitive phrase is used with <i>it</i> , as in (a).
(d) It is easy <i>for young children to learn a second language</i> . <i>Learning a second language</i> is easy <i>for young children</i> . <i>To learn a second language</i> is easy <i>for young children</i> .	The phrase <i>for (someone)</i> may be used to specify exactly who the speaker is talking about, as in (d).



It's fun to swim in a pool.
Swimming in a pool is fun.



CHAPTER 15

Gerunds and Infinitives, Part 2

15-1 INFINITIVE OF PURPOSE: IN ORDER TO

(a) He came here <i>in order to study</i> English. (b) He came here <i>to study</i> English.	<i>In order to</i> is used to express <i>purpose</i> . It answers the question "Why?" <i>In order</i> is often omitted, as in (b).
(c) <i>INCORRECT</i> : He came here <i>for studying</i> English. (d) <i>INCORRECT</i> : He came here <i>for to study</i> English. (e) <i>INCORRECT</i> : He came here <i>for study</i> English.	To express purpose, use (<i>in order</i>) <i>to</i> , not <i>for</i> , with a verb.*
(f) I went to the store <i>for some bread</i> . (g) I went to the store <i>to buy some bread</i> .	<i>For</i> can be used to express purpose, but it is a preposition and is followed by a noun object, as in (f).

*Exception: The phrase *be used for* expresses the typical or general purpose of a thing. In this case, the preposition *for* is followed by a gerund: *A saw is used for cutting wood*. Also possible: *A saw is used to cut wood*.

However, to talk about a particular thing and a particular situation, *be used + an infinitive* is used: *A chain saw was used to cut (NOT for cutting) down the old oak tree*.

15-2 ADJECTIVES FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVES

(a) We <i>were sorry to hear</i> the bad news. (b) I <i>was surprised to see</i> Tim at the meeting.	Certain adjectives can be immediately followed by infinitives, as in (a) and (b). In general, these adjectives describe a person (or persons), not a thing. Many of these adjectives describe a person's feelings or attitudes.
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SOME COMMON ADJECTIVES FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVES

<i>glad to (do it)</i>	<i>sorry to*</i>	<i>ready to</i>	<i>careful to</i>	<i>surprised to*</i>
<i>happy to</i>	<i>sad to*</i>	<i>prepared to</i>	<i>hesitant to</i>	<i>amazed to*</i>
<i>pleased to</i>	<i>upset to*</i>	<i>anxious to</i>	<i>reluctant to</i>	<i>astonished to*</i>
<i>delighted to</i>	<i>disappointed to*</i>	<i>eager to</i>	<i>afraid to</i>	<i>shocked to*</i>
<i>content to</i>		<i>willing to</i>		<i>stunned to*</i>
<i>relieved to</i>	<i>proud to</i>	<i>motivated to</i>	<i>likely to</i>	
<i>lucky to</i>	<i>ashamed to</i>	<i>determined to</i>	<i>certain to</i>	
<i>fortunate to</i>				

*The expressions with asterisks are usually followed by infinitive phrases with verbs such as *see, learn, discover, find out, hear*.

15-3 USING INFINITIVES WITH *TOO* AND *ENOUGH*

<p>COMPARE</p> <p>(a) That box is <i>too heavy</i> for Bob to lift.</p> <p>(b) That box is <i>very heavy</i>, but Bob can lift it.</p>	<p>In the speaker's mind, the use of <i>too</i> implies a negative result.</p> <p>In (a): <i>too heavy</i> = It is <i>impossible</i> for Bob to lift that box.</p> <p>In (b): <i>very heavy</i> = It is <i>possible but difficult</i> for Bob to lift that box.</p>
<p>(c) I am <i>strong enough</i> to lift that box. I can lift it.</p> <p>(d) I have <i>enough strength</i> to lift that box.</p> <p>(e) I have <i>strength enough</i> to lift that box.</p>	<p><i>Enough</i> follows an adjective, as in (c).</p> <p>Usually <i>enough</i> precedes a noun, as in (d). In formal English, it may follow a noun, as in (e).</p>

15-4 PASSIVE AND PAST FORMS OF INFINITIVES AND GERUNDS

FORMS

	SIMPLE	PAST
ACTIVE	<i>to see</i> <i>seeing</i>	<i>to have seen</i> <i>having seen</i>
PASSIVE	<i>to be seen</i> <i>being seen</i>	<i>to have been seen</i> <i>having been seen</i>

<p>PAST INFINITIVE: <i>to have</i> + <i>past participle</i></p> <p>(a) The rain seems <i>to have stopped</i>.</p>	<p>The event expressed by a past infinitive or past gerund happened before the time of the main verb. In (a): <i>The rain seems now to have stopped a few minutes ago.</i>*</p>
<p>PAST GERUND: <i>having</i> + <i>past participle</i></p> <p>(b) I appreciate <i>having had</i> the opportunity to meet the king.</p>	<p>In (b): I met the king yesterday. <i>I appreciate now having had the opportunity to meet the king yesterday.</i>*</p>
<p>PAST INFINITIVE: <i>to be</i> + <i>past participle</i></p> <p>(c) I didn't expect <i>to be invited</i> to his party.</p>	<p>In (c): <i>to be invited</i> is passive. The understood by-phrase is "by him": <i>I didn't expect to be invited by him.</i></p>
<p>PAST GERUND: <i>being</i> + <i>past participle</i></p> <p>(d) I appreciated <i>being invited</i> to your home.</p>	<p>In (d): <i>being invited</i> is passive. The understood by-phrase is "by you": <i>I appreciated being invited by you.</i></p>
<p>PAST-PASSIVE INFINITIVE: <i>to have been</i> + <i>past participle</i></p> <p>(e) Nadia is fortunate <i>to have been given</i> a scholarship.</p>	<p>In (e): Nadia was given a scholarship last month by her government. She is fortunate. <i>Nadia is fortunate now to have been given a scholarship last month by her government.</i></p>
<p>PAST-PASSIVE GERUND: <i>having been</i> + <i>past participle</i></p> <p>(f) I appreciate <i>having been told</i> the news.</p>	<p>In (f): I was told the news yesterday by someone. I appreciate that. <i>I appreciate now having been told the news yesterday by someone.</i></p>

*If the main verb is past, the action of the past infinitive or gerund happened before a time in the past:

The rain seemed to have stopped. = The rain seemed at six P.M. to have stopped before six P.M.

I appreciated having had the opportunity to meet the king. = I met the king in 1995. In 1997 I appreciated having had the opportunity to meet the king in 1995.

15-5 USING GERUNDS OR PASSIVE INFINITIVES FOLLOWING NEED

(a) I need to borrow some money. (b) John needs to be told the truth.	Usually an infinitive follows need , as in (a) and (b).
(c) The house needs painting . (d) The house needs to be painted .	In certain circumstances, a gerund may follow need . In this case, the gerund carries a passive meaning. Usually the situations involve fixing or improving something. (c) and (d) have the same meaning.

15-6 USING A POSSESSIVE TO MODIFY A GERUND

<i>We came to class late. Mr. Lee complained about that fact.</i> (a) FORMAL: Mr. Lee complained about our coming to class late.* (b) INFORMAL: Mr. Lee complained about us coming to class late.	In formal English, a possessive adjective (e.g., our) is used to modify a gerund, as in (a). In informal English, the object form of a pronoun (e.g., us) is frequently used, as in (b).
(c) FORMAL: Mr. Lee complained about Mary's coming to class late. (d) INFORMAL: Mr. Lee complained about Mary coming to class late.	In very formal English, a possessive noun (e.g., Mary's) is used to modify a gerund. The possessive form is often not used in informal English, as in (d).

**Coming to class late* occurred before *Mr. Lee complained*, so a past gerund is also possible: *Mr. Lee complained about our having come to class late.*

15-7 USING VERBS OF PERCEPTION

(a) I saw my friend run down the street. (b) I saw my friend running down the street. (c) I heard the rain fall on the roof. (d) I heard the rain falling on the roof.	Certain verbs of perception are followed by either <i>the simple form*</i> or <i>the -ing form**</i> of a verb. There is often little difference in meaning between the two forms, except that the -ing form usually gives the idea of "while." In (b): I saw my friend while she was running down the street.
(e) When I walked into the apartment, I heard my roommate singing in the shower. (f) I heard a famous opera star sing at the concert last night.	Sometimes (not always) there is a clear difference between using the simple form or the -ing form. The use of the -ing form gives the idea that an activity is already in progress when it is perceived, as in (e): The singing was in progress when I first heard it. In (f): I heard the singing from beginning to end. It was not in progress when I first heard it.

VERBS OF PERCEPTION FOLLOWED BY THE SIMPLE FORM OR THE -ING FORM

see *look at* *hear* *feel* *smell*
notice *observe* *listen to*

**The simple form of a verb* = the infinitive form without "to." INCORRECT: I saw my friend *to run* down the street.

***The -ing form* refers to the present participle.

15-8 USING THE SIMPLE FORM AFTER *LET* AND *HELP*

<p>(a) My father <i>lets</i> me <i>drive</i> his car. (b) I <i>let</i> my friend <i>borrow</i> my bicycle. (c) <i>Let's go</i> to a movie.</p>	<p>Let is followed by the simple form of a verb, not an infinitive. <i>INCORRECT:</i> My father lets me <i>to drive</i> his car.</p>
<p>(d) My brother <i>helped</i> me <i>wash</i> my car. (e) My brother <i>helped</i> me <i>to wash</i> my car.</p>	<p>Help is often followed by the simple form of a verb, as in (d). An infinitive is also possible, as in (e). Both (d) and (e) are correct.</p>

15-9 USING CAUSATIVE VERBS: *MAKE*, *HAVE*, *GET*

<p>(a) I <i>made</i> my brother <i>carry</i> my suitcase. (b) I <i>had</i> my brother <i>carry</i> my suitcase. (c) I <i>got</i> my brother <i>to carry</i> my suitcase.</p>	<p>Make, have, and get can be used to express the idea that "X" causes "Y" to do something. When they are used as causative verbs, their meanings are similar but not identical. In (a): My brother had no choice. I insisted that he carry my suitcase. In (b): My brother carried my suitcase because I asked him to. In (c): I managed to persuade my brother to carry my suitcase.</p>
<p>FORMS X <i>makes</i> Y <i>do</i> something. (simple form) X <i>has</i> Y <i>do</i> something. (simple form) X <i>gets</i> Y <i>to do</i> something. (infinitive)</p>	
<p>CAUSATIVE MAKE (d) Mrs. Lee <i>made</i> her son <i>clean</i> his room. (e) Sad movies <i>make</i> me <i>cry</i>.</p>	<p>Causative make is followed by the simple form of a verb, not an infinitive. (<i>INCORRECT:</i> She made him <i>to clean</i> his room.) Make gives the idea that "X" forces "Y" to do something. In (d): Mrs. Lee's son had no choice.</p>
<p>CAUSATIVE HAVE (f) I <i>had</i> the plumber <i>repair</i> the leak. (g) Jane <i>had</i> the waiter <i>bring</i> her some tea.</p>	<p>Causative have is followed by the simple form of a verb, not an infinitive. (<i>INCORRECT:</i> I had him <i>to repair</i> the leak.) Have gives the idea that "X" requests "Y" to do something. In (f): The plumber repaired the leak because I asked him to.</p>
<p>CAUSATIVE GET (h) The students <i>got</i> the teacher <i>to dismiss</i> class early. (i) Jack <i>got</i> his friends <i>to play</i> soccer with him after school.</p>	<p>Causative get is followed by an infinitive. Get gives the idea that "X" persuades "Y" to do something. In (h): The students managed to persuade the teacher to let them leave early.</p>
<p>PASSIVE CAUSATIVES (j) I <i>had</i> my watch <i>repaired</i> (by someone). (k) I <i>got</i> my watch <i>repaired</i> (by someone).</p>	<p>The past participle is used after have and get to give a passive meaning. In this case, there is usually little or no difference in meaning between have and get. In (j) and (k): I caused my watch to be repaired by someone.</p>



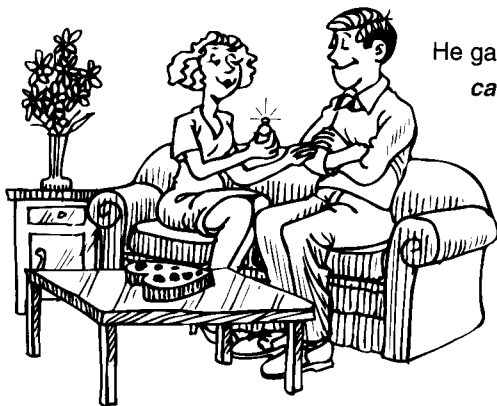
CHAPTER 16

Coordinating Conjunctions

16-1 PARALLEL STRUCTURE

One use of a conjunction is to connect words or phrases that have the same grammatical function in a sentence. This use of conjunctions is called “parallel structure.” The conjunctions used in this pattern are **and**, **but**, **or**, **nor**. These words are called “coordinating conjunctions.”

