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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 | song |
| 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, nin 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 /ǝv/
* Has can sound like /z/ or /ǝz/
* Has can sound like /s/ or /ǝs/

Note: “ǝ” 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 expression 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.=> Same 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 /ǝd/

## 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=>kangroos |
| --- | --- | --- |
| kilo=>kilos | memo=>memos | photo=>photos |
| piano=>pianos | radio=>radios | solo=>solos |
| soprano=>sopranos | studio=>studios | tattoo=>tattoos |
| video=>videos | zoo=>zoos |  |

* 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: /ǝz/

*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 | * May be preceded by a/an or one in the singular. * Takes a final -s/-es in the plural. |
| NONCOUNT NOUN | Some furniture  A lot of furniture  Much furniture | - | * 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, studing, 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

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

## Singular Expressions of Quantity: One, Each, Every

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

## Using Of in Expressions of Quantity

| A number of movies came out today.  None of my friends are available today. | 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 |
| --- | --- |
| Many movies are available today.  Many of the movies are free.  Most of the movies won awards.  One of these movies is really funny.  Many of the movies are in Spanish.  Some of them have subtitles. | In the following expressions, of is optional:  One, two, etc.(of)  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)  When Of is used with these expressions, the noun must be modified by:   * An article * A demonstrative * A possessive |
| Every movie had a review.  No movie is perfect. | Every and No are never used with Of. |

# 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

| The sun is bright today.  Please hand this book to the teacher.  Please open the door.  Omar is in the kitchen. | 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. |
| --- | --- |
| 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. | Use “the” for the second mention of an indefinite noun. |
| Apples are my favorite fruit.  Gold is metal. | Don’t use “the” with a plural count noun or a noncount noun. |
| I drove a car. / I drove the car.  I drove that car.  I drove his car. | A singular count noun is always preceded by:   * An article (a/an or the) * This / that * A possessive adjective |

## Using “The” With Titles and Geographic Names

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

# 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 |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 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 ~~cans~~ 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.  Have to do it.  Have got to do it. | Phrasal modals are common expressions whose meanings are similar to those of some of the modal auxiliaries.  For example: be able to is similar to can; be going to is similar to will.  An infinitive (to + the simple form of a verb) is used in these similar expressions. |

## Expressing Necessity: Must, Have To, Have Got To

| **Must, Have To** | |
| --- | --- |
| All applicants must take an entrance exam.  All applicants have to take an entrance exam. | Most, and have to both express necessity. The meaning is the same in the left examples. |
| 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.  Cell phones must be in your backpacks during class.  Johnny, you must stay away from the stove. It is very hot.  Do you have to leave? | In statements of necessity, have to is used more frequently in everyday speech and writing than must.  Must is typically stronger than have to and indicates urgency or importance. Must is usually found in rules, written instructions, or legal information.  Adults also use must when talking to young children about rules.  Have to, not must, is commonly used in questions. |
| I have to (hafta) be home by eight.  He has to (hasta) go to a meeting tonight. | Native speakers often say “hafta” and “hasta” as in the left examples. |
| **Have Got To** | |
| 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? | 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. |
| I have got to go (I’ve gotta go / I gotta go) now. | The usual pronunciation of got to is “gotta”. Sometimes have is dropped in speech. |

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

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

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

| You should study harder.  You ought to study harder.  Drivers should obey the speed limit.  Drivers ought to obey the speed limit. | Should, and ought to both express advisability. Their meaning ranges in strength from a suggestion. (This is a good idea) |
| --- | --- |
| I ought to (“otta”) study tonight, but I think I’ll watch TV instead. | Native speakers often pronounce ought to as “otta” in informal English. |
| You shouldn’t leave your keys in the car. | Negative contraction: shouldn’t.  Ought to is not commonly used in the negative. |
| 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. | 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.  Notes on the use of had better:   * It has a present or future meaning. * It is followed by the simple form of a verb. * It is more common in speaking than writing. |
| You’d better take care of it. | Contraction: ‘d better  In spoken English, you may not hear the “d” in you’d.  However, ‘d is necessary for writing. |
| You’d better not be late. | Negative form: had better + not |
| I’m having trouble in math class.  You could talk to your teacher.  I could try to help you.  You should talk to your teacher.  Maybe you should talk to your teacher. | Could can also be used to make suggestions. It is possible to do this or it is possible to do that.  Should is stronger and more definite than could. |

## Expectation: Be Supposed To/Should

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

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

| Tom is strong. He can lift that heavy box.  I can see Central Park from my apartment.  My husband cannot stay awake past 10:00.  We can’t wait any longer for Bill. | Can is used to express physical ability.  Can is frequently used with verbs of the five senses: see, hear, feel, smell, and, taste.  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.  Informal: Sure. | 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” |
| **“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** | |
| --- | --- |
| Would you mind if I opened the window?  Would you mind if I used the phone?  Mind if I close the door?  No, Not at all.  No, of course not.  No, that would be fine. | Would you mind if is followed by the simple past.  Would you mind if can be shortened to Mind if.  Notice that the typical response is “no”. “Yes” means yes, I mind. In other words, it is problem for me. |
| **Asking Someone to Do Something** | |
| Would you mind opening the window?  Excuse me. Would you mind repeating that?  No, I’d be happy to.  Not at all. I’d be glad to.  No problem/Sure/Ok. | Would you mind is followed by the -ing form of a verb. (a gerund)  Native speakers understand that the informal response “sure” or “Ok” in this situation means that the speaker agrees to the request. |

## 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

| Present:  Julia has to get a visa.  Julia has got to get a visa.  Julia must get a visa.  Past:  Julia had to get a visa. | Past necessity: had to  There are no other past form for must (when it means necessity) or have got to |
| --- | --- |
| 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.  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. | Past advisability:  Should have + past participle  Ought to + past participle  In the past, should is more common than ought to. The past form of had better (had better have) is almost never used.  Usual pronunciation of should have: “should-ev” or “should-e” |
| Present:  We are supposed to leave now.  Past:  We were supposed to leave last week. | was/were supposed to: unfulfilled exceptation or obligation in the past. |
| Present:  The mail should be here.  Past:  The mail should have been here by now. | Should have + past participle: past exceptation |

