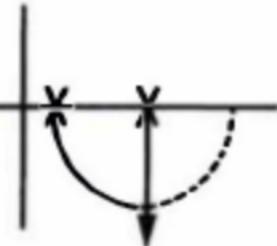


## 3-5 Future Progressive



- (a) I will begin to study at seven. You will come at eight. I ***will be studying*** when you come.

- (b) Don't call me at nine because I won't be home. I ***am going to be studying*** at the library.

- (c) I'll ***be picking*** Susie up early for a dentist appointment.  
(d) We'll ***be contacting*** you shortly about your inquiry.

The FUTURE PROGRESSIVE expresses an activity that ***will be in progress at a time in the future***.

The progressive form of *be going to*:  
***be going to + be + -ing***, as in (b)

***Will + the progressive*** can be used with an activity that is not in progress at a time in the future. It is common in spoken English when the speaker wants to sound more polite or softer. It is an alternative to:

- 1) the non-progressive form of *will* (***I'll pick Susie up early for a dentist appointment.***) OR
- 2) ***be going to*** (***I'm going to pick Susie up early for a dentist appointment.***)

### 3-6 Future Perfect and Future Perfect Progressive

NOTE: These two tenses are rarely used compared to the other verb tenses.

#### FUTURE PERFECT



- (a) I will graduate in June. I will see you in July. By the time I see you, I **will have graduated**.

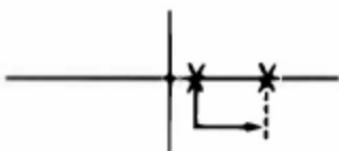
The FUTURE PERFECT expresses an activity that will be *completed before another time or event in the future*.

Note the sentence pattern in (a) with *by the time*:

ADVERB CLAUSE  
*by the time* + simple present

MAIN CLAUSE  
future perfect

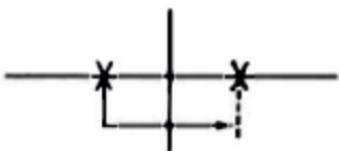
#### FUTURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE



- (b) I will go to bed at 10:00 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.

The FUTURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE emphasizes the *duration of an activity* that will be *in progress before another time or event in the future*.

- (c) When Professor Jones retires next month, he **will have taught** OR **will have been teaching** for 45 years.



Sometimes the future perfect and the future perfect progressive have the same meaning, as in (c).

Also, notice that the activity expressed by either of these two tenses may begin in the past.

## 5-3 Collective Nouns

- (a) The *audience* is *clapping* loudly.
- (b) The *team* *practices* at noon
- (c) The *faculty* has *chosen* a new president.
- (d) The *staff* has been *working* overtime.

- (e) The *faculty* are *preparing* for classes.
- (f) The *staff* have *requested* raises.
- (g) The *staff members* have *requested* raises.
- (h) *Members of the staff* have *requested* raises.

Collective nouns, as in (a)–(d), refer to more than one person. In American English, singular verbs are preferred with collective nouns.\*  
NOTE: British English prefers the plural verb: *The faculty have chosen a new president.* OR *The staff have been working overtime.*

A plural verb can be used to emphasize the individual members.  
Note the meaning:

- (e) = individual faculty members
- (f) = individual staff members

Many speakers rephrase the idea with the word *members*, as in (g) and (h), if they want to emphasize the individual members of the group.

### Common collective nouns

audience  
choir  
class

committee  
crew  
crowd

faculty  
family  
government

group  
jury  
public

staff  
team

## 5-4 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 belongs</i> to me. (g) <i>Twenty percent of my income goes</i> for rent. (i) <i>Most of our homework looks</i> easy. (k) <i>All of the advice was</i> useful.	(b) <i>Some of the books are</i> good. (d) <i>A lot of the printers are</i> new. (f) <i>Two-thirds of the coins belong</i> to me. (h) <i>Twenty percent of my earnings go</i> for rent. (j) <i>Most of our assignments look</i> easy. (l) <i>All of the suggestions were</i> useful.	With most expressions of quantity, the verb is determined by the noun (or pronoun) that follows <i>of</i> . For example, in (a) and (b): <i>some of + singular noun = singular verb</i> <i>some of + plural noun = plural verb</i>
(m) <i>One of my friends is here.</i> (n) <i>Each of my friends is here.</i> (o) <i>Every one of my friends is here.</i>		EXCEPTIONS: <b>One of, each of, and every one of</b> take singular verbs. <div style="text-align: center; margin-left: 200px;"> <i>one of</i>  <i>each of</i>  <i>every one of</i> </div> <span style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</span> + plural noun = singular verb
(p) <i>None of the boys is</i> here.	(q) <i>None of the boys are</i> here.	<i>None of</i> is used with a singular verb in formal English, but it is often used with a plural verb in informal spoken and written English.
(r) <i>The number of students in the class is</i> fifteen.	(s) <i>A number of students are</i> late or absent today.	COMPARE: In (r): <b><i>The number</i></b> is the subject. In (s): <b><i>A number of</i></b> is an expression of quantity meaning "a lot of." It is followed by a plural noun and a plural verb.

## 5-6 Subject-Verb Agreement: Some Irregularities

### Singular Verb

(a) <i>The United States is</i> big.	Sometimes a proper noun that ends in -s is singular.
(b) <i>The Philippines consists</i> of more than 7,000 islands.	In the examples, if the noun is changed to a pronoun, the singular pronoun <i>it</i> is used (not the plural pronoun <i>they</i> ) because the noun is singular.
(c) <i>The United Nations has</i> its headquarters in New York City.	In (a): <i>The United States = It (not They)</i>
(d) <i>Harrods is</i> a department store.	
(e) <i>The news is</i> interesting.	<b>News</b> is a noncount noun and takes a singular verb.
(f) <i>Mathematics is</i> easy for her. <i>Physics is</i> easy for her too.	Fields of study that end in -ics require singular verbs.
(g) <i>Diabetes is</i> an illness.	Certain illnesses that end in -s are singular: <i>diabetes, measles, mumps, rabies, rickets, shingles</i> .
(h) <i>Eight hours of sleep is</i> enough.	Expressions of time, money, and distance usually require a singular verb.
(i) <i>Ten dollars is</i> too much to pay.	
(j) <i>Five thousand miles is</i> too far to travel.	
(k) <i>Two and two is</i> four. <i>Two and two equals</i> four. <i>Two plus two is&gt;equals</i> four.	Arithmetic expressions require singular verbs.
(l) <i>Five times five is</i> twenty-five.	

## Plural Verb

- (m) *Those people are from Canada.*
- (n) *The police have been called.*
- (o) *Cattle are domestic animals.*
- (p) *Fish live under water.*

*People,\* police, cattle, and fish* do not end in -s, but they are plural nouns in the example sentences and require plural verbs.

Singular Verb	Plural Verb	
(q) <i>English is spoken in many countries.</i> (s) <i>Chinese is his native language.</i>	(r) <i>The English drink tea.</i> (t) <i>The Chinese have an interesting history.</i>	In (q): <i>English</i> = language In (r): <i>The English</i> = 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>
	(u) <i>The poor have many problems.</i> (v) <i>The rich get richer.</i>	A few adjectives can be preceded by <i>the</i> 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.*

## 6-4 More About Expressing Possession

- (a) my *brother's* house
- (b) the *birds'* feathers
- (c) *Canada's* borders
- (d) *UNICEF's* mission
  
- (e) the *cover of the book*
- (f) the *start of the race*
- (g) the *owner of the company*

- (h) *today's* schedule
- (i) *this month's* pay
- (j) *last week's* announcement

- (k) *people from my country*
- (l) *people in my country*

- (m) I'll be at the *doctor's*.
- (n) I was at my *accountant's*.
- (o) I'm staying at my *cousin's*.

- (p) I filled out the *application form*.  
*INCORRECT:* the application's form
  
- (q) Five astronauts were aboard the *space shuttle*.  
*INCORRECT:* the space's shuttle

**'s** is generally used to express possession for the following:

- living creatures, as in (a)–(b);
- countries, as in (c)
- organizations, as in (d)

**Of** is often used to show possession for non-living things, as in (e)–(g).

**NOTE:** The examples in (a)–(g) show the more common usage. With some expressions, either form is acceptable: *the earth's surface* or *the surface of the earth*. These special occurrences are best learned on a case-by-case basis.

Expressions of time do not generally take **of**.

**INCORRECT:** schedule of today  
pay of this month  
announcement of last week

When *country* is combined with *people* to show possession, the prepositions **from** or **in** are used.

**INCORRECT:** my country's people

In (m–o), **'s** indicates a business or residence.

(m) = doctor's office  
(n) = accountant's office  
(o) = cousin's home

A noun used as an adjective can indicate *type* or *kind*, rather than possession.

In (p), *application* describes the type of form. It does not express possession.

In (q), *space shuttle* indicates the type of shuttle. It does not express possession.

