

UNDERSTANDING  
AND USING

# ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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Third Edition

# CHARTBOOK

## A Reference Grammar

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Betty Schrampfer 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.

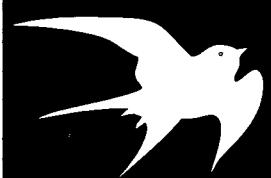
Differences in structure usage between American and British English are noted throughout the text. The differences are few and relatively insignificant.

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

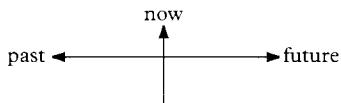
The support I receive from the publishing professionals I work with is much appreciated. I wish specifically to thank Shelley Hartle for directing this project and, along with Janet Johnston, seeing every aspect of this project through from beginning to end. I admire their professionalism and value their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



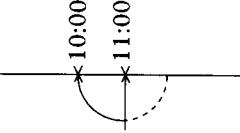
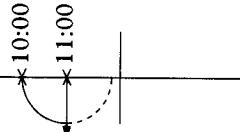
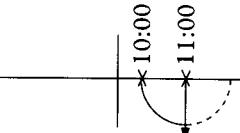
### 1-1 THE SIMPLE TENSES

TENSE	EXAMPLES	MEANING
SIMPLE PRESENT 	(a) It <b>snows</b> in Alaska. (b) Tom <b>watches</b> 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 <b>snowed</b> yesterday. (d) Tom <b>watched</b> 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 <b>will snow</b> tomorrow. It <b>is going to snow</b> tomorrow. (f) Tom <b>will watch</b> television tonight. Tom <b>is going to watch</b> 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.

PRESENT PROGRESSIVE 	(a) Tom <i>is sleeping</i> right now.	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.
PAST PROGRESSIVE 	(b) Tom <i>was sleeping</i> when I arrived.	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.
FUTURE PROGRESSIVE 	(c) Tom <i>will be sleeping</i> when we arrive.	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.

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

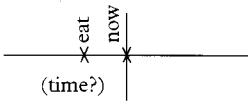
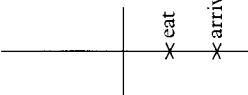


Tom *is washing* the dishes right now.

## 1-3 THE PERFECT TENSES

Form: **have + past participle**

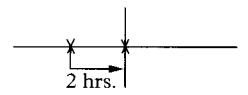
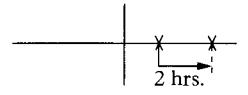
Meaning: The perfect tenses all give the idea that one thing *happens before* another time or event.

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

## 1-4 THE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE TENSES

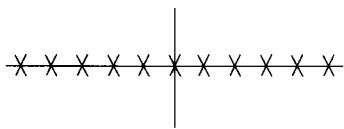
Form: **have + been + -ing (present participle)**

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.

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

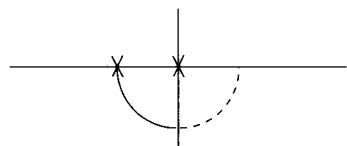
## 1-5 SUMMARY CHART OF VERB TENSES

SIMPLE PRESENT



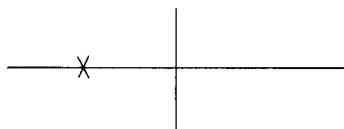
Tom **studies** every day.

PRESENT PROGRESSIVE



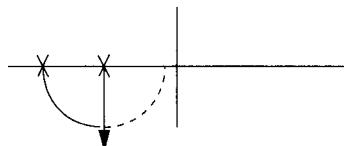
Tom **is studying** right now.

SIMPLE PAST



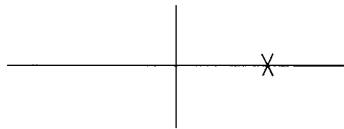
Tom **studied** last night.

PAST PROGRESSIVE



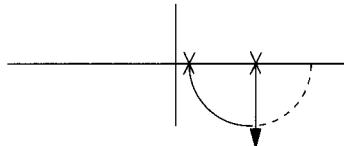
Tom **was studying** when they came.

SIMPLE FUTURE



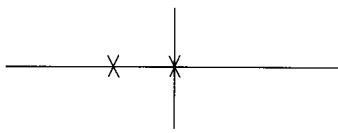
Tom **will study** tomorrow.

FUTURE PROGRESSIVE



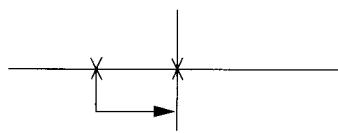
Tom **will be studying** when you come.

## PRESENT PERFECT



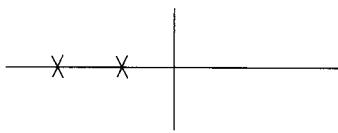
Tom **has** already **studied** Chapter One.

## PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE



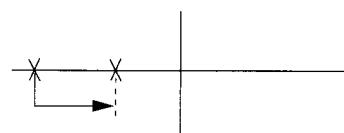
Tom **has been studying** for two hours.

## PAST PERFECT



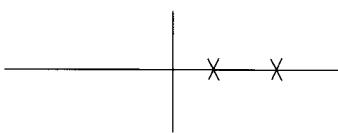
Tom **had** already **studied** Chapter One before he began studying Chapter Two.

## PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE



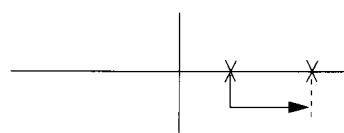
Tom **had been studying** for two hours before his friends came.

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

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

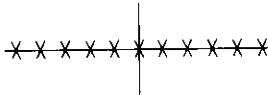
\*\*Exception: -w and -x are not doubled: *plow* → *plowed*; *fix* → *fixed*.



# CHAPTER 2

## Present and Past, Simple and Progressive

### 2-1 SIMPLE PRESENT

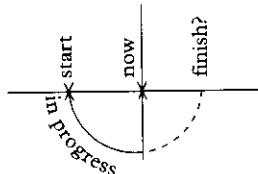


- (a) Water *consists* of hydrogen and oxygen.
- (b) The average person *breathes* 21,600 times a day.
- (c) The world *is* round.
- (d) I *study* for two hours *every night*.
- (e) I *get up* at seven *every morning*.
- (f) He *always eats* a sandwich for lunch.

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.

- (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.

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.

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

- (a) Ann *is sick* today.  
 Alex *is nervous* about the exam.  
 Tom *is tall* and *handsome*.

**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.)

- (b) Jack doesn't feel well, but he refuses to see a doctor. He *is being foolish*.  
 (c) Sue *is being* very *quiet* today. I wonder if anything is wrong.

Sometimes main verb **be + an adjective** is used in the progressive. It is used in the progressive when it describes temporary, in-progress behavior.  
 In (b): Jack's foolishness is temporary and probably uncharacteristic of him.

- (d) INCORRECT: Mr. Smith *is being* old.  
 CORRECT: Mr. Smith *is old*.

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**: *angry, beautiful, handsome, happy, healthy, hungry, lucky, nervous, sick, tall, thirsty, young*.

### 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/.

- a *looked* → *look/t/*  
*clapped* → *clap/t/*  
*missed* → *miss/t/*  
*watched* → *watch/t/*  
*finished* → *finish/t/*  
*laughed* → *laugh/t/*

Final **-ed** 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."

- b *smell* → *smell/d/*  
*sated* → *save/d/*  
*cleaned* → *clean/d/*  
*robbed* → *rob/d/*  
*played* → *play/d/*

Final **-ed** 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.

- c *decided* → *decide/əd/*  
*needed* → *need/əd/*  
*wanted* → *want/əd/*  
*invited* → *invite/əd/*

Final **-ed** is pronounced /əd/ after "t" and "d" sounds. The sound /əd/ adds a whole syllable to a word.

COMPARE: *looked* = one syllable → *look/t/*  
*smelled* = one syllable → *smell/d/*  
*needed* = two syllables → *need/əd/*  
*wanted* = two syllables → *want/əd/*

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/	learned/
cost	cost	cost		learnt	learnt
creep•	crept	crept	leave	left	left
cut	cut	cut	lend	lent	lent
deal•	dealt	dealt	let	let	let
dig	dug	dug	lie	lay	lain
do	did	done	light	lighted/lit	lighted/lit
draw	drew	drawn	lose	lost	lost
dream	dreamed/ dreamt	dreamed/ dreamt	make	made	made
eat	ate	eaten	mean	meant	meant
fall	fell	fallen	meet	met	met
feed	fed	fed	mislay	mislaid	mislaid
feel	felt	felt	mistake	mistook	mistaken
fight	fought	fought	pay	paid	paid
find	found	found	put	put	put
fit	fit/fitted	fit/fitted	quit***	quit	quit
flee•	fled	fled	read	read	read
fling•	flung	flung	rid	rid	rid
fly	flew	flown	ride	rode	ridden
			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-quitted-quitted*.

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*	stroved/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/spedded	sped/spedded	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:

*bet* . . . . . wager; offer to pay money if one loses  
*bid* . . . . . make an offer of money, usually at a public sale  
*bind* . . . . . fasten or secure  
*breed* . . . . . bring animals together to produce young  
*broadcast* . . . send information by radio waves; announce  
*burst* . . . . . explode; break suddenly  
*cast* . . . . . throw  
*cling* . . . . . hold on tightly  
*creep* . . . . . crawl close to the ground; move slowly and quietly  
*deal* . . . . . distribute playing cards to each person; give attention to (deal with)  
*fee* . . . . . escape; run away  
*fling* . . . . . throw with force

*forecast* . . . predict a future occurrence  
*forsake* . . . abandon or desert  
*grind* . . . . . crush, reduce to small pieces  
*seek* . . . . . look for  
*shed* . . . . . drop off or get rid of  
*shrink* . . . . . become smaller  
*sink* . . . . . move downward, often under water  
*slide* . . . . . glide smoothly; slip or skid  
*slit* . . . . . cut a narrow opening  
*spin* . . . . . turn rapidly around a central point  
*split* . . . . . divide into two or more parts  
*spread* . . . . . push out in all directions (e.g., butter on bread, news)

*spring* . . . jump or rise suddenly from a still position  
*sting* . . . . . cause pain with a sharp object (e.g., pin) or bite (e.g., by an insect)  
*stink* . . . . . have a bad or foul smell  
*strike* . . . . . hit something with force  
*strive* . . . . . try hard to achieve a goal  
*swing* . . . . . move back and forth  
*thrust* . . . . . push forcibly; shove  
*weave* . . . . . form by passing pieces of material over and under each other (as in making baskets, cloth)  
*weep* . . . . . cry  
*wind* . . . . . (sounds like *find*) turn around and around

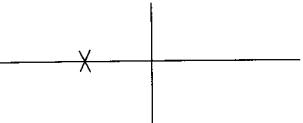
## 2-8 TROUBLESOME VERBS: RAISE / RISE, SET / SIT, LAY / LIE

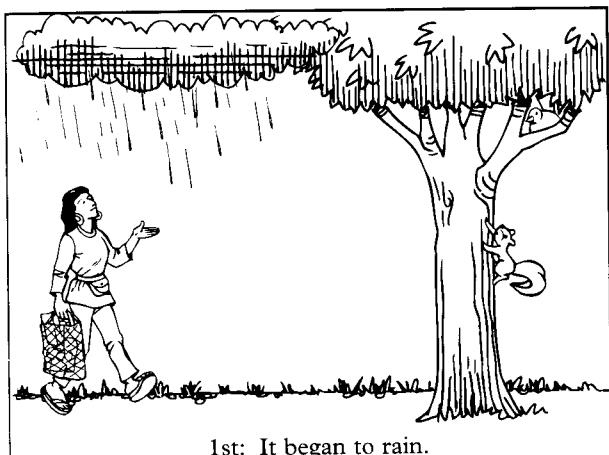
TRANSITIVE	INTRANITIVE	
(a) <i>raise, raised, raised</i> Tom <b>raised</b> his hand.	(b) <i>rise, rose, risen</i> The sun <b>rises</b> in the east.	<b>Raise, set, and lay</b> are transitive verbs; they are followed by an object. <b>Rise, sit, and lie</b> are intransitive; i.e., they are NOT followed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

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

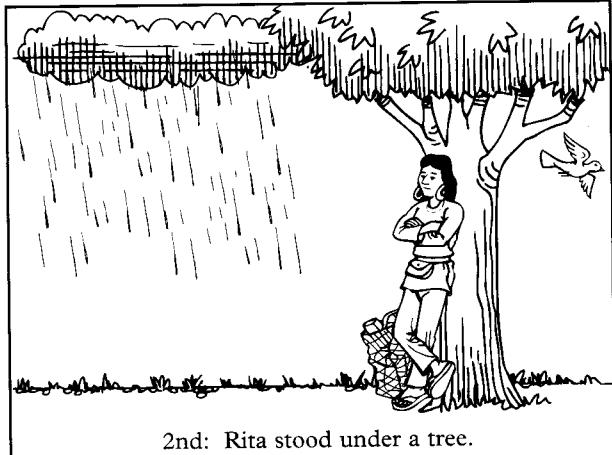
\*\***Lie** is a regular verb (**lie, lied**) when it means “not tell the truth”: *He lied to me about his age.*

## 2-9 SIMPLE PAST

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



2nd: Rita stood under a tree.

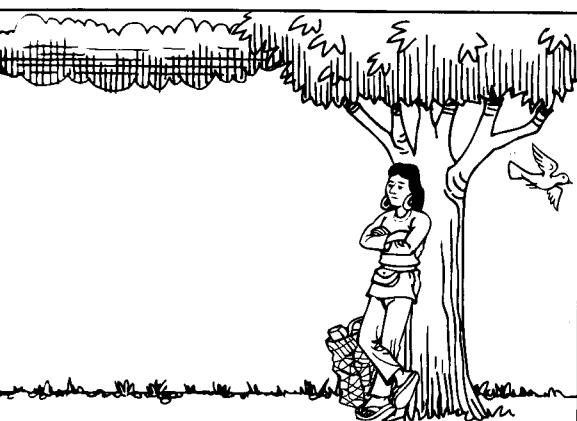
Rita **stood** under a tree *when it began to rain*.

## 2-10 PAST PROGRESSIVE

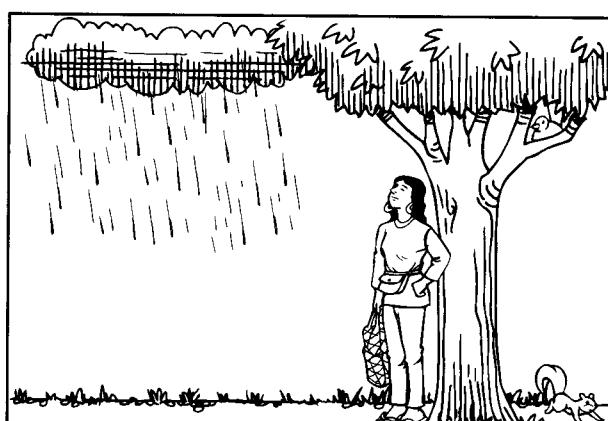
- (g) I **was walking** down the street when it began to rain.  
(h) While I **was walking** down the street, it began to rain.  
(i) Rita **was standing** under a tree when it began to rain.  
(j) At eight o'clock last night, I **was studying**.  
(k) Last year at this time, I **was attending** school.  
(l) While I **was studying** in one room of our apartment, my roommate **was having** a party in the other room.

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.

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</i> up 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,</i> and <i>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.

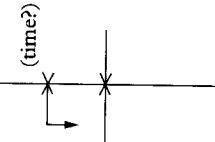
## 2-12 USING EXPRESSIONS OF PLACE WITH PROGRESSIVE VERBS

(a) — What is Kay doing? — She's <i>studying in her room</i> .  (b) — Where's Kay? — She's <i>in her room studying</i> .  (c) — What was Jack doing when you arrived? — He <i>was reading a book in bed</i> .  (d) — Where was Jack when you arrived? — He <i>was in bed reading</i> a book.	An expression of place can sometimes come between the auxiliary <i>be</i> and the -ing verb in a progressive tense, as in (b) and (d): <i>is + in her room + studying</i> <i>was + in bed + reading</i>  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. In (b): The focus of both the question and the answer is on Kay's location, i.e., on where Kay is.
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# CHAPTER 3

## Perfect and Perfect Progressive Tenses

### 3-1 PRESENT PERFECT

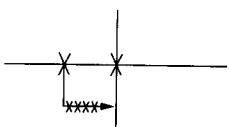


- (a) They **have moved** into a new apartment.
- (b) **Have you ever visited** Mexico?
- (c) I **have never seen** snow.
- (d) I **have already seen** that movie.
- (e) Jack **hasn't seen** it yet.
- (f) Ann started a letter to her parents last week, but she **still hasn't finished** it.
- (g) Alex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

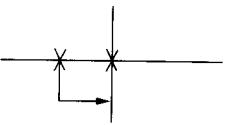
Notice in the examples: the adverbs **ever**, **never**, **already**, **yet**, **still**, and **just** are frequently used with the present perfect.