## Expressing Past Ability

| I can speak Farsi.  I could speak Farsi ten years ago.  I am able to speak Farsi.  I was able to speak Farsi ten years ago. | Past ability:  Could  was/were able to |
| --- | --- |
| Maya was able to do well on her exam.  Maya did well on her exam. | 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 |

## Degrees of Certainty: Present Time

| Why isn’t John in class?  100% sure: He is sick.  95% sure: He must be sick.  50% sure or less:  He may be sick.  He might be sick.  He could be sick. | Degree of certainty refers to how sure we are - what we think the chances are - that something is true.  If we a re sure something is true in the present, we don’t need to use a modal. |
| --- | --- |
| Maybe he is sick. | Maybe (one word) is an adverb.  May be (two word) is a verb form. |

## Degrees of Certainty: Present Time Negative

| 100% sure: Sam isn’t hungry.  99%:  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. |
| --- |

## 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. |

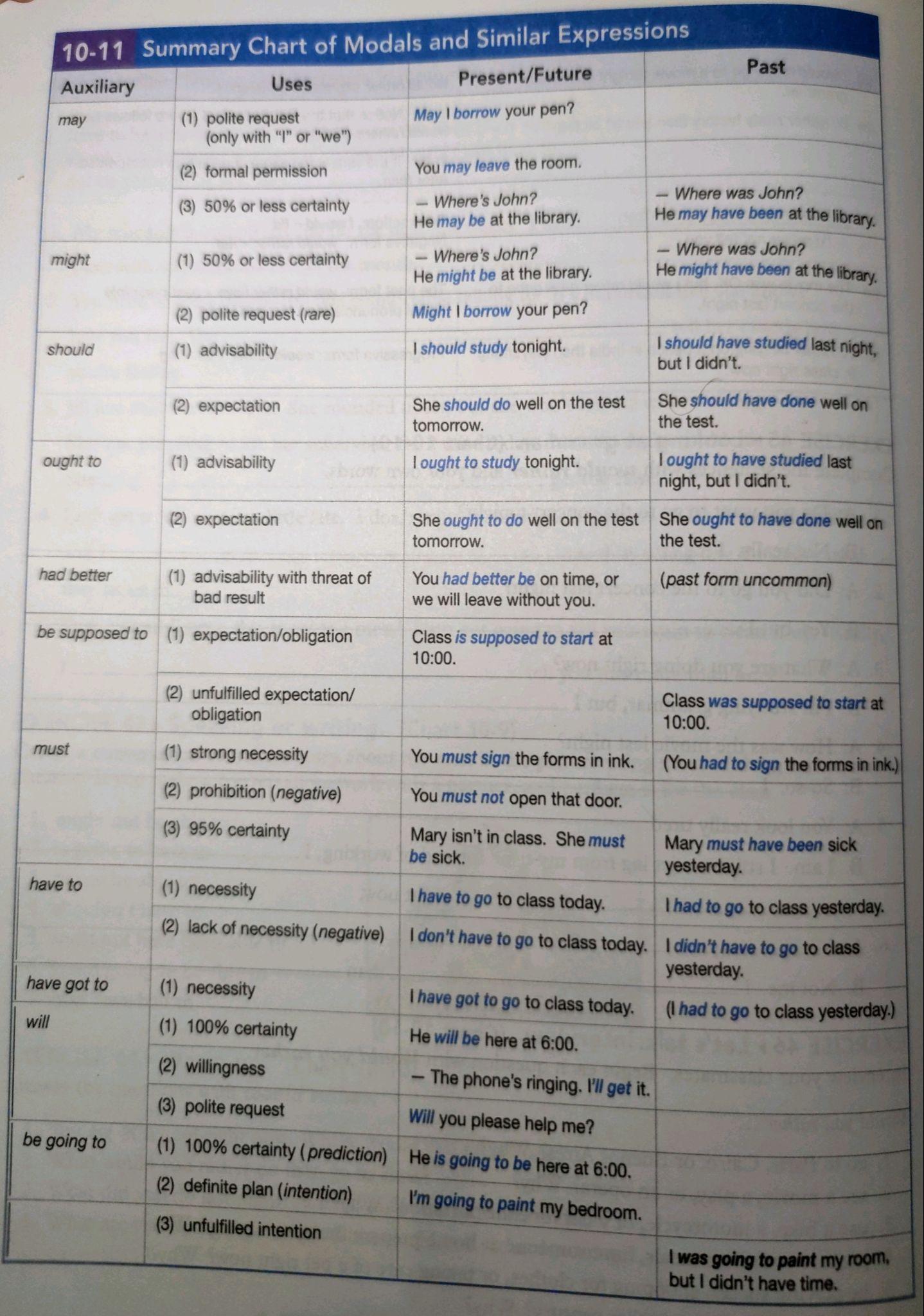
## Combining Modals with Phrasal Modals

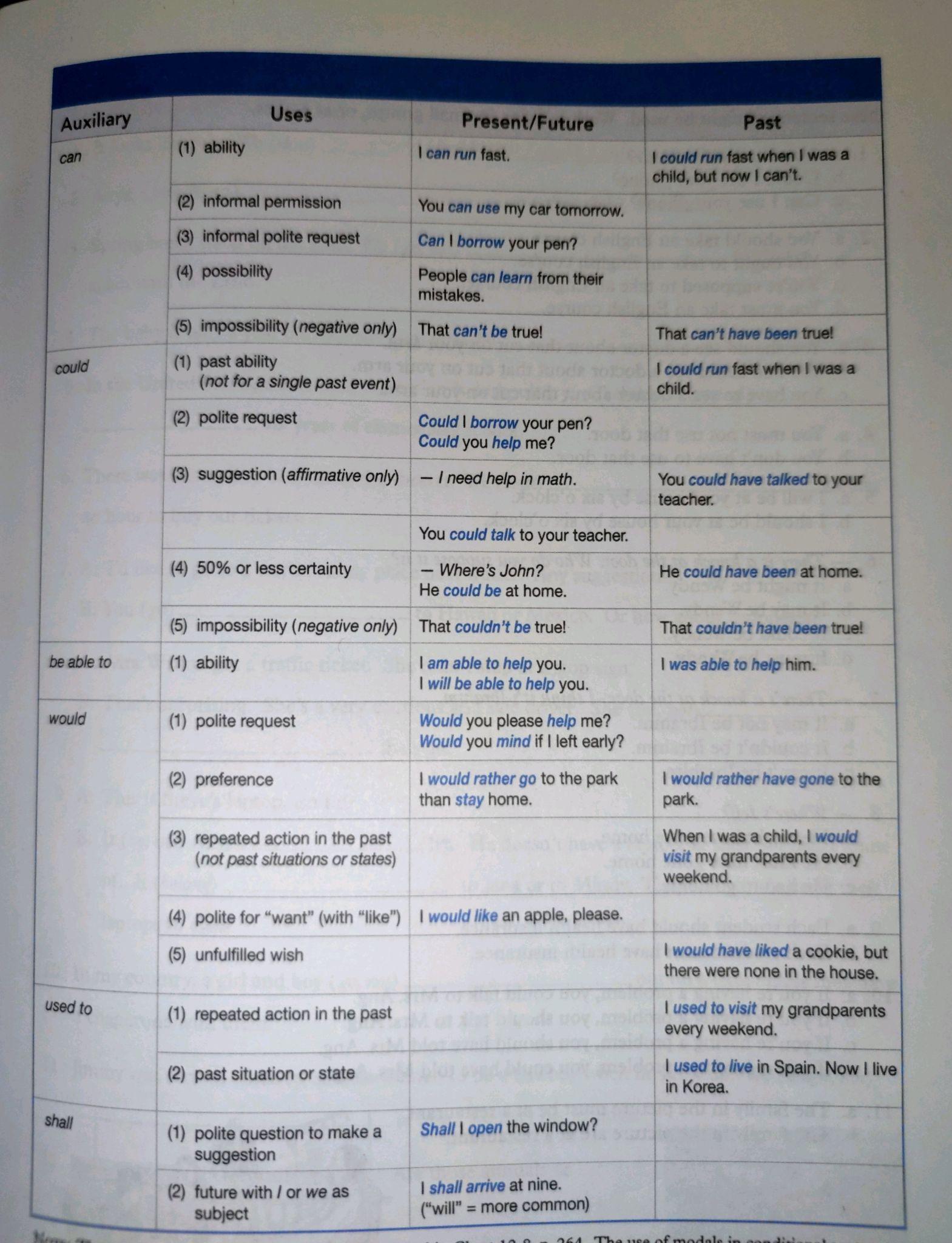
| Janet will ~~can~~ help you tomorrow. | A modal cannot be immediately followed by another modal. |
| --- | --- |
| Janet will be able to help you tomorrow.  You will have to pick her up at her home. | A modal can, however, be followed by the phrasal modals “be able to” and “have to”. |
| Tom isn’t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





# Passive

## Active vs. Passive

| Active: Mary helped the boy.  Passive: The boy was helped by Mary. | 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. |
| --- | --- |
| He is helped by her.  He was helped by her.  He will be helped by her. | Form of the passive: be + past participle |
| Active: An accident happened.  Passive: (none) | 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. |

## Tense Forms of the Passive

| Tenses | Active | Passive |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1. Simple present 2. Present progressive 3. Present perfect 4. Simple past 5. Past progressive 6. Past perfect 7. Simple future 8. Be going to 9. Future perfect | 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. | 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. |