## 6-8 Expressions of Quantity Used with Count and Noncount Nouns

Expressions of Quantity	Used with Count Nouns	Used with Noncount Nouns	
(a) one each every	<i>one apple</i> <i>each apple</i> <i>every apple</i>	Ø* Ø Ø	An expression of quantity may precede a noun.
(b) two, etc. both a couple of a few several many a number of	<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 Ø	Some expressions of quantity are used only with count nouns, as in (a) and (b).
(c) a little much a great deal of	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) no hardly any some/any a lot of / lots of plenty of most all	<i>no apples</i> <i>hardly any 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>hardly any rice</i> <i>some/any 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).  In spoken English, <i>much</i> and <i>many</i> are used in questions and negatives. For affirmative statements, <i>a lot of</i> is preferred. However, <i>too + much/many</i> is used in affirmative statements.  <i>Do you have much time?</i> <i>I don't have much time.</i> <i>I have a lot of time.</i> <i>I have too much time.</i>

\*Ø = not used. For example, *one* is not used with noncount nouns. You can say "I ate one apple" but NOT "I ate one rice."

## 6-10 Singular Expressions of Quantity: One, Each, Every

- (a) **One student** was late to class.
- (b) **Each student** has a schedule.
- (c) **Every student** has a schedule.

**One**, **each**, and **every** are followed immediately by singular count nouns (never plural nouns, never noncount nouns).

- (d) **One of the students** was late to class.
- (e) **Each (one) of the students** has a schedule
- (f) **Every one of the students** has a schedule.

**One of**, **each of**, and **every one of\*** are followed by specific plural count nouns (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.*

## 6-11 Using Of in Expressions of Quantity

- (a) *A number of movies* came out today.
- (b) *A number of the movies* are available online.
- (c) *None of my friends* are available to watch a movie with me today.

- (d) *Many movies* are available for free.
- (e) *Many of the movies* are free.
- (f) *Most of the movies* won awards.
- (g) *One of those movies* is really funny.
- (h) *Many of my movies* are in Spanish.
- (i) *Some of them* have subtitles.

- (j) *Every movie* had a review.
- (k) *No movie* is perfect.

Some expressions of quantity always include *of*:

50% of	a number of
three-fourths of	a great deal of
hundreds of	a lot of
thousands of	a majority of
millions of	none of

In the following expressions, *of* is optional:

one, two, etc. (of)	some (of)
each (of)	several (of)
much (of)	(a) few (of)
many (of)	(a) little (of)
most (of)	hardly any (of)
all (of)	almost all (of)

Note the difference in meaning:

In (d): movies in general  
In (e): specific movies (e.g., online)

When *of* is used with these expressions, the noun must be modified by

- an article, as in (e) and (f)
- a demonstrative, as in (g)
- a possessive, as in (h)\*

Or, a pronoun can be used, as in (i).

INCORRECT: most of movies  
almost movies

**Every** and **no** are never used with *of*.

\**All* is an exception. Even when the noun is modified, *all* can be used without *of*: *all the movies*, *all those movies*, or *all my movies*.

## 7-2 Articles: Generic Nouns

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.

### SINGULAR COUNT NOUN

- (a) **A banana** is yellow.

In (a) and (b): The speaker is talking about any banana, all bananas, bananas in general.

### PLURAL COUNT NOUN

- (b) **Ø Bananas** are yellow.

In (c): The speaker is talking about any and all fruit, fruit in general.

### NONCOUNT NOUN

- (c) **Ø Fruit** is good for you.

Note in (a): **A** is used with a singular count noun. No article (**Ø**) is used to make generalizations about plural count nouns, as in (b), and noncount nouns, as in (c).

- (d) **The blue whale** is the largest mammal on earth.

**The** is sometimes used with a *singular generic count noun*. "Generic **the**" is commonly used with:

- (e) Who invented **the wheel?** **The telephone?** **The airplane?**

- species of animals, as in (d).
- inventions, as in (e).
- musical instruments, as in (f).

- (f) I'd like to learn to play **the piano**.  
Do you play **the guitar**?

- (g) Janice works with **the elderly**.

**The** is used with nouns that refer to groups of people, as in (g) and (h). Common examples include **the unemployed**, **the needy**, **the weak**, and **the sick**. These nouns are plural, and the meaning is generic. (See Chart 5-6, p. 88, for more information.)

- (h) Do **the wealthy** have a responsibility to help **the poor**?

## 7-3 Descriptive Information with Definite and Indefinite Nouns

- (a) I'd like *a cup of coffee from the café* next door.
- (b) *The cup of coffee I got* was wonderful.
- (c) Do you have *a pen with red ink*?
- (d) *The pen in my bag* is leaking.

Descriptive information may or may not make a noun definite or specific. Study the examples.

In (a), *from the café next door* does not make the *cup of coffee* definite. It is one cup of coffee among many.

In (b), the speaker is referring to a specific cup of coffee — the cup that the speaker got.

In (c), the speaker is referring to one of many pens, not a specific one.

In (d), the speaker is referring to a specific pen.

- (e) *The manager who trained me* got a promotion.
- (f) *A manager who trains workers* has a lot of responsibility.
- (g) *Managers who train workers* have a lot of responsibility.

Descriptive clauses may or may not make a noun specific.

- (e) = a specific manager
- (f) = any manager
- (g) = any managers

- (h) There is *a piece of the puzzle*.
- (i) There is *the piece you were looking for*.
- (j) There are *Ø pieces on the floor*.
- (k) There are *the pieces you were looking for*.

In general, *there is* and *there are* introduce new topics. Therefore, the noun that follows is usually indefinite. However, in cases where the noun is already known, *the* is used.

- (h) and (j) = not specific
- (i) and (k) = specific



- (l) Jim works for *a real estate office*.
- (m) I stopped at *the real estate office* after work.

Adjectives do not automatically make nouns specific.

- (l) = one real estate office of many, not specific
- (m) = a specific or known real estate office

## 7-4 General Guidelines for Article Usage

(a) **The sun** is bright today.

Please hand this book to **the teacher**.

Please open **the door**.

Omar is in **the kitchen**.

**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.

(b) Yesterday I saw **some dogs**. **The dogs** were chasing **a cat**. **The cat** was chasing **a mouse**. **The mouse** ran into **a hole**. **The hole** was very small.

**GUIDELINE:** Use **the** for the second mention of an indefinite noun.\* In (b): first mention = **some dogs**, **a cat**, **a mouse**, **a hole**; second mention = **the dogs**, **the cat**, **the mouse**, **the hole**

(c) **CORRECT:** **Apples** are my favorite fruit.

**INCORRECT:** **The apples** are my favorite fruit.

(d) **CORRECT:** **Gold** is a metal.

**INCORRECT:** **The gold** is a metal.

**GUIDELINE:** Do not use **the** with a plural count noun (e.g., **apples**) or a noncount noun (e.g., **gold**) when you are making a generalization.

(e) **CORRECT:** (1) I drove **a car**. / I drove **the car**.

(2) I drove **that car**.

(3) I drove **his car**.

**GUIDELINE:** A singular count noun (e.g., **car**) is always preceded by:

(1) an article (**a/an** or **the**); OR

(2) **this** / **that**; OR

(3) a possessive adjective.

**INCORRECT:** I drove **car**.

I drove **a that car**.

I drove **a his car**.

\***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).

## 7-5 Using The or Ø with Titles and Geographic Names

(a) We met Ø Mr. Harper. I go to Ø Doctor Shue. Ø President Costa is the new leader.	<p><i>The</i> is NOT used with titled names. <i>INCORRECT:</i> We met the Mr. Harper.</p>
(b) They traveled to Ø Africa. Ø Australia is the smallest continent.	<p><i>The</i> is NOT used with the names of continents. <i>INCORRECT:</i> They traveled to the Africa.</p>
(c) He lives in Ø Singapore. Ø Canada is a vast country.	<p><i>The</i> is NOT used with the names of most countries. <i>INCORRECT:</i> He lives in the Singapore.</p>
(d) She's from the United Arab Emirates. <i>The Czech Republic</i> is in Europe. Have you ever visited the Philippines?	<p><i>The</i> is used in the names of only a few countries, as in (d). Others: <i>the Netherlands, the United States, the Dominican Republic</i>.</p>
(e) He works in Ø Tokyo. I recently traveled to Ø Kuwait City.	<p><i>The</i> is NOT used with the names of cities. <i>INCORRECT:</i> He works in the Tokyo.</p>
(f) <i>The Amazon River</i> is long. They crossed <i>the Atlantic Ocean</i> . <i>The North Sea</i> is in Europe.	<p><i>The</i> is used with the names of oceans, seas, rivers, and canals. <i>The</i> is NOT used with the names of lakes.</p>
(g) Ø Lake Baikal is the deepest lake in the world. Ø Lake Tanganyika is the second deepest lake.	<p><i>INCORRECT:</i> the Lake Baikal</p>
(h) We hiked in <i>the Rocky Mountains</i> . <i>The Alps</i> are in Europe.	<p><i>The</i> is used with the names of mountain ranges. <i>The</i> is NOT used with the names of individual mountains.</p>
(i) We climbed Ø Mount Kilimanjaro. Ø Mount Everest is in the Himalayas.	<p><i>INCORRECT:</i> the Mount Everest</p>
(j) <i>The Hawaiian Islands</i> and <i>the Canary Islands</i> are popular with tourists.	<p><i>The</i> is used with groups of islands.</p>
(k) Ari is from Ø Tahiti.	<p><i>The</i> is NOT used with the names of individual islands.</p>
(l) Have you ever been to Ø Vancouver Island?	<p><i>INCORRECT:</i> the Vancouver Island</p>

## 10-1 Using Would to Express a Repeated Action in the Past

(a) When I was a child, my father **would read** me a story at night before bedtime.