<p>(a) Steve and his friend are coming to dinner.</p> <p>(b) Susan raised her hand and snapped her fingers.</p> <p>(c) He is waving his arms and (is) shouting at us.</p> <p>(d) These shoes are old but comfortable.</p> <p>(e) He wants to watch TV or (to) listen to some music.</p>	<p>In (a): <i>noun + and + noun</i></p> <p>In (b): <i>verb + and + verb</i></p> <p>In (c): <i>verb + and + verb</i> (The second auxiliary may be omitted if it is the same as the first auxiliary.)</p> <p>In (d): <i>adjective + but + adjective</i></p> <p>In (e): <i>infinitive + or + infinitive</i> (The second <i>to</i> is usually omitted.)</p>
<p>(f) Steve, Joe, and Alice are coming to dinner.</p> <p>(g) Susan raised her hand, snapped her fingers, and asked a question.</p> <p>(h) The colors in that fabric are red, gold, black, and green.</p>	<p>A parallel structure may contain more than two parts. In a series, commas are used to separate each unit. The final comma that precedes the conjunction is optional; also correct: <i>Steve, Joe and Alice</i> are coming to dinner.</p>
<p>(i) INCORRECT: Steve, and Joe are coming to dinner.</p>	<p>Note: No commas are used if there are only two parts to a parallel structure.</p>



He gave her *flowers on Sunday,*
candy on Monday,
and a ring on Tuesday.

16-2 PAIRED CONJUNCTIONS: BOTH ... AND; NOT ONLY ... BUT ALSO; EITHER ... OR; NEITHER ... NOR

<p>(a) Both my mother and my sister are here.</p> <p>(b) Not only my mother but also my sister is here.</p> <p>(c) Not only my sister but also my parents are here.</p> <p>(d) Neither my mother nor my sister is here.</p> <p>(e) Neither my sister nor my parents are here.</p>	<p>Two subjects connected by both ... and take a plural verb, as in (a).</p> <p>When two subjects are connected by not only ... but also, either ... or, or neither ... nor, the subject that is closer to the verb determines whether the verb is singular or plural.</p>
<p>(f) The research project will take both time and money.</p> <p>(g) Yesterday it not only rained but (also) snowed.</p> <p>(h) I'll take either chemistry or physics next quarter.</p> <p>(i) That book is neither interesting nor accurate.</p>	<p>Notice the parallel structure in the examples. The same grammatical form should follow each part of the paired conjunctions.*</p> <p>In (f): both + noun + and + noun</p> <p>In (g): not only + verb + but also + verb</p> <p>In (h): either + noun + or + noun</p> <p>In (i): neither + adjective + nor + adjective</p>

*Paired conjunctions are also called "correlative conjunctions."

16-3 COMBINING INDEPENDENT CLAUSES WITH COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

<p>(a) It was raining hard. There was a strong wind.</p> <p>(b) INCORRECT PUNCTUATION: It was raining hard, there was a strong wind.</p>	<p>Example (a) contains two <i>independent clauses</i> (i.e., two complete sentences). Notice the punctuation. A period,* NOT A COMMA, is used to separate two independent clauses. The punctuation in (b) is not correct; the error in (b) is called "a run-on sentence."</p>
<p>(c) It was raining hard, and there was a strong wind.</p> <p>(d) It was raining hard and there was a strong wind.</p> <p>(e) It was raining hard. And there was a strong wind.</p>	<p>A <i>conjunction</i> may be used to connect two independent clauses. PUNCTUATION:</p> <p>Usually a comma immediately precedes the conjunction, as in (c).</p> <p>In short sentences, the comma is sometimes omitted, as in (d).</p> <p>In informal writing, a conjunction sometimes begins a sentence, as in (e).</p>
<p>(f) He was tired, so he went to bed.</p> <p>(g) The child hid behind his mother's skirt, for he was afraid of the dog.</p> <p>(h) She did not study, yet she passed the exam.</p>	<p>In addition to and, but, or, and nor, other conjunctions are used to connect two independent clauses: so (meaning "therefore, as a result") for (meaning "because") yet (meaning "but, nevertheless")</p> <p>A comma almost always precedes so, for, and yet when they are used as coordinating conjunctions.**</p>

* In British English, a period is called "a full stop."

** **So, for, and yet** have other meanings in other structures: e.g., *He is not so tall as his brother. (so = as) We waited for the bus. (for = a preposition) She hasn't arrived yet. (yet = an adverb meaning "up to this time")*



CHAPTER 17

Adverb Clauses

17-1 INTRODUCTION

<p>(a) <i>When we were in New York</i>, we saw several plays.</p> <p>(b) We saw several plays <i>when we were in New York</i>.</p>	<p><i>When we were in New York</i> is an adverb clause.</p> <p>PUNCTUATION: When an adverb clause precedes an independent clause, as in (a), a comma is used to separate the clauses. When the adverb clause follows, as in (b), usually no comma is used.</p>
<p>(c) <i>Because he was sleepy</i>, he went to bed.</p> <p>(d) He went to bed <i>because he was sleepy</i>.</p>	<p>Like <i>when</i>, <i>because</i> introduces an adverb clause. <i>Because he was sleepy</i> is an adverb clause.</p>
<p>(e) INCORRECT: <i>When we were in New York. We saw several plays.</i></p> <p>(f) INCORRECT: <i>He went to bed. Because he was sleepy.</i></p>	<p>Adverb clauses are dependent clauses. They cannot stand alone as a sentence in written English. They must be connected to an independent clause.*</p>

SUMMARY LIST OF WORDS USED TO INTRODUCE ADVERB CLAUSES**

TIME		CAUSE AND EFFECT	CONTRAST	CONDITION
<i>after</i>	<i>by the time (that)</i>	<i>because</i>	<i>even though</i>	<i>if</i>
<i>before</i>	<i>once</i>	<i>now that</i>	<i>although</i>	<i>unless</i>
<i>when</i>	<i>as/so long as</i>	<i>since</i>	<i>though</i>	<i>only if</i>
<i>while</i>	<i>whenever</i>			<i>whether or not</i>
<i>as</i>	<i>every time (that)</i>			<i>even if</i>
<i>as soon as</i>	<i>the first time (that)</i>		DIRECT CONTRAST	<i>in case</i>
<i>since</i>	<i>the last time (that)</i>		<i>while</i>	<i>in the event that</i>
<i>until</i>	<i>the next time (that)</i>		<i>whereas</i>	

*See Chart 13-1, p. 67, for the definition of dependent and independent clauses.

**Words that introduce adverb clauses are called "subordinating conjunctions."

17-2 USING ADVERB CLAUSES TO SHOW CAUSE AND EFFECT

<i>because</i>	(a) Because <i>he was sleepy</i> , he went to bed. (b) He went to bed because <i>he was sleepy</i> .	An adverb clause may precede or follow the independent clause. Notice the punctuation in (a) and (b).
<i>now that</i>	(c) Now that <i>the semester is over</i> , I'm going to rest a few days and then take a trip. (d) Jack lost his job. Now that <i>he's unemployed</i> , he can't pay his bills.	Now that means "because now." In (c): <i>Now that the semester is over</i> means "because the semester is now over." Now that is used for present causes of present or future situations.
<i>since</i>	(e) Since <i>Monday is a holiday</i> , we don't have to go to work. (f) Since <i>you're a good cook and I'm not</i> , you should cook the dinner.	When since is used to mean "because," it expresses a known cause; it means "because it is a fact that" or "given that it is true that." Cause and effect sentences with since say: "Given the fact that X is true, Y is the result." In (e): "Given the fact that Monday is a holiday, we don't have to go to work." Note: Since has two meanings. One is "because." It is also used in time clauses: e.g., <i>Since I came here, I have met many people</i> . See Chart 5-2, p. 25.

17-3 EXPRESSING CONTRAST (UNEXPECTED RESULT): USING *EVEN THOUGH*

(a) Because the weather was cold, I <i>didn't go</i> swimming. (b) Even though the weather was cold, I <i>went</i> swimming. (c) Because I wasn't tired, I <i>didn't go</i> to bed. (d) Even though I wasn't tired, I <i>went</i> to bed.	Because is used to express expected results. Even though is used to express unexpected results. Note: Like because , even though introduces an adverb clause.
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17-4 SHOWING DIRECT CONTRAST: *WHILE* AND *WHEREAS*

(a) Mary is rich, while John is poor. (b) John is poor, while Mary is rich. (c) Mary is rich, whereas John is poor. (d) Whereas Mary is rich, John is poor.	While and whereas are used to show direct contrast: "this" is exactly the opposite of "that." While and whereas may be used with the idea of either clause with no difference in meaning. Whereas mostly occurs in formal written English. Note: A comma is usually used even if the adverb clause comes second.
COMPARE (e) While I was studying, the phone rang.	While is also used in time clauses and means "during the time that," as in (e). See Chart 5-2, p. 25.

17-5 EXPRESSING CONDITIONS IN ADVERB CLAUSES: IF-CLAUSES

(a) <i>If it rains</i> , the streets get wet.	<i>If</i> -clauses (also called “adverb clauses of condition”) present possible conditions. The main clause expresses results. In (a): POSSIBLE CONDITION = <i>it rains</i> RESULT = <i>the streets get wet</i>
(b) <i>If it rains tomorrow</i> , I will take my umbrella.	A present tense, not a future tense, is used in an <i>if</i> -clause even though the verb in the <i>if</i> -clause may refer to a future event or situation, as in (b).*

WORDS THAT INTRODUCE ADVERB CLAUSES OF CONDITION (IF-CLAUSES)

if
whether or not
even if

in case
in the event that

unless
only if

*See Chapter 20 for uses of other verb forms in sentences with *if*-clauses.

17-6 ADVERB CLAUSES OF CONDITION: USING WHETHER OR NOT AND EVEN IF

WHETHER OR NOT

- (a) I'm going to go swimming tomorrow *whether or not it is cold*.
(OR: *whether it is cold or not*.)

Whether or not expresses the idea that neither this condition nor that condition matters; the result will be the same. In (a): “If it is cold, I’m going swimming. If it is not cold, I’m going swimming. I don’t care about the temperature. It doesn’t matter.”

EVEN IF

- (b) I have decided to go swimming tomorrow. *Even if the weather is cold*, I’m going to go swimming.

Sentences with *even if* are close in meaning to those with *whether or not*. *Even if* gives the idea that a particular condition does not matter. The result will not change.

17-7 ADVERB CLAUSES OF CONDITION: USING *IN CASE* AND *IN THE EVENT THAT*

- (a) I'll be at my uncle's house *in case* you (should) need to reach me.
- (b) *In the event that* you (should) need to reach me, I'll be at my uncle's house.

In case and *in the event that* express the idea that something probably won't happen, but it might. *In case/in the event that* means "if by chance this should happen."