- (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**:

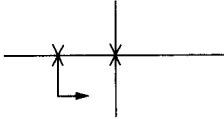
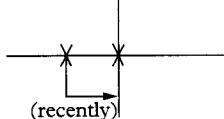
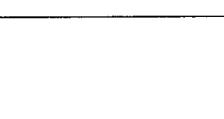
**since** + a particular time  
**for** + a duration of time

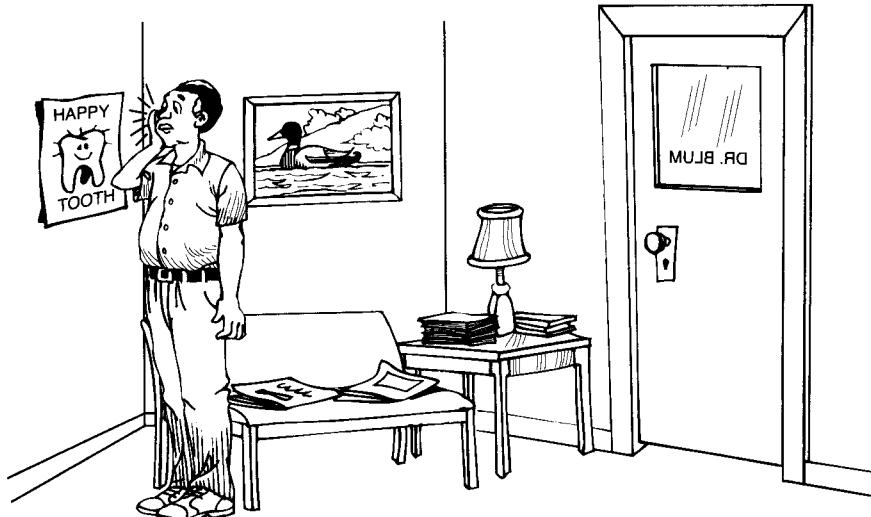
\*The verbs used in the present perfect to express a *situation* that began in the past and still exists are typically verbs with a stative meaning (see Chart 2-3, p. 8).

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.*

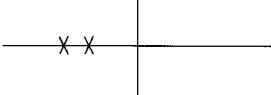
## 3-2 PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE

	<p>Right now I am sitting at my desk.</p> <p>(a) <b>I have been sitting</b> here since seven o'clock.          (b) <b>I have been sitting</b> here for two hours.          (c) You <b>have been studying</b> for five straight hours. Why don't you take a break?          (d) It <b>has been raining all day</b>. 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 <b>for, since, all morning, all day, all week</b>.</p>
	<p>(e) <b>I have known</b> Alex since he was a child.          (f) <b>INCORRECT:</b> <i>I have been knowing</i> 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) <b>I have been thinking</b> about changing my major.          (h) All of the students <b>have been studying</b> hard. Final exams start next week.          (i) My back hurts, so <b>I have been sleeping</b> on the floor lately. The bed is too soft.</p>	<p>When the tense is used without any specific mention of time, it expresses <i>a general activity in progress recently, lately</i>.</p>
	<p>(j) <b>I have lived</b> here since 1995. <b>I have been living</b> here since 1995.          (k) He <b>has worked</b> at the same store for ten years.  <b>He has been working</b> at the same store for ten years.</p>	<p>With certain verbs (most notably <i>live, work, teach</i>), there is little or no difference in meaning between the two tenses when <b>since</b> or <b>for</b> is used.</p>



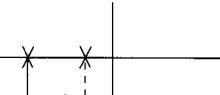
Mr. Ford **has been waiting** in the dentist's office for 20 minutes.

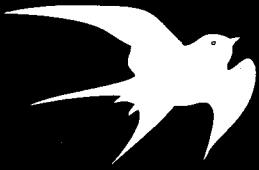
### 3-3 PAST PERFECT

	<p>(a) Sam <b>had</b> already <i>left</i> by the time Ann got there.          (b) The thief simply walked in. Someone <b>had forgotten</b> 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 <b>had</b> already <i>left</i> when Ann got there.</p>	<p>In (c): <i>First:</i> Sam left.  <i>Second:</i> Ann got there.*</p>
	<p>(d) Sam <b>had left</b> before Ann got there.          (e) Sam <i>left</i> before Ann got there.          (f) <i>After</i> the guests <b>had left</b>, I went to bed.          (g) <i>After</i> the guests <i>left</i>, I went to bed.</p>	<p>If either <b>before</b> or <b>after</b> 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 <b>had been looking</b> for the criminal <i>for</i> two years before they caught him.          (b) Eric finally came at six o'clock. I <b>had been waiting</b> 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 <b>had been swimming</b>.          (d) I went to Jane's house after the funeral. Her eyes were red because she <b>had been crying</b>.</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*

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

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



## 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

- (a) Bob will come soon. *When Bob comes*, we will see him.
- (b) Linda is going to leave soon. *Before she leaves*, she is going to finish her work.
- (c) I will get home at 5:30. *After I get home*, I will eat dinner.
- (d) The taxi will arrive soon. *As soon as it arrives*, we'll be able to leave for the airport.
- (e) They are going to come soon. I'll wait here *until they come*.

In (a): ***When Bob comes*** is a time clause.\*

***when + subject + verb = a time clause***

***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.

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:

*When he comes*, we'll see him. OR  
We'll see him *when he comes*.

- (f) *While I am traveling in Europe next year*, I'm going to save money by staying in youth hostels.

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).

- (g) I will go to bed *after I finish my work*.
- (h) I will go to bed *after I have finished my work*.

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.

\*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

### PRESENT PROGRESSIVE

- (a) My wife has an appointment with a doctor. She *is seeing* Dr. North *next Tuesday*.
- (b) Sam has already made his plans. He *is leaving at noon tomorrow*.
- (c) A: What are you going to do this afternoon?  
B: *After lunch I am meeting* a friend of mine. We *are going* shopping. Would you like to come along?

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 *rain* is not used in the present progressive to indicate future time because *rain* is not a planned event.)

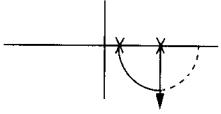
A future meaning for the present progressive tense is indicated either by future time words in the sentence or by the context.

### SIMPLE PRESENT

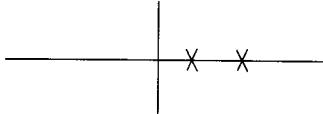
- (d) The museum *opens* *at ten tomorrow morning*.
- (e) Classes *begin* *next week*.
- (f) John's plane *arrives* *at 6:05 P.M. next Monday*.

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., *open, close, begin, end, start, finish, arrive, leave, come, return*.

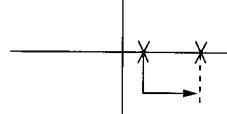
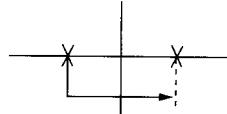
## 4-5 FUTURE PROGRESSIVE

	<p>(a) I will begin to study at seven. You will come at eight. I <b><i>will be studying</i></b> when you come.</p> <p>(b) Right now I am sitting in class. At this same time tomorrow, I <b><i>will be sitting</i></b> in class.</p> <p>(c) Don't call me at nine because I won't be home. I <b><i>am going to be studying</i></b> at the library.</p> <p>(d) Don't get impatient. She <b><i>will be coming</i></b> soon.</p> <p>(e) Don't get impatient. She <b><i>will come</i></b> soon.</p>	<p>The future progressive expresses an activity that will be <i>in progress at a time in the future</i>.</p>
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## 4-6 FUTURE PERFECT

	<p>(a) I will graduate in June. I will see you in July. By the time I see you, I <b><i>will have graduated</i></b>.</p> <p>(b) I <b><i>will have finished</i></b> 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: <b><i>by the time</i></b> 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 <b><i>will have been sleeping</i></b> 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 <b><i>will have taught</i></b> for 45 years.</p> <p>(e) When Professor Jones retires next month, he <b><i>will have been teaching</i></b> 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

adverb clause	main clause	
(a) When the phone rang,	the baby woke up.	In (a): <b>When the phone rang</b> 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): <b>the baby woke up</b> is the main clause.
(b) INCORRECT: When the phone rang.	The baby woke up.	Example (b) is incorrect because the adverb clause is not connected to the main clause.
(c)	The phone rang. The baby woke up.	Example (c) is correct because there is no adverb clause. The two main clauses are both independent sentences.
(d) When the phone rang,	the baby woke up. (e) The baby woke up when the phone rang.	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). Notice that a comma is used to separate the two clauses when the adverb clause comes first.



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

## 5-2 USING ADVERB CLAUSES TO SHOW TIME RELATIONSHIPS

<i>after*</i>	(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.)
<i>before*</i>	(c) <i>I will leave before he comes.</i> (d) <i>I (had) left before he came.</i>	
<i>when</i>	(e) <i>When I arrived, he was talking on the phone.</i> (f) <i>When I got there, he had already left.</i> (g) <i>When it began to rain, I stood under a tree.</i> (h) <i>When I was in Chicago, I visited the museums.</i> (i) <i>When I see him tomorrow, I will ask him.</i>	<b>when</b> = 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, it began to rain.</i> (k) <i>As I was walking home, it began to rain.</i>	<b>while, as</b> = during that time
<i>by the time</i>	(l) <i>By the time he arrived, we had already left.</i> (m) <i>By the time he comes, we will have already left.</i>	<b>by the time</b> = 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>I haven't seen him since he left this morning.</i> (o) <i>I've known her ever since I was a child.</i>	<b>since</b> = from that time to the present In (o): <b>ever</b> adds emphasis. Note: The present perfect is used in the main clause.
<i>until</i> <i>till</i>	(p) <i>We stayed there until we finished our work.</i> (q) <i>We stayed there till we finished our work.</i>	<b>until, till</b> = to that time and then no longer ( <b>Till</b> 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, we will leave.</i> (s) <i>Once it stops raining, we will leave.</i>	<b>as soon as, once</b> = when one event happens, another event happens soon afterward
<i>as long as</i> <i>so long as</i>	(t) <i>I will never speak to him again as long as I live.</i> (u) <i>I will never speak to him again so long as I live.</i>	<b>as long as, so long as</b> = during all that time, from beginning to end
<i>whenever</i> <i>every time</i>	(v) <i>Whenever I see her, I say hello.</i> (w) <i>Every time I see her, I say hello.</i>	<b>whenever</b> = every time
<i>the first time</i>	(x) <i>The first time (that) I went to New York, I went to an opera.</i>	Adverb clauses can be introduced by the following:
<i>the last time</i>	(y) <i>I saw two plays the last time (that) I went to New York.</i>	
<i>the next time</i>	(z) <i>The next time (that) I go to New York, I'm going to see a ballet.</i>	<b>the</b> { <b>first</b> <b>second</b> <b>third, etc.</b> <b>last</b> <b>next</b> <b>etc.</b> } <b>time (that)</b>

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

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



# CHAPTER 6

## Subject-Verb Agreement

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

(a) NOUN + <i>-s</i> : <i>Friends</i> are important. NOUN + <i>-es</i> : I like my <i>classes</i> .	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
(b) VERB + <i>-s</i> : Mary <i>works</i> at the bank. VERB + <i>-es</i> : John <i>watches</i> birds.	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</i> , <i>my father</i> , <i>the machine</i> ) or third person singular pronoun ( <i>she</i> , <i>he</i> , <i>it</i> ). <i>Mary works</i> = singular <i>The students work</i> = plural <i>She works</i> = singular <i>They work</i> = plural

#### PRONUNCIATION OF -S/-ES

(c) seats → <i>seat/s/</i> ropes → <i>rope/s/</i> backs → <i>back/s/</i>	Final <i>-s</i> is pronounced /s/ after voiceless sounds, as in (c): “t,” “p,” and “k” are examples of voiceless sounds.*
(d) seeds → <i>seed/z/</i> robes → <i>robe/z/</i> bags → <i>bag/z/</i> sees → <i>see/z/</i>	Final <i>-s</i> is pronounced /z/ after voiced sounds, as in (h): “d,” “b,” “g,” and “ee” are examples of voiced sounds.*
(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>	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.

#### SPELLING: FINAL -S vs. -ES

(f) sing → <i>sing/s/</i> song → <i>song/s/</i>	For most words (whether a verb or a noun), simply a final <i>-s</i> is added to spell the word correctly.
(g) wash → <i>wash/s/</i> watch → <i>watch/s/</i> class → <i>class/s/</i> buzz → <i>buzz/s/</i> box → <i>box/s/</i>	Final <i>-es</i> is added to words that end in <i>-sh</i> , <i>-ch</i> , <i>-s</i> , <i>-z</i> , and <i>-x</i> .
(h) toy → <i>toy/y/</i> buy → <i>buy/y/</i>	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.
(i) baby → <i>baby/ie/</i> cry → <i>cry/ie/</i>	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.

\*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 <i>friend</i> <i>lives</i> in Boston.	(b) My <i>friends</i> <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 <i>brother and sister</i> <i>live</i> in Boston. (d) My <i>brother, sister, and cousin</i> <i>live</i> in Boston.	Two or more subjects connected by <b>and</b> require a plural verb.
(e) <i>Every man, woman, and child</i> <i>needs</i> love. (f) <i>Each book and magazine</i> <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 <b>and</b> , 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 <b>on political parties</b> does not change the fact that the verb <i>is</i> must agree with the subject <b>book</b> . In (k) and (l): The subject and verb are separated by an adjective clause. (See Chapter 13.)
(m) <i>Growing flowers</i> <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): <b>Some of + singular noun = singular verb.</b> In (b): <b>Some of + plural noun = plural verb.</b>
(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: <b>One of, each of, and every one of</b> take singular verbs. <i>one of</i> <i>each of</i> <i>every one of</i> } + plural noun = singular verb
(j) <i>None of the boys is</i> here.	(k) <i>None of the boys are</i> here. (informal)	Subjects with <b>none of</b> 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): <b>The number</b> is the subject. In (m): <b>A number of</b> is an expression of quantity meaning "a lot of." It is followed by a plural noun and a plural verb.

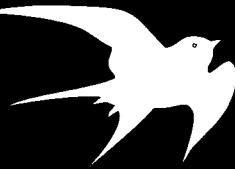
## 6-4 SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT: USING THERE + BE

(a) <i>There are</i> twenty students in my class. (b) <i>There's</i> a fly in the room.	In the structure <b>there + be</b> , <b>there</b> is called an "expletive." It has no meaning as a vocabulary word. It introduces the idea that something exists in a particular place. Pattern: <b>there + be + subject + expression of place</b>
(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.
(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 is</i> big. (b) <i>The Philippines consists</i> of more than 7,000 islands. (c) <i>The United Nations has</i> its headquarters in New York City. (d) <i>Sears is</i> 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 <i>it</i> is used (not the plural pronoun <i>they</i> ) because the noun is singular. In (a): <i>The United States = it</i> (not <i>they</i> ).	
(e) <i>The news is</i> interesting.	<i>News</i> is singular.	
(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. (i) <i>Ten dollars is</i> too much to pay. (j) <i>Five thousand miles is</i> too far to travel.	Expressions of time, money, and distance usually require a singular verb.	
(k) <i>Two and two is</i> four. <i>Two and two equals</i> four. <i>Two plus two is&gt;equals</i> four. (l) <i>Five times five is</i> twenty-five.	Arithmetic expressions require singular verbs.	
PLURAL VERB		
(m) <i>Those people are</i> from Canada. (n) <i>The police have</i> been called. (o) <i>Cattle are</i> domestic animals.	<i>People, * police, and cattle</i> do not end in -s, but are plural nouns and require plural verbs.	
SINGULAR VERB	PLURAL VERB	
(p) <i>English is</i> spoken in many countries. (r) <i>Chinese is his native language.</i>	(q) <i>The English drink</i> tea. (s) <i>The Chinese have</i> an interesting history.	In (p): <i>English</i> = language. In (q): <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> .
	(t) <i>The poor have</i> many problems. (u) <i>The rich get</i> richer.	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.*



# 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 <b>-s</b> .*		
(b) <i>box—boxes</i>	Final <b>-es</b> is added to nouns that end in <b>-sh</b> , <b>-ch</b> , <b>-s</b> , <b>-z</b> , and <b>-x</b> .*		
(c) <i>baby—babies</i>	The plural of words that end in a consonant + <b>-y</b> is spelled <b>-ies</b> .*		
(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>	The nouns in (d) have irregular plural forms that do not end in <b>-s</b> .
(e) <i>echo—echoes</i> <i>hero—heroes</i>	<i>potato—potatoes</i> <i>tomato—tomatoes</i>		Some nouns that end in <b>-o</b> add <b>-es</b> 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>	Some nouns that end in <b>-o</b> add only <b>-s</b> to form the plural.
(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 <b>-o</b> add either <b>-es</b> or <b>-s</b> to form the plural (with <b>-es</b> 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>	Some nouns that end in <b>-f</b> or <b>-fe</b> are changed to <b>-ves</b> to form the plural.
(i) <i>belief—beliefs</i> <i>chief—chiefs</i>	<i>cliff—cliffs</i> <i>roof—roofs</i>		Some nouns that end in <b>-f</b> simply add <b>-s</b> 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*.