(b) When I was a child, my father **used to read** me a story at night before bedtime.

(c) I **used to live** in California.  
He **used to be** a Boy Scout.  
They **used to have** a Ford.

**Would** can be used to express *an action that was repeated regularly in the past*. When **would** is used to express this idea, it has the same meaning as **used to** (*habitual past*). Sentences (a) and (b) have the same meaning. **Would** is more common for this purpose than **used to** in academic writing.

To express past situations or states, only **used to**, not **would**, is possible, as in (c).

**INCORRECT:** They **would have** a Ford.

## 10-2 Expressing the Past: Necessity, Advisability, Expectation

- PRESENT: (a) Julia **has to get** a visa.  
(b) Julia **has got to get** a visa.  
(c) Julia **must get** a visa.

- PAST: (d) Julia **had to get** a visa.

Past necessity: **had to**

In (d): **had to** = **needed to**: Julia needed to get a visa.

There is no other past form for **must** (when it means necessity) or **have got to**.

- PRESENT: (e) I **should study** for the test. I want to pass it.  
(f) I **ought to study** for the test.  
(g) I **had better study** for the test.

- PAST: I failed the test.  
(h) I **should have studied** for it.  
(i) I **ought to have studied** for it.  
(j) I **shouldn't have gone** to the movies the night before.

Past advisability:

**should have** } + past participle  
**ought to have** }

In the past, **should** is more common than **ought to**. The past form of **had better** (**had better have**) is almost never used.

The meaning in (h) and (i): *Studying was a good idea, but I didn't do it. I made a mistake.*

The meaning in (j): *It was a bad idea to go to the movies. I made a mistake.*

Usual pronunciation of **should have**: "should-av" or "should-e."

- PRESENT: (k) We **are supposed to leave** now.

- PAST: (l) We **were supposed to leave** last week.

**was/were supposed to**: unfulfilled expectation or obligation in the past

- PRESENT: (m) The mail **should be** here.

- PAST: (n) The mail **should have been** here by now.

**Should have + past participle**: past expectation

The speaker expected something to happen; it may or may not have occurred, as in (n).

## 10-3 Expressing Past Ability

PRESENT: (a) I **can speak** Farsi.

PAST: (b) I **could speak** Farsi ten years ago.

PRESENT: (c) I **am able to speak** Farsi.

PAST: (d) I **was able to speak** Farsi ten years ago.

(e) Maya **was able to do well** on her exam.

OR

Maya **did well** on her exam.

INCORRECT: Last week, Maya **could do well** on her exam.

Past ability: **could**  
**was/were able to**

For a single action in the past **affirmative**,  
**was/were able to** or the simple past is used, as in (e).  
**Could** is not typically used.\*

For the negative, both verbs are possible:  
**Maya couldn't do well** on the test.  
**Maya wasn't able to do well** on the test.

\*Exception: **Could** can be used in the past for one action with these sense verbs: **hear, feel, see, smell, taste**; and the verbs **understand, remember, guess**.

## 10-4 Degrees of Certainty: Present Time

— Why isn't John in class?

100% sure: He **is** sick.

95% sure: He **must be** sick.

50% sure or less: {  
He **may be** sick.  
He **might be** sick.  
He **could be** sick.

NOTE: These percentages are approximate.

Degree of certainty refers to how sure we are — what we think the chances 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%.

NOTE: **Can** does not express degrees of certainty.

INCORRECT: He **can be** sick.

— Why isn't John in class?

(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.)

**Must** expresses a strong degree of certainty about a present situation, but it is still less than 100%.

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."

— Why isn't John in class?

(b) He **may be** sick.

(c) He **might be** sick.

(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.

**May, might, and could** express a weak degree of certainty.

In (b), (c), and (d): The meanings are all the same. The speaker is saying, "Perhaps, maybe, possibly John is sick. I am only making a guess. I can think of other possibilities."

(e) **Maybe** he is sick.

In (e): **maybe** (one word) is an adverb.

In (b): **may be** (two words) is a verb form.

## 10-5 Degrees of Certainty: Present Time Negative

100% sure: Sam *isn't* hungry.

99% sure: { Sam *couldn't be* hungry.  
Sam *can't be* hungry.

95% sure: Sam *must not be* hungry.

50% sure or less: { Sam *may not be* hungry.  
Sam *might not be* hungry.

NOTE: These percentages are approximate.

(a) Sam doesn't want anything to eat. He *isn't* 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 *couldn't/can't be* 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, *couldn't* and *can't* forcefully express the idea that the speaker believes something is impossible.

(c) Sam isn't eating his food. He *must not be* 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 *may not/might not be* 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 *may not/might not* to mention a possibility.

## 10-6 Degrees of Certainty: Past Time

### Past Time: Affirmative

— Why wasn't Mary in class?

- (a) 100%: She **was** sick.
- (b) 95%: She **must have been** sick.
- (c) 50% sure or less: { She **may have been** sick.  
She **might have been** sick.  
She **could have been** sick.

In (a): The speaker is sure.

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."

In (c): The speaker is mentioning one possibility.

### Past Time: Negative

— Why didn't Sam eat?

- (d) 100%: Sam **wasn't** hungry.
- (e) 99%: { Sam **couldn't have been** hungry.  
Sam **can't have been** hungry.
- (f) 95%: Sam **must not have been** hungry.
- (g) 50% sure or less: { Sam **may not have been** hungry.  
Sam **might not have been** hungry.

In (d): The speaker is sure.

In (e): The speaker believes that it is impossible for Sam to have been hungry.

In (f): The speaker is making a logical conclusion.

In (g): The speaker is mentioning one possibility.

## 10-7 Degrees of Certainty: Future Time

- (a)      **100% sure:**    Kay **will do** well on the test.      → The speaker feels sure.
- (b)      **90% sure:**    { Kay **should do** well on the test.  
                          Kay **ought to do** well on the test. }      → The speaker is almost sure.
- (c)      **50% sure or less:**    { 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.

## 10-8 Progressive Forms of Modals

- (a) Knock on the door lightly. Tom **may be sleeping**. (*right now*)
- (b) All of the lights in Ann's room are turned off. She **must be sleeping**. (*right now*)
- (c) Sue wasn't home last night when we went to see her. She **might have been studying** at the library.
- (d) Joe wasn't home last night. He has a lot of exams coming up soon, and he is also working on a term paper. He **must have been studying** at the library.

Progressive form, present time:  
*modal + be + -ing*

Meaning: *in progress right now*

Progressive form, past time:  
*modal + have been + -ing*

Meaning: *in progress at a time in the past*

## 10-9 Combining Modals with Phrasal Modals

(a) INCORRECT: Janet will can help you tomorrow.

A modal cannot be immediately followed by another modal.

In (a): The modal **will** cannot be followed by **can**, which is another modal.

(b) Janet **will be able to** help you tomorrow.

A modal can, however, be followed by the phrasal modals **be able to** and **have to**.

(c) You **will have to** pick her up at her home.

In (b): The modal **will** is correctly followed by the phrasal modal **be able to**.

(d) Tom **isn't going to be able to** help you tomorrow.

It is also sometimes possible for one phrasal modal to follow another phrasal modal.

In (d): **be going to** is followed by **be able to**. This form is more common in negatives and questions than in the affirmative.

## 10-10 Expressing Preference: Would Rather

- (a) I **would rather go** to a movie tonight **than study** grammar.
- (b) I'd **rather study** history **than (study)** biology.

**Would rather** expresses preference.

In (a): Notice that the simple form of a verb follows both **would rather** and **than**.

In (b): If the verb is the same, it usually is not repeated after **than**.

- (c) — How much do you weigh?  
— I'd **rather not tell** you.

Contraction: **I would = I'd**

Negative form: **would rather + not**

- (d) The movie was OK, but I **would rather have gone** to the concert last night.

The past form: **would rather have + past participle**  
Usual pronunciation: "I'd rather-ev"

- (e) I'd **rather be lying** on a beach in India than **(be) sitting** in class right now.