Notes: *In the event that* is more formal than *in case*. The use of *should* in the adverb clause emphasizes the speaker's uncertainty that something will happen.

17-8 ADVERB CLAUSES OF CONDITION: USING *UNLESS*

- (a) I'll go swimming tomorrow *unless* it's cold.
- (b) I'll go swimming tomorrow *if it isn't cold*.

unless = *if . . . not*

In (a): *unless it's cold* means "if it isn't cold."

(a) and (b) have the same meaning.

17-9 ADVERB CLAUSES OF CONDITION: USING *ONLY IF*

- (a) The picnic will be canceled *only if* it rains.
If it's windy, we'll go on the picnic.
If it's cold, we'll go on the picnic.
If it's damp and foggy, we'll go on the picnic.
If it's unbearably hot, we'll go on the picnic.

Only if expresses the idea that there is only one condition that will cause a particular result.

- (b) *Only if* it rains *will the picnic be canceled*.

When *only if* begins a sentence, the subject and verb of the main clause are inverted, as in (b).^{*} No commas are used.

^{*}Other subordinating conjunctions and prepositional phrases fronted by *only* at the beginning of a sentence require subject-verb inversion in the main clause:

Only when the teacher dismisses us *can we stand and leave* the room.

Only after the phone rang *did I realize* that I had fallen asleep in my chair.

Only in my hometown *do I feel* at ease.



CHAPTER 18

Reduction of Adverb Clauses to Modifying Adverbial Phrases

18-1 INTRODUCTION

(a) ADVERB CLAUSE: <i>While I was walking to class, I ran into an old friend.</i>	In Chapter 13, we discussed changing adjective clauses to modifying phrases (see Chart 13-13, p. 72). Some adverb clauses may also be changed to modifying phrases, and the ways in which the changes are made are the same: 1. Omit the subject of the dependent clause and the be form of the verb, as in (b). OR 2. If there is no be form of a verb, omit the subject and change the verb to -ing , as in (d).
(b) MODIFYING PHRASE: <i>While walking to class, I ran into an old friend.</i>	
(c) ADVERB CLAUSE: <i>Before I left for work, I ate breakfast.</i>	
(d) MODIFYING PHRASE: <i>Before leaving for work, I ate breakfast.</i>	
(e) CHANGE POSSIBLE: <i>While I was sitting in class, I fell asleep.</i> <i>While sitting in class, I fell asleep.</i>	An adverb clause can be changed to a modifying phrase only when the subject of the adverb clause and the subject of the main clause are the same . A <i>modifying adverbial phrase</i> that is the reduction of an adverb clause <i>modifies the subject</i> of the main clause.
(f) CHANGE POSSIBLE: <i>While Ann was sitting in class, she fell asleep. (clause)</i> <i>While sitting in class, Ann fell asleep.</i>	
(g) NO CHANGE POSSIBLE: <i>While the teacher was lecturing to the class, I fell asleep.*</i>	No reduction (i.e., change) is possible if the subjects of the adverb clause and the main clause are different, as in (g) and (h).
(h) NO CHANGE POSSIBLE: <i>While we were walking home, a frog hopped across the road in front of us.</i>	
(i) INCORRECT: <i>While walking home, a frog hopped across the road in front of us.</i>	In (i): <i>While walking home</i> is called a “dangling modifier” or a “dangling participle,” i.e., a modifier that is incorrectly “hanging alone” without an appropriate noun or pronoun subject to modify.
(j) INCORRECT: <i>While watching TV last night, the phone rang.</i>	

**While lecturing to the class, I fell asleep* means “While I was lecturing to the class, I fell asleep.”

18-2 CHANGING TIME CLAUSES TO MODIFYING ADVERBIAL PHRASES

(a) CLAUSE: <i>Since Maria came to this country, she has made many friends.</i>	Adverb clauses beginning with after, before, while, and since can be changed to modifying adverbial phrases.
(b) PHRASE: <i>Since coming to this country, Maria has made many friends.</i>	
(c) CLAUSE: <i>After he (had) finished his homework, Peter went to bed.</i>	In (c): There is no difference in meaning between <i>After he finished</i> and <i>After he had finished</i> . (See Chart 3-3, p. 19.) In (d) and (e): There is no difference in meaning between <i>After finishing</i> and <i>After having finished</i> .
(d) PHRASE: <i>After finishing his homework, Peter went to bed.</i>	
(e) PHRASE: <i>After having finished his homework, Peter went to bed.</i>	
(f) PHRASE: Peter went to bed <i>after finishing his homework.</i>	A modifying adverbial phrase may follow the main clause, as in (f).

18-3 EXPRESSING THE IDEA OF "DURING THE SAME TIME" IN MODIFYING ADVERBIAL PHRASES

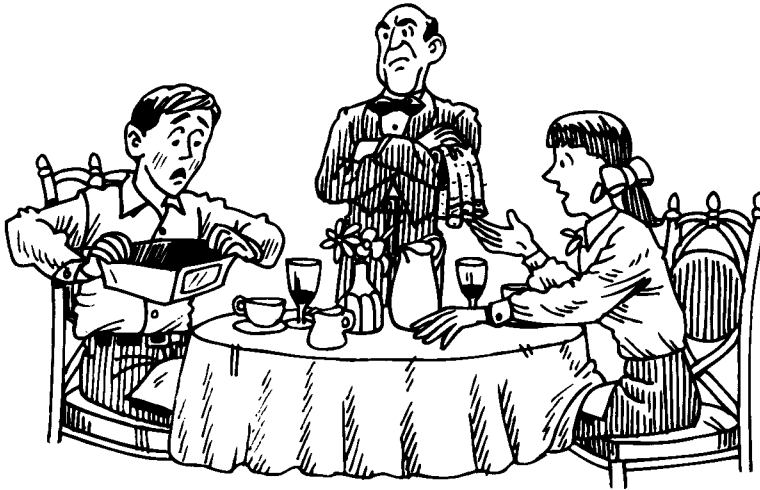
(a) <i>While I was walking down the street, I ran into an old friend.</i>	Sometimes while is omitted but the -ing phrase at the beginning of the sentence gives the same meaning (i.e., "during the same time"). (a), (b), and (c) have the same meaning.
(b) <i>While walking down the street, I ran into an old friend.</i>	
(c) <i>Walking down the street, I ran into an old friend.</i>	
(d) <i>Hiking through the woods yesterday, we saw a bear.</i>	
(e) <i>Pointing to the sentence on the board, the teacher explained the meaning of modifying phrases.</i>	

18-4 EXPRESSING CAUSE AND EFFECT IN MODIFYING ADVERBIAL PHRASES

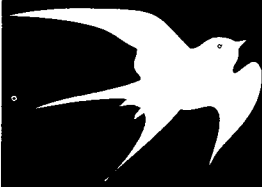
(f) <i>Because she needed some money to buy a book, Sue cashed a check.</i>	Often an -ing phrase at the beginning of a sentence gives the meaning of "because." (f) and (g) have the same meaning.
(g) <i>Needing some money to buy a book, Sue cashed a check.</i>	
(h) <i>Because he lacked the necessary qualifications, he was not considered for the job.</i>	Because is not included in a modifying phrase. It is omitted, but the resulting phrase expresses a cause and effect relationship, as in (g) and (i).
(i) <i>Lacking the necessary qualifications, he was not considered for the job.</i>	
(j) <i>Having seen that movie before, I don't want to go again.</i>	Having + past participle gives the meaning not only of "because" but also of "before."
(k) <i>Having seen that movie before, I didn't want to go again.</i>	
(l) <i>Because she was unable to afford a car, she bought a bicycle.</i>	A form of be in the adverb clause may be changed to being . The use of being makes the cause and effect relationship clear. (l), (m), and (n) have the same meaning.
(m) <i>Being unable to afford a car, she bought a bicycle.</i>	
(n) <i>Unable to afford a car, she bought a bicycle.</i>	

18-5 USING *UPON* + *-ING* IN MODIFYING ADVERBIAL PHRASES

(a) <i>Upon reaching</i> the age of 21, I received my inheritance. (b) <i>When I reached</i> the age of 21, I received my inheritance.	Modifying adverbial phrases beginning with <i>upon</i> + <i>-ing</i> usually have the same meaning as adverb clauses introduced by <i>when</i> . (a) and (b) have the same meaning.
(c) <i>On reaching</i> the age of 21, I received my inheritance.	<i>Upon</i> can be shortened to <i>on</i> . (a), (b), and (c) all have the same meaning.



Upon looking in his wallet, Alex discovered he didn't have enough money to pay the bill.



CHAPTER 19

Connectives That Express Cause and Effect, Contrast, and Condition

19-1 USING *BECAUSE OF* AND *DUE TO*

(a) <i>Because</i> the weather was cold, we stayed home.	<i>Because</i> introduces an adverb clause; it is followed by a subject and verb, as in (a).
(b) <i>Because of</i> the cold weather, we stayed home. (c) <i>Due to</i> the cold weather, we stayed home.	<i>Because of</i> and <i>due to</i> are phrasal prepositions; they are followed by a noun object, as in (b) and (c).
(d) <i>Due to the fact that</i> the weather was cold, we stayed home.	Sometimes, usually in more formal writing, <i>due to</i> is followed by a noun clause introduced by <i>the fact that</i> .
(e) We stayed home <i>because of</i> the cold weather. We stayed home <i>due to</i> the cold weather. We stayed home <i>due to the fact that</i> the weather was cold.	Like adverb clauses, these phrases can also follow the main clause, as in (e).

19-2 USING TRANSITIONS TO SHOW CAUSE AND EFFECT: *THEREFORE* AND *CONSEQUENTLY*

(a) Al failed the test because he didn't study. (b) Al didn't study. <i>Therefore</i> , he failed the test. (c) Al didn't study. <i>Consequently</i> , he failed the test.	(a), (b), and (c) have the same meaning. <i>Therefore</i> and <i>consequently</i> mean "as a result." In grammar, they are called <i>transitions</i> (or <i>conjunctive adverbs</i>). Transitions connect the ideas between two sentences.
(d) Al didn't study. <i>Therefore</i> , he failed the test. (e) Al didn't study. He, <i>therefore</i> , failed the test. (f) Al didn't study. He failed the test, <i>therefore</i> . POSITIONS OF A TRANSITION <i>transition</i> + s + v (+ rest of sentence) s + <i>transition</i> + v (+ rest of sentence) s + v (+ rest of sentence) + <i>transition</i>	A transition occurs in the second of two related sentences. Notice the patterns and punctuation in the examples. A period (NOT a comma) is used at the end of the first sentence.* The transition has several positions in the second sentence. The transition is separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.
(g) Al didn't study, <i>so</i> he failed the test.	COMPARE: A <i>transition</i> (e.g., <i>therefore</i>) has several possible positions within the second sentence of the pair, as in (d), (e), and (f). A <i>conjunction</i> (e.g., <i>so</i>) has only one possible position: between the two sentences. (See Chart 16-3, p. 87.) <i>So</i> cannot move around in the second sentence as <i>therefore</i> can.

*A semicolon is also possible in this situation. See the footnote to Chart 19-3, p. 96.

19-3 SUMMARY OF PATTERNS AND PUNCTUATION

ADVERB CLAUSE	(a) <i>Because it was hot, we went swimming.</i> (b) <i>We went swimming because it was hot.</i>	An <i>adverb clause</i> may precede or follow an independent clause. PUNCTUATION: A comma is used if the adverb clause comes first.
PREPOSITION	(c) <i>Because of the hot weather, we went swimming.</i> (d) <i>We went swimming because of the hot weather.</i>	A <i>preposition</i> is followed by a noun object, not by a subject and verb. PUNCTUATION: A comma is usually used if the prepositional phrase precedes the subject and verb of the independent clause.
TRANSITION	(e) <i>It was hot. Therefore, we went swimming.</i> (f) <i>It was hot. We, therefore, went swimming.</i> (g) <i>It was hot. We went swimming, therefore.</i>	A <i>transition</i> is used with the second sentence of a pair. It shows the relationship of the second idea to the first idea. A transition is movable within the second sentence. PUNCTUATION: A period is used between the two independent clauses.* A comma may NOT be used to separate the clauses. Commas are usually used to set the transition off from the rest of the sentence.
CONJUNCTION	(h) <i>It was hot, so we went swimming.</i>	A conjunction comes between two independent clauses. PUNCTUATION: Usually a comma is used immediately in front of a conjunction.