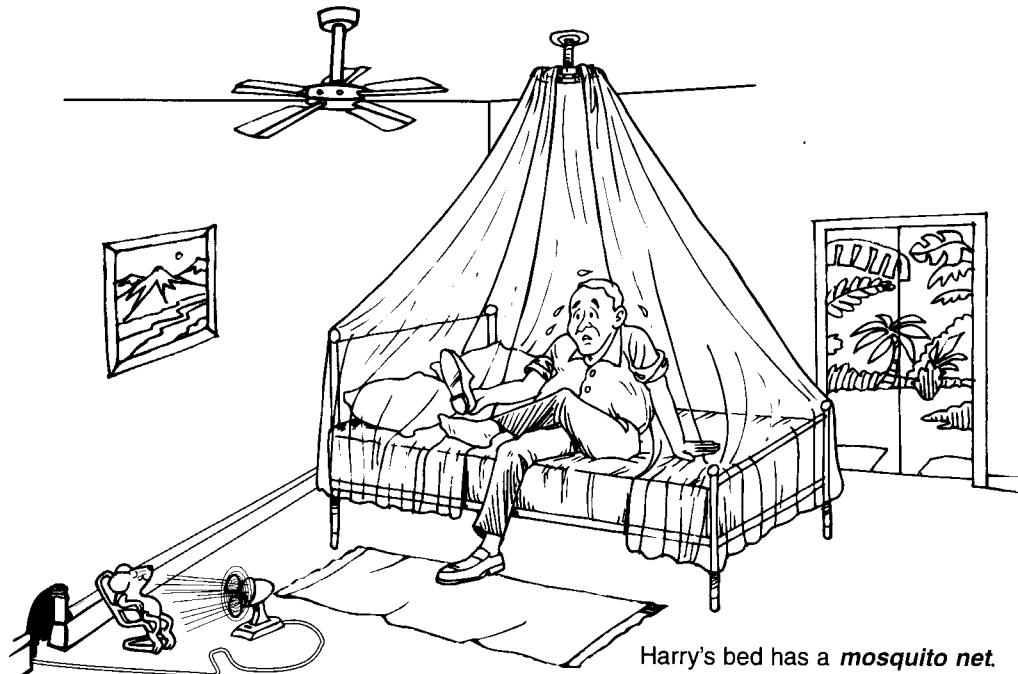
## 7-2 POSSESSIVE NOUNS

SINGULAR NOUN (a) <i>the girl</i> (b) <i>Tom</i> (c) <i>my wife</i> (d) <i>a lady</i> (e) <i>Thomas</i>	POSSESSIVE FORM <i>the girl's</i> <i>Tom's</i> <i>my wife's</i> <i>a lady's</i> <i>Thomas's/Thomas'</i>	To show possession, add an apostrophe ('') and <i>-s</i> to a singular noun: <i>The girl's book is on the table.</i>
PLURAL NOUN (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>	POSSESSIVE FORM <i>the girls'</i> <i>their wives'</i> <i>the ladies'</i> <i>the men's</i> <i>my children's</i>	If a singular noun ends in <i>-s</i> , there are two possible forms: 1. Add an apostrophe and <i>-s</i> : <i>Thomas's book</i> . 2. Add only an apostrophe: <i>Thomas' book</i> .
		Add only an apostrophe to a plural noun that ends in <i>-s</i> : <i>The girls' 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*)



Harry's bed has a *mosquito net*.

## 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>Ø 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>Ø 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> .

\*Ø = nothing.

## 7-5 NONCOUNT NOUNS

- (a) I bought some chairs, tables, and desks. In other words, I bought some *furniture*.

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.

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).

- (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.

(Dictionaries written especially for learners of English as a second language are a good source of information on count/noncount usages of nouns.)

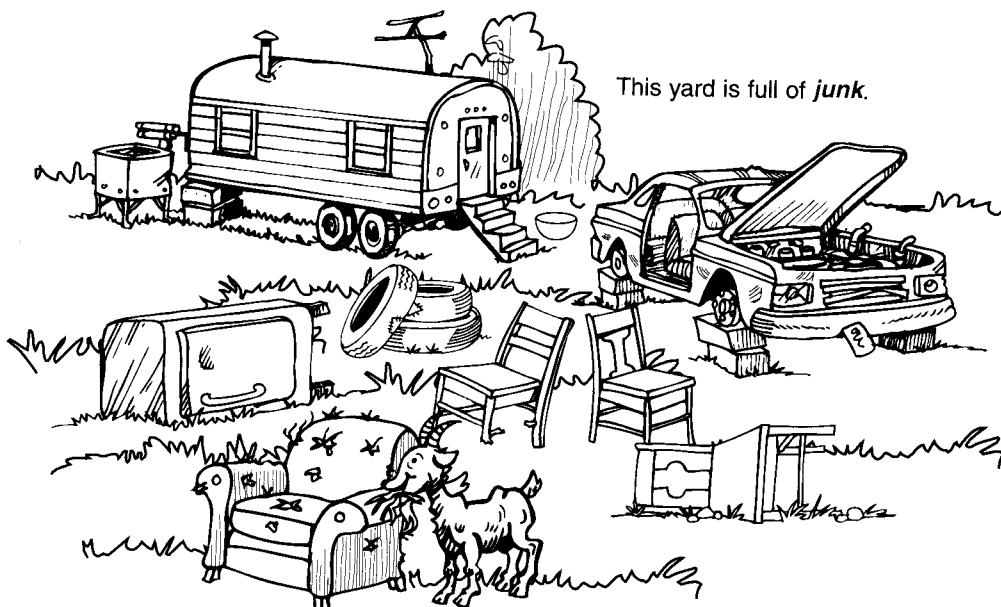
\*To express a particular quantity, some noncount nouns may be preceded by unit expressions: *a spoonful of sugar*, *a glass of water*, *a cup of coffee*, *a quart of milk*, *a loaf of bread*, *a grain of rice*, *a bowl of soup*, *a bag of flour*, *a pound of meat*, *a piece of furniture*, *a piece of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



This yard is full of **junk**.

## 7-7 BASIC ARTICLE USAGE

### I. USING *A* or *Ø*: GENERIC NOUNS

SINGULAR COUNT NOUN	(a) <i>A banana</i> is yellow.*	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.
PLURAL COUNT NOUN	(b) <i>Ø Bananas</i> are yellow.	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.
NONCOUNT NOUN	(c) <i>Ø Fruit</i> is good for you.	Notice that no article ( <i>Ø</i> ) is used to make generalizations with plural count nouns, as in (b), and with noncount nouns, as in (c).

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

SINGULAR COUNT NOUN	(d) I ate <i>a banana</i> .	Indefinite nouns are actual things (not symbols), but they are not specifically identified.
PLURAL COUNT NOUN	(e) I ate <i>some bananas</i> .	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.
NONCOUNT NOUN	(f) I ate <i>some fruit</i> .	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, a few, several, a lot of, etc.</i> , with plural count nouns, or <i>a little, a lot of, etc.</i> , with noncount nouns. (See Chart 7-4, p. 32.)

### III. USING *THE*: DEFINITE NOUNS

SINGULAR COUNT NOUN	(g) Thank you for <i>the banana</i> .	A noun is definite when both the speaker and the listener are thinking about the same specific thing.
PLURAL COUNT NOUN	(h) Thank you for <i>the bananas</i> .	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.
NONCOUNT NOUN	(i) Thank you for <i>the fruit</i> .	Notice that <i>the</i> is used with both singular and plural count nouns and with noncount nouns.

\*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) <b><i>The sun</i></b> is bright today. Please hand this book to <b><i>the teacher</i></b>. Please open <b><i>the door</i></b>. Omar is in <b><i>the kitchen</i></b>.</p>	<p><b>GUIDELINE:</b> Use <b><i>the</i></b> 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 <b><i>some dogs</i></b>. <b><i>The dogs</i></b> were chasing <b><i>a cat</i></b>. <b><i>The cat</i></b> was chasing <b><i>a mouse</i></b>. <b><i>The mouse</i></b> ran into <b><i>a hole</i></b>. <b><i>The hole</i></b> was very small.</p>	<p><b>GUIDELINE:</b> Use <b><i>the</i></b> for the second mention of an indefinite noun.* In (b): first mention = <i>some dogs</i>, <i>a cat</i>, <i>a mouse</i>, <i>a hole</i>; second mention = <i>the dogs</i>, <i>the cat</i>, <i>the mouse</i>, <i>the hole</i>.</p>
<p>(c) CORRECT: <b><i>Apples</i></b> are my favorite fruit. <b>INCORRECT:</b> <i>The apples</i> are my favorite fruit. (d) CORRECT: <b><i>Gold</i></b> is a metal. <b>INCORRECT:</b> <i>The gold</i> is a metal.</p>	<p><b>GUIDELINE:</b> Do NOT use <b><i>the</i></b> 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 <b><i>a car</i></b>. / I drove <b><i>the car</i></b>. (2) I drove <b><i>that car</i></b>. (3) I drove <b><i>his car</i></b>. <b>INCORRECT:</b> I drove <i>car</i>.</p>	<p><b>GUIDELINE:</b> 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) <b><i>this/that</i></b>; 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*	
(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 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 <i>a few friends</i> . (Positive idea: <i>She has made some friends</i> .)	<i>A few</i> and <i>a little*</i> 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 <i>a little money</i> 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 ( <i>very</i> ) <i>few friends</i> . (Negative idea: <i>She does not have many friends; she has almost no friends</i> .)	<i>Few</i> and <i>little</i> (without <i>a</i> ) give a negative idea; they indicate that something is largely absent.
<i>little</i>	(d) I have ( <i>very</i> ) <i>little money</i> . 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> .)	<i>Very (+ few/little)</i> makes the negative stronger, the number/amount smaller.

\**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: <i>A lot of books</i> are paperbacks. (b) CORRECT: <i>A lot of my books</i> are paperbacks. (c) INCORRECT: <i>A lot books</i> are paperbacks.	Some expressions of quantity (such as <i>a lot of</i> ) always contain <i>of</i> , as in (a) and (b). See GROUP ONE below.
(d) CORRECT: <i>Many of my books</i> are paperbacks. (e) INCORRECT: <i>Many my books</i> are paperbacks.  (f) CORRECT: <i>Many books</i> are paperbacks. (g) INCORRECT: <i>Many of books</i> are paperbacks.	Sometimes <i>of</i> is used with an expression of quantity, as in (d), and sometimes <i>of</i> 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. *my, John's* (or any possessive), as in (h).
2. *this, that, these, or those*, as in (i).
3. *the*, 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 *nonspecific*. 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> .	Similarly, using <i>of</i> after <i>both</i> is optional when the noun is specific, as in (e).
(f) CORRECT: I know <i>both men</i> . (g) INCORRECT: I know <i>both of men</i> .	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 singular count nouns (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 specific plural count nouns (never singular nouns; never noncount nouns).

\*COMPARE:

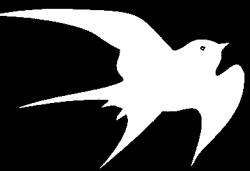
**Every one** (two words) is an expression of quantity; e.g., *I have read every one of those books*.

**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.*



# CHAPTER 8

## Pronouns

### 8-1 PERSONAL PRONOUNS

	SUBJECT PRONOUN	OBJECT PRONOUN	POSSESSIVE PRONOUN	POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE
<b>SINGULAR</b>	<i>I you she, he, it</i>	<i>me you her, him, it</i>	<i>mine your hers, his, its</i>	<i>my name your name her, his, its name</i>
<b>PLURAL</b>	<i>we you they</i>	<i>us you them</i>	<i>ours yours theirs</i>	<i>our names your names their names</i>
(a) I read <u>a book</u> . <u>It</u> was good.				A pronoun is used in place of a noun. The noun it refers to is called the "antecedent." In (a): The pronoun <i>it</i> refers to the antecedent noun <i>book</i> .
(b) I read <u>some books</u> . <u>They</u> were good.				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).
(c) <i>I</i> like tea. Do <i>you</i> like tea too?				Sometimes the antecedent noun is understood, not explicitly stated. In (c): <i>I</i> refers to the speaker, and <i>you</i> refers to the person the speaker is talking to.
(d) John has a car. <i>He</i> drives to work.				Subject pronouns are used as subjects of sentences, as <i>he</i> in (d).
(e) John works in my office. I know <i>him</i> well. (f) I talk to <i>him</i> every day.				Object pronouns are used as the objects of verbs, as in (e), or as the objects of prepositions, as in (f).
(g) That book is <i>hers</i> . <i>Yours</i> is over there.				Possessive pronouns are not followed immediately by a noun; they stand alone, as in (g).
(h) INCORRECT: That book is <i>her's</i> . Your's is over there.				In (h): Possessive pronouns do NOT take apostrophes. (See Chart 7-2, p. 31, for the use of apostrophes with possessive nouns.)
(i) <i>Her</i> book is here. <i>Your</i> book is over there.				Possessive adjectives are followed immediately by a noun; they do not stand alone.
(j) A bird uses <i>its</i> wings to fly. (k) INCORRECT: A bird uses <i>it's</i> wings to fly.				COMPARE: <i>Its</i> has NO APOSTROPHE when it is used as a possessive, as in (j).
(l) <i>It's</i> cold today. (m) The Harbour Inn is my favorite old hotel. <i>It's</i> been in business since 1933.				<i>It's</i> has an apostrophe when it is used as a contraction of <i>it is</i> , as in (l), or <i>it has</i> when <i>has</i> 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. (b) <i>A student</i> walked into the room. <i>He</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.
(c) <i>A student</i> should always do <i>his</i> assignments.  (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.	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.
(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) *Somebody* left *his* book on the desk.  
(g) *Everyone* has *his or her* own ideas.  
(h) INFORMAL:  
    *Somebody* left *their* book on the desk.  
    *Everyone* has *their* own ideas.

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).

\*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

*myself*  
*yourself*  
*herself, himself, itself, oneself*

### PLURAL

*ourselves*  
*yourselves*  
*themselves*

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

\*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

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

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

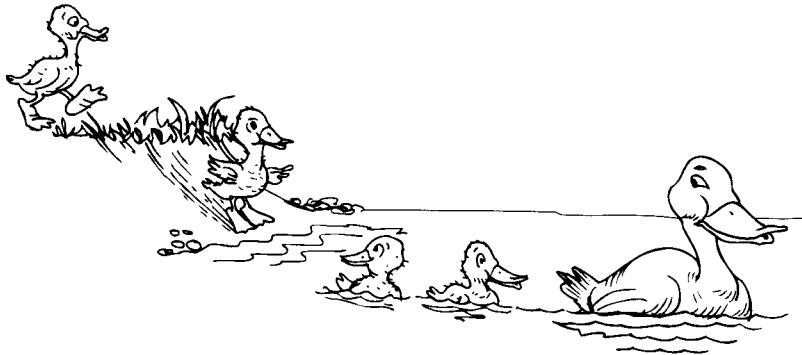
Active: *They fired her.*      Active: *They mine graphite in Brazil, don't they?*  
 Passive: *She was fired.*      Passive: *Graphite is mined in Brazil, isn't it?*

## 8-6 FORMS OF OTHER

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

## 8-7 COMMON EXPRESSIONS WITH *OTHER*

(a) We write to <i>each other</i> every week. We write to <i>one another</i> every week.	<b>Each other</b> and <b>one another</b> indicate a reciprocal relationship.* In (a): I write to him every week, and he writes to me every week.
(b) Please write on <i>every other</i> line. I see her <i>every other</i> week.	<b>Every other</b> 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.)
(c) —Have you seen Ali recently? —Yes. I saw him just <i>the other day</i> .	<b>The other</b> 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): <b>the other day</b> means “a few days ago, not long ago.”
(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> .	In (d): <b>one after the other</b> expresses the idea that separate actions occur very close in time. In (e): <b>one after another</b> has the same meaning as <b>one after the other</b> .



(f) No one knows my secret <i>other than</i> Rosa. (g) No one knows my secret <i>except (for)</i> Rosa.	In (f): <b>other than</b> is usually used after a negative to mean “except.” (g) has the same meaning.
(h) Fruit and vegetables are full of vitamins and minerals. <b>In other words</b> , they are good for you.	In (h): <b>In other words</b> is used to explain, usually in simpler or clearer terms, the meaning of the preceding sentence(s).

