

UNDERSTANDING AND USING ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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Present and past; Simple and progressive

Simple present and present progressive

- 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 general truths.
Water consists of hydrogen and oxygen.
 - Is used to express habitual or everyday activities

I get up at seven every morning.

- Present Progressive

- Expresses an activity that is in progress at this 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.

The students are sitting at their desks right now.

I am taking five courses this semester.

Simple present and present progressive: Affirmative, Negative, Question forms

- Affirmative

I help	I am helping
You, We, They help	You, We, They are helping
He, She, It helps	He, She, It is helping

- Negative

I do not help	I am not helping
You, We, They do not help	You, We, They are not helping
He, She, It does not help	He, She, It is not helping

- Question

Do I help?	Am I helping?
Do you, we, they help?	Are you, we, they helping?
Does he, she, it help?	Is he, she, it helping?
When do I help?	When am I helping?

Verbs are not usually used in progressive (Stative verbs)

Some verbs like 'know', are stative or non-progressive. They describe states, not actions, and are rarely used in progressive tenses. (states are conditions or situations that exist).

Common verbs that are usually non-progressive

know	like	dislike	belong	Consist of	hear	agree
believe	appreciate	fear	posses	contain	sound	disagree
doubt	Care about	hate	own			mean
recognize	please	mind				promise
remember	prefer		desire	exist	seem	amaze
suppose			need	matter	Look like	surprise
understand			want		resemble	
			wish			

Common verbs with both Non-progressive and progressive meaning

look	appear	think	feel	have
see	taste	smell	love	be

Simple Past Tense

- At one particular time in the past, this happened. It began and ended in the past. Most simple past verbs add -ed.
It snowed yesterday.
Tom watched TV last night.
- Some verbs have irregular past tense forms. (See Appendix)
Jack went to work early.
I came to work late.
We saw a great movie last night.
- The simple past of 'be' is 'was' and 'were'.
Emily was at the office this morning.
You were tired yesterday.
- Note that in a series of actions, the verbs are the same tenses.
Andrew caught the ball, ran down the field, and scored a point.

Affirmative	Negative	Question
I, You, He, She, It, We, They helped.	I, You, He, She, It, We, They didn't help.	Did I, You, He, She, It, We, They help?
I, You, He, She, It, We, They ate.	I, You, He, She, It, We, They didn't eat.	Did I, You, He, She, It, We, They eat?
I, He, She, It was here.	I, He, She, It was not here.	Was I, He, She, It here?
You, We, They were here.	You, We, They were not here.	Were You, We, They here?

Simple Past vs. Past Progressive

- Simple past indicates that an activity or situation began and ended at a particular time in the past.
I bought a new car three days ago.

- If a sentence contains 'when' and has the simple past in both clauses, the action in the when-clause happens first.
Rita stood under a tree when it began to rain.
When I dropped my cup, the coffee spilled on my lap.
- Both actions occurred at the same time, but one action began earlier and was in progress when the other action occurred.
While I was walking down the street, it began to rain.
- Sometimes in the past progressive is used in both parts of a sentence when two actions are in progress simultaneously.
While I was studying in one room of our apartment, my roommate was having a party in the other room.

Unfulfilled Intentions: Was / Were + Going To

To talk about past intentions. Usually, these are unfulfilled intentions.

Jack was going to go to the movie last night, but he changed his mind.

I was planning to go, but I didn't.

I was hoping to go, but I didn't.

I was intending to go, but I couldn't.

I was thinking about going, but I didn't.

Perfect and Perfect Progressive Tenses

Regular and Irregular Verbs

English verbs have four principal parts:

- Simple form
- Simple past
- Past participle
- Present participle

Regular verbs: the simple past and past participle end in -ed.

Simple form	Simple past	Past participle	Present participle
hope	hoped	hoped	hoping
stop	stopped	stopped	stopping
listen	listened	listened	listening
study	studied	studied	studying
start	started	started	starting

Irregular verbs: the simple past and past participle do not end in -ed.

Irregular verb list

- All three forms are the same

Simple form	Simple past	Past participle
bet	bet	bet
burst	burst	burst
cost	cost	cost
cut	cut	cut
fit	fit	fit
hit	hit	hit
hurt	hurt	hurt
let	let	let
put	put	put
quit	quit	quit

shut	shut	shut
spread	spread	spread
split	split	split
upset	upset	upset

- Past participle ends in -en

Simple form	Simple past	Past participle
bite	bit	bitten
break	broke	broken
choose	chose	chosen
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
forget	forgot	forgotten
forgive	forgave	forgiven
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	gotten/got
give	gave	given
hide	hid	hidden
mistake	mistook	mistaken
ride	rode	ridden

rise	rose	risen
shake	shook	shaken
speak	spoke	spoken
steal	stole	stolen
swell	swelled	swollen/swelled
take	took	taken
wake	woke	woken
write	wrote	written

- Vowel changes from 'a' in the simple past to 'u' in the past participle.

Simple form	Simple past	Past participle
begin	began	begun
drink	drank	drunk
ring	rang	rung
run	ran	run
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
stink	stank	stunk
swim	swam	swum

- Past tense and past participle forms are the same.

Simple form	Simple past	Past participle
bend	bent	bent
bleed	bled	bled
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
dig	dug	dug
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
grind	ground	ground
hang	hung	hung
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
hold	held	held
keep	kept	kept
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led

leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
light	lit/lighed	lit/lighed
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
pay	paid	paid
read	read	read
say	said	said
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
shoot	shot	shot
sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid
sneak	snuck/sneeked	snuck/sneeked
speed	sped	sped
spend	spent	spent
spin	spun	spun
stand	stood	stood
stick	stuck	stuck

sting	stung	stung
strike	struck	struck
sweep	swept	swept
swing	swung	swung
teach	taught	taught
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
understand	understood	understood
weep	wept	wept
win	won	won

- Past participle adds final -n to the simple past, with or without a spelling change.

Simple form	Simple past	Past participle
blow	blew	blown
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
fly	flew	flown
grow	grew	grown
know	knew	known
lie	lay	lain
see	saw	seen

swear	swore	sworn
tear	tore	torn
throw	threw	thrown
wear	wore	worn
withdraw	withdrew	withdrawn

- The first and third forms are the same.

Simple form	Simple past	Past participle
become	became	become
come	came	come
run	ran	run

- One of the three forms is very different.

Simple form	Simple past	Past participle
be	was/were	been
go	went	gone

- Both regular and irregular forms are used. The regular form is more common in American english and irregular form is more common in British english.

Simple form	Simple past	Past participle
awake	awakened/awoke	awakened/awoken

burn	burned/burnt	burned/burnt
dream	dreamed/dreamt	dreamed/dreamt
kneel	kneeled/knelt	kneeled/knelt
lean	leaned/leant	leaned/leant
learn	learned/learnt	learned/learnt
prove	proved/proven	proved/proven
shine	shined/shone	shined/shown
smell	smelled/smelt	smelled/smelt
spill	spilled/spilt	spilled/spilt
spoil	spoiled/spoilt	spoiled/spoilt

Present perfect: Since and For

- The present perfect is often used with since and for to talk situations that begin in the past and continue to now.

Present perfect form = has/have + past participle

Since + a specific point of time (e.g., 2002, last May, nine o'clock)

For + a length of time (e.g., two months, three years)

I have been in this city since last May.

We have been here since 2002.

She has known him for 30 years.

We have lived in an apartment since we moved to this city.

Present perfect: Unspecified time and repeated events

- The present perfect can talk about events that have (or haven't) happened before now. The exact time of the event is unspecified.

The adverbs *ever*, *never*, *yet*, *still*, *already*, and *lately* are often used with the present perfect.

Have you ever seen snow?

I've never seen snow.

Have you finished your homework?

I still haven't finished mine. Jack has already finished his.

- Use of the present perfect with **just** or **recently** emphasizes that action was recently completed.

Sara has recently finished her work.

Sara has just finished her work.

Sara has finished her work.

- The present perfect can also express an event that occurred repeatedly from a point in the past up to the present time.

We have had three tests so far this term.

I've met many people since I came here.

Have and Has in spoken English

In spoken English, the present perfect helping verbs **has** and **have**, are often reduced following nouns and question words.

- Have can sound like /v/ or /əv/
- Has can sound like /z/ or /əz/
- Has can sound like /s/ or /əs/

Note: "ə" sounds like 'uh'

Present perfect vs simple past

- The present perfect is used to talk about past events when there is no specific mention of time.

BUT

The simple past is used when there is a specific mention of time.

I've met Linda but I haven't met her husband. Have you met him?

I met Helen yesterday at a party. Her husband was there too, but I didn't meet him. Did you meet him at the party?

- The present perfect is used for situations that began in the past and continue to the present.

BUT

The simple past is used for situations that began in the past and ended in the past.

Sam has been a math teacher for 20 years. He loves teaching.

Sam was a teacher for ten years, from 2002 to 2012. Now he is an engineer.

Present perfect progressive

The present perfect progressive expresses how long an activity has been in progress. In other words, it expresses the duration of an activity that began in the past and continues in the present.

The expressions often used with this tense are:

- Since and for
- All day/ all morning/ all week

I've been sitting at my desk since 7 o'clock. I've been sitting here for two hours.

It's been raining all day.

Note: consider that present perfect progressive is not used with stative verbs and in that situation present perfect is the solution.

I've known Alex since he was a child. (I've been knowing is not true.)

Note: for some verbs, both present perfect and present progressive tenses have the same meaning.

How long have you been living here?

How long have you lived here?

Ben has been wearing glasses since he was ten.

Ben has worn glasses since he was ten.

Note: when the tense is used without any mention of time, it expresses a general activity in progress recently, lately.

I've been thinking about looking for a different job. This one doesn't pay enough.

All of the students have been studying hard. Final exams start next week.

Past perfect

The past perfect expresses an activity that was completed before another activity or time in the past.

Ann had already left when Sam came.

Note: adverb clauses with by the time are frequently used with the past perfect in the main clause.

By the time Sam came, Ann had already left.

Note: if either before or after is used in the sentence, the past perfect is often not necessary because the time relation is clear enough.

Sam had left before Ann came. => Sam left before Ann came.

After the guests had left, I went to bed. => After the guests left, I went to bed.

Note: The past perfect is commonly used in reported speech.

Common reporting verbs include tell, say, find out, learn, and discover.

Actual spoken words: I lost my keys.

Reported words: Jack said that he had lost his keys.

Note: The past perfect is often found in more formal writing such as fiction. The fiction writer uses the simple past to say that an event happened and then uses past perfect to explain what had happened before that event.

Written: Bill felt great that evening. Earlier in the day, Annie had caught one fish, and he had caught three. They had had a delicious picnic near the lake and then had gone swimming again.

Had in Spoken English

The helping verb had in the past perfect often reduced following nouns and question words. It can be pronounced as /d/ or as /əd/

Past Perfect Progressive

- Emphasizes the duration of an activity that was in progress before another activity or time in the past.
Eric finally came at 6 o'clock. I had been waiting for him since four-thirty.
- Express an activity in progress close in time to another activity in the past.
When Judy got home, her hair was wet because she had been swimming.
- Also occurs in reported speech.
Lia told me that she had been waiting for me.

Future Time

Simple Future: Forms of Will and Be Going To

Will and be going to express future time and often have essentially the same meaning.

- Will typically expresses predictions about the future.
- Will does not take a final -s.
- Will is followed immediately by the simple form of a verb.

The weather will turn cold tonight.

Wills turn / will turns / will to turn (ALL ARE INCORRECT)

- Negative: will + not = won't

It will not warm up for several days.

The snow won't melt soon.

- Question: will + subject + main verb

Will it be icy tomorrow?

How will you get here?

- Informal writing and in speaking: I will => I'll, she will => she'll
- Be going to also commonly expresses predictions about the future. In informal speech, going to is often pronounced: "gonna".

Snow is going to continue all week.

The roads are going to be icy.

- Negative: be + not + going to

I'm not going to go out.

- Question: be + subject + going to

Is the storm going to be dangerous?

Will vs Be Going To

- Prediction: will and be going to mean the same when they make predictions about the future.

According to the weather report, it will be cloudy tomorrow. Or it is going to be cloudy tomorrow.

- Prior plan: be going to is commonly used in speaking to express a prior plan.

I'm going to paint my bedroom tomorrow.

- Willingness: will is used to express willingness or decision the speaker makes at the moment of speaking.

The phone is ringing. => I'll get it.

The car won't start. Maybe the battery is dead.

Expressing the future in time clauses

A time clause begins with such words as **when**, **before**, **after**, **as soon as**, **until**, and **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 the meaning of the time clause is future, the simple present tense is used.

Notice: a comma is used when the time clause comes first in a sentence.

Bob will come soon. When Bob comes, we will see him.

Linda is going to leave soon. Before she leaves, she is going to finish her work.

I will get home at 5:30. After I get home, I will eat dinner.

The taxi will arrive soon. As soon as it arrives, we'll be able to leave for the airport.

They are going to come soon. I'll wait here until they come.

Sometimes the present progressive is used in a time clause to express an activity that will be in progress in the future.

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

Occasionally, the present perfect is used in a time clause. The present perfect in the time clause emphasizes the completion of one-act before a second act occurs in the future.

I will go to bed after I finish my work. === I will go to bed after I've finished my work.

Using the present progressive and the simple present to express the future time

- The present progressive may be used to express time when the idea of the sentence concerns a planned event or definite intention. A future meaning for the present progressive tense is indicated either by future time words in the sentence or by the context.

My wife has an appointment with a doctor. She is seeing Dr. Nasim next Tuesday.

Sam has already made his plan. He is leaving at noon tomorrow.

After lunch, I'm meeting a friend of mine.

- 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.**

The museum opens at 10 tomorrow morning.

Classes begin next week.

John's plane arrives at 6 p.m next Monday.

Future Progressive

The future progressive expresses an activity that will be in progress in the future.

- The progressive form of be going to: be going to + be + -ing

Don't call me at nine because I won't be home. I am going to be studying at the library.

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

We'll be contacting you shortly about your inquiry.

Future perfect and future perfect progressive

- The future perfect expresses an activity that will be completed before another time or event in the future.

I will graduate in June. I will see you in July. By the time I see you, I will have graduated.

- The future perfect progressive emphasizes the duration of an activity that will be in progress before another time or event in the future.

I will go to bed at 10 p.m. Ed will get home at midnight. At midnight I will be sleeping. I will have been sleeping for two hours by the time Ed gets home.

- Sometimes the future perfect and the future perfect progressive have the same meaning.

When professor Jones retires next month, he will have taught or will have been teaching for 45 years.

Subject-Verb Agreement

Final -s/-es Use and Spelling

- Nouns: a final -s or -es is added to a noun to make the noun plural.

Friend => Friends

Class => Classes

- Verbs: a final -s or -es is added to a simple present verb when the subject is a singular noun. (He, She, It)

They work.

Marry works.

It works.

Basic Subject-Verb Agreement

- Two or more subjects connected by and require a plural verb.

My brother and sister live in Boston.

My brother, sister, and cousin live in Boston.

- Expression with each and every are always followed immediately by a singular noun. Even when there are two or more nouns connected by and, the verb is singular.