*A semicolon (;) may be used instead of a period between the two independent clauses.

It was hot; therefore, we went swimming.

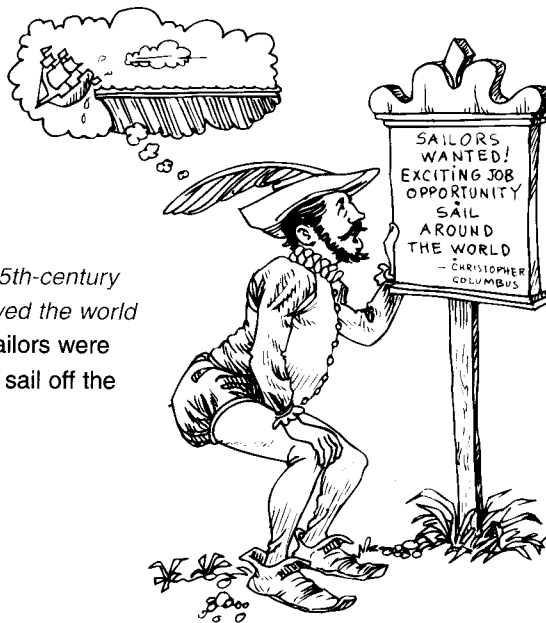
It was hot; we, therefore, went swimming.

It was hot; we went swimming, therefore.

In general, a semicolon can be used instead of a period between any two sentences that are closely related in meaning.

Example: *Peanuts are not nuts; they are beans.* Notice that a small letter, not a capital letter, immediately follows a semicolon.

Because most 15th-century Europeans believed the world was flat, many sailors were afraid they might sail off the end of the world.



19-4 OTHER WAYS OF EXPRESSING CAUSE AND EFFECT: SUCH . . . THAT AND SO . . . THAT

(a) Because the weather was nice, we went to the zoo. (b) It was <i>such nice weather that</i> we went to the zoo. (c) The weather was <i>so nice that</i> we went to the zoo.	Examples (a), (b), and (c) have the same meaning.
(d) It was <i>such good coffee that</i> I had another cup. (e) It was <i>such a foggy day that</i> we couldn't see the road.	Such . . . that encloses a modified noun: <i>such + adjective + noun + that</i>
(f) The coffee is <i>so hot that</i> I can't drink it. (g) I'm <i>so hungry that</i> I could eat a horse.	So . . . that encloses an adjective or adverb: $so + \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{adjective} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{adverb} \end{array} \right\} + that$
(h) She speaks <i>so fast that</i> I can't understand her. (i) He walked <i>so quickly that</i> I couldn't keep up with him.	
(j) She made <i>so many mistakes that</i> she failed the exam. (k) He has <i>so few friends that</i> he is always lonely. (l) She has <i>so much money that</i> she can buy whatever she wants. (m) He had <i>so little trouble</i> with the test <i>that</i> he left twenty minutes early.	So . . . that is used with <i>many, few, much, and little</i> .
(n) It was <i>such a good book (that)</i> I couldn't put it down. (o) I was <i>so hungry (that)</i> I didn't wait for dinner to eat something.	Sometimes, primarily in speaking, that is omitted.

19-5 EXPRESSING PURPOSE: USING SO THAT

(a) I turned off the TV <i>in order to enable my roommate to study in peace and quiet</i> .	In order to expresses <i>purpose</i> . (See Chart 15-1, p. 82.) In (a): I turned off the TV for a purpose. The purpose was to make it possible for my roommate to study in peace and quiet.
(b) I turned off the TV <i>so (that) my roommate could study in peace and quiet</i> .	So that also expresses <i>purpose</i> .* It expresses the same meaning as in order to . The word "that" is often omitted, especially in speaking.
SO THAT + CAN or COULD (c) I'm going to cash a check <i>so that I can buy my textbooks</i> . (d) I cashed a check <i>so that I could buy my textbooks</i> .	So that is often used instead of in order to when the idea of ability is being expressed. Can is used in the adverb clause for a present/future meaning. In (c): <i>so that I can buy = in order to be able to buy</i> . Could is used after so that in past sentences.**
SO THAT + WILL /SIMPLE PRESENT or WOULD (e) I'll take my umbrella <i>so that I won't get wet</i> . (f) I'll take my umbrella <i>so that I don't get wet</i> . (g) Yesterday I took my umbrella <i>so that I wouldn't get wet</i> .	In (e): <i>so that I won't get wet = in order to make sure that I won't get wet</i> . In (f): It is sometimes possible to use the simple present after so that in place of will ; the simple present expresses a future meaning. Would is used in past sentences; as in (g).

*NOTE: **In order that** has the same meaning as **so that** but is less commonly used.

Example: *I turned off the TV in order that my roommate could study in peace and quiet.*

Both **so that** and **in order that** introduce adverb clauses. It is unusual, but possible, to put these adverb clauses at the beginning of a sentence: *So that my roommate could study in peace and quiet, I turned off the TV.*

Also possible but less common: the use of **may or **might** in place of **can** or **could**: e.g., *I cashed a check so that I might buy my textbooks.*

19-6 SHOWING CONTRAST (UNEXPECTED RESULT)

All these sentences have the same meaning. The idea of cold weather is contrasted with the idea of going swimming. Usually if the weather is cold, one does not go swimming, so going swimming in cold weather is an “unexpected result.” It is surprising that the speaker went swimming in cold weather.

ADVERB CLAUSES	<i>even though</i> <i>although</i> <i>though</i>	(a) <i>Even though it was cold</i> , I went swimming. (b) <i>Although it was cold</i> , I went swimming. (c) <i>Though it was cold</i> , I went swimming.
CONJUNCTIONS	<i>but . . . anyway</i> <i>but . . . still</i> <i>yet . . . still</i>	(d) It was cold, <i>but</i> I went swimming <i>anyway</i> . (e) It was cold, <i>but</i> I <i>still</i> went swimming. (f) It was cold, <i>yet</i> I <i>still</i> went swimming.
TRANSITIONS	<i>nevertheless</i> <i>nonetheless</i> <i>however . . . still</i>	(g) It was cold. <i>Nevertheless</i> , I went swimming. (h) It was cold; <i>nonetheless</i> , I went swimming. (i) It was cold. <i>However</i> , I <i>still</i> went swimming.
PREPOSITIONS	<i>despite</i> <i>in spite of</i> <i>despite the fact that</i> <i>in spite of the fact that</i>	(j) I went swimming <i>despite</i> the cold weather. (k) I went swimming <i>in spite of</i> the cold weather. (l) I went swimming <i>despite the fact that</i> the weather was cold. (m) I went swimming <i>in spite of the fact that</i> the weather was cold.

19-7 SHOWING DIRECT CONTRAST

All of the sentences have the same meaning.

ADVERB CLAUSES	<i>while</i> <i>whereas</i>	(a) Mary is rich, <i>while</i> John is poor. (b) John is poor, <i>while</i> Mary is rich. (c) Mary is rich, <i>whereas</i> John is poor. (d) <i>Whereas</i> Mary is rich, John is poor.
CONJUNCTION	<i>but</i>	(e) Mary is rich, <i>but</i> John is poor. (f) John is poor, <i>but</i> Mary is rich.
TRANSITIONS	<i>however</i> <i>on the other hand</i>	(g) Mary is rich; <i>however</i> , John is poor. (h) John is poor; Mary is rich, <i>however</i> . (i) Mary is rich. John, <i>on the other hand</i> , is poor. (j) John is poor. Mary, <i>on the other hand</i> , is rich.

19-8 EXPRESSING CONDITIONS: USING *OTHERWISE* AND *OR (ELSE)*

ADVERB CLAUSE	(a) <i>If I don't eat breakfast, I get hungry.</i> (b) You'll be late <i>if you don't hurry.</i> (c) You'll get wet <i>unless you take your umbrella.</i>	<i>If</i> and <i>unless</i> state conditions that produce certain results. (See Charts 17-5 and 17-8, pp. 90 and 91.)
TRANSITION	(d) I always eat breakfast. <i>Otherwise, I get hungry during class.</i> (e) You'd better hurry. <i>Otherwise, you'll be late.</i> (f) Take your umbrella. <i>Otherwise, you'll get wet.</i>	<i>Otherwise</i> expresses the idea "if the opposite is true, then there will be a certain result." In (d): <i>otherwise</i> = <i>if I don't eat breakfast.</i>
CONJUNCTION	(g) I always eat breakfast, <i>or (else) I get hungry during class.</i> (h) You'd better hurry, <i>or (else) you'll be late.</i> (i) Take your umbrella, <i>or (else) you'll get wet.</i>	<i>Or else</i> and <i>otherwise</i> have the same meaning.

19-9 SUMMARY OF CONNECTIVES: CAUSE AND EFFECT, CONTRAST, CONDITION

	ADVERB CLAUSE WORDS	TRANSITIONS	CONJUNCTIONS	PREPOSITIONS
CAUSE AND EFFECT	<i>because</i> <i>since</i> <i>now that</i>	<i>therefore</i> <i>consequently</i>	<i>so</i> <i>for</i>	<i>because of</i> <i>due to</i>
CONTRAST	<i>even though</i> <i>although</i> <i>though</i>	<i>whereas</i> <i>while</i>	<i>however</i> <i>nevertheless</i> <i>nonetheless</i> <i>on the other hand</i>	<i>despite</i> <i>in spite of</i>
CONDITION	<i>if</i> <i>unless</i> <i>only if</i> <i>even if</i> <i>whether or not</i>	<i>in case</i> <i>in the event that</i>	<i>otherwise</i>	<i>or (else)</i>



CHAPTER 20

Conditional Sentences and Wishes

20-1 OVERVIEW OF BASIC VERB FORMS USED IN CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

SITUATION	IF-CLAUSE	RESULT CLAUSE	EXAMPLES
True in the present/future	simple present	simple present <i>will + simple form</i>	If I <i>have</i> enough time, I <i>watch</i> TV every evening. If I <i>have</i> enough time, I <i>will watch</i> TV later on tonight.
Untrue in the present/future	simple past	<i>would + simple form</i>	If I <i>had</i> enough time, I <i>would watch</i> TV now or later on.
Untrue in the past	past perfect	<i>would have + past participle</i>	If I <i>had had</i> enough time, I <i>would have watched</i> TV yesterday.

20-2 TRUE IN THE PRESENT OR FUTURE

(a) If I *don't eat* breakfast, I always *get* hungry during class.

(b) Water *freezes* OR *will freeze* if the temperature reaches 32°F/0°C.

(c) If I *don't eat* breakfast tomorrow morning, I *will get* hungry during class.

(d) If it *rains*, we *should stay* home.
If it *rains*, I *might decide* to stay home.
If it *rains*, we *can't go*.
If it *rains*, we're *going to stay* home.

(e) If anyone *calls*, please *take* a message.

(f) If anyone *should call*, please take a message.

In conditional sentences that express true, factual ideas in the present/future, the *simple present* (not the simple future) is used in the *if*-clause.

The result clause has various possible verb forms. A result clause verb can be:

1. the *simple present*, to express a habitual activity or situation, as in (a).
2. either the *simple present* or the *simple future*, to express an established, predictable fact or general truth, as in (b).
3. the *simple future*, to express a particular activity or situation in the future, as in (c).
4. *modals* and *phrasal modals* such as ***should, might, can, be going to***, as in (d).*
5. an imperative verb, as in (e).

Sometimes ***should*** is used in an *if*-clause. It indicates a little more uncertainty than the use of the simple present, but basically the meaning of examples (e) and (f) is the same.