\*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> <p><i>I</i>      <i>You</i>      <i>He</i>      <i>She</i>      <i>It</i>      <i>We</i>      <i>You</i>      <i>They</i></p> <p>} + {</p> <p><b>can</b> do it. <b>could</b> do it. <b>had better</b> do it. <b>may</b> do it. <b>might</b> do it. <b>must</b> do it. <b>ought to</b> do it. <b>shall</b> do it. <b>should</b> do it. <b>will</b> do it. <b>would</b> do it.</p>	<p>Modals do not take a final <b>-s</b>, even when the subject is <i>she</i>, <i>he</i>, or <i>it</i>. CORRECT: <b>She can</b> do it. INCORRECT: She <b>cans</b> do it.</p> <p>Modals are followed immediately by the simple form of a verb. CORRECT: <b>She can</b> do it. INCORRECT: She can <b>to</b> do it. / She can <b>does</b> it. / She can <b>did</b> it. The only exception is <b>ought</b>, which is followed by an infinitive (<b>to + the simple form of a verb</b>). CORRECT: He <b>ought to go</b> to the meeting.</p>
<p>(b) PHRASAL MODALS</p> <p><b>be able to</b> do it <b>be going to</b> do it <b>be supposed to</b> do it <b>have to</b> do it <b>have got to</b> do it <b>used to</b> do it</p>	<p>Phrasal modals are common expressions whose meanings are similar to those of some of the modal auxiliaries. For example: <b>be able to</b> is similar to <b>can</b>; <b>be going to</b> is similar to <b>will</b>. An infinitive (<b>to + the simple form of a verb</b>) 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) <b>borrow</b> your pen? (b) <i>Could I borrow</i> your pen (please)?	<b>May I</b> and <b>could I</b> are used to request permission. They are equally polite.* Note in (b): In a polite request, <b>could</b> has a present or future meaning, not a past meaning.
CAN I	(c) <i>Can I borrow</i> your pen?	<b>Can I</b> is used informally to request permission, especially if the speaker is talking to someone s/he knows fairly well. <b>Can I</b> is usually considered a little less polite than <b>may I</b> or <b>could I</b> .
	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) <b>pass</b> the salt?	The meaning of <b>would you</b> and <b>will you</b> in a polite request is the same. <b>Would you</b> 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, <b>could you</b> and <b>would you</b> have the same meaning. The difference is slight: <b>Would you</b> = <i>Do you want to do this please?</i> <b>Could you</b> = <i>Do you want to do this please, and is it possible for you to do this?</i> <b>Could you</b> and <b>would you</b> are equally polite.
CAN YOU	(d) <i>Can you</i> (please) <b>pass</b> the salt?	<b>Can you</b> is often used informally. It usually sounds less polite than <b>could you</b> or <b>would you</b> .
	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 pass the salt?</i>	<b>May</b> is used only with <b>I</b> or <b>we</b> in polite requests.

## 9-4 POLITE REQUESTS WITH *WOULD YOU MIND*

<b>ASKING PERMISSION</b> (a) <i>Would you mind if I closed</i> the window? (b) <i>Would you mind if I used</i> the phone?	Notice in (a): <b><i>Would you mind if I</i></b> 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>
<b>TYPICAL RESPONSES</b> No, not at all/of course not. No, that would be fine.	Another typical response might be “unh-unh,” meaning “no.”  Notice in (c): <b><i>Would you mind</i></b> is followed by <b>-ing</b> (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>
<b>ASKING SOMEONE TO DO SOMETHING</b> (c) <i>Would you mind closing</i> the window? (d) Excuse me. <i>Would you mind repeating</i> that?	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.

\*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*

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

## 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 **should have studied** last night.
- b) You were supposed to be here at 10 P.M., but you didn't come until midnight. We were worried about you. You **should have called** us. (You did not call.)
- c) My back hurts. I **should not have carried** that heavy box up two flights of stairs. (I carried the box, and now I'm sorry.)
- d) We went to a movie, but it was a waste of time and money. We **should not have gone** to the movie.

Past form: **should have** + past participle.\*

In (a): *I should have studied* means that studying was a good idea, but I didn't do it. I made a mistake.

Usual pronunciation of **should have**: "should-əv" or "should-ə."

In (c): *I should not have carried* 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 **is supposed to begin** at 10:00.
- (b) The committee **is supposed to vote** by secret ballot.
- (c) I **am supposed to go** to the meeting. My boss told me that he wants me to attend.
- (d) The children **are supposed to put away** their toys before they go to bed.
- (e) Jack **was supposed to call** me last night. I wonder why he didn't.

**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).

**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.

**Be supposed to** in the past (*was/were supposed to*) 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*

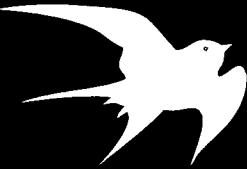
a) Let's go to a movie. b) Let's not go to a movie. Let's stay home instead.	<b>Let's = let us.</b> <i>Let's</i> is followed by the simple form of a verb. Negative form: <i>let's + not + simple verb</i> The meaning of <i>let's</i> : "I have a suggestion for us."
(c) Why don't we go to a movie? (d) Why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

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

—What should we do tomorrow? (a) Why don't we go on a picnic? (b) We could go on a picnic.	<b>Could</b> can be used to make suggestions. (a) and (b) are similar in meaning: the speaker is suggesting a picnic.
—I'm having trouble in math class. (c) You should talk to your teacher. (d) Maybe you should talk to your teacher.	<b>Should</b> 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 <b>maybe</b> softens the strength of the advice.
—I'm having trouble in math class. (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.	<b>Could</b> 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."*
—I failed my math class. (f) You should have talked to your teacher and gotten some help from her during the term.  —I failed my math class. (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.	<b>Should have</b> 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."  <b>Could have</b> 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."

\***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

—Why isn't John in class?

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

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

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

“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%.

—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 the degree of certainty 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?

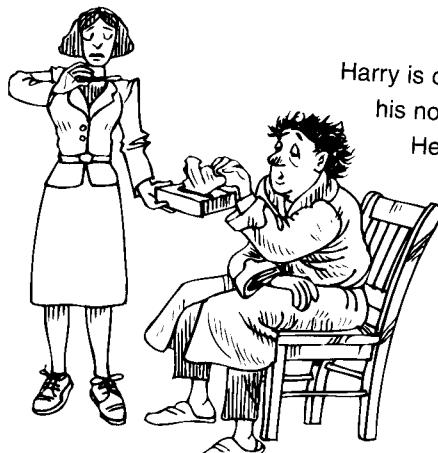
- (b) He **may be** sick.  
(c) He **might be** sick.  
(d) He **could be** sick. (I don't really know. He may be at home watching TV. He might be at the library. He could be out of town.)

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

In (b), (c), and (d): The speaker is saying, “Perhaps, maybe,\* possibly John is sick. I am only making a guess. I can think of other possibilities.”

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

\***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

**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.

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

(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 <i>isn't</i> 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

### PAST TIME: AFFIRMATIVE

—Why *wasn't* Mary in class?

(a) **100%:** She *was* sick.

(b) **95%:** She *must have been* sick.

(c) **less than 50%:** { 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) **less than 50%:** { 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.

## 10-4 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 *should do* / *ought to do* 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 *should have heard* / *ought to have heard* 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 *may be sleeping*. (right now)  
(b) All of the lights in Ann's room are turned off. She *must be sleeping*. (right now)

Progressive form, present time:  
*modal + be + -ing*  
Meaning: *in progress right now*

- (c) Sue wasn't at home last night when we went to visit her. She *might have been studying* 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 *must have been studying* at the library.

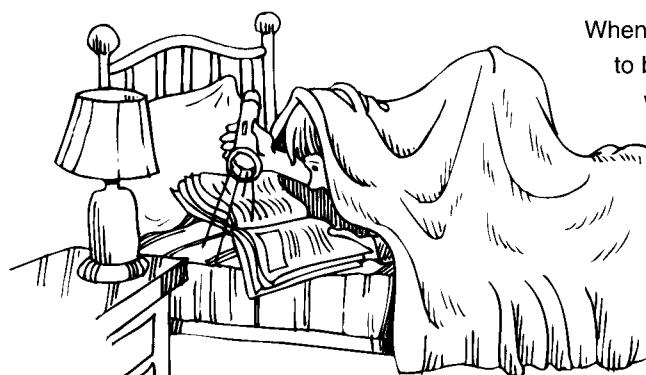
Progressive form, past time:  
*modal + have been + -ing*  
Meaning: *in progress at a time in the past*

## 10-6 ABILITY: CAN AND COULD

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

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

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



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**

- (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**.

—*How much do you weigh?*

- (c) I'd **rather not tell** you.

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

Negative form: **would rather + not**

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

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

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

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

## 10-9 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) **CORRECT:** Janet **will be able to** help you tomorrow.

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**.

- (c) **CORRECT:** Tom **isn't going to be able to** help you tomorrow.

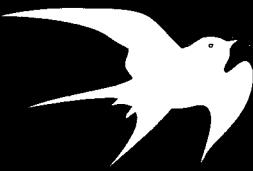
It is also sometimes possible for one phrasal modal to follow another phrasal modal. In (c): **be going to** is followed by **be able to**.

## 10-10 SUMMARY CHART OF MODALS AND SIMILAR EXPRESSIONS

AUXILIARY	USES	PRESENT/FUTURE	PAST
may	(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	—Where's John? He <i>may be</i> at the library.	He <i>may have been</i> at the library.
might	(1) less than 50% certainty	—Where's John? 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?	
should	(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.
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) 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.
had better	(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> )
be supposed to	(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.
must	(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.
have to	(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.
have got to	(1) necessity	I <i>have got to go</i> to class today.	(I <i>had to go</i> to class yesterday.)
will	(1) 100% certainty	He <i>will be</i> here at 6:00. ( <i>future only</i> )	
	(2) willingness	—The phone's ringing. I'll get it.	
	(3) polite request	<i>Will</i> you please <i>pass</i> the salt?	

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

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

<b>ACTIVE:</b> (a) <table style="margin-left: auto; margin-right: auto; border-collapse: collapse;"><tr><td style="padding: 2px;">subject</td><td style="padding: 2px;">verb</td><td style="padding: 2px;">object</td></tr><tr><td style="padding: 2px;">Mary</td><td style="padding: 2px;"><b>helped</b></td><td style="padding: 2px;">the boy.</td></tr></table> <b>PASSIVE:</b> (b) <table style="margin-left: auto; margin-right: auto; border-collapse: collapse;"><tr><td style="padding: 2px;">subject</td><td style="padding: 2px;">verb</td></tr><tr><td style="padding: 2px;">The boy</td><td style="padding: 2px;"><b>was helped</b></td></tr><tr><td colspan="2" style="padding: 2px;">by Mary.</td></tr></table>	subject	verb	object	Mary	<b>helped</b>	the boy.	subject	verb	The boy	<b>was helped</b>	by Mary.	
subject	verb	object										
Mary	<b>helped</b>	the boy.										
subject	verb											
The boy	<b>was helped</b>											
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.

<b>ACTIVE:</b> (c) An accident <b>happened</b> . <b>PASSIVE:</b> (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 <b>helps</b>	The boy <b>is</b> <b>helped</b> by Mary.
<i>present progressive</i>	Mary <b>is helping</b>	The boy <b>is being</b> <b>helped</b> by Mary.
<i>present perfect*</i>	Mary <b>has helped</b>	The boy <b>has been</b> <b>helped</b> by Mary.
<i>simple past</i>	Mary <b>helped</b>	The boy <b>was</b> <b>helped</b> by Mary.
<i>past progressive</i>	Mary <b>was helping</b>	The boy <b>was being</b> <b>helped</b> by Mary.
<i>past perfect*</i>	Mary <b>had helped</b>	The boy <b>had been</b> <b>helped</b> by Mary.
<i>simple future*</i>	Mary <b>will help</b>	The boy <b>will be</b> <b>helped</b> by Mary.
<i>be going to</i>	Mary <b>is going to help</b>	The boy <b>is going to be</b> <b>helped</b> by Mary.
<i>future perfect*</i>	Mary <b>will have helped</b>	The boy <b>will have been</b> <b>helped</b> 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

- (a) Rice *is grown* in India.
- (b) Our house *was built* in 1980.
- (c) This olive oil *was imported* from Crete.

Usually the passive is used without a *by*-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 *by*-phrase.

- (d) *Life on the Mississippi was written* by Mark Twain.

The *by*-phrase is included only if it is important to know who performs an action, as in (d), where *by Mark Twain* is important information.

- (e) My aunt *made* this rug. (*active*)

If the speaker knows who performs an action, usually the active is used, as in (e).

- (f) This rug *was made* by my aunt.  
That rug *was made* by my mother.

Sometimes, even when the speaker knows who performs an action, s/he chooses to use the passive with the *by*-phrase because s/he wants to focus attention on the subject of a sentence. In (f): The focus of attention is on two rugs.

## 11-3 INDIRECT OBJECTS AS PASSIVE SUBJECTS

I.O.                    D.O.

- (a) Someone gave Mrs. Lee an award.
- (b) *Mrs. Lee* was given an award.

I.O. = indirect object; D.O. = direct object

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.

D.O.                    I.O.

- (c) Someone gave an award to Mrs. Lee.
- (d) *An award* was given to Mrs. Lee.

Notice in (d): When the direct object becomes the subject, *to* is usually kept in front of the indirect object.\*

\*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 is *old*.
- (b) The door is *green*.
- (c) The door is *locked*.

In (a) and (b): *old* and *green* are adjectives. They describe the door. In (c): *locked* 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 *is locked*.

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:

- no action is taking place; the action happened earlier.
- there is no *by*-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 *is broken*.

Prepositions other than *by* can follow stative passive verbs. (See Chart 11-6, p. 59.)

- (j) I am interested in Chinese art.
- (k) He is satisfied with his job.
- (l) Ann is married to Alex.

- (m) I don't know where I am. I am lost.
- (n) I can't find my purse. It is gone.
- (o) I am finished with my work.
- (p) I am done with 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.

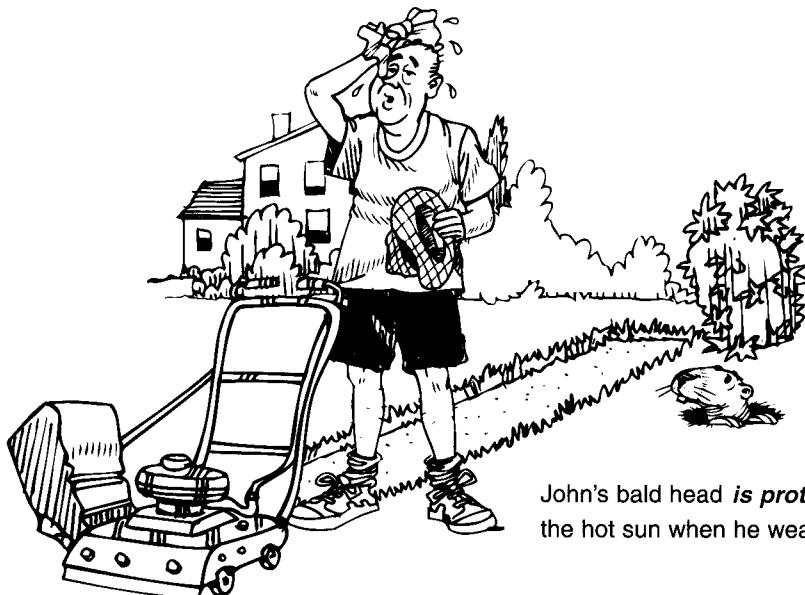
## 11-6 COMMON STATIVE PASSIVE VERBS + PREPOSITIONS

- (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

<i>be accustomed to</i>	<i>be engaged to</i>	<i>be opposed to</i>
<i>be acquainted with</i>	<i>be equipped with</i>	<i>be pleased with</i>
<i>be addicted to</i>	<i>be excited about</i>	<i>be prepared for</i>
<i>be annoyed with, by</i>	<i>be exhausted from</i>	<i>be protected from</i>
<i>be associated with</i>	<i>be exposed to</i>	<i>be provided with</i>
<i>be bored with, by</i>	<i>be filled with</i>	<i>be qualified for</i>
<i>be cluttered with</i>	<i>be finished with</i>	<i>be related to</i>
<i>be composed of</i>	<i>be frightened of, by</i>	<i>be remembered for</i>
<i>be concerned about</i>	<i>be gone from</i>	
<i>be connected to</i>	<i>be interested in</i>	<i>be satisfied with</i>
<i>be coordinated with</i>	<i>be involved in</i>	<i>be scared of, by</i>
<i>be covered with</i>	<i>be known for</i>	<i>be terrified of, by</i>
<i>be crowded with</i>	<i>be limited to</i>	<i>be tired of, from</i>
<i>be dedicated to</i>	<i>be located in</i>	<i>be worried about</i>
<i>be devoted to</i>		
<i>be disappointed in, with</i>	<i>be made of</i>	
<i>be discriminated against</i>	<i>be married to</i>	
<i>be divorced from</i>		
<i>be done with</i>		
<i>be dressed in</i>		



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:

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

## 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.

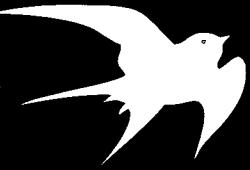
- (c) It is an **amusing story**.

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

—The children are amused by the story.

- (d) They are **amused children**.