Progressive form: **would rather + be + ing**

## 10-11 Summary Chart of Modals and Similar Expressions

Auxiliary	Uses	Present/Future	Past
may	(1) polite request (only with "I" or "we")	<i>May I borrow your pen?</i>	
	(2) formal permission	You <i>may leave</i> the room.	
	(3) 50% or less certainty	— <i>Where's John?</i> He <i>may be</i> at the library.	— <i>Where was John?</i> He <i>may have been</i> at the library.
might	(1) 50% or less certainty	— <i>Where's John?</i> He <i>might be</i> at the library.	— <i>Where was John?</i> He <i>might have been</i> at the library.
	(2) polite request (rare)	<i>Might I borrow</i> your pen?	
should	(1) advisability	I <i>should study</i> tonight.	I <i>should have studied</i> last night, but I didn't.
	(2) expectation	She <i>should do</i> well on the test tomorrow.	She <i>should have done</i> well on the test.
ought to	(1) advisability	I <i>ought to study</i> tonight.	I <i>ought to have studied</i> last night, but I didn't.
	(2) expectation	She <i>ought to do</i> well on the test tomorrow.	She <i>ought to have done</i> well on the test.
had better	(1) advisability with threat of bad result	You <i>had better be</i> on time, or we will leave without you.	(past form uncommon)
be supposed to	(1) expectation/obligation	Class <i>is supposed to start</i> at 10:00.	
	(2) unfulfilled expectation/obligation		Class <i>was supposed to start</i> at 10:00.

must	(1) strong necessity	You <b>must sign</b> the forms in ink.	(You <b>had to sign</b> the forms in ink.)
	(2) prohibition ( <i>negative</i> )	You <b>must not</b> open that door.	
	(3) 95% certainty	Mary isn't in class. She <b>must be</b> sick.	Mary <b>must have been</b> sick yesterday.
have to	(1) necessity	I <b>have to go</b> to class today.	I <b>had to go</b> to class yesterday.
	(2) lack of necessity ( <i>negative</i> )	I <b>don't have to go</b> to class today.	I <b>didn't have to go</b> to class yesterday.
have got to	(1) necessity	I <b>have got to go</b> to class today.	(I <b>had to go</b> to class yesterday.)
will	(1) 100% certainty	He <b>will be</b> here at 6:00.	
	(2) willingness	— The phone's ringing. I' <b>ll get</b> it.	
	(3) polite request	<b>Will</b> you please help me?	
be going to	(1) 100% certainty ( <i>prediction</i> )	He <b>is going to be</b> here at 6:00.	
	(2) definite plan ( <i>intention</i> )	I' <b>m going to paint</b> my bedroom.	
	(3) unfulfilled intention		I <b>was going to paint</b> my room, but I didn't have time.

Auxiliary	Uses	Present/Future	Past
can	(1) ability	I <b>can run</b> fast.	I <b>could run</b> fast when I was a child, but now I can't.
	(2) informal permission	You <b>can use</b> my car tomorrow.	
	(3) informal polite request	<b>Can I borrow</b> your pen?	
	(4) possibility	People <b>can learn</b> from their mistakes.	
	(5) impossibility ( <i>negative only</i> )	That <b>can't be</b> true!	That <b>can't have been</b> true!
could	(1) past ability ( <i>not for a single past event</i> )		I <b>could run</b> fast when I was a child.
	(2) polite request	<b>Could I borrow</b> your pen? <b>Could you help</b> me?	
	(3) suggestion ( <i>affirmative only</i> )	— <b>I need help in math.</b>	You <b>could have talked</b> to your teacher.
		You <b>could talk</b> to your teacher.	
	(4) 50% or less certainty	— <b>Where's John?</b> He <b>could be</b> at home.	He <b>could have been</b> at home.
be able to	(5) impossibility ( <i>negative only</i> )	That <b>couldn't be</b> true!	That <b>couldn't have been</b> true!
	(1) ability	I <b>am able to help</b> you. I <b>will be able to help</b> you.	I <b>was able to help</b> him.

would	(1) polite request	<i>Would</i> you please <i>help</i> me? <i>Would</i> you <i>mind</i> if I left early?	
	(2) preference	I <i>would rather go</i> to the park than <i>stay</i> home.	I <i>would rather have gone</i> to the park.
	(3) repeated action in the past (not past situations or states)		When I was a child, I <i>would visit</i> my grandparents every weekend.
	(4) polite for "want" (with "like")	I <i>would like</i> an apple, please.	
	(5) unfulfilled wish		I <i>would have liked</i> a cookie, but there were none in the house.
used to	(1) repeated action in the past		I <i>used to visit</i> my grandparents every weekend.
	(2) past situation or state		I <i>used to live</i> in Spain. Now I live in Korea.
shall	(1) polite question to make a suggestion	<i>Shall</i> I <i>open</i> the window?	
	(2) future with I or we as subject	I <i>shall arrive</i> at nine. ("will" = more common)	

NOTE: The use of modals in reported speech is discussed in Chart 12-8, p. 264. The use of modals in conditional sentences is discussed in Chart 20-3, p. 430.

## 15-1 Infinitive of Purpose: In Order To

(a) He came here *in order to study* English.

(b) He came here *to study* English.

(c) *INCORRECT:* He came here ~~for studying~~ English.

(d) *INCORRECT:* He came here ~~for to study~~ English.

(e) *INCORRECT:* He came here ~~for study~~ English.

(f) I went to the store *for some bread*.

(g) I went to the store *to buy some bread*.

*In order to* is used to express *purpose*. It answers the question "Why?" *In order* is often omitted, as in (b).

To express purpose, use *(in order) to*, not *for*, with a verb.\*

*For* 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 generally used: *A chain saw was used to cut (NOT for cutting) down the old oak tree*.

## 15-2 Adjectives Followed by Infinitives

- (a) We *were sorry to hear* the bad news.
- (b) I *was surprised to see* Ted 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.

### Common adjectives followed by infinitives

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

\*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

COMPARE:

- (a) That box is **too heavy** for Bob to lift.
- (b) That box is **very heavy**, but Bob can lift it.
  
- (c) I am **strong enough to lift** that box. I can lift it.
- (d) I have **enough strength to lift** that box.
- (e) I have **strength enough to lift** that box.

**Too** can be followed by an infinitive, as in (a). In the speaker's mind, the use of **too** implies a negative result.

In (a): **too heavy** = It is *impossible* for Bob to lift that box.

In (b): **very heavy** = It is *possible but difficult* for Bob to lift that box.

**Enough** can also be followed by an infinitive. Note the following:

- **Enough** follows the adjective, as in (c).
- Usually **enough** precedes a noun, as in (d).
- In formal English, it may follow a noun, as in (e).

## 15-4 Passive Infinitives and Gerunds: Present

(a) I didn't expect **to be asked** to his party.

PASSIVE INFINITIVE: **to be + past participle**

In (a): **to be asked** is a passive infinitive.

The understood *by*-phrase is *by him*: *I didn't expect to be asked to his party (by him)*.

(b) I appreciated **being asked** to his party.

PASSIVE GERUND: **being + past participle**

In (b): **being asked** is a passive gerund.

The understood *by*-phrase is *by him*: *I appreciated being asked to his party (by him)*.

## 15-5 Past Forms of Infinitives and Gerunds: Active and Passive

SIMPLE	PAST ACTIVE	PAST PASSIVE	
to tell telling	<i>to have told</i> <i>having told</i>	<i>to have been told</i> <i>having been told</i>	Past infinitives and gerunds use a form of <b>have + past participle</b> .
(a) Tim appeared <i>to have told</i> his wife about his job promotion.			<p><b>PAST INFINITIVE:</b> <i>to have + past participle</i></p> <p>The event expressed in past phrases happened before the time of the main verb.</p> <p>The meaning in (a): It appeared that Tim had told his wife about his job promotion.</p>
(b) Tim's wife was happy <i>to have been told</i> immediately about his job promotion.			<p><b>PAST PASSIVE INFINITIVE:</b> <i>to have been + past participle</i></p> <p>The meaning in (b): Tim's wife was happy that she had been told immediately about his job promotion.</p>
(c) He mentioned <i>having told</i> his wife immediately about his job promotion.			<p><b>PAST GERUND:</b> <i>having + past participle</i></p> <p>The meaning in (c): He mentioned that he had told his wife immediately about his job promotion.</p>
(d) She appreciated <i>having been told</i> immediately about his job promotion.			<p><b>PAST PASSIVE GERUND:</b> <i>having been + past participle</i></p> <p>The meaning in (d): She appreciated that she had been told immediately about his job promotion.</p>
(e) Tim mentioned <i>telling</i> his wife. Tim mentioned <i>having told</i> his wife.			Use of the past infinitive or gerund emphasizes that something occurred in the past, prior to another event. In practice, however, there is little difference in meaning between the simple and past forms, as in (e) and (f).
(f) She was happy <i>to be told</i> . She was happy <i>to have been told</i> .			