*See Chart 9-1, p. 43, for a list of modals and phrasal modals.

20-3 UNTRUE (CONTRARY TO FACT) IN THE PRESENT OR FUTURE

- (a) If I **taught** this class, I **wouldn't give** tests.
 (b) If he **were** here right now, he **would help** us.
 (c) If I **were** you, I **would accept** their invitation.

In (a): In truth, I don't teach this class.
 In (b): In truth, he is not here right now.
 In (c): In truth, I am not you.

Note: **Were** is used for both singular and plural subjects. **Was** (with *I, he, she, it*) is sometimes used in informal speech: *If I **was** you, I'd accept their invitation.*

COMPARE

- (d) If I had enough money, I **would buy** a car.
 (e) If I had enough money, I **could buy** a car.

In (d): The speaker wants a car, but doesn't have enough money. **Would** expresses desired or predictable results.

In (e): The speaker is expressing one possible result. **Could** = *would be able to*. **Could** expresses possible options.



If I **were** a bird, I **wouldn't want** to spend my whole life in a cage.

20-4 UNTRUE (CONTRARY TO FACT) IN THE PAST

- (a) If you **had told** me about the problem, I **would have helped** you.
 (b) If they **had studied**, they **would have passed** the exam.
 (c) If I **hadn't slipped** on the stairs, I **wouldn't have broken** my arm.

In (a): In truth, you did not tell me about it.
 In (b): In truth, they did not study. Therefore, they failed the exam.
 In (c): In truth, I slipped on the stairs. I broke my arm.
 Note: The auxiliary verbs are almost always contracted in speech. "If you'd told me, I would've helped you (OR I'd've helped you)."*

COMPARE

- (d) If I had had enough money, I **would have bought** a car.
 (e) If I had had enough money, I **could have bought** a car.

In (d): **would** expresses a desired or predictable result.
 In (e): **could** expresses a possible option; *could have bought* = *would have been able to buy*.

*In casual, informal speech, some native speakers sometimes use **would have** in an *if*-clause: *If you **would've told** me about the problem, I **would've helped** you.* This verb form usage is generally considered not to be grammatically correct standard English, but it occurs fairly commonly.

20-5 USING PROGRESSIVE VERB FORMS IN CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

Notice the use of progressive verb forms in these examples. Even in conditional sentences, progressive verb forms are used in progressive situations. (See Chart 1-2, p. 2, for a discussion of progressive verbs.)

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| (a) TRUE: | <i>It is raining</i> right now, so I <i>will not go</i> for a walk. |
| (b) CONDITIONAL: | If it <i>were not raining</i> right now, I <i>would go</i> for a walk. |
| (c) TRUE: | I <i>am not living</i> in Chile. I <i>am not working</i> at a bank. |
| (d) CONDITIONAL: | If I <i>were living</i> in Chile, I <i>would be working</i> at a bank. |
| (e) TRUE: | <i>It was raining</i> yesterday afternoon, so I <i>did not go</i> for a walk. |
| (f) CONDITIONAL: | If it <i>had not been raining</i> , I <i>would have gone</i> for a walk. |
| (g) TRUE: | I <i>was not living</i> in Chile last year. I <i>was not working</i> at a bank. |
| (h) CONDITIONAL: | If I <i>had been living</i> in Chile last year, I <i>would have been working</i> at a bank. |

20-6 USING "MIXED TIME" IN CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

Frequently the time in the *if*-clause and the time in the result clause are different: one clause may be in the present and the other in the past. Notice that past and present times are mixed in these sentences.

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| (a) TRUE: | I <i>did not eat</i> breakfast several hours ago, so I <i>am</i> hungry now. |
| (b) CONDITIONAL: | If I <i>had eaten</i> breakfast several hours ago, I <i>would not be</i> hungry now.
(<i>past</i>) (present) |
| (c) TRUE: | He <i>is not</i> a good student. He <i>did not study</i> for the test yesterday. |
| (d) CONDITIONAL: | If he <i>were</i> a good student, he <i>would have studied</i> for the test yesterday.
(present) (past) |

20-7 OMITTING IF

- (a) *Were I* you, I wouldn't do that.
 (b) *Had I known*, I would have told you.
 (c) *Should anyone call*, please take a message.

With *were*, *had* (past perfect), and *should*, sometimes *if* is omitted and the subject and verb are inverted.

In (a): *Were I you* = *if I were you*.

In (b): *Had I known* = *if I had known*.

In (c): *Should anyone call* = *if anyone should call*.

20-8 IMPLIED CONDITIONS

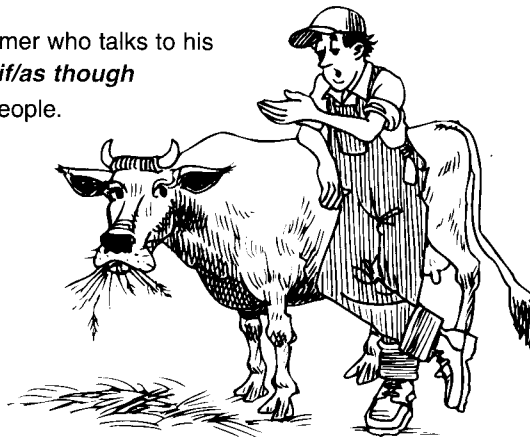
<p>(a) I <i>would have gone</i> with you, <i>but I had to study</i>. (b) I never <i>would have succeeded without your help</i>.</p>	<p>Often the <i>if</i>-clause is implied, not stated. Conditional verbs are still used in the result clause. In (a): the implied condition = <i>if I hadn't had to study</i>. In (b): the implied condition = <i>if you hadn't helped me</i>.</p>
<p>(c) She ran; <i>otherwise</i>, she <i>would have missed</i> her bus.</p>	<p>Conditional verbs are frequently used following otherwise. In (c), the implied <i>if</i>-clause = <i>if she had not run</i>.</p>

20-9 USING AS IF/AS THOUGH

<p>(a) It looks like rain. (b) It looks as if it is going to rain. (c) It looks as though it is going to rain. (d) It looks like it is going to rain. (<i>informal</i>)</p>	<p>Notice in (a): like is followed by a noun object. Notice in (b) and (c): as if and as though are followed by a clause. Notice in (d): like is followed by a clause. This use of like is common in informal English, but is not generally considered appropriate in formal English; as if or as though is preferred. (a), (b), (c), and (d) all have the same meaning.</p>
--	--

"TRUE" STATEMENT (FACT)	VERB FORM AFTER AS IF/AS THOUGH	Usually the idea following as if/as though is "untrue." In this case, verb usage is similar to that in conditional sentences.
<p>(e) He is not a child. (f) She did not take a shower with her clothes on. (g) He has met her. (h) She will be here.</p>	<p>She talked to him as if he were a child. When she came in from the rainstorm, she looked as if she had taken a shower with her clothes on. He acted as though he had never met her. She spoke as if she wouldn't be here.</p>	

I know a farmer who talks to his animals **as if/as though** they were people.



20-10 VERB FORMS FOLLOWING WISH

Wish is used when the speaker wants reality to be different, to be exactly the opposite.

	"TRUE" STATEMENT	VERB FORM FOLLOWING WISH	<p>Wish is followed by a noun clause. (See Chart 12-5, p. 63.) Past verb forms, similar to those in conditional sentences, are used in the noun clause. For example, in (a): would, the past form of will, is used to make a wish about the future. In (d): the simple past (knew) is used to make a wish about the present. In (g): the past perfect (had come) is used to make a wish about the past.</p>
A wish about the future	(a) She will not tell me. (b) He isn't going to be here. (c) She can't come tomorrow.	I <i>wish</i> (that) she would tell me. I <i>wish</i> he were going to be here. I <i>wish</i> she could come tomorrow.	
A wish about the present	(d) I don't know French. (e) It is raining right now. (f) I can't speak Japanese.	I <i>wish</i> I knew French. I <i>wish</i> it weren't raining right now. I <i>wish</i> I could speak Japanese.	
A wish about the past	(g) John didn't come . (h) Mary couldn't come .	I <i>wish</i> John had come .* I <i>wish</i> Mary could have come .	

*Sometimes in very informal speaking: *I wish John would have come.*

20-11 USING WOULD TO MAKE WISHES ABOUT THE FUTURE

(a) It is raining. I <i>wish</i> it would stop . (<i>I want it to stop raining.</i>) (b) I'm expecting a call. I <i>wish</i> the phone would ring . (<i>I want the phone to ring.</i>)	<p>Would is usually used to indicate that the speaker wants something to happen or someone other than the speaker to do something in the future. The wish may or may not come true (be realized).</p>
(c) It's going to be a good party. I <i>wish</i> you would come . (d) We're going to be late. I <i>wish</i> you would hurry .	<p>In (c) and (d): I wish you would . . . is often used to make a request.</p>



APPENDIX

Supplementary Grammar Units

UNIT A: Basic Grammar Terminology

A-1 SUBJECTS, VERBS, AND OBJECTS

(a) $\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \\ \text{Birds} \\ \text{(NOUN)} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c} \text{V} \\ \text{fly.} \\ \text{(VERB)} \end{array}$

(b) $\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \\ \text{The baby} \\ \text{(NOUN)} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c} \text{V} \\ \text{cried.} \\ \text{(VERB)} \end{array}$

(c) $\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \\ \text{The student} \\ \text{(NOUN)} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c} \text{V} \\ \text{needs} \\ \text{(VERB)} \end{array}$ a $\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \text{pen.} \\ \text{(NOUN)} \end{array}$

(d) $\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \\ \text{My friend} \\ \text{(NOUN)} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c} \text{V} \\ \text{enjoyed} \\ \text{(VERB)} \end{array}$ the $\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \text{party.} \\ \text{(NOUN)} \end{array}$

Almost all English sentences contain a subject (s) and a verb (v). The verb may or may not be followed by an object (o).

VERBS: Verbs that are not followed by an object, as in (a) and (b), are called "intransitive verbs." Common intransitive verbs: *agree, arrive, come, cry, exist, go, happen, live, occur, rain, rise, sleep, stay, walk.*

Verbs that are followed by an object, as in (c) and (d), are called "transitive verbs." Common transitive verbs: *build, cut, find, like, make, need, send, use, want.*

Some verbs can be either intransitive or transitive.

intransitive: *A student studies.*

transitive: *A student studies books.*

SUBJECTS AND OBJECTS: The subjects and objects of verbs are nouns (or pronouns). Examples of nouns: *person, place, thing, John, Asia, pen, information, appearance, amusement.*

A-2 PREPOSITIONS AND PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

COMMON PREPOSITIONS

<i>about</i>	<i>at</i>	<i>beyond</i>	<i>into</i>	<i>since</i>	<i>up</i>
<i>above</i>	<i>before</i>	<i>by</i>	<i>like</i>	<i>through</i>	<i>upon</i>
<i>across</i>	<i>behind</i>	<i>despite</i>	<i>near</i>	<i>throughout</i>	<i>with</i>
<i>after</i>	<i>below</i>	<i>down</i>	<i>of</i>	<i>till</i>	<i>within</i>
<i>against</i>	<i>beneath</i>	<i>during</i>	<i>off</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>without</i>
<i>along</i>	<i>beside</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>on</i>	<i>toward(s)</i>	
<i>among</i>	<i>besides</i>	<i>from</i>	<i>out</i>	<i>under</i>	
<i>around</i>	<i>between</i>	<i>in</i>	<i>over</i>	<i>until</i>	

(a) $\overbrace{\text{The student}}^{\text{S}}$ $\overbrace{\text{studies}}^{\text{V}}$ $\overbrace{\text{in the}}^{\text{PREP}}$ $\overbrace{\text{library.}}^{\text{O of PREP}}$
(NOUN)

(b) $\overbrace{\text{We}}^{\text{S}}$ $\overbrace{\text{enjoyed}}^{\text{V}}$ $\overbrace{\text{the party}}^{\text{O}}$ $\overbrace{\text{at}}^{\text{PREP}}$ $\overbrace{\text{your house.}}^{\text{O of PREP}}$
(NOUN)

(c) We went $\overbrace{\text{to the zoo}}^{\text{(place)}}$ $\overbrace{\text{in the afternoon.}}^{\text{(time)}}$

(d) *In the afternoon*, we went to the zoo.