Every man, woman, and child needs love.

Everyone is here.

Everybody is here.

Each book and magazine is listed in Jannat's library.

- Sometimes a phrase or clause separates a subject from its verb. These interrupting structures do not affect basic agreement.

That book on political parties is interesting.

The ideas in that book are interesting.

- A gerund used as the subject of the sentence requires a singular verb.

Watching old movies is fun.

Collective Nouns

- Collective nouns refer to more than one person. It is more common to use a singular verb with them.

The audience is clapping.

The faculty has chosen a new president.

The team practices at noon.

The staff has been working overtime.

- To emphasize the individual members we can use plural verbs also, but it is better to say in this way:

The staff members have requested raises.

Members of the faculty have requested raises.

- Common collective nouns:

audience	committee	faculty	group	staff
choir	crew	family	jury	team
class	crowd	government	public	

Using Expressions of Quantity

- With most expressions of quantity, the verb is determined by the noun that follows.
 - Some of + singular noun = singular verb
 - Some of + plural noun = plural verb

Some of the book is good.

Some of the books are good.

A lot of equipment is new.

A lot of printers are new.

Two-thirds of the money belongs to me.

Two-thirds of the coins belong to me.

Most of our homework looks easy.

Most of our assignments look easy.

- One of, each of, and every one of takes a singular verb.

One of / each of / every one of + plural noun = singular verb.

One of my friends is here.

Each of my friends is here.

Every one of my friends is here.

- None of is used with a singular verb in formal English.

None of the boys is here.

None of the boys are here.

Using There + Be

There + be introduces the idea that something exists in a particular place.

There is a fly in the room.

There are three windows in this room.

In informal English, some native speakers use singular verbs even when the subject is plural.

Some Irregularities

- Sometimes a proper noun that ends in -s in singular.

The United States is big.

The Philippines consists of more than 7000 islands.

The United Nations has its headquarters in New York City.

Harrods is a department store.

- News is a noncount noun and takes a singular verb.

The news is interesting.

- Fields of study that end in -ics require a singular verb.

Mathematics is easy for her.

Physics is easy for her too.

- Certain illnesses that end in -s are singular. Diabetes, measles, mumps, rabies, rickets, shingles

Diabetes is an illness.

- Expressions of time, money, and distance usually require a singular verb.

Eight hours of sleep is enough.

Ten dollars is too much to pay.

Five thousand miles is too far to travel.

- Arithmetic expressions require singular verbs.

Two and two is four.

Two and two equals four.

Two plus two is four.

Five times five is twenty-five.

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

Those people are from Canada.

The police have been called.

Cattle are domestic animals.

Fish live under water.

- Some nouns of nationality that end in -sh, -ese, and -ch can mean either language or people, e.g., English, Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, Vietnamese, Portuguese.

English is spoken in many countries.

The English drink tea.

Chinese is his native language.

The Chinese have an interesting history.

- A few adjectives can be preceded by **the** and used as a plural noun (without final -s) to refer to people who have that quality. Other examples: the young, the elderly, the living, the dead, the blind, the deaf, the disabled

The poor have many problems.

The rich get richer.

Nouns

Regular and Irregular Plural Nouns

- The plural of most nouns is formed by adding final -s.
Song => Songs
- Final -es is added to nouns that end in -sh, -ch, -s, -z, and -x.

Box => Boxes

- The plural of words that end in a consonant + -y is spelled -ies.

Baby => Babies

- Some nouns have irregular plural forms that do not end in -s.

man=>men	woman=>women	child=>children
ox=>oxen	foot=>feet	goose=>geese
tooth=>teeth	mouse=>mice	louse=>lice

- Some nouns that end in -o add -es to form the plural

echo=>echoes	potato=>potatoes
hero=>heroes	tomato=>tomatoes

- Some nouns that end in -o add only -s to form the plural.

auto=>autos	ghetto=>ghettos	kangaroo=>kangaroos
kilo=>kilos	memo=>memos	photo=>photos
piano=>pianos	radio=>radios	solo=>solos
soprano=>sopranos	studio=>studios	tattoo=>tattoos
video=>videos	zoo=>zoo's	

- Some nouns that end in -f or -fe are changed to -ves to form the plural.

calf=>calves	half=>halves	knife=>knives
leaf=>leaves	life=>lives	loaf=>loaves

self=>selves	shelf=>shelves	thief=>thieves
wolf=>wolves	scarf=>scarves	

- Some nouns have the same singular and plural form.

deer	fish
means	offspring
series	sheep
shrimp	species

- Some nouns that English has borrowed from other languages have foreign plurals.

Criterion => criteria	phenomenon=>phenomena	bacterium=>bacteria	curriculum=>curricula	datum=> data
medium=>media	analysis=>analyses	basis=>bases	crisis=>crises	parenthesis=>parentheses
thesis=>theses				

Nouns as Adjectives

- When a noun is used as an adjective, it is in its singular form.

The soup has vegetables in it.

It is vegetable soup.

The building has offices in it.

It is an office building.

- When a noun used as a modifier is combined with a number expression, the noun is singular and a hyphen (-) is used.

It was a two-hour test.

She has a five-year-old son.

Possessive Nouns

- To express possession - the idea of belonging to someone or something, add an apostrophe (') and -s to a singular noun.

Note: if a singular noun ends in -s, there are two possible forms:

- Add an apostrophe and -s: Thomas's coat.
- Add only an apostrophe: Thomas' coat.

Pronunciation of 's as in Thomas's: /əz/

The girl's coat.

Tom's coat.

My wife's coat.

A lady's coat.

Thomas's/Thomas' coat.

- Add only an apostrophe to a plural noun that ends in -s. Add an apostrophe and -s to plural nouns that do not end in -s.

The girls' coats.

Their wives' coats.

The ladies' coats.

The men's coats.

My children's coats.

- More notable examples:
 - Alan and Lisa's apartment is on the third floor.
Only the last name has an apostrophe. The apartment belongs to both.
 - Tom's and Joe's apartments are on the second floor.
They have different apartments.

More About Expressing Possession

- 'S is generally used to express possession for the following:
 - Living creatures
 - Countries
 - Organizations

Of is often used to show possession for non-living things.

My brother's house.

The bird's feathers.

Canada's borders.

UNICEF's mission.

The cover of the book.

The start of the race.

The owner of the company.

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

Today's schedule.

This month's pay.

Last week's announcement.

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

People from my country.

People in my country.

- Sometimes the 's indicates a business or residence.

I'll be at the doctor's. (doctor's office)

I was at my accountant's. (accountant's office)

I'm staying at my cousin's. (cousin's home)

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

I filled out the application form. (application is a type of the form and not possession occurred)

Five astronauts were aboard the space shuttle. (space indicates the type of the shuttle)

Count and Noncount Nouns

I bought a chair. Sam bought three chairs.

We bought some furniture.

Chair is called a “count noun”. This means you can count chairs: one chair, two chairs, etc.

Furniture is called a “noncount noun”, you cannot use numbers (one, two, etc.) with the word furniture.

	Singular	Plural	
COUNT NOUN	A chair One chair	Two chairs Some chairs Many chairs	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• May be preceded by a/an or one in the singular.<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Takes a final -s/-es in the plural.
NONCOUNT NOUN	Some furniture A lot of furniture Much furniture	-	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Is not immediately preceded by a/an or one.• Has no plural form, so does not add a final -s/-es.

Noncount Nouns

- Many noncount nouns refer to a “whole” that is made of different parts. Furniture represents a whole group of things that is made up of similar but separate items.
- **Sugar** and **coffee** represent whole masses made up of individual particles or elements.

I put some sugar in my coffee.

- Many noncount nouns are abstractions. (Luck)
I wish you luck.
- A phenomenon of nature, such as sunshine, is used as a noncount noun.
Sunshine is warm and cheerful.
- Many nouns can be used as either noncount or count nouns. But the meaning is different.

Ann has brown hair.

Tom has a hair on his jacket.

I opened the curtains to let in some light.

Don't forget to turn off the light before you go to bed.

Some Common Noncount Nouns

- Whole groups made up of similar items: baggage, clothing, equipment, food, fruit, furniture, garbage, hardware, jewelry, junk, luggage, machinery, mail, makeup, merchandise, money/cash/change, postage, scenery, stuff, traffic, etc.
- Fluids: water, coffee, tea, milk, oil, soup, gasoline, blood, etc.
- Solids: ice, bread, butter, cheese, meat, gold, iron, silver, glass, paper, wood, cotton, wool, etc.
- Gases: steam, air, oxygen, nitrogen, smoke, smog, pollution, etc.
- Particles: rice, chalk, corn, dirt, dust, flour, grass, hair, pepper, salt, sand, sugar, wheat, etc.
- 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.
- Languages: Arabic, Chinese, English, Spanish, etc.
- Fields of study: chemistry, engineering, history, literature, mathematics, psychology, etc.
- Recreation: baseball, soccer, tennis, chess, bridge, poker, etc.
- Activities: driving, studying, swimming, traveling, walking, etc.

- Natural phenomena: weather, dew, fog, hail, heat, humidity, lightning, rain, sleet, snow, thunder, wind, darkness, light, sunshine, electricity, fire, gravity, etc.

Expressions of Quantity Used with Count and Noncount Noun

Expressions of Quantity	Used with Count Nouns	Used with Noncount Nouns	
One Each Every	One apple Each apple Every apple	-	An expression of quantity may precede a noun. Some expressions of quantity are used only with count nouns.
Two, etc. Both A couple of A few Several Many A number of	Two apples Both apples A couple of apples A few apples Several apples Many apples A number of apples	-	
A little Much A great deal of	-	A little rice Much rice A great deal of rice	Some are used only with noncount nouns.
No Hardly any some/any A lot of/ lots of Plenty of Most All	No apples Hardly any apples some/any apples A lot of/lots of apples Plenty of apples Most apples All apples	No rice Hardly any rice some/any rice Plenty of rice Most of rice All rice	Some are used with both count and noncount noun. In spoken English, much and many are used in questions and negatives. For affirmative statements, a lot of is preferred. However too + much/many is used in affirmative statements. Do you have much time? I don't have much time. I have a lot of time. I have too much time.

Using A Few and Few; A Little and Little

<p>We sang a few songs. We listened to a little music.</p>	<p>A few and few are used with plural count nouns. A little and little are used with noncount nouns.</p>
<p>She has been here only two weeks, but she has already made a few friends. (made some friends)</p> <p>I'm very pleased. I've been able to save a little money this month. (save some money)</p>	<p>A few and a little give a positive idea.</p>
<p>I feel sorry for her. She has (very) few friends. I have (very) little money.</p>	<p>Few, and little (without a) give a negative idea. Very + few/little makes the negative stronger.</p>

Singular Expressions of Quantity: One, Each, Every

<p>One student was late to class. Each student has a schedule. Every student has a schedule.</p>	<p>One, each, and every are followed immediately by singular count nouns (never plural nouns, never noncount nouns)</p>
<p>One of the students were late to class. Each (one) of the students has a schedule. Every one of the students has a schedule.</p>	<p>One of, each of, and every of are followed by specific plural count nouns. (never singular nouns, never noncount nouns)</p>

Using Of in Expressions of Quantity

<p>A number of movies came out today. None of my friends are available today.</p>	<p>Some expressions of quantity always include of: 50% of, three-fourths of, hundreds of, thousands of, millions of, a number of, a great deal of, a lot of, a majority of, non of</p>
<p>Many movies are available today. Many of the movies are free.</p>	<p>In the following expressions, of is optional: One, two, etc.(of)</p>

<p>Most of the movies won awards. One of these movies is really funny. Many of the movies are in Spanish.</p> <p>Some of them have subtitles.</p>	<p>Each (of) Much (of) Many (of) Most (of) All (of) Some (of) Several (of) Few (of), a few (of) Little (of), a little (of) Hardly any (of) Almost all (of)</p> <p>When Of is used with these expressions, the noun must be modified by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - An article - A demonstrative - A possessive
<p>Every movie had a review. No movie is perfect.</p>	<p>Every and No are never used with Of.</p>

Articles

Articles (A, An, The) with Indefinite and Definite Nouns

	INDEFINITE	DEFINITE
COUNT (SINGULAR)	a/an	the
COUNT (PLURAL)	some	the
NONCOUNT	some	the

- I had a banana. I had bananas. I had some fruits in my snack. In all of the sentences, the speaker is not referring to this banana or that banana.
- Thank you for the banana. Thank you for the fruit. A noun is definite when both the speaker and the listener are thinking about the same specific noun.

Articles: Generic Nouns

A speaker uses generic nouns to make generalizations. A generic noun represents a whole class of things; it is not a specific, real, concrete thing, but rather a symbol of a whole group.

A banana is yellow.

Bananas are yellow.

Fruit is good for you.

In a and b the speaker is talking about any banana, all bananas, banana is general.

In the c the speaker is talking about any and all fruit, fruit in general.

The is sometimes used with a singular generic count noun. “Generic the” is commonly used with:

- Species of animals
- Inventions
- Musical instruments

The blue whale is the largest mammal on earth.

Who invented the wheel? The telephone? The airplane?

I'd like to learn to play the piano. Do you like to play the guitar?

The is used with nouns that refer to groups of people. The unemployment, the needy, the weak, and the sick.

Janice works with the elderly.

Do the wealthy have a responsibility to help the poor?

Descriptive Information with Definite and Indefinite Nouns

- Descriptive information may or may not make a noun definite or specific.

I'd like a cup of coffee from the cafe next door. (it is one cup of coffee among many)

The cup of coffee I got was wonderful. (the speaker is referring to a specific cup of coffee)

Do you have a pen with red ink? (referring to one of many pens)

The pen in my bag is leaking. (the speaker is referring to a specific pen)

- Descriptive clauses may or may not make a noun specific.

The manager who trained me got a promotion. (a specific manager)

A manager who trains workers has a lot of responsibilities. (any manager)

Managers who train workers have a lot of responsibility. (any manager)

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

There is a piece of the pizza.

There is the piece you were looking for.

There are pieces on the floor.

There are the pieces you were looking for.

- Adjectives do not automatically make nouns specific.

Jim works for a real estate office.

I stopped at the real estate office after work.