## 15-6 Using Gerunds or Passive Infinitives Following Need

(a) I **need to paint** my house.

(b) John **needs to be told** the truth.

(c) My house **needs painting**.

(d) My house **needs to be painted**.

Usually an infinitive follows **need**, as in (a) and (b).

In certain circumstances, a gerund may follow **need**, as in (c). In this case, the gerund carries a passive meaning. Usually the situations involve fixing or improving something.

Examples (c) and (d) have the same meaning.

## 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 *the simple form\** or *the -ing form\*\** of a verb.

Examples (a) and (b) have essentially the same meaning, except that the **-ing** form emphasizes 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  
notice  
watch

look at  
observe

hear  
listen to

feel

smell

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

\*\**The -ing form* is the present participle of the verb.

## 15-8 Using the Simple Form After Let and Help

(a) My father **lets** me **drive** his car.

(b) I **let** my friend **borrow** my bike.

(c) **Let's go** to a movie.

(d) My brother **helped** me **wash** my car.

(e) My brother **helped** me **to wash** my car.

**Let** is followed by the simple form of a verb, not an infinitive.

**INCORRECT:** My father lets me **to drive** his car.

**Help** is often followed by the simple form of a verb, as in (d).

Although less common, an infinitive is also possible, as in (e).

Both (d) and (e) are correct.

## 15-9 Using Causative Verbs: Make, Have, Get

- (a) I **made** my brother **carry** my suitcase.
- (b) I **had** my brother **carry** my suitcase.
- (c) I **got** my brother **to carry** my suitcase.

Simple form: X **makes**      Y **do something.**  
Simple form: X **has**      Y **do something.**  
Infinitive: X **gets**      Y **to do something.**

**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.

### Causative Make

- (d) Mrs. Lee **made** her son **clean** his room.
- (e) Sad movies **make** me **cry**.

Causative **make** is followed by the simple form of a verb, not an infinitive.

**INCORRECT:** She made him **to clean** his room.

**Make** gives the idea that "X" **gives "Y" no choice**.

In (d): Mrs. Lee's son had no choice.

### Causative Have

- (f) I **had** the plumber **repair** the leak.
- (g) Jane **had** the waiter **bring** her some tea.

Causative **have** is followed by the simple form of a verb, not an infinitive.

**INCORRECT:** I had him **to repair** 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.

### Causative Get

- (h) The students **got** the teacher **to dismiss** class early.
- (i) Jack **got** his friends **to play** soccer with him after school.

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.

### Passive Causatives

- (j) I **had** my watch **repaired** (by someone).
- (k) I **got** my watch **repaired** (by someone).

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.

## 15-10 Using a Possessive to Modify a Gerund

— We came to class late. Mr. Lee complained about that fact.

- (a) FORMAL: Mr. Lee complained about *our coming* to class late.
- (b) INFORMAL: Mr. Lee complained about *us coming* to class late.
- (c) FORMAL: Mr. Lee complained about *Mary's coming* to class late.
- (d) INFORMAL: Mr. Lee complained about *Mary 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).

In formal English, a possessive noun (e.g., *Mary's*) is used to modify a gerund.

As in (d), the possessive form is often not used in informal English.

## 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*, and *nor*. These words are called "coordinating conjunctions."

- (a) *Steve and his friend* are coming to dinner.
- (b) Susan *raised* her hand *and snapped* her fingers.
- (c) He *is waving* his arms *and (is) shouting* at us.
- (d) These shoes are *old but comfortable*.
- (e) He wants *to watch TV or (to) listen* to some music.

In (a): *noun + and + noun*

In (b): *verb + and + verb*

In (c): *verb + and + verb* (The second auxiliary may be omitted if it is the same as the first auxiliary.)

In (d): *adjective + but + adjective*

In (e): *infinitive + or + infinitive* (The second *to* is usually omitted.)

## 16-2 Parallel Structure: Using Commas

(a) Steve and Joe are in class.

(b) INCORRECT PUNCTUATION:

Steve, and Joe are in class.

(c) Steve, Joe and Rita are in class.

(d) Steve, Joe, and Rita are in class.

(e) Steve, Joe, Rita, Jan and Kim are in class.

(f) Steve, Joe, Rita, Jan, and Kim are in class.

No commas are used when *and* connects two parts of a parallel structure, as in (a).

When *and* connects three or more parts of a parallel structure, a comma is used between the first items in the series.

A comma may also be used before *and*, as in (d) and (f). The use of this comma is optional (i.e., the writer can choose).\*

NOTE: A comma often represents a pause in speech.

\*The purpose of punctuation is to make writing clear for readers. This chart and others in this chapter describe the usual use of commas in parallel structures. Sometimes commas are required according to convention (i.e., the expected use by educated language users). Sometimes use of commas is a stylistic choice made by the experienced writer.

## 16-3 Punctuation for Independent Clauses; Connecting Them with And and But

- (a) It was raining hard. There was a strong wind.
- (b) INCORRECT PUNCTUATION: It was raining hard, there was a strong wind.
- (c) It was raining hard; there was a strong wind.
- (d) It was raining hard, *and* there was a strong wind.
- (e) It was raining hard. *And* there was a strong wind.
- (f) It was raining hard *and* there was a strong wind.
- (g) It was late, *but* he didn't care.
- (h) It was late. *But* he didn't care.

Example (a) contains two *independent clauses* (i.e., two complete sentences).

### PUNCTUATION:

A period,\* NOT A COMMA, is used to separate two independent clauses.

A semicolon may be used in place of a period. Semicolons are used between two *closely related* ideas.

*And* and *but* (coordinating conjunctions) are often used to connect two independent clauses.

### PUNCTUATION:

Usually a comma immediately precedes the conjunction, as in (d) and (g).

In informal writing, a writer might choose to begin a sentence with a conjunction, as in (e) and (h).

In a very short sentence, a writer might choose to omit the comma in front of *and*, as in (f). (Omitting the comma in front of *but* is rare.)

\*In British English, a period is called a “full stop.”

## 16-4 Paired Conjunctions: Both ... And; Not Only ... But Also; Either ... Or; Neither ... Nor

(a) **Both** my mother **and** my sister **are** here.

Two subjects connected by **both ... and** take a plural verb, as in (a).

(b) **Not only** my mother **but also** my **sister is** here.

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.

(c) **Not only** my sister **but also** my **parents are** here.

**Not only ... but also** is used for emphasis or to indicate surprise. It should be used sparingly.

(d) **Neither** my mother **nor** my **sister is** here.

(e) **Neither** my sister **nor** my **parents are** here.

(f) The research project will take **both time and money**.

Notice the parallel structure in the examples. The same grammatical form should follow each part of the paired conjunctions.\*

(g) Sue saw **not only a fox in the woods but also a bear**.

(h) I'll take **either chemistry or physics** next quarter.

(i) That book is **neither interesting nor accurate**.

In (f): **both + noun + and + noun**

In (g): **not only + noun + but also + noun**

In (h): **either + noun + or + noun**

In (i): **neither + adjective + nor + adjective**

NOTE: Paired conjunctions are usually used for emphasis; they draw attention to both parts of the parallel structure.

\*Paired conjunctions are also called “correlative conjunctions.”

## 17-1 Introduction

Adverb clauses are used to show relationships between ideas. They show relationships of *time, cause and effect, contrast, and condition.*

- | adverb clause                                     | main clause       |
|---|-------------------|
| (a) <b>When the phone rang</b> ,                  | the baby woke up. |
| (b) The baby woke up <b>when the phone rang</b> . |                   |

- (c) **Because he was sleepy**, he went to bed.  
(d) He went to bed **because he was sleepy**.

- (e) **INCORRECT:**  
When we were in New York. We saw several plays.  
(f) **INCORRECT:**  
He went to bed. Because he was sleepy.

In (a) and (b): **when the phone rang** is an adverb clause of time. Examples (a) and (b) have the same meaning.

### PUNCTUATION:

When an adverb clause precedes a main 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.

In (c) and (d), **because** introduces an adverb clause that shows a cause-and-effect relationship.

Adverb clauses are dependent clauses. They cannot stand alone as a sentence in written English. They must be connected to a main (or independent) clause.\*

### Summary list of words used to introduce adverb clauses\*\*

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

\*See Chart 12-1, p. 248, for the definition of dependent and independent clauses.

\*\*Words that introduce adverb clauses are called “subordinating conjunctions.”