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 (<b>I</b>) and verb (<b>know</b>) of the sentence. <i>Where Sue lives</i> is a dependent clause connected to an independent clause. <i>Where Sue lives</i> 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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>In (e): <b><i>His story</i></b> is a noun phrase. It is used as the subject of the sentence.</p> <p>In (f): <b><i>What he said</i></b> is a noun clause. It is used as the subject of the sentence. The noun clause has its own subject (<b>he</b>) and verb (<b>said</b>).</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): <b><i>his story</i></b> is a noun phrase. It is used as the object of the verb <b>heard</b>.</p> <p>In (h): <b><i>what he said</i></b> is a noun clause. It is used as the object of the verb <b>heard</b>.</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): <b><i>his story</i></b> is a noun phrase. It is used as the object of the preposition <b>to</b>.</p> <p>In (j): <b><i>what he said</i></b> is a noun clause. It is used as the object of the preposition <b>to</b>.</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.

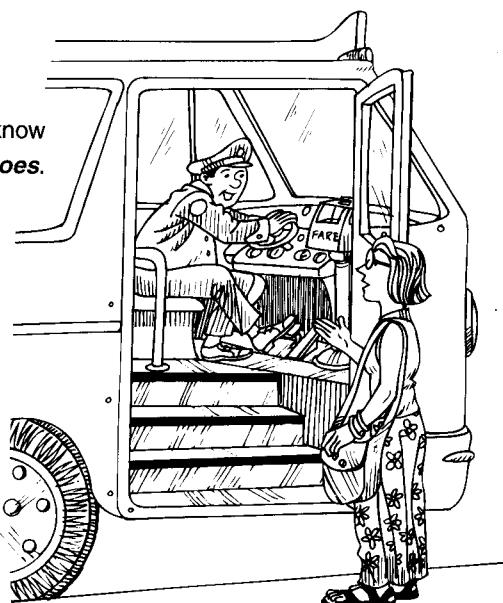
## 12-2 NOUN CLAUSES BEGINNING WITH A QUESTION WORD

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

\*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 Will she come?  Does he need help?	NOUN CLAUSE (a) I don't know <i>whether she will come</i> . I don't know <i>if she will come</i> . (b) I wonder <i>whether he needs help</i> . I wonder <i>if he needs help</i> .	When a yes/no question is changed to a noun clause, <b><i>whether</i></b> or <b><i>if</i></b> is used to introduce the clause. (Note: <b><i>Whether</i></b> is more acceptable in formal English, but <b><i>if</i></b> is quite commonly used, especially in speaking.)
	(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 <b><i>or not</i></b> 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 *what I should do*.  
 (b) I don't know *what to do*.  
 (c) Pam can't decide *whether she should go or stay home*.  
 (d) Pam can't decide *whether to go or (to) stay home*.  
 (e) Please tell me *how I can get to the bus station*.  
 (f) Please tell me *how to get to the bus station*.  
 (g) Jim told us *where we could find it*.  
 (h) Jim told us *where to find it*.

Question words (***when, where, how, who, whom, whose, what, which***) and ***whether*** 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 ***should*** or ***can/could***.

## 12-5 NOUN CLAUSES BEGINNING WITH THAT

STATEMENT He is a good actor.  The world is round.	NOUN CLAUSE (a) I think <i>that he is a good actor</i> . (b) I think <i>he is a good actor</i> .  (c) We know <i>(that) the world is round</i> .	In (a): <b><i>that he is a good actor</i></b> is a noun clause. It is used as the object of the verb <b><i>think</i></b> .  The word <b><i>that</i></b> , 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.)
She doesn't understand spoken English.  The world is round.	(d) <i>That she doesn't understand spoken English is obvious</i> . (e) <i>It is obvious (that) she doesn't understand spoken English</i> .  (f) <i>That the world is round is a fact</i> . (g) <i>It is a fact that the world is round</i> .	In (d): The noun clause ( <b><i>That she doesn't understand spoken English</i></b> ) is the subject of the sentence. The word <b><i>that</i></b> 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 <b><i>it</i></b> functions as the subject and the noun clause is placed at the end of the sentence, as in (e) and (g).

## 12-6 QUOTED SPEECH

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

QUOTING ONE SENTENCE (a) She said, "My brother is a student." (b) "My brother is a student," she said. (c) "My brother," she said, "is a student."	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. In (b): Use a comma, not a period, at the end of the quoted sentence when it precedes <i>she said</i> . 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> .
QUOTING MORE THAN ONE SENTENCE (d) "My brother is a student. He is attending a university," she said. (e) "My brother is a student," she said. "He is attending a university."	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> . In (e): If <i>she said</i> comes between two quoted sentences, the second sentence begins with quotation marks and a capital letter.
QUOTING A QUESTION OR AN EXCLAMATION (f) She asked, "When will you be here?" (g) "When will you be here?" she asked. (h) She said, "Watch out!"  (i) "My brother is a student," <i>said Anna</i> . "My brother," <i>said Anna</i> , "is a student."	In (f): The question mark is inside the quotation marks. In (g): If a question mark is used, no comma is used before <i>she asked</i> . In (h): The exclamation point is inside the quotation marks.  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: "My brother's a student," <i>said she</i> .)
(j) "Let's leave," <i>whispered</i> Dave. (k) "Please help me," <i>begged</i> the unfortunate man. (l) "Well," Jack <i>began</i> , "it's a long story."	Say and ask are the most commonly used quote verbs. Some others: add, agree, announce, answer, beg, begin, comment, complain, confess, continue, explain, inquire, promise, remark, reply, respond, shout, suggest, whisper.

\*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."	→ She said she <i>watched</i> TV every day.	<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>
(b) "I <i>am watching</i> TV."	→ She said she <i>was watching</i> TV.	
(c) "I <i>have watched</i> TV."	→ She said she <i>had watched</i> TV.	
(d) "I <i>watched</i> TV."	→ She said she <i>had watched</i> TV.	
(e) "I <i>had watched</i> TV."	→ She said she <i>had watched</i> TV.	
(f) "I <i>will watch</i> TV?"	→ She said she <i>would watch</i> TV.	
(g) "I <i>am going to watch</i> TV."	→ She said she <i>was going to watch</i> TV.	
(h) "I <i>can watch</i> TV."	→ She said she <i>could watch</i> TV.	
(i) "I <i>may watch</i> TV."	→ She said she <i>might watch</i> TV.	
(j) "I <i>must watch</i> TV."	→ She said she <i>had to watch</i> TV.	
(k) "I <i>have to watch</i> TV."	→ She said she <i>had to watch</i> TV.	
(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): <b>should, ought to, and might</b> 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.		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.
(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.		
(o) "The world <i>is round</i> ."	→ She said the world <i>is round</i> .	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</i> me <i>to watch</i> TV.*	In reported speech, an imperative sentence is changed to an infinitive. <b>Tell</b> is used instead of <b>say</b> 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

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

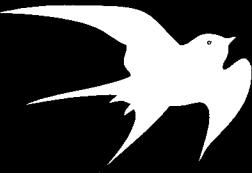
\*The subjunctive is more common in American English than British English. In British English, **should + simple form** is more usual than the subjunctive: *The teacher insists that we should be on time.*

## 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) <b>Whoever</b> 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 <b>who(m)ever</b> he meets.* <i>He makes friends easily with anyone who(m)</i> he meets.
<i>whatever</i>	(c) He always says <b>whatever</b> comes into his mind. <i>He always says 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 <b>whichever program</b> ( <b>whichever one</b> ) you prefer. <i>We can watch any of the four programs that</i> you prefer.
<i>whenever</i>	(e) You may leave <b>whenever</b> you wish. <i>You may leave at any time that</i> you wish.
<i>wherever</i>	(f) She can go <b>wherever</b> she wants to go. <i>She can go anyplace that</i> she wants to go.
<i>however</i>	(g) The students may dress <b>however</b> they please. <i>The students may dress 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</i> , <i>whom</i> , <i>which</i> , <i>that</i> , and <i>whose</i> . (Adjective clause pronouns are also called “relative pronouns.”)

### 13-2 ADJECTIVE CLAUSE PRONOUNS USED AS THE SUBJECT

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

### 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

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

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

## 13-6 USING WHOSE

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

## 13-7 USING WHERE IN ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

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

## 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 **O** 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 {who(m) that} 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 <b>that</b> may not be used (only <b>who</b>, <b>whom</b>, <b>which</b>, <b>whose</b>, <b>where</b>, and <b>when</b> 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

In my class there are 20 students.

*Most of them* are from the Far East.

- (a) In my class there are 20 students, *most of whom* are from Asia.

He gave several reasons.

*Only a few of them* were valid.

- (b) He gave several reasons, *only a few of which* were valid.

The teachers discussed Jim.

*One of his problems* was poor study habits.

- (c) The teachers discussed Jim, *one of whose problems* was poor study habits.

An adjective clause may contain an expression of quantity with *of*: *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.*

The expression of quantity precedes the pronoun. Only *whom, which, and whose* are used in this pattern.

Adjective clauses that begin with an expression of quantity are more common in writing than speaking. Commas are used.

## 13-12 USING NOUN + OF WHICH

We have an antique table.

*The top of it* has jade inlay.

- (a) We have an antique table, *the top of which* has jade inlay.

An adjective clause may include *a noun + of which* (e.g., *the top of which*). This pattern carries the meaning of *whose* (e.g., *We have an antique table whose top has jade inlay.*).

This pattern is used in an adjective clause that modifies a thing and occurs primarily in formal written English. A comma is used.

## 13-13 USING WHICH TO MODIFY A WHOLE SENTENCE

- (a) Tom was late. (b) *That* surprised me.  
(c) Tom was late, *which surprised me.*

- (d) The elevator is out of order. (e) *This* is too bad.  
(f) The elevator is out of order, *which is too bad.*

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.

## 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 <b>who is sitting next to me</b> 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 <b>sitting next to me</b> is Maria.	
(c) CLAUSE: The boy <b>who is playing the piano</b> is Ben.	Only adjective clauses that have a subject pronoun— <b>who</b> , <b>which</b> , or <b>that</b> —are reduced to modifying adjective phrases.
(d) PHRASE: The boy <b>playing the piano</b> is Ben.	
(e) CLAUSE: The boy <b>(whom) I saw</b> was Tom. (f) PHRASE: <b>(none)</b>	The adjective clause in (e) cannot be reduced to an adjective phrase.

## 13-15 CHANGING AN ADJECTIVE CLAUSE TO AN ADJECTIVE PHRASE

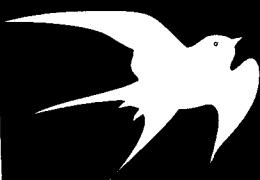
(a) CLAUSE: The man <b>who is talking to John</b> is from Korea. PHRASE: The man <b>O O talking to John</b> is from Korea.	There are two ways in which an adjective clause is changed to an adjective phrase.
(b) CLAUSE: The ideas <b>which are presented in that book</b> are good. PHRASE: The ideas <b>O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

\*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

S              V

- (a) *Playing tennis* is fun.

S    V        O

- (b) We enjoy playing tennis.

PREP      O

- (c) 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

- (a) We talked *about going* to Canada for our vacation.  
(b) Sue is in charge of *organizing* the meeting.  
(c) I'm interested in *learning* more about your work.

A gerund is frequently used as the object of a preposition.

- (d) I'm used to *sleeping* with the window open.  
(e) I'm accustomed to *sleeping\** with the window open.  
(f) I look forward to *going* home next month.  
(g) They object to *changing* their plans at this late date.

In (d) through (g): **to** is a preposition, not part of an infinitive form, so a gerund follows.

- (h) We talked *about not going* to the meeting, but finally decided we should go.

Negative form: **not** precedes a gerund.

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

## 14-3 COMMON PREPOSITION COMBINATIONS FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS

<i>be excited</i>	<i>about doing it</i>	<i>keep (someone)</i>	<i>from doing it</i>	<i>insist on doing it</i>
<i>be worried</i>				
<i>complain</i>	<i>about/of doing it</i>	<i>prevent (someone)</i>	<i>to doing it</i>	<i>be accustomed</i>
<i>dream</i>		<i>prohibit (someone)</i>		<i>in addition</i>
<i>talk</i>	<i>about/of doing it</i>	<i>stop (someone)</i>		<i>be committed</i>
<i>think</i>				<i>be devoted</i>
<i>apologize</i>	<i>for doing it</i>	<i>believe</i>	<i>look forward</i>	<i>to doing it</i>
<i>blame (someone)</i>		<i>be interested</i>		
<i>forgive (someone)</i>	<i>for doing it</i>	<i>participate</i>	<i>object</i>	<i>be opposed</i>
<i>have an excuse</i>		<i>succeed</i>		
<i>have a reason</i>			<i>be used</i>	
<i>be responsible</i>				
<i>thank (someone)</i>				
		<i>be accused</i>	<i>of doing it</i>	
		<i>be capable</i>		
		<i>for the purpose</i>		
		<i>be guilty</i>		
		<i>instead</i>		
		<i>take advantage</i>		
		<i>take care</i>		
		<i>be tired</i>		

## 14-4 COMMON VERBS FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS

verb + gerund	Gerunds are used as the objects of certain verbs. In (a), <i>enjoy</i> is followed by a gerund ( <i>playing</i> ). <i>Enjoy</i> is not followed by an infinitive. <i>INCORRECT:</i> I enjoy to play tennis.
(a) I <u>enjoy</u> <u>playing</u> tennis.	Common verbs that are followed by gerunds are given in the list below.
(b) Joe <i>quit smoking</i> . (c) Joe <i>gave up smoking</i> .	(b) and (c) have the same meaning. Some phrasal verbs,* e.g., <i>give up</i> , 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

<i>be excited</i>	<i>about doing it</i>	keep (someone) prevent (someone) prohibit (someone) stop (someone)	from doing it	insist <i>on doing it</i>		
<i>be worried</i>				<i>be accustomed</i> <i>in addition</i> <i>be committed</i> <i>be devoted</i> <i>look forward</i> <i>object</i> <i>be opposed</i> <i>be used</i>		
<i>complain</i>	<i>about/of doing it</i>			<i>to doing it</i>		
<i>dream</i>						
<i>talk</i>	<i>about/of doing it</i>					
<i>think</i>						
<i>apologize</i>	<i>for doing it</i>					
<i>blame (someone)</i>						
<i>forgive (someone)</i>	<i>for doing it</i>					
<i>have an excuse</i>						
<i>have a reason</i>						
<i>be responsible</i>						
<i>thank (someone)</i>						
		<i>believe</i> <i>be interested</i> <i>participate</i> <i>succeed</i>	<i>in doing it</i>			
		<i>be accused</i> <i>be capable</i> <i>for the purpose</i> <i>be guilty</i> <i>instead</i> <i>take advantage</i> <i>take care</i> <i>be tired</i>	<i>of doing it</i>			

## 14-4 COMMON VERBS FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS

verb + gerund	Gerunds are used as the objects of certain verbs. In (a), <b>enjoy</b> is followed by a gerund ( <b>playing</b> ). <b>Enjoy</b> is not followed by an infinitive. <i>INCORRECT:</i> I enjoy <i>to play</i> tennis.
(a) I <b>enjoy</b> <b>playing</b> tennis.	Common verbs that are followed by gerunds are given in the list below.
(b) Joe <b>quit smoking</b> . (c) Joe <b>gave up smoking</b> .	(b) and (c) have the same meaning. Some phrasal verbs,* e.g., <b>give up</b> , 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>méention</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

<i>be excited</i>	<i>about doing it</i>	<i>keep (someone)</i>	<i>insist on doing it</i>
<i>be worried</i>			
<i>complain</i>	<i>about/of doing it</i>	<i>prevent (someone)</i>	<i>be accustomed</i>
<i>dream</i>		<i>prohibit (someone)</i>	<i>in addition</i>
<i>talk</i>	<i>about/of doing it</i>	<i>stop (someone)</i>	<i>be committed</i>
<i>think</i>		<i>believe</i>	<i>be devoted</i>
<i>apologize</i>	<i>for doing it</i>	<i>be interested</i>	<i>look forward</i>
<i>blame (someone)</i>		<i>participate</i>	<i>object</i>
<i>forgive (someone)</i>	<i>for doing it</i>	<i>succeed</i>	<i>be opposed</i>
<i>have an excuse</i>		<i>be accused</i>	<i>be used</i>
<i>have a reason</i>	<i>for doing it</i>	<i>be capable</i>	
<i>be responsible</i>		<i>for the purpose</i>	
<i>thank (someone)</i>	<i>for doing it</i>	<i>be guilty</i>	
		<i>instead</i>	
		<i>take advantage</i>	
		<i>take care</i>	
		<i>be tired</i>	
		<i>of doing it</i>	

## 14-4 COMMON VERBS FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS

verb + gerund	Gerunds are used as the objects of certain verbs. In (a), <i>enjoy</i> is followed by a gerund ( <i>playing</i> ). <i>Enjoy</i> is not followed by an infinitive. <i>INCORRECT:</i> I enjoy to play tennis.
(a) I <u>enjoy</u> <u>playing</u> tennis.	Common verbs that are followed by gerunds are given in the list below.
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### 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.
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(I stopped walking *in order to talk* to him.)

## 14-5 GO + GERUND

- (a) Did you *go shopping*?  
 (b) We *went fishing* yesterday.