| 1. Questions | Is Mary helping the boy?  Did Mary help the boy?  Has Mary helped the boy?  Will Mary help the boy? | Is the boy being helped by Mary?  Was the boy helped by Mary?  Has the boy been helped by Mary?  Wil the boy be helped by Mary? |

## Using the Passive

| Rice is grown in India.  Our house was built in 1980.  This olive oil was imported from Crete. | Usually the passive is used without a by-phrase. The passive is most frequently used when it is not known or not important to know exactly who performs an action. |
| --- | --- |
| My aunt made this rug. (active) | If the speaker knows who performs an action, usually the active is used. |
| This rug was made by my aunt.  That rug was made by my mother.  Rahmati Novel was written by Mark Rahmati. | 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** |
| --- |
| 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. |
| **Past-passive form: modal + have been + past participle** |
| 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. |

## Stative (Non-Progressive) Passive

| The door is old.  The door is green.  The door is locked. | Old and green are adjectives. They describe the door.  Locked is a past participle. It is used as an adjective. It describes the door. |
| --- | --- |
| I locked the door five minutes ago.  The door was locked by me five minutes ago.  Now the door is locked.  Ann broke the window yesterday.  The window was broken by Ann.  Now the window is broken. | When the passive form is used to describe an existing situation or state, it is called “stative” or “non-progressive” passive. In this form:   * No action is taking place; the action happened earlier. * There is no by-phrase * The past participle functions as an adjective |
| I am interested in Chinese art.  He is satisfied with this job.  Ann is married to Alex. | Prepositions other than “by” can follow stative passive verbs. |
| 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. | Left sentences are examples of idiomatic usage of the passive form in common, everyday English. These sentences have no equivalent active sentences. |

## Common Stative (Non-Progressive) Passive Verbs + Prepositions

| I’m interested in culture.  He’s worried about losing his job. | Many stative verbs are followed by prepositions other than “by”. |
| --- | --- |
| Be concerned  Be excited  Be worried | about |
| 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  Be opposed  Be related | to |
| 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