## 17-2 Using Adverb Clauses to Show Time Relationships

<i>after</i> *	(a) <i>After she graduates</i> , she will get a job. (b) <i>After she (had) graduated</i> , she got a job.	A present tense, NOT a future tense, is used in an adverb clause of time, as in (a) and (c).  (See Chart 3-3, p. 60, for tense usage in future time clauses.)
<i>before</i> *	(c) I will leave <i>before he comes</i> . (d) I (had) left <i>before he came</i> .	
<i>when</i>	(e) <i>When I arrived</i> , he was talking on the phone. (f) <i>When I got there</i> , he had already left. (g) <i>When it began to rain</i> , I stood under a tree. (h) <i>When I was in Chicago</i> , I visited the museums. (i) <i>When I see him tomorrow</i> , I will ask him.	<i>when</i> = at that time  Notice the different time relationships expressed by the tenses.
<i>while</i> <i>as</i>	(j) <i>While I was walking home</i> , it began to rain. (k) <i>As I was walking home</i> , it began to rain.	<i>while, as</i> = during that time
<i>by the time</i>	(l) <i>By the time he arrived</i> , we had already left. (m) <i>By the time he comes</i> , we will have already left.	<i>by the time</i> = one event is completed before another event  Notice the use of the past perfect and future perfect in the main clause.
<i>since</i>	(n) I haven't seen him <i>since he left this morning</i> . (o) I've known her <i>ever since I was a child</i> .	<i>since</i> = from that time to the present In (o): <i>ever</i> adds emphasis.  NOTE: The present perfect is used in the main clause.
<i>until</i> <i>till</i>	(p) We stayed there <i>until we finished our work</i> . (q) We stayed there <i>till we finished our work</i> .	<i>until, till</i> = to that time and then no longer ( <i>Till</i> is used more in speaking than in writing; it is generally not used in formal English.)
<i>as soon as</i> <i>once</i>	(r) <i>As soon as it stops raining</i> , we will leave. (s) <i>Once it stops raining</i> , we will leave.	<i>as soon as, once</i> = when one event happens, another event happens soon afterward

<i>as long as</i>	(t) I will never speak to him again <i>as long as I live</i> .	<i>as long as, so long as = during all that time, from beginning to end</i>
<i>so long as</i>	(u) I will never speak to him again <i>so long as I live</i> .	
<i>whenever</i>	(v) <i>Whenever I see her</i> , I say hello.	<i>whenever = every time</i>
<i>every time</i>	(w) <i>Every time I see her</i> , I say hello.	
<i>the first time</i>	(x) <i>The first time (that) I went to New York</i> , I went to a Broadway show.	Adverb clauses can be introduced by:
<i>the last time</i>	(y) I saw two plays <i>the last time (that) I went to New York</i> .	<i>the</i> { <i>first</i> <i>second</i> <i>third, etc.</i> <i>last</i> <i>next</i> <i>etc.</i> } <i>time (that)</i>
<i>the next time</i>	(z) <i>The next time (that) I go to New York</i> , I'm going to see a ballet.	

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

*shortly after*

*shortly before*

*a short time after*

*a short time before*

*a little while after*

*a little while before*

*not long after*

*not long before*

*soon after*

## 17-3 Using Adverb Clauses to Show Cause and Effect

because	(a) <i>Because he was sleepy</i> , he went to bed. (b) He went to bed <i>because he was sleepy</i> .	An adverb clause may precede or follow the independent clause. Notice the punctuation in (a) and (b).  Be sure to identify the correct cause and effect.  INCORRECT: Because he went to bed, he was sleepy.
now that	(c) <i>Now that I've finished the semester</i> , I'm going to rest a few days and then take a trip.  (d) Jack lost his job. <i>Now that he's unemployed</i> , he can't pay his bills.	<i>Now that</i> means "because now." In (c): <i>Now that I've finished the semester</i> means "because the semester is now over."  NOTE: <i>Now that</i> is used with the present, present perfect, or future tenses.
since	(e) <i>Since Monday is a holiday</i> , we don't have to go to work.  (f) <i>Since you're a good cook and I'm not</i> , you should cook the dinner.	When <i>since</i> 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 <i>since</i> 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."
	(g) <i>Since I came here</i> , I have met many people.	NOTE: <i>Since</i> has two meanings. One is "because." It is also used in time clauses, as in (g). See Chart 17-2.

## 17-4 Expressing Contrast (Unexpected Result): Using Even Though

- (a) **Because** the weather was cold, I *didn't go* swimming.
- (b) **Even though** the weather was cold, I *went* swimming.
- (c) **Because** I wasn't tired, I *didn't go* to bed.
- (d) **Even though** I wasn't tired, I *went* 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.

\**Although* and *though* have basically the same meaning and use as *even though*. See Chart 19-7, p. 416, for information on the use of *although* and *though*.

## 17-5 Showing Direct Contrast: *While*

- (a) Mary is rich, ***while*** John is poor.
- (b) John is poor, ***while*** Mary is rich.
- (c) ***While*** John is poor, Mary is rich.
- (d) ***While*** Mary is rich, John is poor.

***While*** is used to show direct contrast: "this" is exactly the opposite of "that."\*

Examples (a), (b), (c), and (d) all have the same meaning.

Note the use of the comma in (a) and (b): In using ***while*** for direct contrast, a comma is often used even if the ***while***-clause comes second (unlike the punctuation of most other adverb clauses).

### COMPARE:

- (e) The phone rang ***while*** I was studying.

REMINDER: ***While*** is also used in time clauses and means "during that time," as in (e). See Chart 17-2.

\****Whereas*** can have the same meaning and use as ***while***, but it occurs mostly in formal written English and occurs with considerably less frequency than ***while***: *Mary is rich, whereas John is poor.*

## 17-6 Expressing Conditions in Adverb Clauses: If-Clauses

(a) *If it rains tomorrow, I will take my umbrella.*

*If*-clauses (also called "adverb clauses of condition") present possible conditions. The main clause expresses RESULTS.

In (a): POSSIBLE CONDITION = *it may rain tomorrow*  
RESULT = *I will take my umbrella*

A present tense, not a future tense, is used in an *if*-clause even though the verb in the *if*-clause may refer to a future event or situation, as in (a).\*

### Words that introduce adverb clauses of condition (*if*-clauses)

if  
whether or not

even if  
in case

unless  
only if

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

## 17-7 Shortened If-Clauses

(a) Are you a student?

*If so / If you are*, the ticket is half-price.

*If not / If you aren't*, the ticket is full price.

(b) It's a popular concert. Do you have a ticket?

*If so / If you do*, you're lucky.

*If not / If you don't*, you're out of luck.

When an *if*-clause refers to the idea in the sentence immediately before it, it is sometimes shortened.

In (a): *If so / If you are* = *If you are a student*

*If not / If you aren't* = *If you aren't a student*

In (b): *If so / If you do* = *If you have a ticket*

*If not / If you don't* = *If you don't have a ticket*

## 17-8 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.

## 17-9 Adverb Clauses of Condition: Using In Case

- (a) I'll be at my uncle's house ***in case*** you  
***(should) need to reach me.***

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

NOTE: Using ***should*** in an adverb clause emphasizes the speaker's uncertainty that something will happen.

## 17-10 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."

Examples

(a)

and

(b)

have the same meaning.

## 17-11 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).\* This is a less common usage. No commas are used.

\*Other subordinating conjunctions and prepositional phrases preceded 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.*

## 18-1 Introduction

(a) Adverb clause:	<i>While I was walking to class</i> , I ran into an old friend.	In Chapter 13, we discussed changing adjective clauses to modifying phrases. (See Chart 13-11, p. 295.) Some adverb clauses may also be changed to modifying phrases, and the ways in which the changes are made are the same: <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• If there is a <i>be</i> form of the verb, omit the subject of the dependent clause and <i>be</i> verb, as in (b). OR</li><li>• If there is no <i>be</i> form of a verb, omit the subject and change the verb to <i>-ing</i>, as in (d).</li></ul>
(b) Modifying phrase:	<i>While walking to class</i> . I ran into an old friend.	
(c) Adverb clause:	<i>Before I left for work</i> , I ate breakfast.	
(d) Modifying phrase:	<i>Before leaving for work</i> , I ate breakfast.	
(e) Change possible:	<i>While I was sitting in class</i> , I fell asleep. <i>While sitting in class</i> , I fell asleep.	An adverb clause can be changed to a modifying phrase <b>only when the subject of the adverb clause and the subject of the main clause are the same</b> .
(f) Change possible:	<i>While Ann was sitting in class</i> , she fell asleep. (clause) <i>While sitting in class</i> , Ann fell asleep.	A <i>modifying adverbial phrase</i> that is the reduction of an adverb clause <i>modifies the subject of the main clause</i> .
(g) No change possible:	<i>While the teacher was lecturing to the class</i> , I fell asleep.*	No reduction (i.e., change) is possible if the subjects of the adverb clause and the main clause are different, as in (g).
(h) INCORRECT:	-While watching TV last night; the phone rang.	In (h): <i>While watching</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.

\**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: *Since Maria came to this country*, she has made many friends.

Adverb clauses beginning with *after*, *before*, *when*,\* *while*, and *since* can be changed to modifying adverbial phrases.

(b) Phrase: *Since coming to this country*, Maria has made many friends.