General Guidelines for Article Usage

<p>The sun is bright today. Please hand this book to the teacher. Please open the door. Omar is in the kitchen.</p>	<p>Use “the” when you know or assume that your listener is familiar with and thinking about the same specific thing or person you are talking about.</p>
<p>Yesterday I saw some dogs. The dogs were chasing a cat. The cat was chasing a mouse. The mouse ran into a hole. The hole was very small.</p>	<p>Use “the” for the second mention of an indefinite noun.</p>
<p>Apples are my favorite fruit. Gold is metal.</p>	<p>Don’t use “the” with a plural count noun or a noncount noun.</p>
<p>I drove a car. / I drove the car. I drove that car.</p>	<p>A singular count noun is always preceded by: - An article (a/an or the)</p>

I drove his car.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - This / that - A possessive adjective
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Using “The” With Titles and Geographic Names

<p>We met Mr. Haghighi I go to Doctor Halimi.</p>	<p>The is not used with titled names.</p>
<p>They traveled to Africa. Australia is the smallest continent.</p>	<p>The is not used with the names of continents.</p>
<p>He lives in Singapore. Canada is a vast country.</p> <p>She’s from the United Arab Emirates. The Czech Republic is in Europe. Have you ever visited the Philipppines?</p> <p>He works in Tokyo. I recently traveled to Kuwait City.</p>	<p>The is not used with the names of most countries.</p> <p>The is used in the names of only a few countries. The Netherlands, The United States, The Dominican Republic, etc.</p> <p>The is not used with the names of cities.</p>
<p>The Amazon River is long. They crossed the Atlantic Ocean. The North Sea is in Europe.</p> <p>Lake Peyto is in Canada.</p>	<p>The is used with the names of oceans, seas, rivers, and canals.</p> <p>The is not used with the names of lakes.</p>
<p>We hiked in the Rocky Mountains. The Alps are in Europe.</p> <p>We climbed Mount Kilimanjaro. Mount Everest is in the Himalayas.</p>	<p>The is used with the names of mountain ranges.</p> <p>The is not used with the names of individual mountains.</p>
<p>The Hawaiian Islands and the Canary Islands are popular with tourists.</p> <p>Ari is from Tahiti. Have you ever been to Vancouver Island?</p>	<p>The is used with groups of islands.</p> <p>The is not used with the names of individual islands.</p>

Pronouns

Pronouns and Possessive Adjective

-	Subject Pronoun	Object Pronoun	Possessive Pronoun	Possessive Adjective
SINGULAR	I You She, he, it	Me You Her, him, it	Mine Yours Hers, his, -	My Your Her, his, its
PLURAL	We You They	Us You Them	Ours Yours theirs	Our Your their

I read **a book**. **It** was good. (a pronoun is used in place of a noun. The noun it refers to is called the “antecedent”)

I read some **books**. **They** were good.

John has a car. **He** drives to work.

Bill works in my office. I know **him** well.

Will you talk to Bill and **me** about it?

That book is **hers**. (her’s is incorrect here)

Yours is over there. (your’s is incorrect here)

Her book is here.

Your books over there.

A bird uses **its** wings to fly. (it’s is incorrect)

It’s a cold day. (it is)

The Harbor Inn is my favorite old hotel. **It’s** been in business since 1933. (it’s = it has)

Agreement with Generic Nouns and Indefinite Pronouns

A student walked into the room. She was looking for the teacher. (refer to a particular individual whose gender is known)

A student walked into the room. He was looking for the teacher. (refer to a particular individual whose gender is known)

A student needs to complete his assignments on time.

A student needs to complete his or her assignments on time.

A student needs to complete her assignments on time.

(it does not refer to a particular person. A student is generic, it refers to anyone who is a student)

Students need to complete their assignments on time.

Indefinite Pronouns

everyone	someone	anyone	No one
everybody	somebody	anybody	nobody
everything	something	anything	nothing

Somebody left his book on the desk. (their book is informal)

Everyone has his or her own ideas. (their own is informal)

Personal Pronouns: Agreement with Collective Nouns

My family is large. It is composed of nine members.	Collective nouns can be singular or plural. When the speaker wants to refer to a single impersonal unit, a singular pronoun can be used.
My family is loving and supportive. They are always ready to help me. I love them very much.	When the speaker wants to refer to the individual members, a plural pronoun can be used for the pronoun.
The committee meets once a month. It doesn't have a lot of business to take care of. Or They don't have a lot of business to take care of	Choosing a singular or plural pronoun is partly a matter of judgment. Both are possible.

Reflexive Pronouns

myself	ourselves
yourself	yourselves
Herself, himself, itself, oneself	themselves

I saw myself in the mirror. I looked at myself for a long time.
Did someone email the report to Mr. Lee? Yes. I myself emailed the report to him. Or I emailed the report to him myself.
Anna lives by herself.

Using You, One, and They as Impersonal Pronouns

One should always be polite. How does one get to Fifth Avenue from here? You should always be polite. How do you get to Fifth Avenue from here?	One means any person, people in general. You means any person, people in general. One is much more formal than you. Impersonal you rather than one is used more frequently in everyday English. Impersonal you is not acceptable in academic writing.
Lowa is an agricultural state. They grow a lot of corn there.	“They” is used as an impersonal pronoun in spoken or very informal English to mean “people” in general.
Tommy, we do not chew with our mouths open.	When talking to children about rules or behavior, parents often use we. we = people in general

Forms of other

-	Singular	Plural
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Adjective	Another book (is) The other book (is)	Other books (are) The other books (are)
Pronoun	Another (is) The other (is)	Others (are) The others (are)

- Another is used as an adjective with expressions of time, money and distance even if these expressions contain plural nouns. Another means “an additional” in the below examples:

I will be here for another three years.

I need another five dollars.

We drove another ten miles.

Common Expressions with Other

Mike and I wrote to each other every week. We write to one another every week.	Each other and one another indicate a reciprocal relationship.
Please write on every other line. (write on lines 1, 3, 5, and so on)	Every other can give the idea of “alternate.”
Have you seen Ali recently? Yes, I saw him just the other day .	The other is used in time expressions such as the other day, the other morning, the other week, etc, To refer to the recent past.
They slipped into the water one after another/ the other .	One after another expresses the idea that separate actions occurred very close in time.
No one knows my secret other than Rosa. No one knows my secret except (for) Rosa.	Other than is usually used after a negative to mean “except”
Fruit and vegetables are full of vitamins and minerals. In other words , they are good for you.	In other words is used to explain, usually in simpler or clearer terms.

Modals, Part 1

Basic Modal Introduction

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.

Modal Auxiliaries in English					
can	Had better	might	Ought (to)	should	would
could	may	must	shall	will	

Modal Auxiliaries			
I You He She It We You They	+	Can do it. Could do it. Had better do it. May do it. Might do it. Must do it. Ought to do it. Shall do it. Should do it. Will do it. Would do it.	Modals do not take final -s, even when the subject is she, he, or it. She can do it. (She can s do it)
			Modals are followed immediately by the simple form of a verb. She can do it. (she can to do it. She can does it. She can did it) The only exception is ought, which is followed by an infinitive (to + the simple form of a verb)

Phrasal Modal	
Be able to do it. Be going to do it. Be supposed to do it.	Phrasal modals are common expressions whose meanings are similar to those of some of the modal auxiliaries.

<p>Have to do it. Have got to do it.</p>	<p>For example: be able to is similar to can; be going to is similar to will.</p> <p>An infinitive (to + the simple form of a verb) is used in these similar expressions.</p>
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Expressing Necessity: Must, Have To, Have Got To

Must, Have To	
<p>All applicants must take an entrance exam. All applicants have to take an entrance exam.</p>	<p>Must, and have to both express necessity. The meaning is the same in the left examples.</p>
<p>I'm looking for Sue. I have to talk to her about our lunch date tomorrow. I can't meet her for lunch because I have to go to a business meeting at 1:00.</p> <p>Cell phones must be in your backpacks during class.</p> <p>Johnny, you must stay away from the stove. It is very hot.</p> <p>Do you have to leave?</p>	<p>In statements of necessity, have to is used more frequently in everyday speech and writing than must.</p> <p>Must is typically stronger than have to and indicates urgency or importance. Must is usually found in rules, written instructions, or legal information.</p> <p>Adults also use must when talking to young children about rules.</p> <p>Have to, not must, is commonly used in questions.</p>
<p>I have to (hafta) be home by eight. He has to (hasta) go to a meeting tonight.</p>	<p>Native speakers often say "hafta" and "hasta" as in the left examples.</p>
Have Got To	
<p>I have got to go now. I have a class in ten minutes. I have to go now. I have a class in ten minutes. Do you have to go now?</p>	<p>Have got to also expresses the idea of necessity. Have got to is informal and is used primarily in spoken English. Have to is used in both formal and informal English. Have to is more common in questions.</p>
<p>I have got to go (I've gotta go / I gotta go) now.</p>	<p>The usual pronunciation of got to is "gotta". Sometimes have is dropped in speech.</p>

Lack of Necessity (Not Have To) and Prohibition (Must Not)

Lack of Necessity	
<p>Tomorrow is a holiday. We don't have to go to class. I can hear you. You don't have to shout.</p>	<p>When used in the negative, must and have to have different meanings. Negative form: do not have to = not necessary</p>
Prohibition	
<p>You must not tell anyone my secret. Do you promise?</p>	<p>Must not = prohibition (do not do this!)</p>
<p>Don't tell anyone my secret. You can't tell anyone my secret. You'd better not tell anyone my secret.</p>	<p>Must not is very strong. Speakers generally express prohibition with imperatives.</p>

Advisability/Suggestion: Should, Ought To, Had Better, Could

<p>You should study harder. You ought to study harder.</p> <p>Drivers should obey the speed limit. Drivers ought to obey the speed limit.</p>	<p>Should, and ought to both express advisability. Their meaning ranges in strength from a suggestion. (This is a good idea)</p>
<p>I ought to ("otta") study tonight, but I think I'll watch TV instead.</p>	<p>Native speakers often pronounce ought to as "otta" in informal English.</p>
<p>You shouldn't leave your keys in the car.</p>	<p>Negative contraction: shouldn't.</p> <p>Ought to is not commonly used in the negative.</p>
<p>The gas tank is almost empty. We had better stop at the next gas station. You had better take care of that cut on your hand soon, or it will get infected.</p>	<p>In meaning, had better is close to should and ought to, but had better is usually stronger. Often had better implies a warning or a threat of possible bad consequences.</p> <p>Notes on the use of had better:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It has a present or future meaning. • It is followed by the simple form of a verb.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It is more common in speaking than writing.
You'd better take care of it.	<p>Contraction: 'd better</p> <p>In spoken English, you may not hear the "d" in you'd.</p> <p>However, 'd is necessary for writing.</p>
You'd better not be late.	Negative form: had better + not
<p>I'm having trouble in math class.</p> <p>You could talk to your teacher.</p> <p>I could try to help you.</p> <p>You should talk to your teacher.</p> <p>Maybe you should talk to your teacher.</p>	<p>Could can also be used to make suggestions. It is possible to do this or it is possible to do that.</p> <p>Should is stronger and more definite than could.</p>

Expectation: Be Supposed To/Should

<p>The game is supposed to begin at 10:00.</p> <p>The committee is supposed to vote by secret ballot.</p>	Be supposed to expresses the idea that someone expects something to happen.
<p>I am supposed to go to the meeting. My boss told me that he wants me to attend.</p> <p>(I am expected to)</p> <p>The children are supposed to put away their toys before they go to bed. (I guess, I think, I believe)</p>	Be supposed to also expresses expectations about behavior.
<p>The mail should be here soon.</p> <p>Amy should be back any minute.</p>	Should can also express expectations.

Ability: Can, Know How To, and Be Able To

<p>Tom is strong. He can lift that heavy box.</p> <p>I can see Central Park from my apartment.</p>	<p>Can is used to express physical ability.</p> <p>Can is frequently used with verbs of the five senses: see, hear, feel, smell, and, taste.</p>
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My husband cannot stay awake past 10:00. We can't wait any longer for Bill.	The negative form has three options: cannot, can't, or can not. Can not is becoming unusual in writing English.
Maria can play the piano. She's been taking lessons for many years. Maria knows to play the piano.	Can and Know how to are used to express a learned skill. Knows how to play = can play
I am able to help you now. Are you able to help me lift this? Sorry, I'm not able to help you. It's too heavy. Sorry, I'm unable to help you.	Be able to express ability. Be able to help = can help

Possibility: Can, May, Might

Spices can be expensive. You can learn a lot by watching cooking shows.	Can is used to express a general possibility.
Spices may/might be more expensive at that store. (there is a chance that spices are or will be expensive at that store) Liza may/might need your help in the kitchen. (there is a chance that Liza needs help or will need your help.	May and Might express present or future possibility.

Requests and Responses with Modals

"I" as the subject: May, Could, Can	
May I borrow your pen? Could I borrow your pen? Can I borrow your pen?	"May I" and "Could I" are used to request permission. May I sound more formal. Can I is usually less formal than May I and Could I.
Certainly./Yes, certainly Of course./Yes, of course. Yes, you may./Yes, you can.	Often the response to a polite request is an action, such as a nod or shake of the head, or a simple "uh-huh", meaning "yes"

Informal: Sure.	
“You” as the subject: would, could, will, can	
Would you pass the salt? Will you (please) pass the salt?	“Would you” and “Will you” in a polite request have the same meaning. Would you is more common and is often considered more polite.
Could you pass the salt (please)?	Basically, could you and would you have the same meaning, and they are equally polite.
Can you (please) pass the salt?	“Can you” is often used informally. It usually sounds less formal than “could you” or “would you”. May is not possible. In polite requests, may is only used with I and We.
Yes, I’d be happy to / be glad to. Certainly. Informal: Sure.	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 ...

Polite Requests with Would You Mind

Asking Permission	
<p>Would you mind if I opened the window? Would you mind if I used the phone? Mind if I close the door?</p> <p>No, Not at all. No, of course not. No, that would be fine.</p>	<p>Would you mind if is followed by the simple past.</p> <p>Would you mind if can be shortened to Mind if.</p> <p>Notice that the typical response is “no”. “Yes” means yes, I mind. In other words, it is problem for me.</p>
Asking Someone to Do Something	
<p>Would you mind opening the window? Excuse me. Would you mind repeating that?</p> <p>No, I’d be happy to. Not at all. I’d be glad to. No problem/Sure/Ok.</p>	<p>Would you mind is followed by the -ing form of a verb. (a gerund)</p> <p>Native speakers understand that the informal response “sure” or “Ok” in this situation means that the speaker agrees to the request.</p>

Making Suggestions: Let's, Why Don't, Shall I / WE

Let's go to a movie.	Let's = let us Let's mean I have a suggestion for us. Let's is followed by the simple form of a verb.
Let's not go to a movie. Let's stay home instead.	Negative Form: let's + not + simple verb
Why don't we go to a movie? Why don't you come around seven? Why don't I give Marry a call?	"Why don't" is used primarily in spoken English to make a friendly suggestion.
Shall I open the window? Is that ok with you? Shall we leave at two? Is that ok?	When Shall is used with I or We in a question, the speaker usually makes a suggestion and asks another person if agree with this suggestion.
Let's go, shall we? Let's go, Ok?	Sometimes shall we? Is used as a tag question after let's.

Modals, Part 2

Using Would to Express a Repeated Action in the Past

When I was a child, my father would read me a story at night before bedtime. When I was a child, my father used to read me a story at night before bedtime.	Would can be used to express an action that was repeated regularly in the past. When would is used to express this idea, it has the same meaning as used to (habitual past). Would is more common for this purpose than used to in academic writing.
I used to live in California. He Used to be a Boy Scout. They Used to have a Ford.	To express past situations or states, only used to, not would, is possible.