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

# Noun Clauses

## Introduction

| In the park  On a rainy day  Her grandparents in Turkey | Sentences contain phrases and clauses.  A phrase   * Is a group of words * Does not contain a subject and a verb * Is not a sentence |
| --- | --- |
| He went running in the park.  She visited her grandparents in Turkey. | A clause   * Is a group of words * Contains a subject and a verb |
| Sue lives in Tokyo. (independent clause)  Where does Sue live? (independent clause) | Clauses can be dependent or independent.  An independent clause   * Contains the main subject and verb * Is the main clause of the sentence * May be a statement or a question * Can stand alone |
| Where Sue lives? (dependent clause) | A dependent clause   * Is not a complete sentence. * Cannot stand alone. * Must be connected to a main clause. |
| We don’t know where Sue lives. (noun clause) | 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. |

## Noun Clauses with Question Words

| **Question** | **Noun Clause** | **-** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 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? | What she said (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 of 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

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

## Noun Clauses with That

| **Verb + That-Clause** | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| I think that Bob will come.  I think Bob will come. | | “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.  See the list below for verbs commonly followed by a that-clause. | |
| Agree that  Believe that  Decide that  Discover that  Explain that | Feel that  Find out that  Forget that  Hear that  Hope that | Know that  Learn that  Notice that  Promise that  Read that | Remember that  Say that  Tell someone that  Think that  Understand that |
| **Person + Be + Adjective + That-Clause** | | | |
| Jan is happy (that) Bob called. | | That-clauses commonly follow certain adjectives, such as happy in the left example, when the subject refers to a person. (or persons) | |
| 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** | | | |
| That Ann likes her new job is clear.  The fact (that) Ann likes her new job is clear.  It is a fact (that) Ann likes her new job. | | 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** | |
| --- | --- |
| She said**, “**My brother is a student**.”**  **“**My brother is a student**,”** she said.  **“**My brother**,”** she said**,** **“is** a student**.”** | 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.  Use a comma, not a period, at the end of the quoted sentence when it precedes “she said”.  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”. |
| **Quoting More Than One Sentence** | |
| **“**My brother is a student. He is attending a university**,”** she said.  **“**My brother is a student**,”** she said. **“He** is attending a university**.”** | Quotation marks are placed at the beginning and end of the complete quote. Notice: there are no quotation marks after student.  Since “she said” comes between two quoted sentences, the second sentence begins with quotation marks and a capital letter. |
| **Quoting a Question or an Exclamation** | |
| She asked, **“W**hen will you be here**?”**  **“W**hen will you be here**?”** she asked.  She said, **“**Watch out**!”** | 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”  The exclamation point is inside the closing quotation marks. |
| “My brother is a student,” said Anna.  **“**My brother is a student**,”** she said. | 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. |
| “Let’s leave,” whispered Dave.  “Please help me,” begged the homeless man.  “Well,” Jack began, “It’s a long story.” | Say and asl are the most commonly used quote verbs.  Some others: add, agree, announce, answer, beg, begin, comment, complain, confess, continue, explain, inquire, promise, remark, reply, respond, shout, suggest, whisper. |

## 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. |
| “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. | | If the reporting verb is simple past, the verb in the noun clause will usually be in past form. Here are some guidelines:  Simple present -> Simple past  Present continuous -> Past continuous  Simple past -> No change or past perfect  Present perfect -> Past perfect  Past perfect -> No change |
| Immediate reporting:   * What did the teacher just say? * He said he wants us to read.   Later reporting:   * I didn’t go to class yesterday. Did Mr. Jones give any assignments? * Yes. He said he wanted us to read. | | 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. |
| “Leave.” | She told me to leave. | In reported speech, an imperative sentence is changed to an infinitive. Tell is used instead of say as the reporting verb. |

## Reported Speech: Modal Verbs in Noun Clauses

| “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. | The following modal and phrasal modal verbs changes when the reporting verb is in the past.  Can -> could  May -> may/might  Must -> had to  Have to -> had to  Will -> would  am/is/are going to -> was/were going to |
| --- | --- |
| “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. | The following modals do not change when the reporting verb is in the past.  Should  Ought to  Might |

## The Subjunctive in Noun Clause

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

# Adjective Clauses

## Adjective Clause Pronouns Used as the Subject

| I thanked the woman who helped me.  I thanked the woman that helped me.  The book that is on the table is mine.  The book which is on the table is mine. | I thanked the woman = a main clause  Who helped me = an adjective clause  An adjective clause modifies a noun. |
| --- | --- |
| “Who” is the subject of the adjective clause.  “That” is the subject of the adjective clause.  In speaking, “who” and “that” are both commonly used as subject pronouns to describe people. “Who” is more common in writing. |
| Summary:  Who = used for people  That = used for both people and things  Which = used for things |
| The book that is on the table is mine.  The book is mine ~~that is on the table.~~ | An adjective clause closely follows the noun it modifies. |

## Adjective Clause Pronouns Used as the Object of a verb

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

## Adjective Clause Pronouns Used as the Object of a Preposition

| She is the woman.  I told you about her.   * 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.   The music was good.  We listened to it last night.   * 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. | In very formal English, the preposition comes at the beginning of the adjective clause. Usually, however, in everyday usage, the preposition comes after the 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

| I know the man.  His bike was stolen.  I know the man whose bike was stolen.  The student writes well.  I read her composition.  The student whose composition I read writes well. | “Whose” is used to show possession. It carries the same meaning as other possessive pronouns used as adjectives: his, her, its, and their.  Like his, her, its, and their, “whose” is connected to a noun.  His bike -> whose bike  Her composition -> whose composition  Both “whose” and the noun it is connected to are placed at the beginning of the adjective clause. “whose” cannot be omitted. |
| --- | --- |
| 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. |
| 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. | “Whose” and “who’s” have the same pronunciation.  “Who’s” can mean “who is”, or “who has” |