**Go** is followed by a gerund in certain idiomatic expressions to express, for the most part, recreational activities.

### GO + GERUND

<i>go birdwatching</i>	<i>go fishing*</i>	<i>go sailing</i>	<i>go skinnydipping</i>
<i>go boating</i>	<i>go hiking</i>	<i>go shopping</i>	<i>go sledding</i>
<i>go bowling</i>	<i>go hunting</i>	<i>go sightseeing</i>	<i>go snorkeling</i>
<i>go camping</i>	<i>go jogging</i>	<i>go skating</i>	<i>go swimming</i>
<i>go canoeing/kayaking</i>	<i>go mountain climbing</i>	<i>go skateboarding</i>	<i>go tobogganing</i>
<i>go dancing</i>	<i>go running</i>	<i>go skiing</i>	<i>go window shopping</i>

\*Also, in British English: *go angling*

## 14-6 SPECIAL EXPRESSIONS FOLLOWED BY -ING

(a) We *had fun*  
 We *had a good time* } *playing* volleyball.

-ing forms follow certain special expressions:  
*have fun/a good time + -ing*  
*have trouble/difficulty + -ing*  
*have a hard time/difficult time + -ing*

(b) I *had trouble*  
 I *had difficulty*  
 I *had a hard time*  
 I *had a difficult time* } *finding* his house.

(c) Sam *spends most of his time studying*.  
 (d) I *waste a lot of time watching TV*.

*spend + expression of time or money + -ing*  
*waste + expression of time or money + -ing*

(e) She *sat at her desk writing* a letter.  
 (f) I *stood there wondering* what to do next.  
 (g) He *is lying in bed reading* a novel.

*sit + expression of place + -ing*  
*stand + expression of place + -ing*  
*lie + expression of place + -ing*

(h) When I walked into my office, I *found George using* my telephone.  
 (i) When I walked into my office, I *caught a thief looking* through my desk drawers.

*find + (pro)noun + -ing*  
*catch + (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

VERB + INFINITIVE (a) I <b>hope to see</b> you again soon. (b) He <b>promised to be</b> here by ten. (c) He <b>promised not to be</b> late.	An infinitive = <b>to</b> + the simple form of a verb ( <b>to see, to be, to go, etc.</b> ). Some verbs are followed immediately by an infinitive, as in (a) and (b). See Group A below. Negative form: <b>not</b> precedes the infinitive, as in (c).
VERB + (PRO)NOUN + INFINITIVE (d) Mr. Lee <b>told me to be</b> here at ten o'clock. (e) The police <b>ordered the driver to stop</b> .	Some verbs are followed by a (pro)noun and then an infinitive, as in (d) and (e). See Group B below.
(f) I <b>was told to be</b> here at ten o'clock. (g) The driver <b>was ordered to stop</b> .	These verbs are followed immediately by an infinitive when they are used in the passive, as in (f) and (g).
(h) I <b>expect to pass</b> the test. (i) I <b>expect Mary to pass</b> the test.	<i>Ask, expect, would like, want, and need</i> may or may not be followed by a (pro)noun object. <b>COMPARE:</b> In (h): I think I will pass the test. In (i): I think Mary will pass the test.

### GROUP A: VERB + INFINITIVE

<b>hope to</b> (do something)	<b>promise to</b>	<b>seem to</b>	<b>expect to</b>
<b>plan to</b>	<b>agree to</b>	<b>appear to</b>	<b>would like to</b>
<b>intend to*</b>	<b>offer to</b>	<b>pretend to</b>	<b>want to</b>
<b>decide to</b>	<b>refuse to</b>	<b>ask to</b>	<b>need to</b>

### GROUP B: VERB + (PRO)NOUN + INFINITIVE

<b>tell someone to</b>	<b>permit someone to</b>	<b>force someone to</b>	<b>need someone to</b>
<b>advise someone to**</b>	<b>allow someone to</b>	<b>ask someone to</b>	
<b>encourage someone to</b>	<b>warn someone to</b>	<b>expect someone to</b>	
<b>remind someone to</b>	<b>require someone to</b>	<b>would like someone to</b>	
<b>invite someone to</b>	<b>order someone to</b>	<b>want someone to</b>	

\***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.

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

\*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. <i>admit</i>	He admitted <i>stealing</i> the money.
2. <i>advise</i> •	She advised <i>waiting</i> until tomorrow.
3. <i>anticipate</i>	I anticipate <i>having</i> a good time on vacation.
4. <i>appreciate</i>	I appreciated <i>hearing</i> from them.
5. <i>avoid</i>	He avoided <i>answering</i> my question.
6. <i>can't bear</i> •	I can't bear <i>waiting</i> in long lines.
7. <i>begin</i> •	It began raining.
8. <i>complete</i>	I finally completed <i>writing</i> my term paper.
9. <i>consider</i>	I will consider <i>going</i> with you.
10. <i>continue</i> •	He continued speaking.
11. <i>delay</i>	He delayed <i>leaving</i> for school.
12. <i>deny</i>	She denied <i>committing</i> the crime.
13. <i>discuss</i>	They discussed <i>opening</i> a new business.
14. <i>dislike</i>	I dislike <i>driving</i> long distances.
15. <i>enjoy</i>	We enjoyed <i>visiting</i> them.
16. <i>finish</i>	She finished <i>studying</i> about ten.
17. <i>forget</i> •	I'll never forget <i>visiting</i> Napoleon's tomb.
18. <i>hate</i> •	I hate <i>making</i> silly mistakes.
19. <i>can't help</i>	I can't help <i>worrying</i> about it.
20. <i>keep</i>	I keep hoping he will come.
21. <i>like</i> •	I like <i>going</i> to movies.
22. <i>love</i> •	I love <i>going</i> to operas.
23. <i>mention</i>	She mentioned <i>going</i> to a movie.
24. <i>mind</i>	Would you mind helping me with this?
25. <i>miss</i>	I miss <i>being</i> with my family.
26. <i>postpone</i>	Let's postpone <i>leaving</i> until tomorrow.
27. <i>practice</i>	The athlete practiced <i>throwing</i> the ball.
28. <i>prefer</i>	Ann prefers <i>walking</i> to driving to work.
29. <i>quit</i>	He quit trying to solve the problem.
30. <i>recall</i>	I don't recall <i>meeting</i> him before.
31. <i>recollect</i>	I don't recollect <i>meeting</i> him before.
32. <i>recommend</i>	She recommended <i>seeing</i> the show.
33. <i>regret</i> •	I regret <i>telling</i> him my secret.
34. <i>remember</i> •	I can remember <i>meeting</i> him when I was a child.
35. <i>resent</i>	I resent her interfering in my business.
36. <i>resist</i>	I couldn't resist <i>eating</i> the dessert.
37. <i>risk</i>	She risks losing all of her money.
38. <i>can't stand</i> •	I can't stand <i>waiting</i> in long lines.
39. <i>start</i>	It started raining.
40. <i>stop</i>	She stopped going to classes when she got sick.
41. <i>suggest</i>	She suggested <i>going</i> to a movie.
42. <i>tolerate</i>	She won't tolerate cheating during an examination.
43. <i>try</i> •	I tried changing the light bulb, but the lamp still didn't work.
44. <i>understand</i>	I don't understand his leaving 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. afford	I <i>can't afford to buy</i> it.	24. <i>love</i> •	I <i>love to go to</i> operas.
2. agree	They <i>agreed to help</i> us.	25. <i>manage</i>	<i>She managed to finish</i> her work early.
3. appear	She <i>appears to be</i> tired.	26. <i>mean</i>	I <i>didn't mean to hurt</i> your feelings.
4. arrange	I'll <i>arrange to meet</i> you at the airport.	27. <i>need</i>	I <i>need to have</i> your opinion.
5. ask	He <i>asked to come</i> with us.	28. <i>offer</i>	<i>They 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. beg	He <i>begged to come</i> with us.	30. <i>prefer</i> •	<i>Ann prefers to walk</i> to work.
8. begin•	It <i>began to rain</i> .	31. <i>prepare</i>	We <i>prepared to welcome</i> them.
9. care	I <i>don't care to see</i> that show.	32. <i>pretend</i>	He <i>pretends not to understand</i> .
10. claim	She <i>claims to know</i> a famous movie star.	33. <i>promise</i>	I <i>promise not to be late</i> .
11. consent	She <i>finally consented to marry</i> him.	34. <i>refuse</i>	I <i>refuse to believe</i> his story.
12. continue•	He <i>continued to speak</i> .	35. <i>regret</i> •	I <i>regret to tell</i> you that you failed.
13. decide	I <i>have decided to leave</i> on Monday.	36. <i>remember</i> •	I <i>remembered to lock</i> the door.
14. demand	I <i>demand to know</i> who is responsible.	37. <i>seem</i>	That cat <i>seems to be</i> friendly.
15. deserve	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. expect	I <i>expect to enter</i> graduate school in the fall.	39. <i>start</i> •	It <i>started to rain</i> .
17. fail	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. forget•	I <i>forgot to mail</i> the letter.	41. <i>swear</i>	She <i>swore to tell</i> the truth.
19. hate•	I <i>hate to make</i> silly mistakes.	42. <i>threaten</i>	She <i>threatened to tell</i> my parents.
20. hesitate	Don't <i>hesitate to ask</i> for my help.	43. <i>try</i> •	I'm <i>trying to learn</i> English.
21. hope	Jack <i>hopes to arrive</i> next week.	44. <i>volunteer</i>	He <i>volunteered to help</i> us.
22. learn	He <i>learned to play</i> the piano.	45. <i>wait</i>	I <i>will wait to hear</i> from you.
23. like•	I <i>like to go to</i> the movies.	46. <i>want</i>	I <i>want to tell</i> you something.
		47. <i>wish</i>	She <i>wishes to come with</i> us.

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

48. advise•	She <i>advised me to wait</i> until tomorrow.	61. <i>instruct</i>	He <i>instructed them to be</i> careful.
49. allow	She <i>allowed me to use</i> her car.	62. <i>invite</i>	Harry <i>invited the Johnsons to come to</i> his party.
50. ask	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. beg	They <i>begged us to come</i> .	64. <i>order</i>	The judge <i>ordered me to pay</i> a fine.
52. cause	Her laziness <i>caused her to fail</i> .	65. <i>permit</i>	He <i>permitted the children to stay up</i> late.
53. challenge	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. convince	I couldn't <i>convince him to accept</i> our help.	67. <i>remind</i>	She <i>reminded me to lock</i> the door.
55. dare	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. encourage	He <i>encouraged me to try</i> again.	69. <i>teach</i>	My brother <i>taught me to swim</i> .
57. expect	I <i>expect you to be</i> on time.	70. <i>tell</i>	The doctor <i>told me to take</i> these pills.
58. forbid	I <i>forbid you to tell</i> him.	71. <i>urge</i>	I <i>urged her to apply</i> for the job.
59. force	They <i>forced him to tell</i> the truth.	72. <i>want</i>	I <i>want you to be</i> happy.
60. hire	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) *It* is difficult *to learn a second language.*

Often an infinitive phrase is used with *it* as the subject of a sentence. The word *it* refers to and has the same meaning as the infinitive phrase at the end of the sentence. In (a): **It** = *to learn a second language.*

(b) *Learning a second language* is difficult.

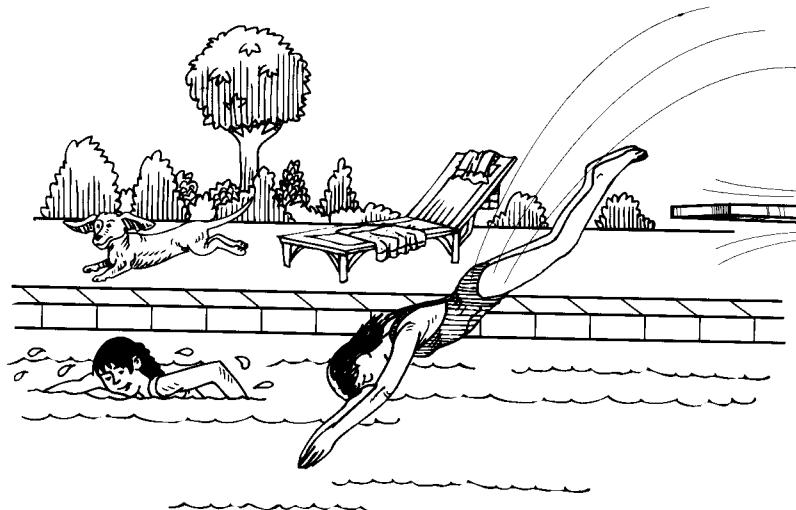
A gerund phrase is frequently used as the subject of a sentence, as in (b).

(c) *To learn a second language* 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 *it*, as in (a).

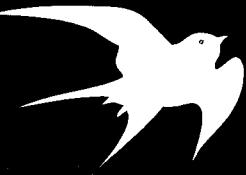
(d) It is easy *for young children to learn a second language.*  
*Learning a second language* is easy *for young children.*  
*To learn a second language* is easy *for young children.*

The phrase **for (someone)** 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 *in order to study* English.  
(b) He came here *to study* English.

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

- (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.

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

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

**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 used: *A chain saw was used to cut* (NOT *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* 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.

#### SOME 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	proud to	willing to	likely to	stunned to*
relieved to	ashamed to	motivated to	certain to	
lucky to		determined to		
fortunate 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	In the speaker's mind, the use of <b><i>too</i></b> implies a negative result. In (a): <b><i>too heavy</i></b> = It is <i>impossible</i> for Bob to lift that box. In (b): <b><i>very heavy</i></b> = It is <i>possible but difficult</i> for Bob to lift that box.
(c) I am <b><i>strong enough</i></b> <i>to lift</i> that box. I can lift it. (d) I have <b><i>enough strength</i></b> <i>to lift</i> that box. (e) I have <b><i>strength enough</i></b> <i>to lift</i> that box.	<b><i>Enough</i></b> follows an adjective, as in (c). Usually <b><i>enough</i></b> precedes a noun, as in (d). In formal English, it may follow a noun, as in (e).

## 15-4 PASSIVE AND PAST FORMS OF INFINITIVES AND GERUNDS

FORMS	SIMPLE	PAST	
	ACTIVE	<b><i>to see</i></b> <b><i>seeing</i></b>	<b><i>to have seen</i></b> <b><i>having seen</i></b>
	PASSIVE	<b><i>to be seen</i></b> <b><i>being seen</i></b>	<b><i>to have been seen</i></b> <b><i>having been seen</i></b>
PAST INFINITIVE: <b><i>to have</i></b> + past participle (a) The rain seems <b><i>to have stopped</i></b> .	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> *		
PAST GERUND: <b><i>having</i></b> + past participle (b) I appreciate <b><i>having had</i></b> the opportunity to meet the king.	In (b): I met the king yesterday. <i>I appreciate now having had the opportunity to meet the king yesterday.</i> *		
PAST INFINITIVE: <b><i>to be</i></b> + past participle (c) I didn't expect <b><i>to be invited</i></b> to his party.	In (c): <b><i>to be invited</i></b> is passive. The understood by-phrase is "by him": <i>I didn't expect to be invited by him.</i>		
PAST GERUND: <b><i>being</i></b> + past participle (d) I appreciated <b><i>being invited</i></b> to your home.	In (d): <b><i>being invited</i></b> is passive. The understood by-phrase is "by you": <i>I appreciated being invited by you.</i>		
PAST-PASSIVE INFINITIVE: <b><i>to have been</i></b> + past participle (e) Nadia is fortunate <b><i>to have been given</i></b> a scholarship.	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>		
PAST-PASSIVE GERUND: <b><i>having been</i></b> + past participle (f) I appreciate <b><i>having been told</i></b> the news.	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>		

\*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 <b>need to borrow</b> some money. (b) John <b>needs to be told</b> the truth.	Usually an infinitive follows <b>need</b> , as in (a) and (b).
(c) The house <b>needs painting</b> . (d) The house <b>needs to be painted</b> .	In certain circumstances, a gerund may follow <b>need</b> . 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>	In formal English, a possessive adjective (e.g., <b>our</b> ) is used to modify a gerund, as in (a).
(a) FORMAL: Mr. Lee complained about <b>our coming</b> to class late.*	In informal English, the object form of a pronoun (e.g., <b>us</b> ) is frequently used, as in (b).
(b) INFORMAL: Mr. Lee complained about <b>us coming</b> to class late.	In very formal English, a possessive noun (e.g., <b>Mary's</b> ) is used to modify a gerund.
(c) FORMAL: Mr. Lee complained about <b>Mary's coming</b> to class late.	The possessive form is often not used in informal English, as in (d).
(d) INFORMAL: Mr. Lee complained about <b>Mary coming</b> to class late.	

\*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 <b>saw</b> my friend <b>run</b> down the street. (b) I <b>saw</b> my friend <b>running</b> down the street. (c) I <b>heard</b> the rain <b>fall</b> on the roof. (d) I <b>heard</b> the rain <b>falling</b> 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 <i>-ing</i> 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 <b>heard</b> my roommate <b>singing</b> in the shower. (f) I <b>heard</b> a famous opera star <b>sing</b> at the concert last night.	Sometimes (not always) there is a clear difference between using the simple form or the <i>-ing</i> form. The use of the <i>-ing</i> 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			
watch		listen to		

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

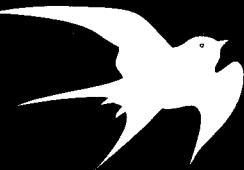
\*\*The *-ing* form refers to the present participle.