Expressing the Past: Necessity, Advisability, Expectation

<p>Present: Julia has to get a visa. Julia has got to get a visa. Julia must get a visa.</p> <p>Past: Julia had to get a visa.</p>	<p>Past necessity: had to</p> <p>There are no other past form for must (when it means necessity) or have got to</p>
<p>Present: I should study for the test. I want to pass it. I ought to study for the test. I had better study for the test.</p> <p>Past: I failed the test. I should have studied for it. I ought to have studied for it. I shouldn't have gone to the movies the night before.</p>	<p>Past advisability: Should have + past participle Ought to + past participle</p> <p>In the past, should is more common than ought to. The past form of had better (had better have) is almost never used.</p> <p>Usual pronunciation of should have: "should-ev" or "should-e"</p>
<p>Present: We are supposed to leave now.</p> <p>Past: We were supposed to leave last week.</p>	<p>was/were supposed to: unfulfilled exception or obligation in the past.</p>
<p>Present: The mail should be here.</p> <p>Past: The mail should have been here by now.</p>	<p>Should have + past participle: past exception</p>

Expressing Past Ability

<p>I can speak Farsi. I could speak Farsi ten years ago.</p> <p>I am able to speak Farsi. I was able to speak Farsi ten years ago.</p>	<p>Past ability: Could was/were able to</p>
<p>Maya was able to do well on her exam. Maya did well on her exam.</p>	<p>For a single action in the past affirmative, was/were able to or the simple past is used. For negative both verbs are possible: Couldn't Wasn't able to</p>

Degrees of Certainty: Present Time

<p>Why isn't John in class? 100% sure: He is sick. 95% sure: He must be sick.</p> <p>50% sure or less: He may be sick. He might be sick. He could be sick.</p>	<p>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.</p>
<p>Maybe he is sick.</p>	<p>Maybe (one word) is an adverb. May be (two word) is a verb form.</p>

Degrees of Certainty: Present Time Negative

<p>100% sure: Sam isn't hungry. 99%:</p>
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Sam couldn't be hungry.
Same can't be hungry.

95%: sam must not be hungry.

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

Degrees of Certainty: Past Time

Past Time: Affirmative

Why wasn't Marry in class:
100%: she was sick.
95%: she must have been sick.
50% or less:
She may have been sick.
She might have been sick.
She could have been sick.

Past Time: Negative

Why didn't Sam eat?
100%: Sam wasn't hungry.
99%:
Sam couldn't have been hungry.
Sam can't have been hungry.
95%:
Sam must not have been hungry.
50% or less:
Sam may not have been hungry,
Sam might not have been hungry.

Degrees of Certainty: Future Time

100% sure: Kay will do well on the test. 90% sure: Kay should do well on the test. Kay ought to do well on the test. 50% sure or less: She may do well on the test. She might do well on the test. She could do well on the test.
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Progressive Forms of Modals

Knock the door lightly. Tom may be sleeping. (right now) 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.
She wasn’t home last night when we went to see her. She might have been studying at the library. Joe wasn’t home last night. He has a lot of exams coming up soon, and he is also working on a term paper. He must have been studying at the library.	Progressive form, past time: Modal + have been + -ing Meaning: in progress at a time in the past.

Combining Modals with Phrasal Modals

Janet will can help you tomorrow.	A modal cannot be immediately followed by another modal.
Janet will be able to help you tomorrow. You will have to pick her up at her home.	A modal can, however, be followed by the phrasal modals “be able to” and “have to”.
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.

Expressing Preference: Would Rather

I would rather go to a movie tonight than study grammar. I'd rather study history than (study) biology.	Would rather expresses preference. Notice that the simple form of a verb follows both "would rather" and "than".
How much do you weigh? I'd rather not tell you.	I would = I'd Negative form: would rather + not
The movie was OK, but I would rather have gone to the concert last night.	The past form: would rather have + past participle
I'd rather be lying on a beach in India than sitting in class right now.	Progressive form: would rather + be + -ing

Modals Summary Charts

10-11 Summary Chart of Modals and Similar Expressions

Auxiliary	Uses	Present/Future	Past
may	(1) polite request (only with "I" or "we")	May I <i>borrow</i> your pen?	
	(2) formal permission	You <i>may leave</i> the room.	
	(3) 50% or less certainty	— Where's John? He <i>may be</i> at the library.	— Where was John? He <i>may have been</i> at the library.
might	(1) 50% or less certainty	— Where's John? He <i>might be</i> at the library.	— Where was John? He <i>might have been</i> at the library.
	(2) polite request (rare)	<i>Might I borrow</i> your pen?	
should	(1) advisability	I <i>should study</i> tonight.	I <i>should have studied</i> last night, but I didn't.
	(2) expectation	She <i>should do</i> well on the test tomorrow.	She <i>should have done</i> well on the test.
ought to	(1) advisability	I <i>ought to study</i> tonight.	I <i>ought to have studied</i> last night, but I didn't.
	(2) expectation	She <i>ought to do</i> well on the test tomorrow.	She <i>ought to have done</i> well on the test.
had better	(1) advisability with threat of bad result	You <i>had better be</i> on time, or we will leave without you.	(past form uncommon)
be supposed to	(1) expectation/obligation	Class <i>is supposed to start</i> at 10:00.	
	(2) unfulfilled expectation/obligation		Class <i>was supposed to start</i> at 10:00.
must	(1) strong necessity	You <i>must sign</i> the forms in ink.	(You <i>had to sign</i> the forms in ink.)
	(2) prohibition (negative)	You <i>must not</i> open that door.	
	(3) 95% certainty	Mary isn't in class. She <i>must be</i> sick.	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 (negative)	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.	
	(2) willingness	— The phone's ringing. I'll <i>get</i> it.	
	(3) polite request	<i>Will</i> you please help me?	
be going to	(1) 100% certainty (prediction)	He <i>is going to be</i> here at 6:00.	
	(2) definite plan (intention)	I'm <i>going to paint</i> my bedroom.	
	(3) unfulfilled intention		I <i>was going to paint</i> my room, but I didn't have time.

Auxiliary	Uses	Present/Future	Past
can	(1) ability	I <i>can run</i> fast.	I <i>could run</i> fast when I was a child, but now I can't.
	(2) informal permission	You <i>can use</i> my car tomorrow.	
	(3) informal polite request	<i>Can I borrow</i> your pen?	
	(4) possibility	People <i>can learn</i> from their mistakes.	
	(5) impossibility (negative only)	That <i>can't be</i> true!	That <i>can't have been</i> true!
could	(1) past ability (not for a single past event)		I <i>could run</i> fast when I was a child.
	(2) polite request	<i>Could I borrow</i> your pen? <i>Could you help</i> me?	
	(3) suggestion (affirmative only)	— I need help in math.	You <i>could have talked</i> to your teacher.
		You <i>could talk</i> to your teacher.	
	(4) 50% or less certainty	— Where's John? He <i>could be</i> at home.	He <i>could have been</i> at home.
	(5) impossibility (negative only)	That <i>couldn't be</i> true!	That <i>couldn't have been</i> true!
be able to	(1) ability	I <i>am able to help</i> you. I <i>will be able to help</i> you.	I <i>was able to help</i> him.
would	(1) polite request	<i>Would you please help</i> me? <i>Would you mind</i> if I left early?	
	(2) preference	I <i>would rather go</i> to the park than <i>stay</i> home.	I <i>would rather have gone</i> to the park.
	(3) repeated action in the past (not past situations or states)		When I was a child, I <i>would visit</i> my grandparents every weekend.
	(4) polite for "want" (with "like")	I <i>would like</i> an apple, please.	
	(5) unfulfilled wish		I <i>would have liked</i> a cookie, but there were none in the house.
used to	(1) repeated action in the past		I <i>used to visit</i> my grandparents every weekend.
	(2) past situation or state		I <i>used to live</i> in Spain. Now I live in Korea.
shall	(1) polite question to make a suggestion	<i>Shall I open</i> the window?	
	(2) future with I or we as subject	I <i>shall arrive</i> at nine. ("will" = more common)	

Passive

Active vs. Passive

<p>Active: Mary helped the boy. Passive: The boy was helped by Mary.</p>	<p>In the passive, the object of an active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb. Notice that the subject of an active verb follows “by” in a passive sentence.</p>
<p>He is helped by her. He was helped by her. He will be helped by her.</p>	<p>Form of the passive: be + past participle</p>
<p>Active: An accident happened. Passive: (none)</p>	<p>Only transitive verbs (verbs that can be followed by an object) are used in the passive. Here are some common intransitive verbs; they are never passive: appear, arrive, belong, come, die, fall, happen, look like, occur, resemble, seem, sleep.</p>

Tense Forms of the Passive

Tenses	Active	Passive
<p>(a) Simple present (b) Present progressive (c) Present perfect (d) Simple past (e) Past progressive (f) Past perfect (g) Simple future (h) Be going to (i) Future perfect</p>	<p>Mary helps the boy. Mary is helping the boy. Mary has helped the boy. Mary helped the boy. Mary was helping the boy. Mary had helped the boy. Mary will help the boy. Mary is going to help the boy. Mary will have helped the boy.</p>	<p>The Boy is helped by Mary. The Boy is being helped by Mary. The Boy has been helped by Mary. The Boy was helped by Mary. The Boy was being helped by Mary. The Boy had been helped by Mary. The Boy will be helped by Mary. The Boy is going to be helped by Mary. The Boy will have been helped by Mary.</p>
<p>(j) Questions</p>	<p>Is Mary helping the boy? Did Mary help the boy? Has Mary helped the boy?</p>	<p>Is the boy being helped by Mary? Was the boy helped by Mary? Has the boy been helped by Mary?</p>

	Will Mary help the boy?	Will the boy be helped by Mary?
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Using the Passive

<p>Rice is grown in India. Our house was built in 1980. This olive oil was imported from Crete.</p>	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.
My aunt made this rug. (active)	If the speaker knows who performs an action, usually the active is used.
<p>This rug was made by my aunt. That rug was made by my mother. Rahmati Novel was written by Mark Rahmati.</p>	Sometimes, even when speakers know who performs an action, they choose to use the passive with the by-phrase in order to focus attention on the subject of a sentence.

The Passive Form of Modals and Phrasal Modals

Passive form: modal* + be + past participle
<p>Tom will be invited to the picnic. The window can't be opened. Children should be taught to respect their elders. May I be excused from class? This book had better be returned to the library before Friday. This letter ought to be sent before June 1st. Mia has to be told about our change in plans. Jaffar is supposed to be told about the meeting.</p>
Past-passive form: modal + have been + past participle
<p>The letter should have been sent last week. This house must have been built over 200 years ago. Eric couldn't have been offered the job. Jill ought to have been invited to the party.</p>

Stative (Non-Progressive) Passive

<p>The door is old. The door is green. The door is locked.</p>	<p>Old and green are adjectives. They describe the door. Locked is a past participle. It is used as an adjective. It describes the door.</p>
<p>I locked the door five minutes ago. The door was locked by me five minutes ago. Now the door is locked.</p> <p>Ann broke the window yesterday. The window was broken by Ann. Now the window is broken.</p>	<p>When the passive form is used to describe an existing situation or state, it is called “stative” or “non-progressive” passive. In this form:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No action is taking place; the action happened earlier. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is no by-phrase • The past participle functions as an adjective
<p>I am interested in Chinese art. He is satisfied with this job. Ann is married to Alex.</p>	<p>Prepositions other than “by” can follow stative passive verbs.</p>
<p>I don’t know where I am. I am lost. I can’t find my purse. It is gone. I am finished with my work. I am done with my work.</p>	<p>Left sentences are examples of idiomatic usage of the passive form in common, everyday English. These sentences have no equivalent active sentences.</p>

Common Stative (Non-Progressive) Passive Verbs + Prepositions

<p>I’m interested in culture. He’s worried about losing his job.</p>	<p>Many stative verbs are followed by prepositions other than “by”.</p>
<p>Be concerned</p>	<p>about</p>

Be excited Be worried	
Be discriminated	against
Be known Be prepared Be qualified Be remembered Be well known	for
Be divorced Be exhausted Be gone Be protected	from
Be dressed Be interested Be located	in
Be disappointed Be involved	In/with
Be composed Be made Be tired	of
Be frightened Be scared Be terrified	Of / by
Be accustomed Be addicted Be committed Be connected Be dedicated Be devoted Be engaged Be exposed Be limited Be married	to

Be opposed Be related	
Be acquainted Be associated Be cluttered Be crowded Be done Be equipped Be filled Be finished Be pleased Be provided Be satisfied	with
Be annoyed Be bored Be covered	With / by

The Passive with Get

Get + Adjective	
I'm getting hungry. Let's eat soon. 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.
Common adjectives that follow get: Angry, cold, fat, hungry, quiet, tall, anxious, comfortable, full, late, ready, thirsty, bald, dark, good, light, rich, warm, better, dizzy, hard, mad, ripe, well, big, easy, healthy, nervous, serious, wet, busy, empty, heavy, noisy, sick, worse, chilly, famous, hot, old, sleepy	
Get + Past Participle	
I stopped working because I got tired. They are getting married next month. You didn't wash the dishes. The dishes didn't get washed.	Get may also be followed by a past participle. The past participle functions as an adjective; it describes the subject. The passive with "get" can be used to present information more indirectly. The passive with "get" is common in spoken English, but not in formal writing.

Common Past Participle with “get”

Get accepted (for, into)	Get dressed (in)	Get invited (to)
Get accustomed to	Get drunk (on)	Get involved (in, with)
Get acquainted (with)	Get elected (to)	Get killed (by, with)
Get arrested (for)	Get engaged (to)	Get lost (in)
Get bored (with)	Get excited (about)	Get married (to)
Get confused (about)	Get finished (with)	Get prepared (for)
Get crowded (with)	Get fixed (by)	Get scared (of)
Get divorced (from)	Get hurt (by)	Get sunburned
Get done (with)	Get interested (in)	Get worried (about)

-ed/-ing Adjectives

<p>The problem confuses the students. It is a confusing problem.</p> <p>The students are confused by the problem. They are confused students.</p>	<p>The present participle can serve as an adjective with active meaning. The noun it modifies performs an action.</p> <p>The past participle can serve as an adjective with a passive meaning.</p>
<p>The story amuses the children. It is an amusing story.</p> <p>The children are amused by the story. They are amused children.</p>	<p>The noun story performs the action.</p> <p>The noun children receive the action.</p>
<p>It was a delightful story. It was a scary story.</p>	<p>There are exceptions to these rules. For example, there is no adjective -ing form for delight and scare.</p>

Noun Clauses

Introduction

<p>In the park On a rainy day Her grandparents in Turkey</p>	<p>Sentences contain phrases and clauses. A phrase</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is a group of words • Does not contain a subject and a verb • Is not a sentence
<p>He went running in the park. She visited her grandparents in Turkey.</p>	<p>A clause</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is a group of words • Contains a subject and a verb
<p>Sue lives in Tokyo. (independent clause) Where does Sue live? (independent clause)</p>	<p>Clauses can be dependent or independent. An independent clause</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contains the main subject and verb • Is the main clause of the sentence • May be a statement or a question <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can stand alone
<p>Where Sue lives? (dependent clause)</p>	<p>A dependent clause</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is not a complete sentence. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cannot stand alone. • Must be connected to a main clause.
<p>We don't know <u>where Sue lives</u>. (noun clause)</p>	<p>The dependent clause - where Sue lives - is also a noun clause. It is the object of the verb "Know" and functions like a noun in the sentence.</p>

Noun Clauses with Question Words

Question	Noun Clause	-
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Wh + helping verb + subject + verb Where does she live? What did he say? When do they go?	I don't know where(wh) she(subject) lives(verb). I couldn't hear what he said. Do you know when they went?	Noun clauses can begin with question words. "Where she lives" is a noun clause. It is the object of the verb know. In a noun clause, the subject precedes the verb. Don't use question word order in a noun clause. Helping verbs does, did, and do are used in questions but not in noun clauses.
Who(s) lives(v) there? Who is at the door?	I don't know who lives there. I wonder who is at the door.	The word order is the same in both the question and the noun clause because "who" is the subject in both.
Who are(v) those(s) men?	I don't know who those men are.	"Those men" is the subject of the question, so it is placed in front of the verb "be" in the noun clause.
What did she say? What will they do?	<u>What she said</u> (s) surprised (v) me. What they will do is obvious.	The noun clause can come at the beginning of the sentence.