## Using Where in Adjective Clauses

| The building is very old.  He lives there (in that building).  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. | “Where” is used in an adjective clause to modify a place (city, country, room, house)  If “where” is used, a preposition is not included in the adjective clause.  If “where” is not used, the preposition must be included. “In which” is more common in academic writing. |
| --- | --- |

## Using When in Adjective Clauses

| I’ll never forget the day.  I met you then (on that day).  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. | “When” is used in an adjective clause to modify a noun of time (year, day, time, century, etc).  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. |
| --- | --- |

## Using Adjective Clauses to Modify Pronouns

| There is **someone** I want you to meet.  **Everything** he said was pure nonsense.  **Anybody** who wants to come is welcome. | Adjective clauses can modify indefinite pronouns. (someone, everybody)  Object pronouns (who(m), that, which) are usually omitted in the adjective clause. |
| --- | --- |
| Paula was **the only one** I knew at the party.  Scholarships are available for **those** who need financial assistance. | Adjective clauses can modify the one(s) and those. |
| (f) Incorrect: ~~I who am a student at this school come from a country in Asia.~~  (g) It is I who am responsible.  (h) He who laughs last laughs best. | Adjective clauses are almost never used to modify personal pronouns. Native English speakers would not say or write the sentence in (f)  Example (g) is possible, but very formal and uncommon.  Example (h) is a well-known saying in which he is used as an indefinite pronoun (meaning “anyone” or “any person”) |

## Punctuating Adjective Clauses

| General guidelines for the punctuation of adjective clauses:   * 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. | |
| --- | --- |
| The professor who teaches Chemistry 101 is an excellent lecturer.  Professor Wilson, who teaches Chemistry 101, is an excellent lecturer. | No commas are used. The adjective clause is necessary to identify which professor is meant.  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. |
| Hawaii, which consists of eight principal islands, is a favorite vacation spot.  Mrs. Smith, who is a retired teacher, does volunteer work at the hospital.  The man {who(m), that, ⊘} I met teaches chemistry.  Mr. Lee, whom I met yesterday, teaches chemistry. | Use commas, if an adjective clause modifies a proper noun. A proper noun begins with a capital letter.  Note: a comma reflects a pause in speech.  If no commas are used, any possible pronoun may be used in the adjective clause. Object pronouns may be omitted.  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. |
| Compare the meaning:  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.  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. | 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.  The lack of commas means that only some of the children wanted to play soccer. The adjective clause is sued to identify which children ran to the open field. |

## Using Expressions of Quantity in Adjective Clauses

| In my class there are 20 students.  Most of them are from Asia.  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. | 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. |
| --- | --- |
| 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. |

## Using Which to Modify a Whole Sentence

| Tom was late. That surprised me.  Tom was late, which surprised me.  The elevator is out of order. This is too bad.  The elevator is out of order, which is too bad. | The pronouns “that” and “this” can refer to the idea of a whole sentence which comes before.  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.  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. |
| --- | --- |

## Reducing Adjective Clauses to Adjective Phrases

| 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. | |
| --- | --- |
| Clause: The girl who is sitting next to me is Mai.  Phrase: The girl sitting next to me is Mai.  Clause: The girl (whom) I saw was Mai.  Phrase: none | An adjective phrase is a reduction of an adjective clause. It modifies a noun. It does not contain a subject and verb.  Only adjective clauses that have a subject pronoun - **who, that or which** - can be reduced to modifying adjective phrases. |
| Clause: The man who is talking to John is from Korea.  Phrase: the man talking to John is from Korea.  Clause: The ideas that are presented in this book are good.  Phrase: the ideas presented in this book are good.  Clause: Ann is the woman that is responsible for the error.  Phrase: Ann is the woman responsible for the error. | There are two ways in which an adjective clause is changed to an adjective phrase.   1. If the adjective clause contains the **be** form of a verb, omit the subject pronoun and the **be** form. |
| Clause: English has an alphabet that consists of 26 letters.  Phrase: English has an alphabet consisting of 26 letters.  Clause: Anyone who wants to come with us is welcome.  Phrase: Anyone wanting to come with us is welcome. | 1. 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. |
| Paris, which is the capital of France, is an exciting city.  Paris, the capital of France, is an exciting city. | 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. |

# Gerunds and Infinitives, Part 1

## Gerunds and Infinitives: Introduction

| 1. Playing tennis is fun. 2. We enjoy playing tennis. 3. He’s excited about playing tennis. | A gerund is the -ing form of a verb used as a noun. A gerund is used in the same ways as a noun, i.e., as a subject or as an object.  In (a): **playing** is a gerund. It is used as the subject of the sentence. **Playing tennis** is a gerund phrase.  In (b): **playing** is a gerund used as the object of the verb **enjoy**.  In (c): **playing** is a ground used as the object of the preposition **about**. |
| --- | --- |
| 1. To play tennis well takes a lot of practice. (To play = subject, takes = verb) 2. He likes to play tennis. (to play = object, likes = verb) | An infinitive = to + the simple form of a verb (to see, to be, to go, etc.).  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. |