An important element of English sentences is the prepositional phrase. It consists of a preposition (**PREP**) and its object (**O**). The object of a preposition is a noun or pronoun. In (a): *in the library* is a prepositional phrase.

In (c): In most English sentences, “place” comes before “time.”

In (d): Sometimes a prepositional phrase comes at the beginning of a sentence.

A-3 ADJECTIVES

(a) Ann is an *intelligent* student.
(ADJECTIVE) (NOUN)

(b) The *hungry* child ate fruit.
(ADJECTIVE) (NOUN)

(c) I saw some *beautiful* pictures.
INCORRECT: beautifuls pictures

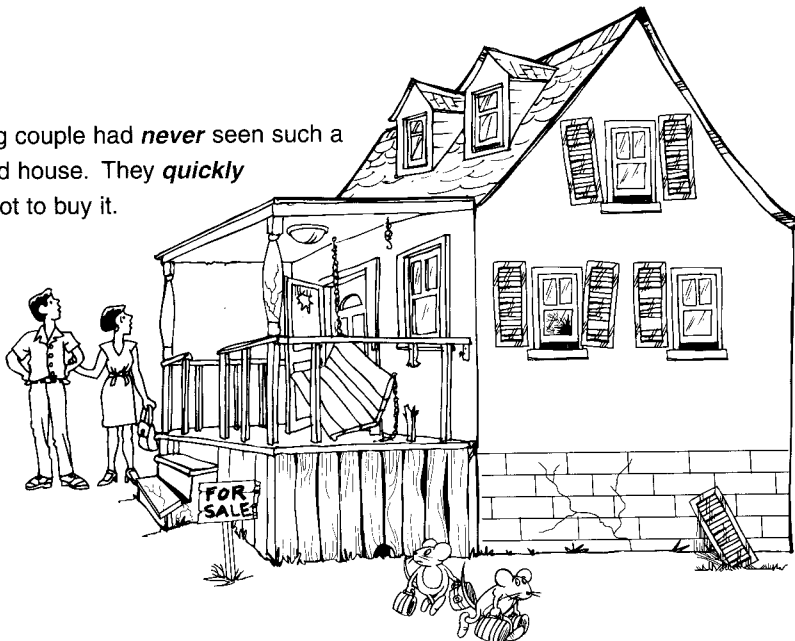
Adjectives describe nouns. In grammar, we say that adjectives modify nouns. The word “modify” means “change a little.” Adjectives give a little different meaning to a noun: *intelligent student, lazy student, good student*. Examples of adjectives: *young, old, rich, beautiful, brown, French, modern*.

An adjective is neither singular nor plural. A final **-s** is never added to an adjective.

A-4 ADVERBS

(a) He walks quickly . (ADVERB)	Adverbs modify verbs. Often they answer the question "How?" In (a): <i>How does he walk?</i> Answer: <i>Quickly</i> .				
(b) She opened the door quietly . (ADVERB)	Adverbs are often formed by adding -ly to an adjective. adjective: quick adverb: quickly				
(c) I am extremely happy. (ADVERB) (ADJECTIVE)	Adverbs are also used to modify adjectives, i.e., to give information about adjectives, as in (c).				
(d) Ann will come tomorrow . (ADVERB)	Adverbs are also used to express time or frequency. Examples: <i>tomorrow, today, yesterday, soon, never, usually, always, yet</i> .				
MIDSENTENCE ADVERBS (e) Ann always comes on time. (f) Ann is always on time. (g) Ann has always come on time. (h) Does she always come on time?	Some adverbs may occur in the middle of a sentence. Midsentence adverbs have usual positions; they (1) come in front of simple present and simple past verbs (except be), as in (e); (2) follow be (simple present and simple past), as in (f); (3) come between a helping verb and a main verb, as in (g). In a question, a midsentence adverb comes directly after the subject, as in (h).				
COMMON MIDSENTENCE ADVERBS					
<i>ever</i> <i>always</i>	<i>usually</i> <i>often</i> <i>frequently</i>	<i>generally</i> <i>sometimes</i> <i>occasionally</i>	<i>seldom</i> <i>rarely</i> <i>hardly ever</i>	<i>never</i> <i>not ever</i>	<i>already</i> <i>finally</i> <i>just</i> <i>probably</i>

The young couple had **never** seen such a dilapidated house. They **quickly** decided not to buy it.



A-5 THE VERB BE

- (a) John *is* a student.
(BE) (NOUN)
- (b) John *is* intelligent.
(BE) (ADJ)
- (c) John *was* at the library.
(BE) (PREP. PHRASE)

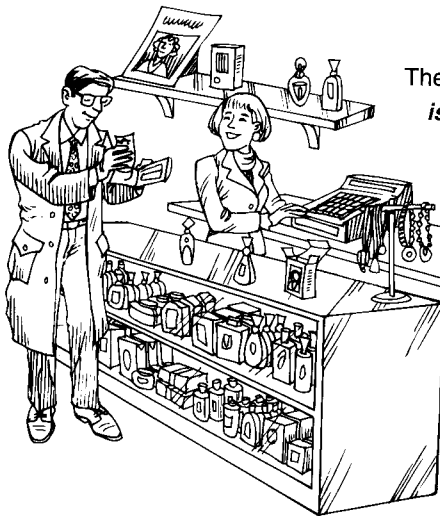
A sentence with **be** as the main verb has three basic patterns:
 In (a): **be** + a noun
 In (b): **be** + an adjective
 In (c): **be** + a prepositional phrase

- (d) Mary *is* writing a letter.
 (e) They *were* listening to some music.
 (f) That letter *was* written by Alice.

Be is also used as an auxiliary verb in progressive verb tenses and in the passive.
 In (d): **is** = auxiliary; **writing** = main verb

TENSE FORMS OF BE

	SIMPLE PRESENT	SIMPLE PAST	PRESENT PERFECT
SINGULAR	<i>I am</i> <i>you are</i> <i>he, she, it is</i>	<i>I was</i> <i>you were</i> <i>he, she, it was</i>	<i>I have been</i> <i>you have been</i> <i>he, she, it has been</i>
PLURAL	<i>we, you, they are</i>	<i>we, you, they were</i>	<i>we, you, they have been</i>



The woman behind the perfume counter *is* a sales clerk. The man *is* buying some perfume from her.

A-6 LINKING VERBS

- (a) The soup *smells* good.
(LINKING VERB) (ADJECTIVE)
- (b) This food *tastes* delicious.
- (c) The children *feel* happy.
- (d) The weather *became* cold.

Other verbs like **be** that may be followed immediately by an adjective are called "linking verbs." An adjective following a linking verb describes the subject of a sentence.*

Common verbs that may be followed by an adjective:

- *feel, look, smell, sound, taste*
- *appear, seem*
- *become* (and *get, turn, grow* when they mean "become")

*COMPARE:

- (1) *The man looks angry.* → An adjective (**angry**) follows **look**. The adjective describes the subject (**the man**). **Look** has the meaning of "appear."
- (2) *The man looked at me angrily.* → An adverb (**angrily**) follows **look at**. The adverb describes the action of the verb. **Look at** has the meaning of "regard, watch."

UNIT B: Questions

B-1 FORMS OF YES/NO AND INFORMATION QUESTIONS

A yes/no question = a question that may be answered by *yes* or *no*.

A: Does he live in Chicago?

B: Yes, he does. OR No, he doesn't.

An information question = a question that asks for information by using a question word.

A: Where does he live?

B: In Chicago.

Question word order = (Question word) + helping verb + subject + main verb

Notice that the same subject-verb order is used in both yes/no and information questions.

(QUESTION WORD)	HELPING VERB	SUBJECT	MAIN VERB	(REST OF SENTENCE)	
(a) (b) Where	<i>Does</i> <i>does</i>	<i>she</i> <i>she</i>	<i>live</i> <i>live?</i>	there?	If the verb is in the simple present, use does (with <i>he, she, it</i>) or do (with <i>I, you, we, they</i>) in the question. If the verb is simple past, use did . Notice: The main verb in the question is in its simple form; there is no final -s or -ed .
(c) (d) Where	<i>Do</i> <i>do</i>	<i>they</i> <i>they</i>	<i>live</i> <i>live?</i>	there?	
(e) (f) Where	<i>Did</i> <i>did</i>	<i>he</i> <i>he</i>	<i>live</i> <i>live?</i>	there?	
(g) (h) Where	<i>Is</i> <i>is</i>	<i>he</i> <i>he</i>	<i>living</i> <i>living?</i>	there?	
(i) (j) Where	<i>Have</i> <i>have</i>	<i>they</i> <i>they</i>	<i>lived</i> <i>lived?</i>	there?	
(k) (l) Where	<i>Can</i> <i>can</i>	<i>Mary</i> <i>Mary</i>	<i>live</i> <i>live?</i>	there?	
(m) (n) Where	<i>Will</i> <i>will</i>	<i>he</i> <i>he</i>	<i>be living</i> <i>be living?</i>	there?	If the verb has an auxiliary (a helping verb), the same auxiliary is used in the question. There is no change in the form of the main verb. If the verb has more than one auxiliary, only the first auxiliary precedes the subject, as in (m) and (n).
(o) Who (p) Who	\emptyset <i>can</i>	\emptyset \emptyset	<i>lives</i> <i>come?</i>	there?	If the question word is the subject, usual question word order is not used; does , do , and did are not used. The verb is in the same form in a question as it is in a statement. Statement: <i>Tom came</i> . Question: <i>Who came?</i>
(q) (r) Where	<i>Are</i> <i>are</i>	<i>they</i> <i>they?</i>	\emptyset \emptyset	there?	Main verb be in the simple present (<i>am, is, are</i>) and simple past (<i>was, were</i>) precedes the subject. It has the same position as a helping verb.
(s) (t) Where	<i>Was</i> <i>was</i>	<i>Jim</i> <i>Jim?</i>	\emptyset \emptyset	there?	

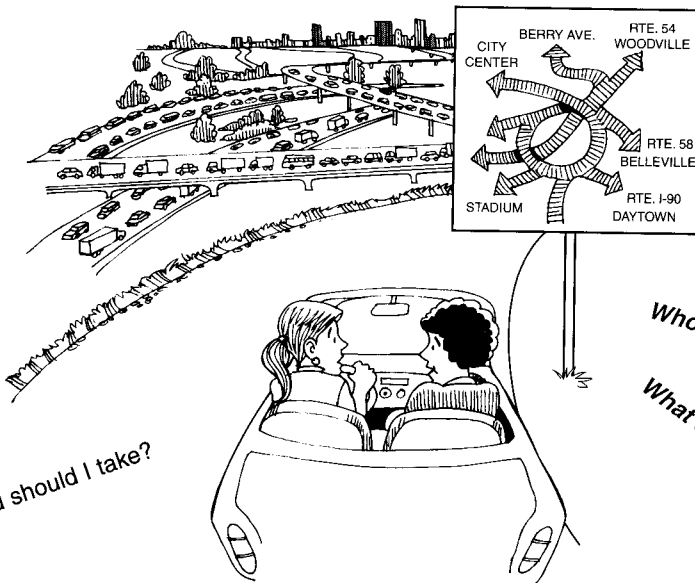
B-2 QUESTION WORDS

	QUESTION	ANSWER	
WHEN	(a) <i>When</i> did they arrive? <i>When</i> will you come?	Yesterday. Next Monday.	When is used to ask questions about <i>time</i> .
WHERE	(b) <i>Where</i> is she? <i>Where</i> can I find a pen?	At home. In that drawer.	Where is used to ask questions about <i>place</i> .
WHY	(c) <i>Why</i> did he leave early? <i>Why</i> aren't you coming with us?	Because he's ill. I'm tired.	Why is used to ask questions about <i>reason</i> .
HOW	(d) <i>How</i> did you come to school? <i>How</i> does he drive?	By bus. Carefully.	How generally asks about <i>manner</i> .
	(e) <i>How much</i> money does it cost? <i>How many</i> people came?	Ten dollars. Fifteen.	How is used with <i>much</i> and <i>many</i> .
	(f) <i>How old</i> are you? <i>How cold</i> is it? <i>How soon</i> can you get here? <i>How fast</i> were you driving? (g) <i>How long</i> has he been here? <i>How often</i> do you write home? <i>How far</i> is it to Miami from here?	Twelve. Ten below zero. In ten minutes. 50 miles an hour. Two years. Every week. 500 miles.	How is also used with adjectives and adverbs. How long asks about <i>length of time</i> . How often asks about <i>frequency</i> . How far asks about <i>distance</i> .