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

(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.	<b>Let</b> 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.
(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.	<b>Help</b> 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.

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

(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.	<b>Make</b> , <b>have</b> , and <b>get</b> 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.
FORMS X <b>makes</b> Y <i>do</i> something. (simple form) X <b>has</b> Y <i>do</i> something. (simple form) X <b>gets</b> Y <i>to do</i> something. (infinitive)	
CAUSATIVE <i>MAKE</i> (d) Mrs. Lee <i>made</i> her son <i>clean</i> his room. (e) Sad movies <i>make</i> me <i>cry</i> .	Causative <b>make</b> is followed by the simple form of a verb, not an infinitive. ( <i>INCORRECT:</i> She made him <i>to clean</i> his room.) <b>Make</b> gives the idea that "X" <b>forces</b> "Y" to do something. In (d): Mrs. Lee's son had no choice.
CAUSATIVE <i>HAVE</i> (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.	Causative <b>have</b> is followed by the simple form of a verb, not an infinitive. ( <i>INCORRECT:</i> I had him <i>to repair</i> the leak.) <b>Have</b> gives the idea that "X" <b>requests</b> "Y" to do something. In (f): The plumber repaired the leak because I asked him to.
CAUSATIVE <i>GET</i> (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.	Causative <b>get</b> is followed by an infinitive. <b>Get</b> gives the idea that "X" <b>persuades</b> "Y" to do something. In (h): The students managed to persuade the teacher to let them leave early.
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).	The past participle is used after <b>have</b> and <b>get</b> to give a passive meaning. In this case, there is usually little or no difference in meaning between <b>have</b> and <b>get</b> . In (j) and (k): I caused my watch to be repaired by someone.



# 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**, 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.)

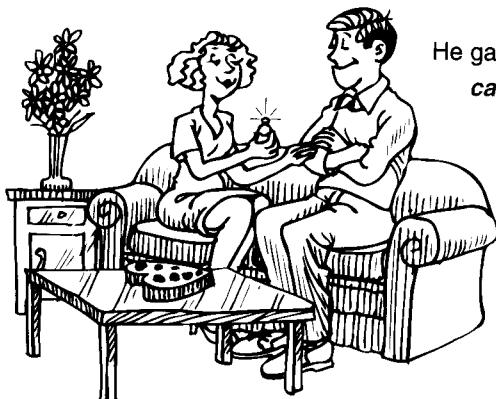
In (d): *adjective + but + adjective*

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

- (f) *Steve, Joe, and Alice are coming to dinner.*
- (g) *Susan raised her hand, snapped her fingers, and asked a question.*
- (h) *The colors in that fabric are red, gold, black, and green.*
- (i) INCORRECT: *Steve, and Joe are coming to dinner.*

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: *Steve, Joe and Alice are coming to dinner.*

Note: No commas are used if there are only two parts to a parallel structure.



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*

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

- (b) **Not only** my mother **but also** my sister **is** here.  
(c) **Not only** my sister **but also** my parents **are** here.  
(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.  
(g) Yesterday it **not only** rained **but** (also) snowed.  
(h) I'll take **either** chemistry **or** physics next quarter.  
(i) That book is **neither** interesting **nor** accurate.

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

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.

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

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

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

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

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

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

## 16-3 COMBINING INDEPENDENT CLAUSES WITH COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

(a) It was raining hard. There was a strong wind.

(b) **INCORRECT PUNCTUATION:**

It was raining hard, there was a strong wind.

Example (a) contains two *independent clauses* (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.”

(c) It was raining hard, **and** 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.

A *conjunction* may be used to connect two independent clauses. PUNCTUATION:

Usually a comma immediately precedes the conjunction, as in (c).

In short sentences, the comma is sometimes omitted, as in (d).

In informal writing, a conjunction sometimes begins a sentence, as in (e).

(f) He was tired, **so** he went to bed.

(g) The child hid behind his mother's skirt, **for** he was afraid of the dog.

(h) She did not study, **yet** she passed the exam.

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”)

A comma almost always precedes **so**, **for**, and **yet** when they are used as coordinating conjunctions.\*\*

\* 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

- (a) *When we were in New York*, we saw several plays.  
 (b) We saw several plays *when we were in New York*.

*When we were in New York* is an adverb clause.

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.

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

Like *when*, *because* introduces an adverb clause.  
*Because he was sleepy* is an adverb clause.

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

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

#### SUMMARY LIST OF WORDS USED TO INTRODUCE ADVERB CLAUSES\*\*

##### TIME

after	<i>by the time (that)</i>
before	<i>once</i>
when	<i>as/so long as</i>
while	<i>whenever</i>
as	<i>every time (that)</i>
as soon as	<i>the first time (that)</i>
since	<i>the last time (that)</i>
until	<i>the next time (that)</i>

##### CAUSE AND EFFECT

<i>because</i>
<i>now that</i>
<i>since</i>

##### CONTRAST

<i>even though</i>
<i>although</i>
<i>though</i>

##### CONDITION

<i>if</i>
<i>unless</i>
<i>only if</i>
<i>whether or not</i>
<i>even if</i>
<i>in case</i>
<i>in the event that</i>

##### DIRECT CONTRAST

<i>while</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) <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).
<i>now that</i>	(c) <i>Now that the semester is over</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.	<b>Now that</b> means "because now." In (c): <i>Now that the semester is over</i> means "because the semester is now over." <b>Now that</b> is used for present causes of present or future situations.
<i>since</i>	(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 <b>since</b> 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 <b>since</b> 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: <b>Since</b> 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) <i>Because</i> the weather was cold, I <i>didn't go</i> swimming. (b) <i>Even though</i> the weather was cold, I <i>went</i> swimming. (c) <i>Because</i> I wasn't tired, I <i>didn't go</i> to bed. (d) <i>Even though</i> I wasn't tired, I <i>went</i> to bed.	<b>Because</b> is used to express expected results. <b>Even though</b> is used to express unexpected results. Note: Like <b>because</b> , <b>even though</b> introduces an adverb clause.
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## 17-4 SHOWING DIRECT CONTRAST: *WHILE* AND *WHEREAS*

(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.	<b>While</b> and <b>whereas</b> are used to show direct contrast: "this" is exactly the opposite of "that." <b>While</b> and <b>whereas</b> may be used with the idea of either clause with no difference in meaning. <b>Whereas</b> mostly occurs in formal written English. Note: A comma is usually used even if the adverb clause comes second.
COMPARE (e) <i>While I was studying</i> , the phone rang.	<b>While</b> 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) *If it rains*, the streets get wet.

*If*-clauses (also called “adverb clauses of condition”) present possible conditions. The main clause expresses results.

In (a): POSSIBLE CONDITION = *it rains*  
RESULT = *the streets get wet*

(b) *If it rains tomorrow*, 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 (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*.

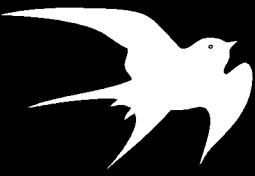
When ***only if*** begins a sentence, the subject and verb of the main clause are inverted, as in (b).\* No commas are used.

\*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 <b>be</b> form of the verb, as in (b). OR 2. If there is no <b>be</b> form of a verb, omit the subject and change the verb to <b>-ing</b> , 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. While sitting in class, I fell asleep.</i>	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> . A <i>modifying adverbial phrase</i> that is the reduction of an adverb clause <i>modifies the subject of the main clause</i> .
(f) CHANGE POSSIBLE:	<i>While Ann was sitting in class, she fell asleep. (clause) 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 <b><i>after, before, while,</i></b> and <del><i>since</i></del> 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.)
(d) PHRASE: <i>After finishing his homework, Peter went to bed.</i>	In (d) and (e): There is no difference in meaning between <i>After finishing</i> and <i>After having finished</i> .
(e) PHRASE: <i>After having finished his homework, Peter went to bed.</i>	
f) PHRASE: <i>Peter went to bed 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 <b><i>while</i></b> is omitted but the <b><i>-ing</i></b> 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

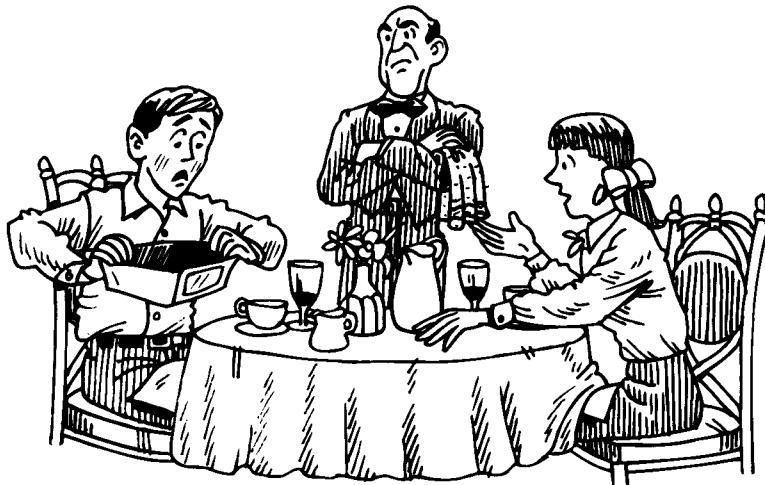
f) <i>Because she needed some money to buy a book, Sue cashed a check.</i>	Often an <b><i>-ing</i></b> phrase at the beginning of a sentence gives the meaning of “because.” (f) and (g) have the same meaning.
g) <i>Needing some money to buy a book, Sue cashed a check.</i>	
h) <i>Because he lacked the necessary qualifications, he was not considered for the job.</i>	<b><i>Because</i></b> 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>	<b><i>Having + past participle</i></b> 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 <b><i>be</i></b> in the adverb clause may be changed to <b><i>being</i></b> . The use of <b><i>being</i></b> 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) *Upon reaching* the age of 21, I received my inheritance.
- (b) *When I reached* the age of 21, I received my inheritance.
- (c) *On reaching* the age of 21, I received my inheritance.

Modifying adverbial phrases beginning with ***upon* + -ing** usually have the same meaning as adverb clauses introduced by ***when***. (a) and (b) have the same meaning.

***Upon*** can be shortened to ***on***. (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) *Because the weather was cold*, we stayed home.

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

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

(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*.  
We stayed home *due to the cold weather*.  
We stayed home *due to the fact that 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. *Therefore*, he failed the test.  
(c) Al didn't study. *Consequently*, he failed the test.

(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.

(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*.

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.

#### POSITIONS OF A TRANSITION

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

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

COMPARE: A *transition* (e.g., *therefore*) has several possible positions within the second sentence of the pair, as in (d), (e), and (f). A *conjunction* (e.g., *so*) has only one possible position: between the two sentences. (See Chart 16-3, p. 87.) *So* cannot move around in the second sentence as *therefore* 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</i> , we went swimming. (b) We went swimming <i>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</i> , we went swimming. (d) We went swimming <i>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) 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> .	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) It was hot, <i>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.*

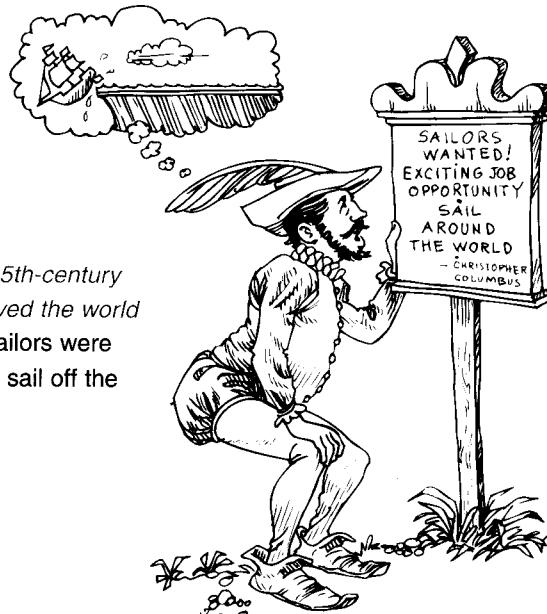
*It was hot; we, therefore, went swimming.*

*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.	<b><i>Such . . . that</i></b> encloses a modified noun: <b><i>such + adjective + noun + that</i></b>
(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.	<b><i>So . . . that</i></b> encloses an adjective or adverb: <b><i>so + {adjective or adverb} + that</i></b>
(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.	<b><i>So . . . that</i></b> is used with <b><i>many, few, much, and little.</i></b>
(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 with the test that</i> he left twenty minutes early.	
(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, <b><i>that</i></b> 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>	<b><i>In order to</i></b> 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>	<b><i>So that</i></b> also expresses <i>purpose</i> .* It expresses the same meaning as <b><i>in order to</i></b> . The word "that" is often omitted, especially in speaking.
<b><i>SO THAT + CAN OR COULD</i></b> (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>	<b><i>So that</i></b> is often used instead of <b><i>in order to</i></b> when the idea of ability is being expressed. <b><i>Can</i></b> 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> <b><i>Could</i></b> is used after <b><i>so that</i></b> in past sentences.**
<b><i>SO THAT + WILL / SIMPLE PRESENT OR WOULD</i></b> (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 <b><i>so that</i></b> in place of <b><i>will</i></b> ; the simple present expresses a future meaning. <b><i>Would</i></b> 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.

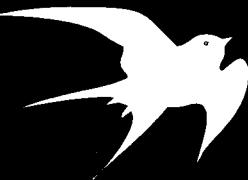
ADVERB CLAUSES	<i>while</i>  <i>whereas</i>	(a) Mary is rich, <i>while</i> John is poor. (b) John is poor, <i>while</i> Mary is rich. (c) Mary is rich, <i>whereas</i> John is poor. (d) <i>Whereas</i> Mary is rich, John is poor.
CONJUNCTION	<i>but</i>	(e) Mary is rich, <i>but</i> John is poor. (f) John 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> , 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> .	<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> , I get hungry during class. (e) You'd better hurry. <i>Otherwise</i> , you'll be late. (f) Take your umbrella. <i>Otherwise</i> , you'll get wet.	<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> I get hungry during class. (h) You'd better hurry, <i>or (else)</i> you'll be late. (i) Take your umbrella, <i>or (else)</i> you'll get wet.	<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>but ( . . . anyway)</i> <i>yet ( . . . still)</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.

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).

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

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.

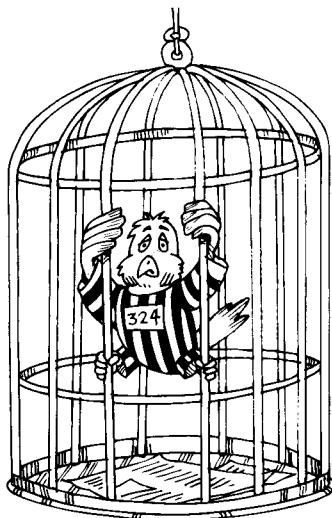
In (a): In truth, I don't teach this class.  
 In (b): In truth, he is not here right now.  
 In (c): In truth, I am not you.

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: It is raining right now, so I will not go for a walk.  
(b) CONDITIONAL: If it were not raining right now, I would go for a walk.

---

(c) TRUE: I am not living in Chile. I am not working at a bank.  
(d) CONDITIONAL: If I were living in Chile, I would be working at a bank.

---

(e) TRUE: It was raining yesterday afternoon, so I did not go for a walk.  
(f) CONDITIONAL: If it had not been raining, I would have gone for a walk.

---

(g) TRUE: I was not living in Chile last year. I was not working at a bank.  
(h) CONDITIONAL: If I had been living in Chile last year, I would have been working 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 *did not eat* breakfast several hours ago, so I *am* hungry now.  
(b) CONDITIONAL: If I *had eaten* breakfast several hours ago, I *would not be* hungry now.  
  
(c) TRUE: He *is not* a good student. He *did not study* for the test yesterday.  
(d) CONDITIONAL: If he *were* a good student, he *would have studied* for the test yesterday.

## 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*.

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*.

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

Conditional verbs are frequently used following *otherwise*.  
 In (c), the implied *if*-clause = *if she had not run*.

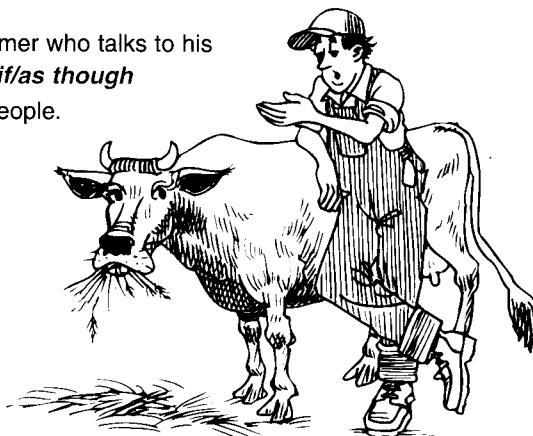
## 20-9 USING AS IF/AS THOUGH

- (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. (*informal*)

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.