## Common Verbs Followed by Gerunds

| 1. I enjoy playing tennis. | Gerunds can be used as the object of certain verbs. (common verbs are listed below) |
| --- | --- |
| 1. Joe quit smoking. 2. 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

| 1. I hope to see you again soon. 2. He promised to be here by ten. 3. 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 | |
| --- | --- |
| 1. Mr. Lee told me to be here at ten o’clock. 2. The police ordered the driver to stop. 3. I was told to be here at ten o’clock. 4. 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 | |
| 1. I expect to pass the test. 2. I expect Mary to pass the test. | Some verbs have two patterns:   * 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 | | --- | --- | --- | | start | love | Can’t stand | | continue | prefer | Can’t bear | | The verbs in Group A may be followed by either an infinitive or a gerund with little or no difference in meaning. |
| 1. It began to rain. / It began raining. 2. I started to work. / I started working. 3. 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 | | --- | --- | --- | | forget | try |  | | The verbs in Group B may be followed by either an infinitive or a gerund, but the meaning is different. |
| 1. Judy always remembers to lock the door. 2. Sam often forgets to lock the door. 3. I remember seeing the Alps for the first time. The sight was impressive. 4. 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 |
| 1. I regret to tell you that you failed the test. 2. 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 |
| 1. I’m trying to learn English. 2. 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. |
| 1. The students stopped talking when the professor entered the room. The room became quiet. 2. 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

| 1. We talked about going to Iceland for our vacation. 2. Sue is in charge of organizing the meeting. 3. I’m interested in learning more about your work. | A gerund is frequently used as the object of a preposition. |
| --- | --- |
| 1. I’m used to sleeping with the window open. 2. I’m accustomed to sleeping with the window open. 3. 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. |
| 1. 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 doing it | Be interested / believe / participate / succeed + in doing it | Count / insist + on 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

| 1. Did you go shopping? 2. 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

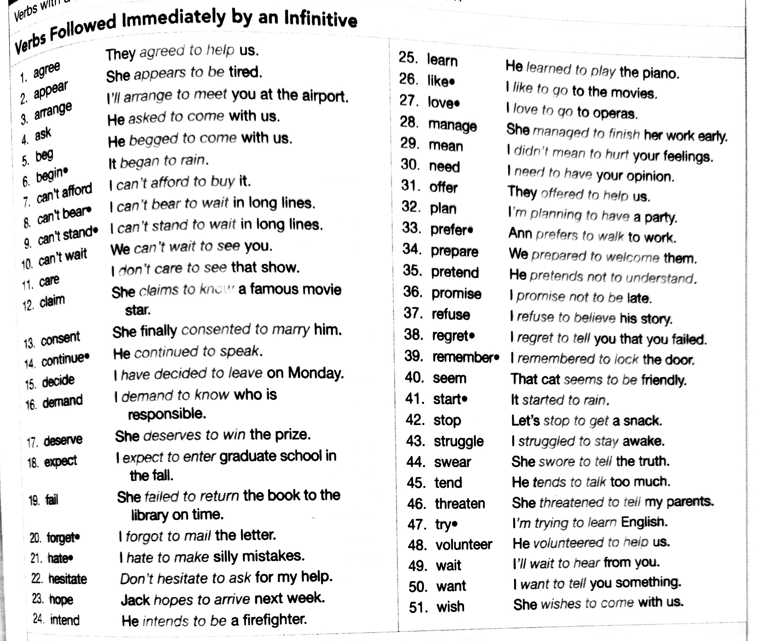
| 1. We had fun / we had a good time + playing volleyball. 2. I had trouble / I had difficulty / I had a hard time / I had a difficult time + finding his house. | -ing forms follow certain special expressions:  Have fun / a good time + -ing  Have trouble / difficulty + -ing  Have a hard time / a difficult 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 |
| (h) when I walked into my office, I found George using my telephone.  (i) when I walked into my office, I caught a thief looking through my desk drawers. | Find + (pro)noun + -ing  Catch + (pro)noun + -ing  In (h) and (i) both find and catch mean discover.  Catch often expresses anger. |

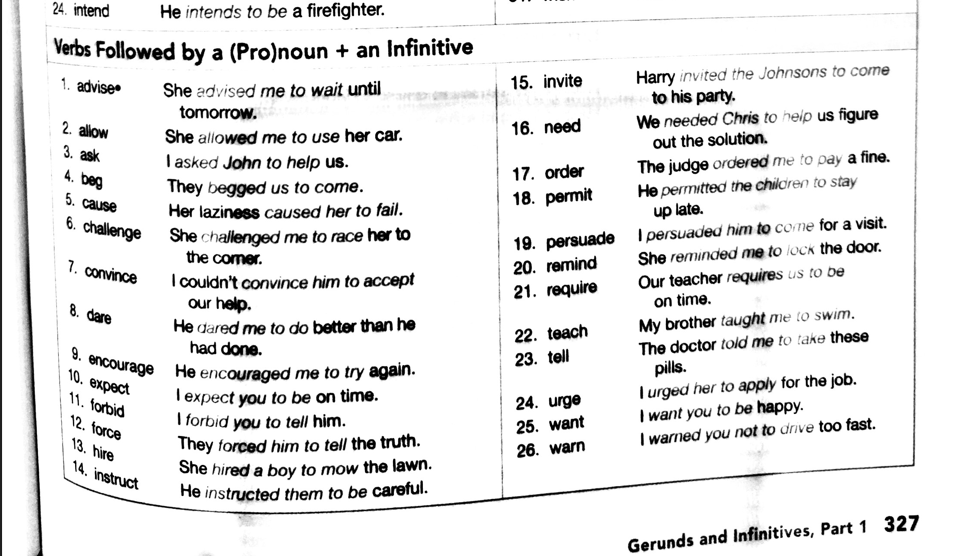
## It + Infinitive; Gerunds and Infinitives as Subjects

| 1. **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. |
| --- | --- |
| 1. **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. |