(c) Clause: *When Tyrell cooks*, he uses a lot of spices.

(d) Phrase: *When cooking*, Tyrell uses a lot of spices.

(e) Clause: *After he (had) finished his homework*, Peter went to bed.

In (e): There is no difference in meaning between *After he finished* and *After he had finished*. (See Chart 2-8, p. 44.)

(f) Phrase: *After finishing his homework*, Peter went to bed.

In (f) and (g): There is no difference in meaning between *After finishing* and *After having finished*.

(g) Phrase: *After having finished his homework*, Peter went to bed.

(h) Phrase: Peter went to bed *after finishing his homework*.

The modifying adverbial phrase may follow the main clause, as in (h).

\**When* can also mean “upon.” If it has this meaning, it cannot be reduced to a phrase. See Chart 18-5.

## 18-3 Expressing the Idea of "During the Same Time" in Modifying Adverbial Phrases

- (a) ***While I was walking*** down the street, **I** ran into an old friend.
- (b) ***While walking*** down the street, **I** ran into an old friend.
- (c) ***Walking*** down the street, **I** ran into an old friend.

Sometimes **while** is omitted, but the **-ing** phrase at the beginning of the sentence gives the same meaning (i.e., "during the same time").

Examples (a), (b), and (c) have the same meaning.

## 18-4 Expressing Cause and Effect in Modifying Adverbial Phrases

- (a) **Because she needed** some money to buy a book, **Sue** went to a cash machine.
- (b) **Needing** some money to buy a book, **Sue** went to a cash machine.
- (c) **Because he lacked** the necessary qualifications, **he** was not considered for the job.
- (d) **Lacking** the necessary qualifications, **he** was not considered for the job.

- (e) **Having seen** that movie before, **I don't want** to go again.
- (f) **Having seen** that movie before, **I didn't want** to go again.

- (g) **Because he is** a doctor, Oskar often gets calls in the middle of the night.
- (h) **Being** a doctor, Oskar often gets calls in the middle of the night.

- (i) **Because she was unable** to afford a car, **she** bought a bike.
- (j) **Being unable** to afford a car, **she** bought a bike.
- (k) **Unable** to afford a car, **she** bought a bike.

Often an **-ing** phrase at the beginning of a sentence gives the meaning of "because."

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

**Because** is not included in a modifying phrase. It is omitted, but the resulting phrase expresses a cause-and-effect relationship, as in (b) and (d).

**Having + past participle** gives the meaning not only of "because" but also of "before."

A form of **be** in the adverb clause may be changed to **being**. The use of **being** makes the cause-and-effect relationship clear.

Examples (i), (j), and (k) have the same meaning.

## 18-5 Using Upon + -ing in Modifying Adverbial Phrases

(a) **Upon reaching** the age of 18, I can get my driver's license.

(b) **When I reach** the age of 18, I can get my driver's license.

(c) **On reaching** the age of 18, I can get my driver's license.

Modifying adverbial phrases beginning with **upon** + **-ing** can have the same meaning as adverb clauses introduced by **when**.

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

**Upon** can be shortened to **on**.

Examples (a), (b), and (c) all have the same meaning.

## 19-1 Introduction

Connectives can express cause/effect, contrast, and condition. They can be adverb-clause words, transitions, conjunctions, or prepositions. In Chapter 17 you studied adverb-clause words to express these ideas. In this chapter you will also look at transitions, conjunctions, and prepositions.

(a) <b>Because</b> Julian felt sick, he left work early.	The connectives in (a) and (b) are adverb-clause words.
(b) <b>Even though</b> Julian is afraid of doctors, he decided to make an appointment.	
(c) Julian had a rash and fever. <b>Consequently</b> , the doctor ran tests.	The connectives in (c) and (d) are transitions.
(d) The doctor ran tests. <b>However</b> , she found nothing serious.	
(e) Julian wasn't seriously ill, <b>but</b> his doctor told him to rest anyway.	The connectives in (e) and (f) are conjunctions.
(f) Julian wasn't well, <b>so</b> his doctor told him to rest.	
(g) <b>Due to</b> his illness, Julian missed several days of work.	The connectives in (g) and (h) are prepositions.
(h) He stayed home from work <b>because of</b> his illness.	

	Adverb-Clause Words	Transitions	Conjunctions	Prepositions	
CAUSE AND EFFECT	because since now that	so (that)	therefore consequently	so	because of due to
CONTRAST	even though although though	while	however nevertheless nonetheless on the other hand	but ( ... anyway) yet ( ... still)	despite in spite of
CONDITION	if unless only if even if whether or not	in case	otherwise	or (else)	

## 19-2 Using Because Of and Due To

(a) *Because the weather was cold*, we stayed home.

*Because* introduces an adverb clause; it is followed by a subject and a verb, as in (a).

(b) *Because of the cold weather*, we stayed home.

*Because of* and *due to* are phrasal prepositions; they are followed by a noun object, as in (b) and (c).

(c) *Due to the cold weather*, we stayed home.

(d) *Due to the fact that the weather was cold*, we stayed home.

Sometimes (usually in more formal writing) *due to* is followed by a noun clause introduced by *the fact that*.

(e) We stayed home *because of the cold weather*.

Like adverb clauses, these phrases can also follow the main clause, as in (e).

We stayed home *due to the cold weather*.

We stayed home *due to the fact that the weather was cold*.

## 19-3 Cause and Effect: Using *Therefore*, *Consequently*, and *So*

- (a) Al failed the test because he didn't study.
- (b) Al didn't study. **Therefore**, he failed the test.
- (c) Al didn't study. **Consequently**, he failed the test.

Examples (a), (b), and (c) have the same meaning. **Therefore** and **consequently** mean "as a result." In grammar, they are called *transitions* (or *conjunctive adverbs*).

Transitions connect the ideas between two sentences. They are used most commonly in formal written English and rarely in spoken English.

- (d) Al didn't study. **Therefore**, he failed the test.
- (e) Al didn't study. He, **therefore**, failed the test.
- (f) Al didn't study. He failed the test, **therefore**.

POSITIONS OF A TRANSITION:

**transition** + S + V (+ rest of sentence)

S + **transition** + V (+ rest of sentence)

S + V (+ rest of sentence) + **transition**

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. It is separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

- (g) Al didn't study, **so** he failed the test.

In (g): **So** is used as a *conjunction* between two independent clauses. It has the same meaning as **therefore**.

**So** is common in both formal written and spoken English. A comma usually precedes **so** when it connects two sentences, as in (g).

\*A semicolon is also possible in this situation: *Al didn't study; therefore, he failed the test.* See the footnote to Chart 19-4.

## 19-4 Summary of Patterns and Punctuation

ADVERB CLAUSES	(a) <i>Because it was hot</i> , we went swimming. (b) We went swimming <i>because it was hot</i> .	An adverb clause may precede or follow an independent clause.  PUNCTUATION: A comma is used if the adverb clause comes first.
PREPOSITIONS	(c) <i>Because of the hot weather</i> , we went swimming. (d) We went swimming <i>because of the hot weather</i> .	A preposition 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.
TRANSITIONS	(e) It was hot. <i>Therefore</i> , we went swimming. (f) It was hot. <i>We, therefore</i> , went swimming. (g) It was hot. <i>We went swimming, therefore</i> . (h) It was hot; <i>therefore</i> , we went swimming.	A transition 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 semicolon (;) may be used in place of a period, as in (h).*
CONJUNCTIONS	(i) It was hot, <i>so we went swimming</i>	NOTE: A period is used between the two independent clauses in (e)–(g); a comma is not possible. Commas are usually used to set the transition off from the rest of the sentence.  A conjunction comes between two independent clauses.  PUNCTUATION: Usually a comma is used immediately in front of a conjunction.

\* In general, a semicolon can be used instead of a period between any two sentences that are closely related in meaning: *Peanuts are not nuts; they are beans*. Notice that a small letter, NOT a capital letter, immediately follows a semicolon.

## 19-5 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 *such nice weather that* we went to the zoo.
- (c) The weather was *so nice that* we went to the zoo.

Examples (a), (b), and (c) have the same meaning.

- (d) It was *such good coffee that* I had another cup.
- (e) It was *such a foggy day that* we couldn't see the road.

***Such ... that*** encloses a modified noun:  
***such + adjective + noun + that***

- (f) The coffee is *so hot that* I can't drink it.
- (g) I'm *so hungry that* I could eat a horse.
- (h) She speaks *so fast that* I can't understand her.
- (i) He walked *so quickly that* I couldn't keep up with him.

***So ... that*** encloses an adjective or adverb:  
***so + {adjective  
or  
adverb} + that***

- (j) She made *so many mistakes that* she failed the exam.
- (k) He has *so few friends that* he is always lonely.
- (l) She has *so much money that* she can buy whatever she wants.
- (m) He had *so little trouble with the test that* he left 20 minutes early.