Noun Clauses with Whether or If

Yes/No Question	Noun Clause	-
Will she come? Does he need help?	I don't know whether she will come. I don't know if she will come. I wonder whether he needs help. I wonder if he needs help.	When a yes/no question is changed a noun clause, "whether" or "if" is used to introduce the noun clause. "Whether" is more common in writing and "if" is more in speaking.
	I wonder whether or not she will come. I wonder whether she will come or not. I wonder if she will come or not.	Notice the patterns when "or not" used.
	Whether she comes or not is unimportant to me.	The noun clause can be in the subject position with "whether".

Question Words Followed by Infinitives

<p>I don't know what I should do. I don't know what to do.</p> <p>Pam can't decide whether she should go or stay home. Pam can't decide whether to go or (to) stay home.</p> <p>Please tell me how I can get to the bus station. Please tell me how to get to the bus station.</p> <p>Jim told us where we could find it. Jim told us where to find it.</p>	<p>Question words (when, where, how, who, whom, whose, what, which, and whether) may be followed by an infinitive.</p> <p>Each pair of sentences in the examples has the same meaning.</p> <p>Notice that the meaning expressed by the infinitive is either "should" or "can/could".</p>
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Noun Clauses with That

Verb + That-Clause			
<p>I think that Bob will come. I think Bob will come.</p>		<p>"that Bob will come" is a noun clause. It is used as the object of the verb "think". The word "that" is usually omitted in speaking. It is usually included in formal writing.</p> <p>See the list below for verbs commonly followed by a that-clause.</p>	
<p>Agree that Believe that Decide that Discover that Explain that</p>	<p>Feel that Find out that Forget that Hear that Hope that</p>	<p>Know that Learn that Notice that Promise that Read that</p>	<p>Remember that Say that Tell someone that Think that Understand that</p>
Person + Be + Adjective + That-Clause			
<p>Jan is happy (that) Bob called.</p>		<p>That-clauses commonly follow certain adjectives, such as happy in the left example, when the subject refers to a person. (or persons)</p>	

I'm afraid that I'm amazed that I'm angry that I'm aware that	Ali is certain that Ali is confident that Ali is disappointed that Ali is glad that	We're happy that We're pleased that We're proud that We're relieved that	Jan is sorry that Jan is sure that Jan is surprised that Jan is worried that
It + Be + Adjective + That-Clause			
It is clear (that) Ann likes her new job.		That-clauses commonly follow adjectives in sentences that begin with "it + be". See the list below.	
It's amazing that It's clear that It's good that It's important that	It's interesting that It's likely that It's lucky that It's nice that	It's obvious that It's possible that It's strange that It's surprising that	It's true that It's undeniable that It's well known that It's wonderful that
That-Clause Used as a Subject			
<p>That Ann likes her new job is clear.</p> <p>The fact (that) Ann likes her new job is clear.</p> <p>It is a fact (that) Ann likes her new job.</p>		It is possible but uncommon for "that-clause" to be used as the subject of a sentence. The word "that" is not omitted when the "that-clause" is used as a subject.	

Quoted Speech

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

Quoting One Sentence	
<p>She said, "My brother is a student."</p> <p>"My brother is a student," she said.</p> <p>"My brother," she said, "is a student."</p>	<p>Use a comma after "she said". Capitalize the first word of the quoted sentence. Put the final quotation mark outside the period at the end of the sentence.</p> <p>Use a comma, not a period, at the end of the quoted sentence when it precedes "she said".</p> <p>If the quoted sentence is divided by "she said", use a comma after the first part of the quote. Do not capitalize the first word after "she said".</p>
Quoting More Than One Sentence	

<p>“My brother is a student. He is attending a university,” she said.</p> <p>“My brother is a student,” she said. “He is attending a university.”</p>	<p>Quotation marks are placed at the beginning and end of the complete quote. Notice: there are no quotation marks after student.</p> <p>Since “she said” comes between two quoted sentences, the second sentence begins with quotation marks and a capital letter.</p>
Quoting a Question or an Exclamation	
<p>She asked, “When will you be here?”</p> <p>“When will you be here?” she asked.</p> <p>She said, “Watch out!”</p>	<p>The question mark is inside the closing quotation marks since it is part of the quotation. Since a question mark is used, no comma is used before ‘she asked’</p> <p>The exclamation point is inside the closing quotation marks.</p>
<p>“My brother is a student,” said Anna. “My brother is a student,” she said.</p>	<p>A noun subject often follows the verb when the subject and verb come in the middle or at the end of a quoted sentence. A pronoun subject almost always precedes the verb. Very rare: “My brother is a student,” said she.</p>
<p>“Let’s leave,” whispered Dave. “Please help me,” begged the homeless man. “Well,” Jack began, “It’s a long story.”</p>	<p>Say and ask are the most commonly used quote verbs.</p> <p>Some others: add, agree, announce, answer, beg, begin, comment, complain, confess, continue, explain, inquire, promise, remark, reply, respond, shout, suggest, whisper.</p>

Reported Speech

Quoted speech uses a person’s exact words, and it is set off by quotation marks. Reported speech uses a noun clause to report what someone has said. No quotation marks are used.

Quoted Speech	Reported Speech	-
“The world is round.”	She said (that) the world is round.	The present tense is used when the reported sentence deals with a general truth.
“I work at night.”	He says he works at night. He has said that he works at night. He will say that he works at night.	When the reporting verb is simple present, present perfect, or future, the verb in the noun clause does not change.

<p>“I work at night.” -> He said he worked at night. “I am working.” -> He said he was working. “I worked.” -> He said he worked/had worked. “I have worked.” -> He said he had worked. “I had worked.” -> He said he had worked.</p>		<p>If the reporting verb is simple past, the verb in the noun clause will usually be in past form. Here are some guidelines:</p> <p>Simple present -> Simple past Present continuous -> Past continuous Simple past -> No change or past perfect Present perfect -> Past perfect Past perfect -> No change</p>
<p>Immediate reporting:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What did the teacher just say? - He said he wants us to read. <p>Later reporting:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I didn't go to class yesterday. Did Mr. Jones give any assignments? - Yes. He said he wanted us to read. 		<p>In spoken English, if the speaker is reporting something immediately or soon after it was said, no change is made in the noun clause verb.</p>
“Leave.”	She told me to leave.	<p>In reported speech, an imperative sentence is changed to an infinitive. Tell is used instead of say as the reporting verb.</p>

Reported Speech: Modal Verbs in Noun Clauses

<p>“I can go.” -> She said she could go. “I may go.” -> She said she may/might go. “I must go.” -> She said she had to go. “I have to go” -> She said she had to go. “I will go.” -> She said she would go. “I am going to go.” -> She said she was going to go.</p>	<p>The following modal and phrasal modal verbs changes when the reporting verb is in the past.</p> <p>Can -> could May -> may/might Must -> had to Have to -> had to Will -> would am/is/are going to -> was/were going to</p>
<p>“I should go.” -> She said she should go. “I ought to go.” -> She said she ought to go. “I might go.” -> She said she might go.</p>	<p>The following modals do not change when the reporting verb is in the past.</p> <p>Should Ought to Might</p>

The Subjunctive in Noun Clause

<p>The teacher demands that we <u>be</u> on time. I insisted that he <u>pay</u> me the money. I recommended that she <u>not go</u> to the concert. It is important that they <u>be told</u> the truth.</p>		<p>Sentences with subjunctive verbs generally stress importance or urgency. <u>A subjunctive verb uses the simple form of a verb.</u></p> <p>Negative: not + simple form Passive: simple form of be + past participle</p>	
<p>I suggested/recommended that she see a doctor. I suggested/recommended that she should see a doctor.</p>		<p>Should is also possible after suggest and recommend.</p>	
<p>Common verbs and expressions followed by the subjunctive in a noun clause</p>			
<p>advise (that) ask (that) demand (that) insist (that)</p>	<p>propose (that) recommend (that) request (that) suggest (that)</p>	<p>It is essential (that) It is imperative (that) It is important (that)</p>	<p>It is critical (that) It is necessary (that) It is vital (that)</p>

Adjective Clauses

Adjective Clause Pronouns Used as the Subject

<p>I thanked the woman who helped me. I thanked the woman that helped me.</p> <p>The book that is on the table is mine. The book which is on the table is mine.</p>	<p>I thanked the woman = a main clause Who helped me = an adjective clause</p> <p>An adjective clause modifies a noun.</p>
	<p>“Who” is the subject of the adjective clause. “That” is the subject of the adjective clause.</p> <p>In speaking, “who” and “that” are both commonly used as subject pronouns to describe people. “Who” is more common in writing.</p>

	<p>Summary:</p> <p>Who = used for people</p> <p>That = used for both people and things</p> <p>Which = used for things</p>
<p>The book that is on the table is mine.</p> <p>The book is mine that is on the table.</p>	<p>An adjective clause closely follows the noun it modifies.</p>

Adjective Clause Pronouns Used as the Object of a verb

<p>The man who(m) I saw was Mr. Jones.</p> <p>The man that I saw was Mr. Jones.</p> <p>The man ∅ I saw was Mr. Jones.</p> <p>The movie that we saw last night wasn't very good.</p> <p>The movie ∅ we saw last night wasn't very good.</p> <p>The movie which we saw last night wasn't very good.</p>	<p>Notice in the example: the adjective clause pronouns are placed at the beginning of the clause.</p>
	<p>"Who" is usually used instead of "whom", especially in speaking. "Whom" is generally used only in very formal English.</p>
	<p>As an object pronoun for people, "that" is more common than "who", but ∅ is the most common in speaking and writing.</p>
	<p>Summary:</p> <p>Who(m) = used for people</p> <p>That = used for both people and things</p> <p>Which = used for things</p>
<p>The man who(m) I saw was Mr. Jones.</p> <p>The man that I saw was Mr. Jones.</p> <p>The man I saw was Mr. Jones.</p>	<p>The pronoun "him" must be removed. It is necessary because who(m), that, or ∅ functions as the object of the verb "Saw".</p>

Adjective Clause Pronouns Used as the Object of a Preposition

<p>She is the woman.</p> <p>I told you about her.</p>	<p>In very formal English, the preposition comes at the beginning of the adjective clause. Usually, however, in everyday usage, the preposition comes after the</p>
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<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - She is the woman about whom I told you. - She is the woman who(m) I told you about. - She is the woman that I told you about. - She is the woman I told you about. <p>The music was good. We listened to it last night.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The music to which we listened last night was good. - The music that we listened to last night was good. - The music we listened to last night was good. - The music which we listened to last night was good. 	subject and verb of the adjective clause.
	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”

Using Whose

<p>I know the man. His bike was stolen. I know the man whose bike was stolen.</p> <p>The student writes well. I read her composition. The student whose composition I read writes well.</p>	<p>“Whose” is used to show possession. It carries the same meaning as other possessive pronouns used as adjectives: his, her, its, and their.</p> <p>Like his, her, its, and their, “whose” is connected to a noun. His bike -> whose bike Her composition -> whose composition</p> <p>Both “whose” and the noun it is connected to are placed at the beginning of the adjective clause. “whose” cannot be omitted.</p>
I worked at a company whose employees wanted to form a union.	“Whose” usually modifies people, but it may also be used to modify things.
<p>That’s the boy whose parents you met. That’s the boy who’s in my math class. That’s the boy who’s been living with our neighbors since his mother became ill.</p>	<p>“Whose” and “who’s” have the same pronunciation. “Who’s” can mean “who is”, or “who has”</p>

Using Where in Adjective Clauses

<p>The building is very old. He lives there (in that building).</p> <p>The building where he lives is very old. The building in which he lives is very old. The building which he lives in is very old. The building that he lives in is very old. The building he lives in is very old.</p>	<p>“Where” is used in an adjective clause to modify a place (city, country, room, house)</p> <p>If “where” is used, a preposition is not included in the adjective clause.</p> <p>If “where” is not used, the preposition must be included. “In which” is more common in academic writing.</p>
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Using When in Adjective Clauses

<p>I’ll never forget the day. I met you then (on that day).</p> <p>I’ll never forget the day when I met you. I’ll never forget the day on which I met you. I’ll never forget the day that I met you. I’ll never forget the day I met you.</p>	<p>“When” is used in an adjective clause to modify a noun of time (year, day, time, century, etc).</p> <p>The use of preposition in an adjective clause that modifies a noun of time is somewhat different from that in other adjective clauses: a preposition + which is used, otherwise, there is no preposition. The use of a preposition is very formal.</p>
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Using Adjective Clauses to Modify Pronouns

<p>There is someone I want you to meet. Everything he said was pure nonsense. Anybody who wants to come is welcome.</p>	<p>Adjective clauses can modify indefinite pronouns. (someone, everybody)</p> <p>Object pronouns (who(m), that, which) are usually omitted in the adjective clause.</p>
<p>Paula was the only one I knew at the party. Scholarships are available for those who need financial assistance.</p>	<p>Adjective clauses can modify the one(s) and those.</p>
<p>(f) Incorrect: I who am a student at this school come from a country in Asia.</p> <p>(g) It is I who am responsible.</p>	<p>Adjective clauses are almost never used to modify personal pronouns. Native English speakers would not say or write the sentence in (f)</p> <p>Example (g) is possible, but very formal and uncommon.</p>

(h) He who laughs last laughs best.	Example (h) is a well-known saying in which he is used as an indefinite pronoun (meaning “anyone” or “any person”)
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Punctuating Adjective Clauses

<p>General guidelines for the punctuation of adjective clauses:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Do not use commas if the adjective clause is necessary to identify the noun it modifies. - Use commas if the adjective clause simply gives additional information and is not necessary to identify the noun it modifies. 	
<p>The professor who teaches Chemistry 101 is an excellent lecturer.</p> <p>Professor Wilson, who teaches Chemistry 101, is an excellent lecturer.</p>	<p>No commas are used. The adjective clause is necessary to identify which professor is meant.</p> <p>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>Hawaii, which consists of eight principal islands, is a favorite vacation spot.</p> <p>Mrs. Smith, who is a retired teacher, does volunteer work at the hospital.</p> <p>The man {who(m), that, ⓪} I met teaches chemistry.</p> <p>Mr. Lee, whom I met yesterday, teaches chemistry.</p>	<p>Use commas, 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>If no commas are used, any possible pronoun may be used in the adjective clause. Object pronouns may be omitted.</p> <p>When commas are necessary, the pronoun “that” may not be used (only who, whom, which, whose, where and when may be used), and object pronouns cannot be omitted.</p>
<p>Compare the meaning:</p> <p>We took some children on a picnic. The children, who wanted to play soccer, ran to an open field as soon as we arrived at the park.</p> <p>We took some children on a picnic. The children who wanted to play soccer ran to an open field as soon as we arrived at the park. The others played a different game.</p>	<p>The use of commas means that all of the children wanted to play soccer and all of the children ran to an open field. The adjective clause is used only to give additional information about the children.</p> <p>The lack of commas means that only some of the children wanted to play soccer. The adjective clause is used to identify which children ran to the open field.</p>