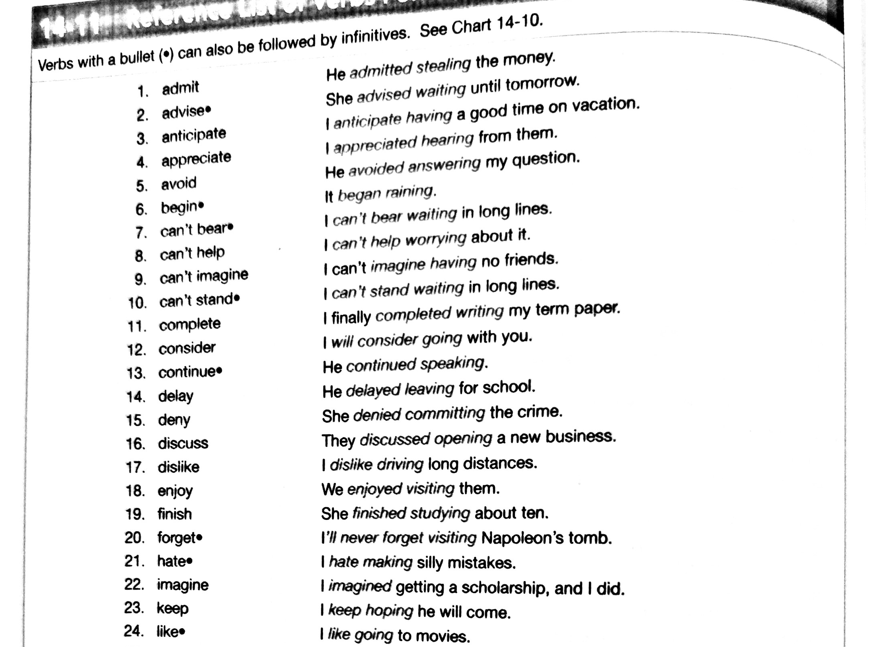
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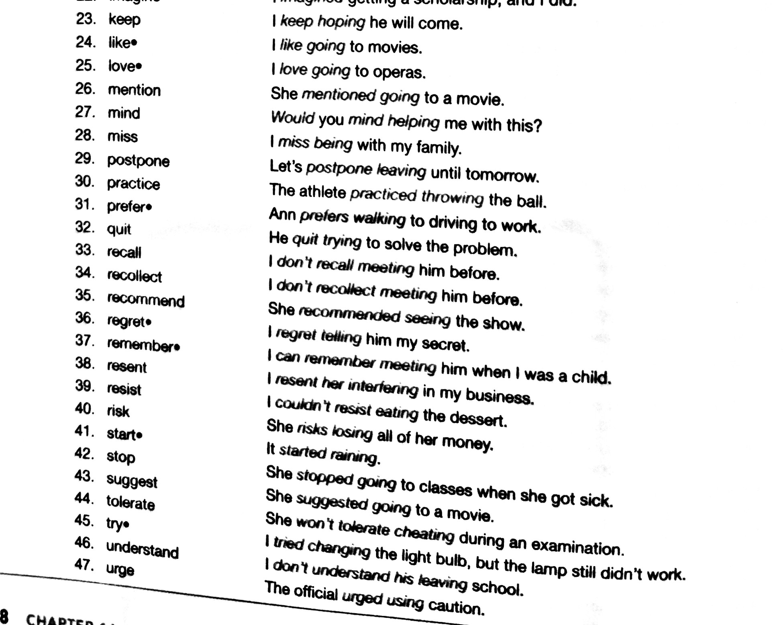
## Reference List of Verbs Followed by Infinitives



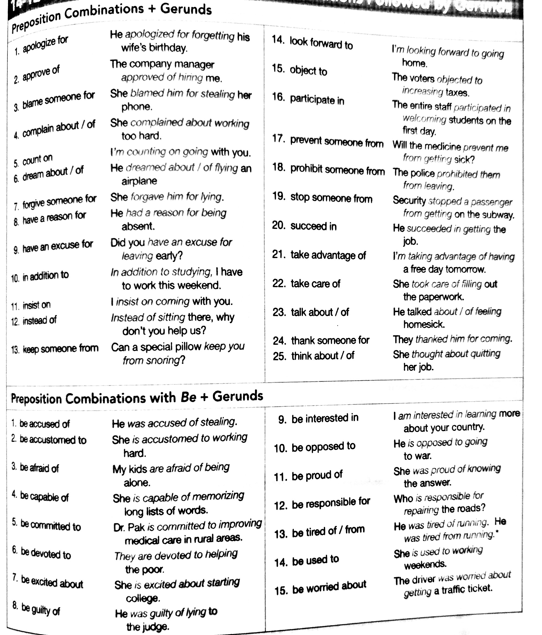


## Reference List of Verbs Followed by Gerunds





## Reference List of Preposition Combinations Followed by Gerunds



# Gerunds and Infinitives, Part 2

## Infinitive of Purpose: In Order To

| 1. He came here in order to study English. 2. 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

| 1. We were sorry to hear the bad news. 2. 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

| 1. That box is too heavy for Bob to lift. 2. That box is very heavy, but Bob can lift it. | **Too** can be followed by an infinitive, as in (a). In the speaker’s mind, the use of **too** implies a negative result.  In (a): **too heavy** = it is impossible for Bob to lift that box.  In (b): **very heavy** = it is possible but difficult for Bob to lift that box. |
| --- | --- |
| (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. | **Enough** can also be followed by an infinitive. Note the following:   * **Enough** follows the adjective, as in (c). * Usually **enough** precedes a noun, as in (d). * In formal English, it may follow a noun, as in (e). |

## Passive Infinitives and Gerunds: Present

| 1. I didn’t expect **to be asked** to his party. | PASSIVE INFINITIVE: to be + past participle  In (a): to be asked is a passive infinitive.  The understood by-phrase is by him: I didn’t expect to be asked to his party (by him). |
| --- | --- |
| 1. I appreciated **being asked** to his party. | PASSIVE GERUND: being + past participle  In (b): being asked is a passive gerund.  The understood by-phrase is by him: I appreciated being asked to his party (by him). |

## 

## Past Forms of Infinitives and Gerunds: Active and Passive

| | 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. |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1. 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. |
| 1. 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.  (f) She was happy **to be told**.  She was happy **to have been told**. | Use of past infinitive or gerund emphasises that something occurred in the past, prior to another event.  In practice, however, there is little difference in meaning between the simple and past forms, as in (e) and (f). |