***So ... that*** is used with ***many, few, much, and little***.

- (n) It was *such a good book (that)* I couldn't put it down.
- (o) I was *so hungry (that)* I didn't wait for dinner to eat something.

Sometimes, primarily in speaking, ***that*** is omitted.

## 19-6 Expressing Purpose: Using So That

- (a) I turned off the TV *in order to* enable my roommate to study in peace and quiet.
- (b) I turned off the TV *so (that)* my roommate could study in peace and quiet.

*In order to* expresses purpose. (See Chart 15-1, p. 335.)

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

### So That + Can or Could

- (c) I'm going to cash a check *so that I can buy* my textbooks.
- (d) I cashed a check *so that I could buy* my textbooks.

*So that* also expresses purpose.\* It expresses the same meaning as *in order to*. The word *that* is often omitted, especially in speaking.

*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): *so that I can buy* = *in order to be able to buy*

*Could* is used after *so that* in past sentences, as in (d).\*\*

### So That + Will / Would or Simple Present

- (e) I'll take my umbrella *so that I won't* get wet.
- (f) Yesterday I took my umbrella *so that I wouldn't* get wet.
- (g) I'll take my umbrella *so that I don't* get wet.

In (e): *so that I won't get wet* = *in order to make sure that I won't get wet*

*Would* is used in past sentences, as in (f).

In (g): It is sometimes possible to use the simple present after *so that* in place of *will*; the simple present expresses a future meaning.

\*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.*).

## 19-7 Showing Contrast (Unexpected Result)

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

\* Another way to show contrast is to put *though* at the end of the sentence: *It was cold. I went swimming, though.* The meaning is similar to *but* (e.g., *It was cold, but I went swimming*); however, *though* is softer. This usage is very common in spoken English.

## 19-8 Showing Direct Contrast

All of the sentences have the same meaning: "This" is the opposite of "that."

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

\*Sometimes a comma precedes a *while*-clause that shows direct contrast. A comma helps clarify that *while* is being used to express contrast rather than time. The use of a comma in this instance is a stylistic choice by the writer.

## 19-9 Expressing Conditions: Using Otherwise and Or (Else)

ADVERB CLAUSES	(a) <i>If I don't eat breakfast</i> , I get hungry. (b) You'll be late <i>if you don't hurry</i> . (c) You'll get wet <i>unless you take your umbrella</i> .	<b>If</b> and <b>unless</b> state conditions that produce certain results. (See Charts 17-6 and 17-10, pp. 382 and 387.)
TRANSITIONS	(d) I always eat breakfast. <b>Otherwise</b> , I get hungry during class. (e) You'd better hurry. <b>Otherwise</b> , you'll be late. (f) Take your umbrella. <b>Otherwise</b> , you'll get wet.	<b>Otherwise</b> expresses the idea "if the opposite is true, then there will be a certain result." In (d): <b>otherwise</b> = <i>if I don't eat breakfast</i>
CONJUNCTIONS	(g) I always eat breakfast, <b>or (else)</b> I get hungry during class. (h) You'd better hurry, <b>or (else)</b> you'll be late. (i) Take your umbrella, <b>or (else)</b> you'll get wet.	<b>Or else</b> and <b>otherwise</b> have the same meaning.

## 20-1 Overview of Basic Verb Forms Used in Conditional Sentences

Conditional sentences express the idea of *if ... , then ...*. These sentences can talk about real situations — facts, regularly occurring events, etc. — and unreal situations — imaginary or impossible ones.

Situation	If-Clauses	Result Clause	Examples
REAL IN THE PRESENT	simple present	simple form of the verb	If I <b>have</b> enough time, I <b>watch</b> TV every evening.
REAL IN THE FUTURE		<b>will</b> + simple form	If I <b>have</b> enough time, I <b>will watch</b> TV later on tonight.
UNREAL IN THE PRESENT / FUTURE	simple past	<b>would</b> + simple form	If I <b>had</b> enough time, I <b>would watch</b> TV now or later on.
UNREAL IN THE PAST	past perfect	<b>would have</b> + past participle	If I <b>had had</b> enough time, I <b>would have watched</b> TV yesterday.

## 20-2 Expressing Real Conditions in the Present or Future

- (a) If I *don't eat* breakfast, I always *get* hungry during class.
- (b) If I *don't eat* breakfast tomorrow morning, I *will get* hungry during class.
- (c) Water *freezes* if the temperature *reaches* 32°F/0°C.
- (d) Water *will freeze* if the temperature *reaches* 32°F/0°C.

In conditional sentences that express real or 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:

- the *simple present*, to express a habitual activity or situation, as in (a).
- the *simple future*, to express a particular activity or situation in the future, as in (b).
- the *simple present* or the *simple future*, to express an established, predictable fact or general truth, as in (c) and (d).

- (e) 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.

The result clause can also include *modals* and *phrasal modals* such as *should*, *might*, *can*, *be going to*, as in (e).\*

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

An imperative verb can be used in the result clause, as in (f).

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

\*See Chart 9-1, p. 162, for a list of modals and phrasal modals.

## 20-3 Unreal (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): Actually, I don't teach this class.

In (b): Actually, he is not here right now.

In (c): Actually, I am not you.

NOTE: **Were** is used for both singular and plural subjects. **Was** (with *I, he, she, it*) is sometimes used in very 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.

## 20-4 Unreal (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.

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 (a): Actually, you did not tell me about it.

In (b): Actually, they did not study. Therefore, they failed the exam.

In (c): Actually, I slipped on the stairs. I broke my arm.

NOTE: The auxiliary verbs are often reduced in speech. "If you'd told me, I would've helped you (or I-duv helped you)."\*\*

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 to be grammatically incorrect in 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.

- (a) Real Situation: It **is raining** right now, so I **will not go** for a walk.
- (b) Conditional Statement: If it **were not raining** right now, I **would go** for a walk.
- (c) Real Situation: It **was raining** yesterday afternoon, so I **did not go** for a walk.
- (d) Conditional Statement: If it **had not been raining**, I **would have gone** for a walk.

## 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.

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

## 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

(a) I **would have gone** with you, **but I had to study**.

(b) I never **would have succeeded without your help**.

(c) She ran; **otherwise**, she **would have missed** her bus.

Often the *if*-clause is implied, not stated. Conditional verbs are still used in the result clause.

In (a): the implied condition = *if I hadn't had to study*

In (b): the implied condition = *if you hadn't helped me*

Conditional verbs are frequently used following **otherwise**.

In (c), the implied *if*-clause = *if she had not run*

## 20-9 Wishes About the Present and Past

**Wish** is used when the speaker wants reality to be different, to be exactly the opposite, but it isn't.

	"True" Statement	Verb Form Following Wish	
A WISH ABOUT THE PRESENT	(a) I <b>don't know</b> French. (b) It <b>is raining</b> right now. (c) I <b>can't speak</b> Japanese.	I <b>wish</b> (that) I <b>knew</b> French. I <b>wish</b> it <b>weren't raining</b> right now. I <b>wish</b> I <b>could speak</b> Japanese.	<b>Wish</b> can be followed by a noun clause (see Chart 12-5, p. 257). Past verb forms, similar to those in conditional sentences, are used in the noun clause.  To make a wish about the present, a past verb form is used, as in (a)–(c).
A WISH ABOUT THE PAST	(d) John <b>didn't come</b> . (e) Mary <b>couldn't come</b> .	I <b>wish</b> John <b>had come</b> .* I <b>wish</b> Mary <b>could have come</b> .	In (d), the past perfect ( <b>had come</b> ) is used to make a wish about the past.
	(f) I <b>wish</b> I <b>could</b> come. (It's not possible. I can't come.) (g) I <b>hope</b> I <b>can</b> come. (It's a possibility. Maybe I can come.)		Note the difference between <b>wish</b> and <b>hope</b> . <b>Wish</b> is used for unreal, contrary-to-fact situations. <b>Hope</b> is used for real or possible situations.

\* You may hear *I wish Josh would have come*. This is incorrect in formal English.

## 20-10 Wishes About the Future; Use of Wish + Would

(a) He *isn't going to be* here next week.

I *wish* he *were going to be* here next week.

(b) She *can't come* tomorrow.

I *wish* she *could come* tomorrow.

(c) She *won't tell you*. I *wish* she *would tell you*.

(d) I *wish* I *could go* with you.

(e) It is raining. I *wish* it *would stop*.

(f) I *wish* you *would leave* now.

Wishes about the future can be expressed with *were going to*, *could*, or *would*. The speaker wants the situation to be the opposite of what it will be.

**Could**, not **would**, is used when the speaker is making a wish with *I*, as in (d).

*INCORRECT:* I wish I would go with you.

**Wish + would** can be used when the speaker wants an action or event to change, as in (e). Note that it cannot be used for situations.

*INCORRECT:* I wish you would know the answer.

**Wish + would** can also be used to make a strong request, as in (f).