Why didn't you bring the directions?

Whose idea was it to take this route?

Where's our map?



Which road should I take?

Who can we call if we get lost?

What are we supposed to do now?

How do we get to Maple Street from here?

WHO	(h) <i>Who</i> can answer that question? <i>Who</i> came to visit you?	I can. Jane and Eric.	<i>Who</i> is used as the subject of a question. It refers to people.
	(i) <i>Who</i> is coming to dinner tonight? <i>Who</i> wants to come with me?	Ann, Bob, and Al. We do.	<i>Who</i> is usually followed by a singular verb even if the speaker is asking about more than one person.
WHOM	(j) <i>Who(m)</i> did you see? <i>Who(m)</i> are you visiting? (k) <i>Who(m)</i> should I talk to? To <i>whom</i> should I talk? (<i>formal</i>)	I saw George. My relatives. The secretary.	<i>Whom</i> is used as the object of a verb or preposition. In everyday spoken English, <i>whom</i> is rarely used; <i>who</i> is used instead. <i>Whom</i> is used only in formal questions. Note: <i>Whom</i> , not <i>who</i> , is used if preceded by a preposition.
WHOSE	(l) <i>Whose</i> book did you borrow? <i>Whose</i> key is this? (<i>Whose</i> is this?)	David's. It's mine.	<i>Whose</i> asks questions about possession.
WHAT	(m) <i>What</i> made you angry? <i>What</i> went wrong?	His rudeness. Everything.	<i>What</i> is used as the subject of a question. It refers to things.
	(n) <i>What</i> do you need? <i>What</i> did Alice buy?	I need a pencil. A book.	<i>What</i> is also used as an object.
	(o) <i>What</i> did he talk about? About <i>what</i> did he talk? (<i>formal</i>)	His vacation.	
	(p) <i>What kind of</i> soup is that? <i>What kind of</i> shoes did he buy?	It's bean soup. Sandals.	<i>What kind of</i> asks about the particular variety or type of something.
	(q) <i>What did you do</i> last night? <i>What is Mary doing</i> ?	I studied. Reading a book.	<i>What + a form of do</i> is used to ask questions about activities.
	(r) <i>What countries</i> did you visit? <i>What time</i> did she come? <i>What color</i> is his hair?	Italy and Spain. Seven o'clock. Dark brown.	<i>What</i> may accompany a noun.
	(s) <i>What is Ed like</i> ?	He's kind and friendly.	<i>What + be like</i> asks for a general description of qualities.
	(t) <i>What is the weather like</i> ?	Hot and humid.	
WHICH	(u) <i>What does Ed look like</i> ?	He's tall and has dark hair.	<i>What + look like</i> asks for a physical description.
	(v) <i>What does her house look like</i> ?	It's a two-story,* red brick house.	
	(w) I have two pens. <i>Which pen</i> do you want? <i>Which one</i> do you want? <i>Which do</i> you want?	The blue one.	<i>Which</i> is used instead of <i>what</i> when a question concerns choosing from a definite, known quantity or group.
	(x) <i>Which book</i> should I buy?	That one.	
	(y) <i>Which countries</i> did he visit? <i>What countries</i> did he visit?	Peru and Chile.	In some cases, there is little difference in meaning between <i>which</i> and <i>what</i> when they accompany a noun, as in (y) and (z).
	(z) <i>Which class</i> are you in? <i>What class</i> are you in?	This class.	

*American English: a two-story house.

British English: a two-storey house.

B-3 SHORTENED YES/NO QUESTIONS

- (a) *Going to bed now?* = *Are you going to bed now?*
 (b) *Finish your work?* = *Did you finish your work?*
 (c) *Want to go to the movie with us?* = *Do you want to go to the movie with us?*

Sometimes in spoken English, the auxiliary and the subject **you** are dropped from a yes/no question, as in (a), (b), and (c).

B-4 NEGATIVE QUESTIONS

- (a) *Doesn't she live* in the dormitory?
 (b) *Does she not live* in the dormitory? (*very formal*)

In a yes/no question in which the verb is negative, usually a contraction (e.g., *does + not = doesn't*) is used, as in (a).

Example (b) is very formal and is usually not used in everyday speech.

Negative questions are used to indicate the speaker's idea (i.e., what s/he believes is or is not true) or attitude (e.g., surprise, shock, annoyance, anger).

- (c) Bob returns to his dorm room after his nine o'clock class. Matt, his roommate, is there. Bob is surprised.
 Bob says, "*What are you doing here? Aren't you supposed to be in class now?*"

In (c): Bob believes that Matt is supposed to be in class now.

Expected answer: Yes.

- (d) Alice and Mary are at home. Mary is about to leave on a trip, and Alice is going to take her to the airport.
 Alice says, "*It's already two o'clock. We'd better leave for the airport. Doesn't your plane leave at three?*"

In (d): Alice believes that Mary's plane leaves at three. She is asking the negative question to make sure that her information is correct.

Expected answer: Yes.

- (e) The teacher is talking to Jim about a test he failed. The teacher is surprised that Jim failed the test because he usually does very well.
 The teacher says: "*What happened? Didn't you study?*"

In (e): The teacher believes that Jim did not study.

Expected answer: No.

- (f) Barb and Ron are riding in a car. Ron is driving. He comes to a corner where there is a stop sign, but he does not stop the car. Barb is shocked.
 Barb says, "*What's the matter with you? Didn't you see that stop sign?*"

In (f): Barb believes that Ron did not see the stop sign.

Expected answer: No.

B-5 TAG QUESTIONS

(a) Jack <i>can</i> come, <i>can't</i> he? (b) Fred <i>can't</i> come, <i>can</i> he?	A tag question is a question added at the end of a sentence. Speakers use tag questions chiefly to make sure their information is correct or to seek agreement.*
AFFIRMATIVE SENTENCE + NEGATIVE TAG → AFFIRMATIVE ANSWER EXPECTED	
Mary <i>is</i> here, <i>isn't</i> she? Yes, she is. You <i>like</i> tea, <i>don't</i> you? Yes, I do. They <i>have left</i> , <i>haven't</i> they? Yes, they have.	
NEGATIVE SENTENCE + AFFIRMATIVE TAG → NEGATIVE ANSWER EXPECTED	
Mary <i>isn't</i> here, <i>is</i> she? No, she isn't. You <i>don't like</i> tea, <i>do</i> you? No, I don't. They <i>haven't left</i> , <i>have</i> they? No, they haven't.	
(c) <i>This/That</i> is your book, <i>isn't it</i> ? <i>These/Those</i> are yours, <i>aren't they</i> ?	The tag pronoun for <i>this/that</i> = <i>it</i> . The tag pronoun for <i>these/those</i> = <i>they</i> .
(d) <i>There is</i> a meeting tonight, <i>isn't there</i> ?	In sentences with <i>there</i> + <i>be</i> , <i>there</i> is used in the tag.
(e) <i>Everything</i> is okay, <i>isn't it</i> ? (f) <i>Everyone</i> took the test, <i>didn't they</i> ?	Personal pronouns are used to refer to indefinite pronouns. <i>They</i> is usually used in a tag to refer to <i>everyone</i> , <i>everybody</i> , <i>someone</i> , <i>somebody</i> , <i>no one</i> , <i>nobody</i> .
(g) <i>Nothing is</i> wrong, <i>is</i> it? (h) <i>Nobody called</i> on the phone, <i>did</i> they? (i) You've <i>never been</i> there, <i>have</i> you?	Sentences with negative words take affirmative tags.
(j) <i>I am</i> supposed to be here, <i>am I not</i> ? (k) <i>I am</i> supposed to be here, <i>aren't I</i> ?	In (j): <i>am I not</i> ? is formal English. In (k): <i>aren't I</i> ? is common in spoken English.

*A tag question may be spoken:

- (1) with a rising intonation if the speaker is truly seeking to ascertain that his/her information, idea, belief is correct (e.g., *Ann lives in an apartment, doesn't she?*); OR
- (2) with a falling intonation if the speaker is expressing an idea with which s/he is almost certain the listener will agree (e.g., *It's a nice day today, isn't it?*).

UNIT C: Contractions

C CONTRACTIONS

IN SPEAKING: In everyday spoken English, certain forms of *be* and auxiliary verbs are usually contracted with pronouns, nouns, and question words.

IN WRITING: (1) In written English, contractions with pronouns are common in informal writing, but not generally acceptable in formal writing.

(2) Contractions with nouns and question words are, for the most part, rarely used in writing. A few of these contractions may be found in quoted dialogue in stories or in very informal writing, such as a chatty letter to a good friend, but most of them are rarely if ever written.

In the following, quotation marks indicate that the contraction is frequently spoken, but rarely if ever written.

	WITH PRONOUNS	WITH NOUNS	WITH QUESTION WORDS
am	<i>I'm</i> reading a book.	Ø	" <i>What'm</i> " I supposed to do?
is	<i>She's</i> studying. <i>It's</i> going to rain.	My " <i>book's</i> " on the table. <i>Mary's</i> at home.	<i>Where's</i> Sally? <i>Who's</i> that man?
are	<i>You're</i> working hard. <i>They're</i> waiting for us.	My " <i>books're</i> " on the table. The " <i>teachers're</i> " at a meeting.	" <i>What're</i> " you doing? " <i>Where're</i> " they going?
has	<i>She's</i> been here for a year. <i>It's</i> been cold lately.	My " <i>book's</i> " been stolen! <i>Sally's</i> never met him.	<i>Where's</i> Sally been living? <i>What's</i> been going on?
have	<i>I've</i> finished my work. <i>They've</i> never met you.	The " <i>books've</i> " been sold. The " <i>students've</i> " finished the test.	" <i>Where've</i> " they been? " <i>How've</i> " you been?
had	<i>He'd</i> been waiting for us. <i>We'd</i> forgotten about it.	The " <i>books'd</i> " been sold. " <i>Mary'd</i> " never met him before.	" <i>Where'd</i> " you been before that? " <i>Who'd</i> " been there before you?
did	Ø	Ø	" <i>What'd</i> " you do last night? " <i>How'd</i> " you do on the test?
will	<i>I'll</i> come later. <i>She'll</i> help us.	The " <i>weather'll</i> " be nice tomorrow. " <i>John'll</i> " be coming soon.	" <i>Who'll</i> " be at the meeting? " <i>Where'll</i> " you be at ten?
would	<i>He'd</i> like to go there. <i>They'd</i> come if they could.	My " <i>friends'd</i> " come if they could. " <i>Mary'd</i> " like to go there, too.	" <i>Where'd</i> " you like to go?