Using Expressions of Quantity in Adjective Clauses

<p>In my class there are 20 students. Most of them are from Asia.</p> <p>In my class there are 20 students, most of whom are from Asia. He gave several reasons, only a few of which were valid. The teachers discussed Jim, one of whose problems was poor study habits.</p>	<p>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, etc.</p> <p>The expressions of quantity precedes the pronoun. Only whom, which, and whose are used in this pattern. This pattern is more common in writing than speaking. Commas are used.</p>
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Using Which to Modify a Whole Sentence

<p>Tom was late. That surprised me. Tom was late, which surprised me.</p> <p>The elevator is out of order. This is too bad. The elevator is out of order, which is too bad.</p>	<p>The pronouns “that” and “this” can refer to the idea of a whole sentence which comes before.</p> <p>The word “that” refers to the whole sentence “Tom as late”. Similarly, an adjective clause with “which” may modify the idea of a whole sentence.</p> <p>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.</p>
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Reducing Adjective Clauses to Adjective Phrases

<p>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.</p>	
<p>Clause: The girl who is sitting next to me is Mai. Phrase: The girl sitting next to me is Mai.</p> <p>Clause: The girl (whom) I saw was Mai. Phrase: none</p>	<p>An adjective phrase is a reduction of an adjective clause. It modifies a noun. It does not contain a subject and verb.</p> <p>Only adjective clauses that have a subject pronoun - who, that or which - can be reduced to modifying adjective phrases.</p>

<p>Clause: The man who is talking to John is from Korea. Phrase: the man talking to John is from Korea.</p> <p>Clause: The ideas that are presented in this book are good. Phrase: the ideas presented in this book are good.</p> <p>Clause: Ann is the woman that is responsible for the error. Phrase: Ann is the woman responsible for the error.</p>	<p>There are two ways in which an adjective clause is changed to an adjective phrase.</p> <p>1. If the adjective clause contains the be form of a verb, omit the subject pronoun and the be form.</p>
<p>Clause: English has an alphabet that consists of 26 letters. Phrase: English has an alphabet consisting of 26 letters.</p> <p>Clause: Anyone who wants to come with us is welcome. Phrase: Anyone wanting to come with us is welcome.</p>	<p>2. If there is no be form of a verb in the adjective clause, it is sometimes possible to omit the subject pronoun and change the verb to its -ing form.</p>
<p>Paris, which is the capital of France, is an exciting city. Paris, the capital of France, is an exciting city.</p>	<p>If the adjective clause requires commas, the adjective phrase also requires commas. An adjective phrase in which a noun follows another noun, is called an appositive.</p>

Gerunds and Infinitives, Part 1

Gerunds and Infinitives: Introduction

<p>(a) Playing tennis is fun. (b) We enjoy playing tennis. (c) He's excited about playing tennis.</p>	<p>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.</p> <p>In (a): playing is a gerund. It is used as the subject of the sentence. Playing tennis is a gerund phrase.</p> <p>In (b): playing is a gerund used as the object of the verb enjoy.</p> <p>In (c): playing is a ground used as the object of the preposition about.</p>
<p>(d) To play tennis well takes a lot of practice. (To play = subject, takes = verb) (e) He likes to play tennis. (to play = object, likes = verb)</p>	<p>An infinitive = to + the simple form of a verb (to see, to be, to go, etc.).</p> <p>Like gerunds, infinitives can also be used as the subject of a sentence, or as the object, but it is more common for the infinitives to be used as the object.</p>

Common Verbs Followed by Gerunds

(a) I enjoy playing tennis.	Gerunds can be used as the object of certain verbs. (common verbs are listed below)		
(b) Joe quit smoking. (c) Joe gave up smoking.	Some phrasal verbs are followed by gerunds. A phrasal verb consist of a verb and a particle. For example: give up		
Verb + gerund			
enjoy	Quit (give up)	avoid	consider
appreciate	Finish (get through)	Postpone (put off)	discuss
mind	stop	delay	mention
		Keep (keep on)	suggest

Common Verbs Followed by Infinitives

(a) I hope to see you again soon. (b) He promised to be here by ten. (c) He promised not to be late.	Some verbs are followed immediately by an infinitives, as in (a) and (b).
	Negative form: not precedes the infinitives, as in ©.
Common verbs followed by infinitives	

Hope to (do something)	Promise to	Seem to	Expect to
Plan to	Agree to	Appear to	Would like to
Intend to	Offer to	Pretend to	Want to
Decide to	Refuse to	Ask to	Need to

Infinitives with Objects

Verb + Object + Infinitives			
(a) Mr. Lee told me to be here at ten o'clock. (b) The police ordered the driver to stop. (c) I was told to be here at ten o'clock. (d) The driver was ordered to stop.		Some verbs are followed by a pronoun or noun object and then an infinitive, as in (a) and (b). These verbs are followed immediately by an infinitive when they are used in the passive, as in © and (d).	
Common verbs followed by noun or pronoun + infinitive			
Tell someone to	Invite someone to	Require someone to	Expect someone to
Advise someone to	Permit someone to	Order someone to	Would like someone to
Encourage someone to	Allow someone to	Force someone to	Want someone to
Remind someone to	Warn someone to	Ask someone to	Need someont to
Verb + Infinitive / Verb + Object + Infinitive			
(e) I expect to pass the test. (f) I expect Mary to pass the test.		Some verbs have two patterns: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Verb + infinitive, as in (e)• Verb + object + infinitive, as in (f)	
Common verbs followed by infinitives or by objects and then infinitives			

Ask to OR ask someone to	Want to OR want someone to
Expect to OR expect someone to	Would like to OR would like someone to
Need to OR need someone to	

Commons 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			
begin	like	hate	The verbs in Group A may be followed by either an infinitive or a gerund with little or no difference in meaning.
start	love	Can't stand	
continue	prefer	Can't bear	
(a) It began to rain. / It began raining. (b) I started to work. / I started working. (c) It was beginning to rain.			If the main verb is progressive, an infinitive (not a gerund) is usually used.
Group B: Verb + Infinitive or Gerund, with a Difference in Meaning			
remember	regret	stop	The verbs in Group B may be followed by either an infinitive or a gerund, but the meaning is different.
forget	try		

(d) Judy always remembers to lock the door. (e) Sam often forgets to lock the door. (f) I remember seeing the Alps for the first time. The sight was impressive. (g) I'll never forget seeing the Alps for the first time.	Remember + infinitive = remember to perform responsibility, duty or task Forget + infinitive = forget to perform a responsibility, duty or task Remember + gerund = remember (recall) something that happened in the past Forget + gerund = forget something that happened in the past
(h) I regret to tell you that you failed the test. (i) I regret lending him some money. He never paid me back.	Regret + infinitive = regret to say, to tell someone, to inform someone of some bad news Regret + gerund = regret something that happened in the past
(j) I'm trying to learn English. (k) The room was hot. I tried opening the window, but that didn't help. So I tried turning on the fan, but I was still hot. Finally, I turned on the air conditioner.	Try + infinitive = make an effort Try + gerund = experiment with a new or different approach to see if it works.
(l) The students stopped talking when the professor entered the room. The room became quiet. (m) When Ann saw her professor in the hallway, she stopped (in order) to talk him.	Stop + gerund = stop an activity Notice that stop can also be followed immediately by an infinitive of purpose.

Using Gerund as the Object of Prepositions

(a) We talked about going to Iceland 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.	In (d) through (f): to is preposition, not part of an infinitive form, so a gerund follows.	
(g) We talked about not going to the meeting, but finally decided we should go.	Negative form: not precedes a gerund	
Common preposition combinations followed by gerunds		
Be excited / be worried + about doing it	Keep someone / prevent someone / prohibit someone / stop someone + from doing it	Be tried + of/from doing it
Complain / dream / talk / think / apologize + about/of	Be interested / believe / participate / succeed + in	Count / insist + on doing it

doing it	doing it	
Blame someone / forgive someone / have an excuse / have a reason / be responsible / thank someone + for doing it	Approve / be accused / be afraid / be capable / be guilty / be proud / instead / take advantage / take care + of doing it	Be accustomed / in addition / be committed / be devoted / look forward / object / be opposed / be used + to doing it

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 biking Go birdwatching Go boating Go bowling Go camping Go canoeing / kayaking	Go dancing Go fishing Go hiking Go hunting Go jogging Go mountain climbing	Go running Go sailing Go shopping Go sightseeing Go skating Go skateboarding	Go skiing Go skydiving Go sledding Go snorkeling Go swimming Go window shopping

Special Expressions Followed By -ing

(a) We had fun / we had a good time + playing volleyball. (b) I had trouble / I had difficulty / I had a hard time / I had a difficult time + finding his house.	-ing forms follow certain special expressions: Have fun / a good time + -ing Have trouble / difficulty + -ing Have a hard time / a difficult time + -ing
(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 doing homework. (f) I stood there wondering what to do next. (g) He is lying in the bed reading a book.	Sit + expression of place + -ing Stand + expression of place + -ing Lie + expression of place + -ing

<p>(h) when I walked into my office, I found George using my telephone.</p> <p>(i) when I walked into my office, I caught a thief looking through my desk drawers.</p>	<p>Find + (pro)noun + -ing Catch + (pro)noun + -ing In (h) and (i) both find and catch mean discover. Catch often expresses anger.</p>
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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.
(b) Learning a second language is difficult.	A gerund phrase is frequently used as the subject of a sentence.
(c) To learn a second language is difficult.	An infinitive can also be used as the subject of a sentence. But far more commonly an infinitive phrase is used with it .
(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.

Reference List of Verbs Followed by Infinitives

Verbs Followed Immediately by an Infinitive

1. agree	They agreed to help us.	25. learn	He learned to play the piano.
2. appear	She appears to be tired.	26. like•	I like to go to the movies.
3. arrange	I'll arrange to meet you at the airport.	27. love•	I love to go to operas.
4. ask	He asked to come with us.	28. manage	She managed to finish her work early.
5. beg	He begged to come with us.	29. mean	I didn't mean to hurt your feelings.
6. begin•	It began to rain.	30. need	I need to have your opinion.
7. can't afford	I can't afford to buy it.	31. offer	They offered to help us.
8. can't bear•	I can't bear to wait in long lines.	32. plan	I'm planning to have a party.
9. can't stand•	I can't stand to wait in long lines.	33. prefer•	Ann prefers to walk to work.
10. can't wait	We can't wait to see you.	34. prepare	We prepared to welcome them.
11. care	I don't care to see that show.	35. pretend	He pretends not to understand.
12. claim	She claims to know a famous movie star.	36. promise	I promise not to be late.
13. consent	She finally consented to marry him.	37. refuse	I refuse to believe his story.
14. continue•	He continued to speak.	38. regret•	I regret to tell you that you failed.
15. decide	I have decided to leave on Monday.	39. remember•	I remembered to lock the door.
16. demand	I demand to know who is responsible.	40. seem	That cat seems to be friendly.
17. deserve	She deserves to win the prize.	41. start•	It started to rain.
18. expect	I expect to enter graduate school in the fall.	42. stop	Let's stop to get a snack.
19. fail	She failed to return the book to the library on time.	43. struggle	I struggled to stay awake.
20. forget•	I forgot to mail the letter.	44. swear	She swore to tell the truth.
21. hate•	I hate to make silly mistakes.	45. tend	He tends to talk too much.
22. hesitate	Don't hesitate to ask for my help.	46. threaten	She threatened to tell my parents.
23. hope	Jack hopes to arrive next week.	47. try•	I'm trying to learn English.
24. intend	He intends to be a firefighter.	48. volunteer	He volunteered to help us.
		49. wait	I'll wait to hear from you.
		50. want	I want to tell you something.
		51. wish	She wishes to come with us.

24. intend

He *intends to be* a firefighter.

Verbs Followed by a (Pro)noun + an Infinitive

- | | |
|--------------|--|
| 1. advise | She <i>advised me to wait</i> until tomorrow. |
| 2. allow | She <i>allowed me to use</i> her car. |
| 3. ask | I <i>asked John to help</i> us. |
| 4. beg | They <i>begged us to come</i> . |
| 5. cause | Her laziness <i>caused her to fail</i> . |
| 6. challenge | She <i>challenged me to race her to the corner</i> . |
| 7. convince | I couldn't <i>convince him to accept</i> our help. |
| 8. dare | He <i>dared me to do better</i> than he had done. |
| 9. encourage | He <i>encouraged me to try</i> again. |
| 10. expect | I <i>expect you to be</i> on time. |
| 11. forbid | I <i>forbid you to tell</i> him. |
| 12. force | They <i>forced him to tell</i> the truth. |
| 13. hire | She <i>hired a boy to mow</i> the lawn. |
| 14. instruct | He <i>instructed them to be</i> careful. |

15. invite

Harry *invited the Johnsons to come to his party*.

16. need

We *needed Chris to help us figure out the solution*.

17. order

The judge *ordered me to pay* a fine.

18. permit

He *permitted the children to stay up late*.

19. persuade

I *persuaded him to come* for a visit.

20. remind

She *reminded me to lock* the door.

21. require

Our teacher *requires us to be* on time.

22. teach

My brother *taught me to swim*.

23. tell

The doctor *told me to take* these pills.

24. urge

I *urged her to apply* for the job.

25. want

I *want you to be* happy.

26. warn

I *warned you not to drive* too fast.

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Reference List of Verbs Followed by Gerunds

14-11 Reference List of Verbs Followed by Gerunds
Verbs with a bullet (•) can also be followed by infinitives. See Chart 14-10.

1. admit
2. advise•
3. anticipate
4. appreciate
5. avoid
6. begin•
7. can't bear•
8. can't help
9. can't imagine
10. can't stand•
11. complete
12. consider
13. continue•
14. delay
15. deny
16. discuss
17. dislike
18. enjoy
19. finish
20. forget•
21. hate•
22. imagine
23. keep
24. like•

He admitted stealing the money.
She advised waiting until tomorrow.
I anticipate having a good time on vacation.
I appreciated hearing from them.
He avoided answering my question.
It began raining.
I can't bear waiting in long lines.
I can't help worrying about it.
I can't imagine having no friends.
I can't stand waiting in long lines.
I finally completed writing my term paper.
I will consider going with you.
He continued speaking.
He delayed leaving for school.
She denied committing the crime.
They discussed opening a new business.
I dislike driving long distances.
We enjoyed visiting them.
She finished studying about ten.
I'll never forget visiting Napoleon's tomb.
I hate making silly mistakes.
I imagined getting a scholarship, and I did.
I keep hoping he will come.
I like going to movies.