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

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	
A wish about the future	(a) She <b>will not tell</b> me. (b) He <b>isn't going to be</b> here. (c) She <b>can't come</b> tomorrow.	I wish (that) she <b>would tell</b> me. I wish he <b>were going to be</b> here. I wish she <b>could come</b> tomorrow.	<b>Wish</b> 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): <b>would</b> , the past form of <b>will</b> , is used to make a wish about the future. In (d): the simple past ( <b>knew</b> ) is used to make a wish about the present. In (g): the past perfect ( <b>had come</b> ) is used to make a wish about the past.
A wish about the present	(d) I <b>don't know</b> French. (e) It <b>is raining</b> right now. (f) I <b>can't speak</b> Japanese.	I wish I <b>knew</b> French. I wish it <b>weren't raining</b> right now. I wish I <b>could speak</b> Japanese.	
A wish about the past	(g) John <b>didn't come</b> . (h) Mary <b>couldn't come</b> .	I wish John <b>had come</b> .* I wish Mary <b>could have come</b> .	

\*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 wish it **would stop**. (*I want it to stop raining.*)
- (b) I'm expecting a call. I wish the phone **would ring**. (*I want the phone to ring.*)
- (c) It's going to be a good party. I wish you **would come**.
- (d) We're going to be late. I wish you **would hurry**.

**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).

In (c) and (d): **I wish you would . . .** is often used to make a request.



# APPENDIX

## Supplementary Grammar Units

### UNIT A: Basic Grammar Terminology

#### A-1 SUBJECTS, VERBS, AND OBJECTS

(a) 

S	V
Birds	fly.
(NOUN)	(VERB)

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

(b) The 

S	V
baby	cried.
(NOUN)	(VERB)

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*.

(c) The 

S	V	O
student	needs	a pen.
(NOUN)	(VERB)	(NOUN)

Some verbs can be either intransitive or transitive.

intransitive: *A student studies.*

transitive: *A student studies books.*

(d) My 

S	V	O
friend	enjoyed	the party.
(NOUN)	(VERB)	(NOUN)

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>	

S	V	PREP	O of PREP
(a) The student	studies	<i>in</i>	the library. (NOUN)
(b) We	enjoyed	the party	<i>at</i> your house. (NOUN)
(c) We went	<i>to the zoo</i>	<i>in the afternoon.</i>	(place) (time)
(d) <i>In the afternoon</i> ,	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 <i>intelligent</i> student. (ADJECTIVE) (NOUN)	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: <i>intelligent student, lazy student, good student</i> . Examples of adjectives: <i>young, old, rich, beautiful, brown, French, modern</i> .
(b) The <i>hungry</i> child ate fruit. (ADJECTIVE) (NOUN)	
(c) I saw some <i>beautiful</i> pictures. <i>INCORRECT: beautifuls pictures</i>	An adjective is neither singular nor plural. A final <i>-s</i> is never added to an adjective.

## A-4 ADVERBS

(a) He walks <i>quickly</i> . (ADVERB)  (b) She opened the door <i>quietly</i> . (ADVERB)	<p>Adverbs modify verbs. Often they answer the question “How?” In (a): <i>How does he walk?</i> Answer: <i>Quickly</i>.</p> <p>Adverbs are often formed by adding <b>-ly</b> to an adjective.</p> <p><i>adjective: quick</i>  <i>adverb: quickly</i></p>
(c) I am <i>extremely happy</i> . (ADVERB) (ADJECTIVE)	<p>Adverbs are also used to modify adjectives, i.e., to give information about adjectives, as in (c).</p>
(d) Ann will come <i>tomorrow</i> . (ADVERB)	<p>Adverbs are also used to express time or frequency. Examples: <i>tomorrow</i>, <i>today</i>, <i>yesterday</i>, <i>soon</i>, <i>never</i>, <i>usually</i>, <i>always</i>, <i>yet</i>.</p>
<b>MIDSENTENCE ADVERBS</b> (e) Ann <i>always comes</i> on time. (f) Ann <i>is always</i> on time. (g) Ann <i>has always come</i> on time. (h) <i>Does she always come</i> on time?	<p>Some adverbs may occur in the middle of a sentence. Midsentence adverbs have usual positions; they</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(1) come in front of simple present and simple past verbs (except <b>be</b>), as in (e);</li> <li>(2) follow <b>be</b> (simple present and simple past), as in (f);</li> <li>(3) come between a helping verb and a main verb, as in (g).</li> </ul> <p>In a question, a midsentence adverb comes directly after the subject, as in (h).</p>



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)

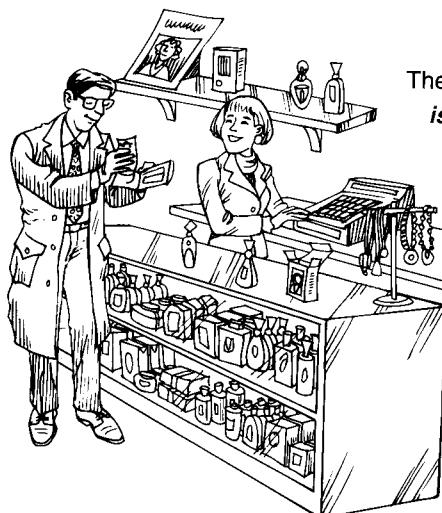
A sentence with **be** as the main verb has three basic patterns:  
 In (a): **be** + *a noun*  
 In (b): **be** + *an adjective*  
 In (c): **be** + *a prepositional phrase*

- (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.

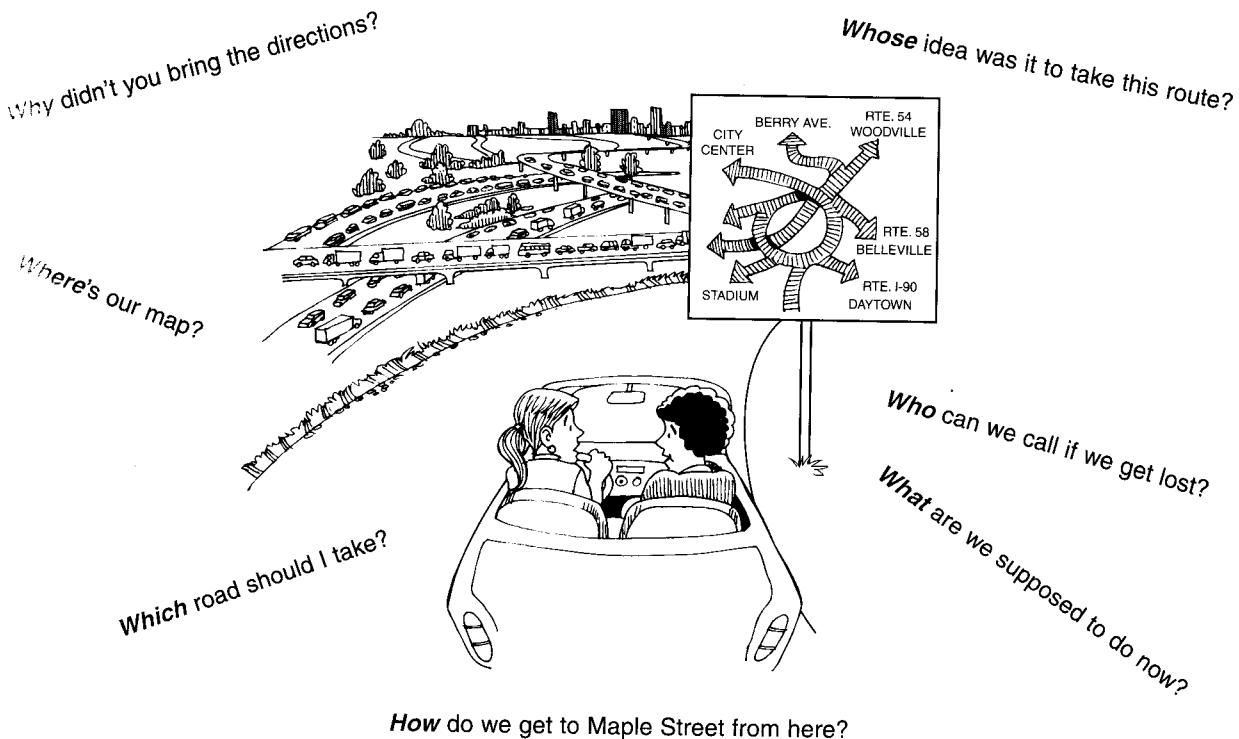
Question word order = (*Question word*) + *helping verb* + *subject* + *main verb*

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	<b>Does</b> <b>does</b>	<b>she</b> <b>she</b>	<b>live</b> <b>live?</b>	there?	If the verb is in the simple present, use <b>does</b> (with <i>he</i> , <i>she</i> , <i>it</i> ) or <b>do</b> (with <i>I</i> , <i>you</i> , <i>we</i> , <i>they</i> ) in the question. If the verb is simple past, use <b>did</b> . Notice: The main verb in the question is in its simple form; there is no final <b>-s</b> or <b>-ed</b> .
(c) (d) Where	<b>Do</b> <b>do</b>	<b>they</b> <b>they</b>	<b>live</b> <b>live?</b>	there?	
(e) (f) Where	<b>Did</b> <b>did</b>	<b>he</b> <b>he</b>	<b>live</b> <b>live?</b>	there?	
(g) (h) Where	<b>Is</b> <b>is</b>	<b>he</b> <b>he</b>	<b>living</b> <b>living?</b>	there?	If the verb has an auxiliary (a helping verb), the same auxiliary is used in the question.
(i) (j) Where	<b>Have</b> <b>have</b>	<b>they</b> <b>they</b>	<b>lived</b> <b>lived?</b>	there?	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).
(k) (l) Where	<b>Can</b> <b>can</b>	<b>Mary</b> <b>Mary</b>	<b>live</b> <b>live?</b>	there?	
(m) (n) Where	<b>Will</b> <b>will</b>	<b>he</b> <b>he</b>	<b>be living</b> <b>be living?</b>	there?	
(o) Who (p) Who	<b>Ø</b> <b>can</b>	<b>Ø</b> <b>Ø</b>	<b>lives</b> <b>come?</b>	there?	If the question word is the subject, usual question word order is not used; <b>does</b> , <b>do</b> , and <b>did</b> 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	<b>Are</b> <b>are</b>	<b>they</b> <b>they?</b>	<b>Ø</b> <b>Ø</b>	there?	Main verb <b>be</b> in the simple present ( <i>am</i> , <i>is</i> , <i>are</i> ) and simple past ( <i>was</i> , <i>were</i> ) precedes the subject. It has the same position as a helping verb.
(s) (t) Where	<b>Was</b> <b>was</b>	<b>Jim</b> <b>Jim?</b>	<b>Ø</b> <b>Ø</b>	there?	

## B-2 QUESTION WORDS

	QUESTION	ANSWER	
WHEN	(a) <i>When</i> did they arrive? <i>When</i> will you come?	Yesterday. Next Monday.	<i>When</i> 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.	<i>Where</i> 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.	<i>Why</i> 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.	<i>How</i> generally asks about <i>manner</i> .
	(e) <i>How much</i> money does it cost? <i>How many</i> people came?	Ten dollars. Fifteen.	<i>How</i> 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?	Twelve. Ten below zero. In ten minutes. 50 miles an hour.	<i>How</i> is also used with adjectives and adverbs.
	(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?	Two years. Every week. 500 miles.	<i>How long</i> asks about <i>length of time</i> . <i>How often</i> asks about <i>frequency</i> . <i>How far</i> asks about <i>distance</i> .



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

\*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?"
- (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 (c): Bob believes that Matt is supposed to be in class now.

*Expected answer: Yes.*

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?"
- (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 (e): The teacher believes that Jim did not study.

*Expected answer: No.*

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

*Expected answer: No.*

## B-5 TAG QUESTIONS

- (a) Jack *can* come, *can't* he?  
(b) Fred *can't* come, *can* 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 + be, 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, everybody, someone, somebody, no one, nobody</i> .
(g) <i>Nothing</i> is wrong, <i>is it?</i> (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.	<p><b>Not</b> expresses a negative idea.</p>
(c) AUX + NOT + MAIN VERB <i>I will not go there.</i> <i>I have not gone there.</i> <i>I am not going there.</i> <i>I was not there.</i> <i>I do not go there.</i> He <i>does not go there.</i> <i>I did not go there.</i>	<p><b>Not</b> immediately follows an auxiliary verb or <b>be</b>. (Note: If there is more than one auxiliary, <b>not</b> comes immediately after the first auxiliary: <i>I will not be going there.</i>)</p> <p><b>Do</b> or <b>does</b> is used with <b>not</b> to make a simple present verb (except <b>be</b>) negative.</p> <p><b>Did</b> is used with <b>not</b> to make a simple past verb (except <b>be</b>) negative.</p>
CONTRACTIONS OF AUXILIARY VERBS WITH NOT	
<i>are not = aren't*</i> <i>cannot = can't</i> <i>could not = couldn't</i> <i>did not = didn't</i> <i>does not = doesn't</i> <i>do not = don't</i>	<i>has not = hasn't</i> <i>have not = haven't</i> <i>had not = hadn't</i> <i>is not = isn't</i> <i>must not = mustn't</i> <i>should not = shouldn't</i>
(d) I almost <i>never</i> go there. I have <i>hardly ever</i> gone there.	In addition to <b>not</b> , the following are negative adverbs: <i>never, rarely, seldom</i> <i>hardly (ever), scarcely (ever), barely (ever)</i>
(e) There's <i>no</i> chalk in the drawer.	<b>No</b> also expresses a negative idea.
COMPARE: NOT vs. NO	<b>Not</b> is used to make a verb negative, as in (f).
(f) I <i>do not have</i> any money. (g) I have <i>no money</i> .	<b>No</b> is used as an adjective in front of a noun (e.g., <i>money</i> ), as in (g). Note: (f) and (g) have the same meaning.

\*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:

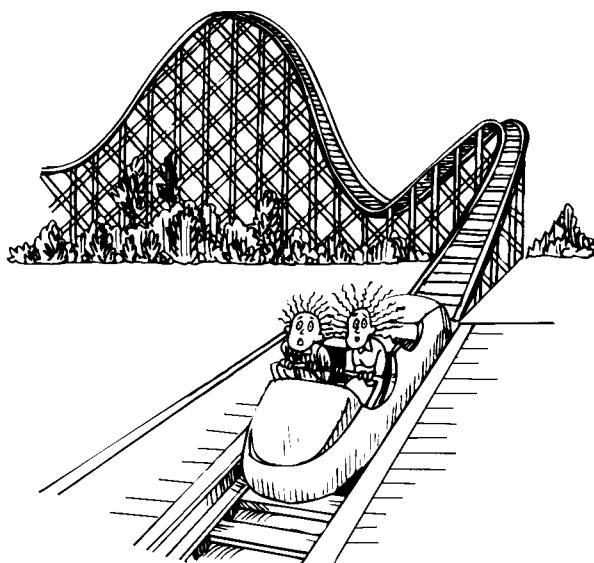
*A person who doesn't have love can't be truly happy.*  
*I don't know why he isn't here.*

## 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

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

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

## F-1 CONNECTIVES TO GIVE EXAMPLES

(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><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>
(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.	
(c) There are many interesting places to visit in the city, <i>e.g.</i> , the botanical garden and the art museum. (d) There are many interesting places to visit in the city, <i>for example</i> , the botanical garden or the art museum.	<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>
(e) I prefer to wear casual clothes, <i>such as</i> jeans and a sweatshirt. (f) Some countries, <i>such as</i> Brazil and Canada, are big. (g) Countries <i>such as</i> Brazil and Canada are big. (h) <i>Such</i> countries as Brazil and Canada are big.	<p><i>such as</i> = <i>for example</i> (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:

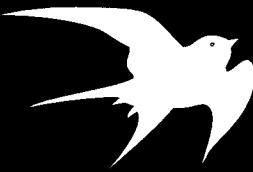
- (1) When the “*such as* phrase” can be omitted without substantially changing the meaning of the sentence, commas are used.  
*Example:* Some words, such as *know* and *see*, are verbs. (*Commas are used.*)
- (2) No commas are used when the “*such as* phrase” gives essential information about the noun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

(a) The city provides many cultural opportunities. It has an excellent art museum. <i>Moreover,</i> <i>Furthermore,</i> <i>In addition,</i> } it has a fine symphony orchestra.	<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>
(b) The city provides many cultural opportunities. <i>In addition to</i> } an excellent art museum, it has <i>Besides</i> } a fine symphony orchestra.	<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.*



# INDEX

<p><b>Able to</b>, 53, 55 (Look on pages 53 and 55.)</p>	The numbers following the words listed in the index refer to page numbers in the main text.
<p><b>Be</b>, A4 (Look in the back part of this book on the fourth page of the Appendix.)</p>	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.
<p>Continuous tenses, 2<i>fn.</i> (Look at the footnote on page 2.)</p>	Information given in the footnotes to charts and exercises is noted by the page number plus the abbreviation <i>fn.</i>

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