UNIT D: Negatives

D-1 USING **NOT** AND OTHER NEGATIVE WORDS

(a) AFFIRMATIVE: The earth is round. (b) NEGATIVE: The earth is <i>not</i> flat.	Not expresses a <i>negative</i> idea.																																																								
<table border="0"> <tr> <td></td> <td>AUX</td> <td>+</td> <td>NOT</td> <td>+</td> <td>MAIN VERB</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>(c) I</td> <td><i>will</i></td> <td></td> <td><i>not</i></td> <td></td> <td><i>go</i></td> <td>there.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>I</td> <td><i>have</i></td> <td></td> <td><i>not</i></td> <td></td> <td><i>gone</i></td> <td>there.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>I</td> <td><i>am</i></td> <td></td> <td><i>not</i></td> <td></td> <td><i>going</i></td> <td>there.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>I</td> <td><i>was</i></td> <td></td> <td><i>not</i></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>there.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>I</td> <td><i>do</i></td> <td></td> <td><i>not</i></td> <td></td> <td><i>go</i></td> <td>there.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>He</td> <td><i>does</i></td> <td></td> <td><i>not</i></td> <td></td> <td><i>go</i></td> <td>there.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>I</td> <td><i>did</i></td> <td></td> <td><i>not</i></td> <td></td> <td><i>go</i></td> <td>there.</td> </tr> </table>		AUX	+	NOT	+	MAIN VERB		(c) I	<i>will</i>		<i>not</i>		<i>go</i>	there.	I	<i>have</i>		<i>not</i>		<i>gone</i>	there.	I	<i>am</i>		<i>not</i>		<i>going</i>	there.	I	<i>was</i>		<i>not</i>			there.	I	<i>do</i>		<i>not</i>		<i>go</i>	there.	He	<i>does</i>		<i>not</i>		<i>go</i>	there.	I	<i>did</i>		<i>not</i>		<i>go</i>	there.	<p>Not immediately follows an auxiliary verb or be. (Note: If there is more than one auxiliary, not comes immediately after the first auxiliary: <i>I will not be going there.</i>)</p> <p>Do or does is used with not to make a simple present verb (except be) negative.</p> <p>Did is used with not to make a simple past verb (except be) negative.</p>
	AUX	+	NOT	+	MAIN VERB																																																				
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CONTRACTIONS OF AUXILIARY VERBS WITH NOT																																																									
<i>are not</i> = <i>aren't</i> * <i>cannot</i> = <i>can't</i> <i>could not</i> = <i>couldn't</i> <i>did not</i> = <i>didn't</i> <i>does not</i> = <i>doesn't</i> <i>do not</i> = <i>don't</i>	<i>has not</i> = <i>hasn't</i> <i>have not</i> = <i>haven't</i> <i>had not</i> = <i>hadn't</i> <i>is not</i> = <i>isn't</i> <i>must not</i> = <i>mustn't</i> <i>should not</i> = <i>shouldn't</i>	<i>was not</i> = <i>wasn't</i> <i>were not</i> = <i>weren't</i> <i>will not</i> = <i>won't</i> <i>would not</i> = <i>wouldn't</i>																																																							
(d) I almost <i>never</i> go there. I have <i>hardly ever</i> gone there. (e) There's <i>no</i> chalk in the drawer.	<p>In addition to not, the following are negative adverbs: <i>never, rarely, seldom</i> <i>hardly (ever), scarcely (ever), barely (ever)</i></p> <p>No also expresses a negative idea.</p>																																																								
COMPARE: NOT VS. NO																																																									
(f) I <i>do not have</i> any money. (g) I have <i>no money</i> .	<p>Not is used to make a verb negative, as in (f).</p> <p>No is used as an adjective in front of a noun (e.g., <i>money</i>), as in (g).</p> <p>Note: (f) and (g) have the same meaning.</p>																																																								

*Sometimes in spoken English you will hear "ain't." It means "am not," "isn't," or "aren't." *Ain't* is not considered proper English, but many people use *ain't* regularly, and it is also frequently used for humor.

D-2 AVOIDING DOUBLE NEGATIVES

- (a) *INCORRECT*: I *don't* have *no* money.
(b) *CORRECT*: I *don't* have *any* money.
CORRECT: I have *no* money.

(a) is an example of a “double negative,” i.e., a confusing and grammatically incorrect sentence that contains two negatives in the same clause. One clause should contain only one negative.*

*NOTE: Negatives in two different clauses in the same sentence cause no problems; for example:

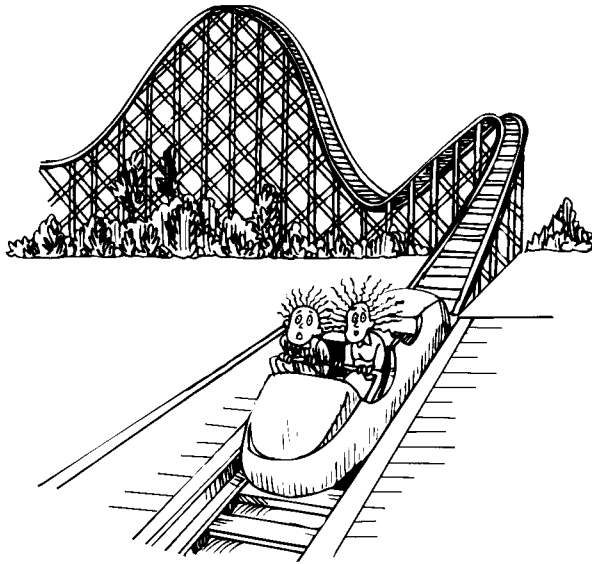
*A person who **doesn't** have love **can't** be truly happy.*
*I **don't** know why he **isn't** here.*

D-3 BEGINNING A SENTENCE WITH A NEGATIVE WORD

- (a) *Never will I do* that again!
(b) *Rarely have I eaten* better food.
(c) *Hardly ever does he* come to class on time.

When a negative word begins a sentence, the subject and verb are inverted (i.e., question word order is used).*

*Beginning a sentence with a negative word is relatively uncommon in everyday usage, but is used when the speaker/writer wishes to emphasize the negative element of the sentence and be expressive.



Never will I ride a rollercoaster again!
It's just too scary!

UNIT E: Preposition Combinations

E PREPOSITION COMBINATIONS WITH ADJECTIVES AND VERBS

A	<i>be</i> absent from <i>be</i> accused of <i>be</i> accustomed to <i>be</i> acquainted with <i>be</i> addicted to <i>be</i> afraid of agree with <i>be</i> angry at, with <i>be</i> annoyed with, by apologize for apply to, for approve of argue with, about arrive in, at <i>be</i> associated with <i>be</i> aware of	<i>be</i> done with dream of, about <i>be</i> dressed in	O	object to <i>be</i> opposed to	
B	believe in blame for <i>be</i> blessed with <i>be</i> bored with, by	E	<i>be</i> engaged in, to <i>be</i> envious of <i>be</i> equipped with escape from excel in, at <i>be</i> excited about <i>be</i> exhausted from excuse for <i>be</i> exposed to	P	participate in <i>be</i> patient with <i>be</i> pleased with <i>be</i> polite to pray for <i>be</i> prepared for prevent from prohibit from <i>be</i> protected from <i>be</i> proud of provide with
C	<i>be</i> capable of care about, for <i>be</i> cluttered with <i>be</i> committed to compare to, with complain about, of <i>be</i> composed of <i>be</i> concerned about <i>be</i> connected to consist of <i>be</i> content with contribute to <i>be</i> convinced of <i>be</i> coordinated with count (up)on <i>be</i> covered with <i>be</i> crowded with	F	<i>be</i> faithful to <i>be</i> familiar with feel like fight for <i>be</i> filled with <i>be</i> finished with <i>be</i> fond of forget about forgive for <i>be</i> friendly to, with <i>be</i> frightened of, by <i>be</i> furnished with	Q	<i>be</i> qualified for
D	decide (up)on <i>be</i> dedicated to depend (up)on <i>be</i> devoted to <i>be</i> disappointed in, with <i>be</i> discriminated against distinguish from <i>be</i> divorced from	G	<i>be</i> gone from <i>be</i> grateful to, for <i>be</i> guilty of	R	recover from <i>be</i> related to <i>be</i> relevant to rely (up)on <i>be</i> remembered for rescue from respond to <i>be</i> responsible for
		H	hide from hope for	S	<i>be</i> satisfied with <i>be</i> scared of, by stare at stop from subscribe to substitute for succeed in
		I	<i>be</i> innocent of insist (up)on <i>be</i> interested in introduce to <i>be</i> involved in	T	take advantage of take care of talk about, of <i>be</i> terrified of, by thank for think about, of <i>be</i> tired of, from
		J	<i>be</i> jealous of	U	<i>be</i> upset with <i>be</i> used to
		K	keep from <i>be</i> known for	V	vote for
		L	<i>be</i> limited to <i>be</i> located in look forward to	W	<i>be</i> worried about
		M	<i>be</i> made of, from <i>be</i> married to		

UNIT F: Connectives to Give Examples and to Continue an Idea

F-1 CONNECTIVES TO GIVE EXAMPLES

<p>(a) There are many interesting places to visit in the city. <i>For example</i>, the botanical garden has numerous displays of plants from all over the world.</p> <p>(b) There are many interesting places to visit in the city. The art museum, <i>for instance</i>, has an excellent collection of modern paintings.</p>	<p><i>For example</i> and <i>for instance</i> have the same meaning. They are often used as transitions. (See Chart 19-3, p. 96.)</p>
<p>(c) There are many interesting places to visit in the city, <i>e.g.</i>, the botanical garden and the art museum.</p> <p>(d) There are many interesting places to visit in the city, <i>for example</i>, the botanical garden or the art museum.</p>	<p><i>e.g.</i> = <i>for example</i> (<i>e.g.</i> is an abbreviation of the Latin phrase <i>exempli gratia</i>.)[*] (c) and (d) have the same meaning.</p>
<p>(e) I prefer to wear casual clothes, <i>such as</i> jeans and a sweatshirt.</p> <p>(f) Some countries, <i>such as</i> Brazil and Canada, are big.</p> <p>(g) Countries <i>such as</i> Brazil and Canada are big.</p> <p>(h) <i>Such</i> countries <i>as</i> Brazil and Canada are big.</p>	<p><i>such as</i> = <i>for example</i></p> <p>(f), (g), and (h) have essentially the same meaning even though the pattern varies.^{**}</p>

*Punctuation note: Periods are used with *e.g.* in American English. Periods are generally not used with *eg* in British English.

**Punctuation note:

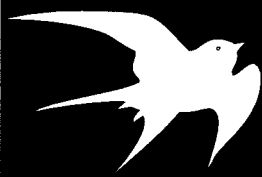
- (1) When the “*such as* phrase” can be omitted without substantially changing the meaning of the sentence, commas are used.
Example: Some words, such as *know* and *see*, are verbs. (*Commas are used.*)
- (2) No commas are used when the “*such as* phrase” gives essential information about the noun to which it refers.
Example: Words such as *know* and *see* are verbs. (*No commas are used.*)

F-2 CONNECTIVES TO CONTINUE THE SAME IDEA

<p>(a) The city provides many cultural opportunities. It has an excellent art museum.</p> <p><i>Moreover,</i> <i>furthermore,</i> } it has a fine symphony orchestra. <i>in addition,</i></p>	<p><i>Moreover</i>, <i>furthermore</i>, and <i>in addition</i> mean “also.” They are <i>transitions</i>. (See Chart 19-3, p. 96.)</p>
<p>(b) The city provides many cultural opportunities.</p> <p><i>in addition to</i> } an excellent art museum, it has <i>Besides</i></p> <p>a fine symphony orchestra.</p>	<p>In (b): <i>In addition to</i> and <i>besides</i>[*] are used as prepositions. They are followed by an object (<i>museum</i>), not a clause.</p>

*COMPARE: *Besides* means “in addition to.”

Beside means “next to”; e.g., *I sat beside my friend.*



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Able to , 53, 55 (Look on pages 53 and 55.)	The numbers following the words listed in the index refer to page numbers in the main text.
Be , A4 (Look in the back part of this book on the fourth page of the Appendix.)	The index numbers preceded by the letter “A” (e.g., A4) refer to pages in the Appendix, which is found in the last part of the text. The main text ends on page 104, and the appendix immediately follows. Page 104 is followed by page A1.
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