23. keep
24. like•
25. love•
26. mention
27. mind
28. miss
29. postpone
30. practice
31. prefer•
32. quit
33. recall
34. recollect
35. recommend
36. regret•
37. remember•
38. resent
39. resist
40. risk
41. start•
42. stop
43. suggest
44. tolerate
45. try•
46. understand
47. urge

I imagine getting a scholarship, and I do.

I keep hoping he will come.

I like going to movies.

I love going to operas.

She mentioned going to a movie.

Would you mind helping me with this?

I miss being with my family.

Let's postpone leaving until tomorrow.

The athlete practiced throwing the ball.

Ann prefers walking to driving to work.

He quit trying to solve the problem.

I don't recall meeting him before.

I don't recollect meeting him before.

She recommended seeing the show.

I regret telling him my secret.

I can remember meeting him when I was a child.

I resent her interfering in my business.

I couldn't resist eating the dessert.

She risks losing all of her money.

It started raining.

She stopped going to classes when she got sick.

She suggested going to a movie.

She won't tolerate cheating during an examination.

I tried changing the light bulb, but the lamp still didn't work.

I don't understand his leaving school.

The official urged using caution.

Reference List of Preposition Combinations Followed by Gerunds

Preposition Combinations + Gerunds			
1. apologize for	He apologized for forgetting his wife's birthday.	14. look forward to	I'm looking forward to going home.
2. approve of	The company manager approved of hiring me.	15. object to	The voters objected to increasing taxes.
3. blame someone for	She blamed him for stealing her phone.	16. participate in	The entire staff participated in welcoming students on the first day.
4. complain about / of	She complained about working too hard.	17. prevent someone from	Will the medicine prevent me from getting sick?
5. count on	I'm counting on going with you.	18. prohibit someone from	The police prohibited them from leaving.
6. dream about / of	He dreamed about / of flying an airplane.	19. stop someone from	Security stopped a passenger from getting on the subway.
7. forgive someone for	She forgave him for lying.	20. succeed in	He succeeded in getting the job.
8. have a reason for	He had a reason for being absent.	21. take advantage of	I'm taking advantage of having a free day tomorrow.
9. have an excuse for	Did you have an excuse for leaving early?	22. take care of	She took care of filling out the paperwork.
10. in addition to	In addition to studying, I have to work this weekend.	23. talk about / of	He talked about / of feeling homesick.
11. insist on	I insist on coming with you.	24. thank someone for	They thanked him for coming.
12. instead of	Instead of sitting there, why don't you help us?	25. think about / of	She thought about quitting her job.
13. keep someone from	Can a special pillow keep you from snoring?		
Preposition Combinations with Be + Gerunds			
1. be accused of	He was accused of stealing.	9. be interested in	I am interested in learning more about your country.
2. be accustomed to	She is accustomed to working hard.	10. be opposed to	He is opposed to going to war.
3. be afraid of	My kids are afraid of being alone.	11. be proud of	She was proud of knowing the answer.
4. be capable of	She is capable of memorizing long lists of words.	12. be responsible for	Who is responsible for repairing the roads?
5. be committed to	Dr. Pak is committed to improving medical care in rural areas.	13. be tired of / from	He was tired of running. He was tired from running.
6. be devoted to	They are devoted to helping the poor.	14. be used to	She is used to working weekends.
7. be excited about	She is excited about starting college.	15. be worried about	The driver was worried about getting a traffic ticket.
8. be guilty of	He was guilty of lying to the judge.		

Gerunds and Infinitives, Part 2

Infinitive of Purpose: In Order To

(a) He came here in order to study English. (b) He came here to study English. (c) Incorrect: He came here for studying English. (d) Incorrect: He came here for to study English. (e) Incorrect: He came here for study English.	In order to is used to express purpose. It answers the question “why?”. In order to is often omitted, as in (b).
	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).

Adjectives Followed by Infinitives

(a) We were sorry to hear the bad news. (b) I was surprised to see Ted at the meeting.		Certain adjectives can be immediately followed by infinitives, as in (a) and (b). In general, these adjectives describe a person (or persons), not a thing. Many of these adjectives describe a person's feelings or attitudes.		
Common adjectives followed by infinitives				
Glad to (do it)	Sorry to	Ready to	Careful to	Surprised to
Happy to	Sad to	Prepared to	Hesitant to	Amazed to
Pleased to	Upset to	Anxious to	Reluctant to	Astonished to

Delighted to	Disappointed to	Eager to	Afraid to	Shocked to
Content to	Embarrassed to	Willing to	Stunned to	Relieved to
Proud to	Motivated to	Certain to	Lucky to	Ashamed to
Determined to	Likely to	Unlikely to	Fortunate to	Excited to

Using Infinitives with Too and Enough

<p>(a) That box is too heavy for Bob to lift. (b) That box is very heavy, but Bob can lift it.</p>	<p>Too can be followed by an infinitive, as in (a). In the speaker's mind, the use of too implies a negative result.</p> <p>In (a): too heavy = it is impossible for Bob to lift that box. In (b): very heavy = it is possible but difficult for Bob to lift that box.</p>
<p>(c) I am strong enough to lift that box, I can lift it. (d) I have enough strength to lift that box. (e) I have strength enough to lift that box.</p>	<p>Enough can also be followed by an infinitive. Note the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enough follows the adjective, as in (c). • Usually enough precedes a noun, as in (d). • In formal English, it may follow a noun, as in (e).

Passive Infinitives and Gerunds: Present

<p>(a) I didn't expect to be asked to his party.</p>	<p>PASSIVE INFINITIVE: to be + past participle</p> <p>In (a): to be asked is a passive infinitive. The understood by-phrase is by him: I didn't expect to be asked to his party (by him).</p>
<p>(b) I appreciated being asked to his party.</p>	<p>PASSIVE GERUND: being + past participle</p> <p>In (b): being asked is a passive gerund. The understood by-phrase is by him: I appreciated being asked to his party (by him).</p>

him).

Past Forms of Infinitives and Gerunds: Active and Passive

<table><tr><td>SIMPLE</td><td>PAST ACTIVE</td><td>PAST PASSIVE</td></tr><tr><td>To tell</td><td>To have told</td><td>To have been told</td></tr><tr><td>telling</td><td>Having told</td><td>Having been told</td></tr></table>			SIMPLE	PAST ACTIVE	PAST PASSIVE	To tell	To have told	To have been told	telling	Having told	Having been told	Past Infinitives and gerunds use a form of have + past participle.	
SIMPLE	PAST ACTIVE	PAST PASSIVE											
To tell	To have told	To have been told											
telling	Having told	Having been told											
(a) Tim appeared to have told his wife about his job promotion.			PAST INFINITIVE: to have + past participle The event expressed in past phrases happened before the time of the main verb. The meaning in (a): It appeared that Tim had told his wife about his job promotion.										
(b) Tim’s wife was happy to have been told immediately about his job promotion.			PAST PASSIVE INFINITIVE: to have been + past participle The meaning in (b): Tim’s wife was happy that she had been told immediately about his job promotion.										
(c) He mentioned having told his wife immediately about his job promotion.			PAST GERUND: having + past participle The meaning in (c): He mentioned that he had told his wife immediately about his job promotion.										
(d) She appreciated having been told immediately about his job promotion.			PAST PASSIVE GERUND: having been + past participle The meaning in (d): She appreciated that she had been told immediately about his job promotion.										
(e) Tim mentioned telling his wife. Tim mentioned having told his wife.			Use of past infinitive or gerund emphasises that something occurred in the past, prior to another event.										

(f) She was happy to be told . She was happy to have been told .	In practice, however, there is little difference in meaning between the simple and past forms, as in (e) and (f).
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Using Gerunds or Passive Infinitives Following Need

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

Using Verbs of Perception

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

Verbs of perception followed by the simple form or the -ing form

see	Look at	Listen to	feel	smell
-----	---------	-----------	------	-------

notice	observe	hear		
watch				

Using the Simple Form After Let and Help

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

Using Causative Verbs: Make, Have, Get

(a) I made my brother carry my suitcase. (b) I had my brother carry my suitcase. (c) I got my brother to carry my suitcase. Simple form: X makes Y do something. Simple form: X has Y do something. Infinitive: X gets Y to do something.	Make, have, and get can be used to express the idea that "X" causes "Y" to do something. When they are used as causative verbs. Their meanings are similar but not identical. In (a): My brother has no choice. I insisted that he carry my suitcase. In (b): My brother carried my suitcase because I asked him to. In (c): I managed to persuade my brother to carry my suitcase.
Causative Make (d) Mrs. Lee made her son clean his room. (e) Sad movies make me cry.	Causative make is followed by the simple form of a verb, not an infinitive.
Causative Have (f) I had the plumber repair the leak. (g) Jane had the waiter bring her some tea.	Causative have is followed by the simple form of a verb, not an infinitive.
Causative Get	Causative get is followed by an infinitive.

(h) The students got the teacher to dismiss class early. (i) Jack got his friends to play soccer with him after school.	
Passive Causatives (j) I had my watch repaired (by someone). (k) I got my watch repaired (by someone).	The past participle is used after have and get to give a passive meaning. In this case, there is usually little or no difference in meaning between have and get. In (j) and (k): I caused my watch to be repaired by someone.

Using a Possessive to Modify a Gerund

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

Coordinating Conjunctions

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 conjunction is called "parallel conjunction". 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 shouting at us.	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)

(d) These shoes are old but comfortable.
 (e) He wants to watch TV or listen to some music.

In (d): adjective + but + adjective
 In (e): infinitive + or + infinitive (The second to is usually omitted.)

Parallel Structure: Using Commas

<p>(a) Steve and Joe are in class. (b) INCORRECT: Steve, and Joe are in class.</p>	<p>No commas are used when and connects 2 parts of a parallel structure, as in (a).</p>
<p>(c) Steve, Joe and Rita are in class. (d) Steve, Joe, and Rita are in class. (e) Steve, Joe, Rita, Jan and Kim are in class. (f) Steve, Joe, Rita, Jan, and Kim are in class.</p>	<p>When and connects three or more parts of a parallel structure, a comma is used between the first items in the series. A comma may also be used before and, as in (d) and (f). The use of this comma is optional. Note: A comma often represents a pause in speech.</p>

Punctuation for Independent Clauses; Connecting Them with And and But

<p>(a) It was raining hard. There was a strong wind. (b) INCORRECT: It was raining hard, there was a strong wind. (c) It was raining hard; there was a strong wind.</p>	<p>Example (a) contains two independent clauses (i.e., two complete sentence) Punctuation: A period, Not a comma, is used to separate two independent clauses. A semicolon may be used in place of a period. Semicolons are used between two closely related ideas.</p>
<p>(d) It was raining hard, and there was a strong wind. (e) It was raining hard. And there was a strong wind. (f) It was raining hard and there was a strong wind. (g) It was late, but he didn't care. (h) It was late. But he didn't care.</p>	<p>And and But (coordinating conjunctions) are often used to connect two independent clauses. Punctuation: Usually a comma immediately precedes the conjunction, as in (d) and (g). In formal writing, a writer might choose to begin a sentence with a conjunction, as in (e) and (h). In very short sentences, a writer might choose to omit the comma in front of and,</p>

Paired Conjunctions: Both ... And; Not Only ... But Also; Either ... Or; Neither ... Nor

(a) Both my mother and my sister are here.	Two subjects connected by both ... and take a plural verb, as in (a).
(b) Not only my mother but also my sister is here. (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.	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. Not only ... but also is used to emphasise or to indicate surprise. It should be used sparingly.
(f) The research project will take both time and money. (g) Sue saw not only a fox in the woods but also a bear. (h) I'll take either chemistry or physics next quarter. (i) That book is neither interesting nor accurate.	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 + noun + but also + noun In (h): either + noun + or + noun In (i): neither + adjective + nor + adjective Note: Paired conjunctions are usually used for emphasis; they draw attention to both parts of the parallel structure.

Adverb Clauses

Adverb clauses are used to show relationships between ideas. They show relationships of time, cause and effect, contrast, and condition.	
(a) When the phone rang, the baby woke up. (b) The baby woke up when the phone rang.	In (a) and (b): when the phone rang is an adverb clause of time. Examples (a) and (b) have the same meaning. Punctuation: When an adverb clause precedes a main clause, as in (a), a comma is used to separate the clauses. When the adverb clause follows, as in (b), usually no comma is used.

(c) Because he was sleepy, he went to bed. (d) He went to bed because he was sleepy.		In (c) and (d), because introduces an adverb clause that shows a cause-and-effect relationship.		
(e) INCORRECT: When we were in NewYork. 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 a main (or independent) clause.		
Summary list of words used to introduce adverb clauses**				
Time		Cause And Effect	Contrast	Condition
after	By the time (that)	because	Even though	if
before	once	Now that	although	unless
when	as/so long as	since	though	Only if
while	whenever		Direct Contrast	Whether or not
as	Every time (that)		while	Even if
As soon as	The first time (that)			In case
since	The last time (that)			
until	The next time (that)			

Using Adverb Clauses to Show Time Relationships

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

Using Adverb Clauses to Show Cause and Effect

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

Expressing Contrast (Unexpected Result): Using Even Though

(a) Because the weather was cold, I didn't go swimming. (b) Even though the weather was cold, I went swimming. (c) Because I wasn't tired, I didn't go to bed. (d) Even though I wasn't tired, I went to bed.	Because is used to express expected results. Even though is used to express unexpected results. Note: Like because, even though introduces an adverb clause.
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Showing Direct Contrast: While

(a) Mary is rich, while John is poor. (b) John is poor, while Mary is rich. (c) While John is poor, Mary is rich. (d) While Mary is rich, John is poor.	While is used to show direct contrast: “this is exactly the opposite of that.” All examples on the left side have the same meaning. Note the use of comma in (a) and (b): In using while for direct contrast, a comma is often used even if the while-clause comes second.
Compare: (e) The phone rang while I was studying.	While is also used in time clauses and means “during that time,” as in (e).

Expressing Conditions in Adverb Clauses: If-Clauses

(a) If it rains tomorrow, I will take my umbrella.	If-clauses (also called “adverb clauses of condition”) present possible conditions. The main clause expresses results. In (a): Possible Condition = it may rain tomorrow Result = I will take an umbrella A present tense, not a future tense, is used in an if-clause even though the verb in the if-clause may refer to a future event or situation, as in (a).
Words that introduce adverb clauses of condition (if-clauses) If, even if, unless, whether or not, in case, only if	

Shortened If-Clauses

(a) Are you a student? If so / if you are, the ticket is half-price. If not / if you aren't, the ticket is full price. (b) It's a popular concert. Do you have a ticket? If so / if you do, you're lucky. If not / if you don't, you're out of luck.	When an if-clause refers to the idea in the sentence immediately before it, it is sometimes shortened.
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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.
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.

Adverb Clauses of Condition: Using In Case

(a) I'll be at my uncle's house in case you (should) need to reach me.	In case expresses the idea that something probably won't happen, but it might. In case means "if by chance this should happen." Note: using should in an adverb clause emphasises the speaker's uncertainty that something will happen.
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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
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Adverb Clauses of Condition: Using Only If

<p>(a) The picnic will be cancelled 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.</p>	<p>Only if expresses the idea that there is only one condition that will cause a particular result.</p>
<p>(b) Only if it rains will the picnic be cancelled.</p>	<p>When if only begins a sentence, the subject and verb of the main clause are inverted, as in (b). This is a less common usage. No commas are used.</p>

Reduction of Adverb Clauses to Modifying Adverbial Phrases

Introduction

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

Changing Time Clauses to Modifying Adverbial Phrases

<p>(a) Clause: Since Maria came to this country, she has made many friends. (b) Phrase: Since coming to this country, Maria has made many friends.</p> <p>(c) Clause: When Tyrell cooks, he uses a lot of spices. (d) Phrase: When cooking, Tyrell uses a lot of spices.</p>	<p>Adverb clauses beginning with after, before, when,* while, and since can be changed to modifying adverbial phrases.</p>
<p>(e) Clause: After he (had) finished his homework, Peter went to bed. (f) Phrase: After finishing his homework, Peter went to bed. (g) Phrase: After having finished his homework, Peter went to bed.</p>	<p>In (e): There is no difference in meaning between after he finished and after he had finished. In (f) and (g): There is no difference in meaning between after finishing and after having finished.</p>
<p>(h) Phrase: Peter went to bed after finishing his homework.</p>	<p>The modifying adverbial phrase may follow the main clause, as in (h).</p>

Expressing the Idea of “During the Same Time” in Modifying Adverbial Phrases

<p>(a) While I was walking down the street, I ran into an old friend. (b) While walking down the street, I ran into an old friend. (c) Walking down the street, I ran into an old friend.</p>	<p>Sometimes while is omitted, but the -ing phrase at the beginning of the sentence gives the same meaning (i.e., “during the same time”). Examples (a), (b), and (c) have the same meaning.</p>
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Expressing Cause and Effect in Modifying Adverbial Phrases

<p>(a) Because she needed some money to buy a book, Sue went to a cash machine. (b) Needing some money to buy a book, Sue went to a cash machine. (c) Because he lacked the necessary qualifications, he was not considered for the job. (d) Lacking the necessary qualifications, he was not considered for the job.</p>	<p>Often an -ing phrase at the beginning of a sentence gives the meaning of “because.” Examples (a) and (b) have the same meaning. Because is not included in a modifying phrase. It is omitted, but the resulting phrase expresses a cause and effect relationship, as in (d) and (d).</p>
<p>(e) Having seen that movie before, I don’t want to go again. (f) Having seen that movie before, I didn’t want to go again.</p>	<p>Having + past participle gives the meaning not only of “because” but also of “before”</p>
<p>(g) Because he is a doctor, Oskar often gets calls in the middle of the night. (h) Being a doctor, Oskar often gets calls in the middle of the night.</p>	<p>A form of be in the adverb clause may be changed to being. The use of being makes the cause-and-effect relationship clear.</p>

(i) Because she was unable to afford a car, she bought a bike. (j) Unable to afford a car, she bought a bike. (k) Being unable to afford a car, she bought a bike.	Examples (i), (j), and (k) have the same meaning.
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Using Upon + -ing in Modifying Adverbial Phrases

(a) Upon reaching the age of 18, I can get my driver's license. (b) When I reach the age of 18, I can get my driver's license.	Modifying adverbial phrases beginning with upon + -ing can have the same meaning as adverb clauses introduced by when. Examples (a) and (b) have the same meaning.
(c) On reaching the age of 18, I can get my driver's license.	Upon can be shortened to on. Examples (a), (b), and (c) all have the same meaning.

Connectives That Express Cause and Effect, Contrast, and Condition

Introduction

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

*	Adverb-Clause Words	Transitions	Conjunctions	Prepositions
Cause And Effect	Because Since Now that So (that)	Therefore Consequently	So	Because of Due to
Contrast	Even though Although Though While	However Nevertheless Nonetheless On the other hand	But (... anyway) Yet (... still)	Despite In spite of
Condition	If Unless Only if Even if Whether or not In case	Otherwise	Or (else)	

Using Because of and Due To

(a) Because the weather was cold, we stayed home.	Because introduces an adverb clause; it is followed by a subject and a verb, as in (a).
(b) Because of the cold weather, we stayed home. (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 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).

Cause and Effect: Using Therefore, Consequently, and So

<p>(a) Ali failed the test because he didn't study. (b) Ali didn't study. Therefore, he failed the test. (c) Ali didn't study. Consequently, he failed the test.</p>	<p>Examples (a), (b), and (c) have the same meaning. Therefore and consequently mean "as a result." In grammar, they are called transitions (or conjunctive adverbs). Transitions connect the ideas between two sentences. They are used most commonly in formal written English and rarely in spoken English.</p>
<p>(d) Ali didn't study. Therefore, he failed the test. (e) Ali didn't study. He, therefore, failed the test. (f) Ali didn't study. He failed the test, therefore. POSITIONS OF TRANSITION: Transition + S + V (+ rest of sentence) S + transition + V (+ rest of sentence) S + V + (+ rest of sentence) + transition</p>	<p>A transition occurs in the second of two related sentences. Notice the pattern and punctuation in the examples. A period (not a comma) is used at the end of the first sentence. The transition has several positions in the second sentence. It is separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.</p>
<p>(g) Ali didn't study, so he failed the test.</p>	<p>In (g): So is used as a conjunction between two independent clauses. It has the same meaning as therefore. So is common in both formal writing and spoken English. A comma usually precedes so when it connects two sentences, as in (g).</p>

Summary of Patterns and Punctuation

ADVERB CLAUSES	<p>(a) Because it was hot, we went swimming. (b) We went swimming because it was hot.</p>	<p>An adverb clause may precede or follow an independent clause. Punctuation: a comma is used if the adverb clause comes first.</p>
PREPOSITIONS	<p>(c) Because of the hot weather, we went swimming. (d) We went swimming because of the hot weather.</p>	<p>A preposition is followed by a noun object, not by a subject and verb. Punctuation: a comma is usually used if the prepositional phrase precedes the subject and verb of the independent clause.</p>
TRANSITIONS	<p>(e) It was hot. Therefore, we went swimming. (f) It was hot. We, therefore, went swimming.</p>	<p>A transition is used with the second sentence of a pair. It shows the relationship of the second idea to</p>

	(g) It was hot. We went swimming, therefore. (h) It was hot; therefore, we went swimming.	the first idea. A transition is movable within the second sentence. Punctuation: A semicolon (;) may be used in place of a period, as in (h).
CONJUNCTIONS	(i) It was hot, so we went swimming.	A conjunction comes between two independent clauses. Punctuation: usually a comma is used immediately in front of a conjunction.

Other Ways of Expressing Cause and Effect: Such ... That and So ... That

(a) Because the weather was nice, we went to the zoo. (b) It was such nice weather that we went to the zoo. (c) The weather was so nice that we went to the zoo.	Examples (a), (b), and (c) have the same meaning.
(d) It was such good coffee that I had another cup. (e) It was such a foggy day that we couldn't see the road.	Such ... that encloses a modified noun: Such + adjective + noun + that
(f) The coffee is so hot that I can't drink it. (g) I'm so hungry that I could eat a horse. (h) She speaks so fast that I can't understand her. (i) He walked so quickly that I couldn't keep up with him.	So ... that encloses an adjective or adverb: So + adjective or adverb + that
(j) She made so many mistakes that she failed the exam. (k) He has so few friends that he is always lonely. (l) She has so much money that she can buy whatever she wants. (m) He had so little trouble with the test that he left 20 minutes early.	So ... that is used with many, few, much and little.
(n) It was such a good book (that) I couldn't put it down. (o) I was hungry (that) I didn't wait for dinner to eat something.	Sometimes, primarily in speaking, that is omitted.

Expressing Purpose: Using So That

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

Showing Contrast (Unexpected Result)

<p>All of these sentences have the same meaning. The idea of cold weather is contrasted with the idea of going swimming. Usually if the weather is cold, one does not go swimming, so going swimming in cold weather is an "unexpected result". It is surprising that the speaker went swimming in cold weather.</p>		
<p>Adverb Clauses</p>	<p>Even though Although Though</p>	<p>(a) Even though it was cold, I went swimming. (b) Although it was cold, I went swimming. (c) Though it was cold, I went swimming.</p>
<p>Conjunctions</p>	<p>But ... anyway But ... still Yet ... still</p>	<p>(d) It was cold, but I went swimming (anyway). (e) It was cold, but I (still) went swimming. (f) It was cold, yet I (still) went swimming.</p>

Transitions	Nevertheless Nonetheless However ... still	(g) It was cold. Nevertheless, I went swimming. (h) It was cold; nonetheless, I went swimming. (i) It was cold. However, I (still) went swimming.
Prepositions	Despite In spite of Despite the fact that In spite of the fact that	(j) I went swimming despite the cold weather. (k) I went swimming in spite of the cold weather. (l) I went swimming despite the fact that the weather was cold. (m) I went swimming in spite of the fact that the weather was cold.

Showing Direct Contrast

All of the sentences have the same meaning: "This" is the opposite of "That."		
Adverb Clauses	While	(a) Mary is rich, while John is poor. (b) John is poor, while Mary is rich.
Conjunctions	But	(c) Mary is rich, but John is poor. (d) John is poor, but Mary is rich.
Transitions	However	(e) Mary is rich; however, John is poor. (f) John is poor, Mary is rich, however.
	On the other hand	(g) Mary is rich. John, on the other hand, is poor. (h) John is poor. Mary, on the other hand, is rich.

Expressing Conditions: Using Otherwise and Or (Else)

Adverb Clauses	(a) If I don't eat breakfast, I get hungry. (b) You'll be late if you don't hurry. (c) You'll get wet unless you take your umbrella.	If and unless state conditions that produce certain results.
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Transitions	(d) I always eat breakfast. Otherwise, I get hungry during class. (e) You'd better hurry. Otherwise, you'll be late. (f) Take your umbrella. Otherwise, you'll get wet.	Otherwise expresses the idea "if the opposite is true, then there will be a certain result." In (d): otherwise = if I don't eat breakfast
Conjunctions	(g) I always eat breakfast, or (else) I get hungry during class. (h) You'd better hurry, or (else) you'll be late. (i) Take your umbrella, or (else) you'll get wet.	Or else and otherwise have the same meaning.

Conditional Sentences and Wishes

Overview of Basic Verb Forms Used in Conditional Sentences

Conditional sentences express the idea of if ... then These sentences can talk about real situations - facts, regularly occurring events, etc. - and unreal situations - imaginary or impossible ones.			
Situation	If-Clause	Result Clause	Examples
Real in the present Real in the future	Simple Present	Simple form of the verb Will + simple form	If I have enough time, I watch TV every evening. If I have enough time, I will watch TV later on tonight.
Unreal in the present / future	Simple Past	Would + simple form	If I had enough time, I would watch TV now or later on.
Unreal in the past	Past Perfect	Would have + past participle	If I had enough time, I would have watched TV yesterday.

Expressing Real Conditions in the Present of Future

(a) If I don't eat breakfast, I always get hungry during class. (b) If I don't eat breakfast tomorrow morning, I will get hungry during class.	In conditional sentences that express real or true, factual ideas in the present/future, the simple present (not the simple future) is used in the if-clause.
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<p>(c) Water freezes if the temperature reaches 32F/0C. (d) Water will freeze if the temperature reaches 32F/0C.</p>	<p>The result clause has various possible verb forms. A result clause verb can be:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The simple present, to express a habitual activity or situation, as in (a). • The simple future, to express a particular activity or situation in the future, as in (b). • The simple present or simple future, to express an established, predictable fact or general truth, as in (c) and (d).
<p>(e) If it rains, we should stay home. If it rains, I might decide to stay home. If it rains, we can't go. If it rains, we're going to stay home.</p>	<p>The result clause can also include modals and phrasal modals such as should, might, can, be going to, as in (e).</p>
<p>(f) If anyone calls, please take a message. (g) If anyone should call, please take a message.</p>	<p>An imperative verb can be used in the result clause, as in (f). Sometimes should is used in an if-clause, as in (g). It indicates a little more uncertainty than the use of the simple present, but basically the meaning of examples (f) and (g) is the same.</p>

Unreal (Contrary to Fact) in the Present or Future

<p>(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.</p>	<p>In (a): actually, I don't teach this class. In (b): actually, he is not here right now. In (c): actually, I am not you. Note: were is used for both singular and plural subjects. Was (with I, he, she, it) is sometimes used in very informal speech: If I was you, I'd accept their invitation.</p>
<p>Compare: (d) If I had enough money, I would buy a car. (e) If I had enough money, I could buy a car.</p>	<p>In (d): the speaker wants a car but doesn't have enough money. Would expresses desired or predictable results. In (e): the speaker expressing one possible result. Could = would be able to; could expresses possible options.</p>

Unreal (Contrary to Fact) in the Past

<p>(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.</p>	<p>In (a): actually, you did not tell me about it. In (b): actually, they did not study. Therefore, they failed the exam. In (c): actually, I slipped on the stairs. I broke my arm.</p> <p>Note: The auxiliary verbs are often reduced in speech. "If you'd told me, I would've helped you (or I-duv helped you)."</p>
<p>Compare: (d) If I had enough money, I would have bought a car. (e) If I had had enough money, I could have bought a car.</p>	<p>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</p>

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

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.
<p>(a) Real Situation: I did not eat breakfast several hours ago, so I am hungry now. (b) Conditional Statement: If I had eaten breakfast several hours ago, I would not be hungry now.</p>
<p>(c) Real Situation: He is not a good student. He did not study for the test yesterday.</p>

(d) If he were a good student, he would have studied for the test yesterday.

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

Implied Condition

- (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 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

Wishes About the Present and Past

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

*

"True" Statement

Verb Form Following Wish

Wish can be followed by a noun clause. Past verb forms, similar to those in conditional sentences, are

A wish about the present	(a) I don't know French. (b) It is raining right now. (c) I can't speak Japanese.	I wish (that) I knew French. I wish it weren't raining right now. I wish I could speak Japanese.	used in the noun clause. To make a wish about the present, a past verb form is used, as in (a)-(c). In (d), the past perfect (had come) is used to make a wish about the past.
A wish about the past	(d) John didn't come. (e) Mary couldn't come.	I wish John had come. I wish Mary could have come.	
(f) I wish I could come. (It's not possible. I can't come.) (g) I hope I can come. (it's a possibility. Maybe I can come.)			Note the difference between wish and hope. Wish is used for unreal, contrary-to-fact situations. Hope is used for real or possible situations.

Wishes About the Future; Use of Wish + Would

(a) He isn't going to be here next week. I wish he were going to be here next week. (b) She can't come tomorrow. I wish she could come tomorrow. (c) She won't tell you. I wish she would tell you. (d) I wish I could go with you.	Wishes about the future can be expressed with were going to, could, or would. The speaker wants the situation to be the opposite of what it will be. Could, not would, is used when the speaker is making a wish with I, as in (d). Incorrect: I wish I would go with you.
(e) It is raining. I wish it would stop.	Wish + Would can be used when the speaker wants an action or event to change, as in (e). Note that it cannot be used for situations. Incorrect: I wish you would know the answer.
(f) I wish you would leave now.	Wish + would can also be used to make a strong request, as in (f).