## Using Gerunds or Passive Infinitives Following Need

| 1. I need to paint my house. 2. 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

| 1. I **saw** my friend **run** down the street. 2. I **saw** my friend **running** down the street. 3. I **heard** the rain **fall** on the roof. 4. 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. |
| --- | --- |
| 1. When I walked into the apartment, I **heard** my roommate **singing** in the shower. 2. 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

| 1. My father lets me drive his car. 2. I let my friend borrow my bike. 3. 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. |
| --- | --- |
| 1. My brother helped me wash my car. 2. 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

| 1. I made my brother carry my suitcase. 2. I had my brother carry my suitcase. 3. 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**   1. Mrs. Lee made her son clean his room. 2. Sad movies make me cry. | Causative make is followed by the simple form of a verb, not an infinitive. |
| **Causative Have**   1. I had the plumber repair the leak. 2. Jane had the waiter bring her some tea. | Causative have is followed by the simple form of a verb, not an infinitive. |
| **Causative Get**   1. The students got the teacher to dismiss class early. 2. Jack got his friends to play soccer with him after school. | Causative get is followed by an infinitive. |
| **Passive Causatives**   1. I had my watch repaired (by someone). 2. 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.   1. FORMAL: Mr. Lee complained about our coming to class late. 2. 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.” | |
| --- | --- |
| 1. Steve and his friend are coming to dinner. 2. Susan raised her hand and snapped her fingers. 3. He is waving his arms and shouting at us. 4. These shoes are old but comfortable. 5. He wants to watch TV or listen to some music. | In (a): noun + and + noun  In (b): verb + and + verb  In (c) verb + and + verb (The second auxiliary may be omitted if it is the same as the first auxiliary)  In (d): adjective + but + adjective  In (e): infinitive + or + infinitive (The second to is usually omitted.) |

## Parallel Structure: Using Commas

| 1. Steve and Joe are in class. 2. INCORRECT: Steve, and Joe are in class. | No commas are used when and connects 2 parts of a parallel structure, as in (a). |
| --- | --- |
| (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. | 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. |

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

| 1. It was raining hard. There was a strong wind. 2. INCORRECT: It was raining hard, there was a strong wind. 3. It was raining hard; there was a strong wind. | 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. |
| --- | --- |
| 1. It was raining hard, and there was a strong wind. 2. It was raining hard. And there was a strong wind. 3. It was raining hard and there was a strong wind. 4. It was late, but he didn’t care. 5. It was late. But he didn’t care. | 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, as in (f). (omitting the comma in front of but is rare.) |

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

| 1. **Both** my mother **and** my sister **are** here. | Two subjects connected by both … and take a plural verb, as in (a). |
| --- | --- |
| 1. **Not only** my mother **but also** my sister **is** here. 2. **Not only** my sister **but also** my parents **are** here. 3. **Neither** my mother **nor** my sister **is** here. 4. **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. |
| 1. The research project will take **both** time **and** money. 2. Sue saw **not only** a fox in the woods **but also** a bear. 3. I’ll take **either** chemistry **or** physics next quarter. 4. 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. | |
| --- | --- |
| 1. When the phone rang, the baby woke up. 2. 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   | after | By the time (that) | | --- | --- | | before | once | | when | as/so long as | | while | whenever | | as | Every time (that) | | As soon as | The first time (that) | | since | The last time (that) | | until | The next time (that) | | Cause And Effect   | because | | --- | | Now that | | since | | Contrast   | Even though | | --- | | although | | though |   Direct Contrast   | while | | --- | | Condition   | if | | --- | | unless | | Only if | | Whether or not | | Even if | | In case | | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | |

## Using Adverb Clauses to Show Time Relationships

| After \* | 1. After she graduates, she will get a job. 2. 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). |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 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 | 1. Because he was sleepy, he went to bed. 2. 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

| 1. Because the weather was cold, I didn’t go swimming. 2. 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. |
| --- | --- |

## Showing Direct Contrast: While

| 1. Mary is rich, while John is poor. 2. John is poor, while Mary is rich. 3. While John is poor, Mary is rich. 4. 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:   1. 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

| 1. 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

| 1. 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.   1. 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. |
| --- | --- |

## Adverb Clauses of Condition: Using Whether Or Not and Even If

| **Whether or not** | |
| --- | --- |
| 1. 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** | |
| 1. 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

| 1. 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. |
| --- | --- |

## Adverb Clauses of Condition: Using Unless

| 1. I’ll go swimming tomorrow unless it’s cold. 2. I’ll go swimming tomorrow if it isn’t cold. | Unless = if … not |
| --- | --- |

## Adverb Clauses of Condition: Using Only If

| 1. 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. | Only if expresses the idea that there is only one condition that will cause a particular result. |
| --- | --- |
| 1. Only if it rains will the picnic be cancelled. | 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. |

# Reduction of Adverb Clauses to Modifying Adverbial Phrases

## Introduction

| 1. Adverb clause: While I was walking to class, I ran into an old friend. 2. Modifying phrase: While walking to class, I ran into an old friend. 3. Adverb clause: Before I left for work, I ate breakfast. 4. Modifying phrase: Before leaving for work, I ate breakfast. | Some adverb clauses may also be changed to modifying phrases, and the ways in which the changes are made are the same:   * 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). |
| --- | --- |
| 1. Change possible: While I was sitting in class, I fell asleep.   While sitting in class, I fell asleep.   1. Change possible: While Ann was sitting in class, she fell asleep.   While sitting in class, Ann fell asleep. | 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. |
| 1. No change possible: While the teacher was lecturing to the class, I fell asleep. | No reduction is possible if the subjects of the adverb clause and the main clause are different, as in (g). |
| 1. Incorrect: While watching TV last night, the phone rang. | 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. |

## Changing Time Clauses to Modifying Adverbial Phrases

| 1. Clause: Since Maria came to this country, she has made many friends. 2. Phrase: Since coming to this country, Maria has made many friends. 3. Clause: When Tyrell cooks, he uses a lot of spices. 4. Phrase: When cooking, Tyrell uses a lot of spices. | Adverb clauses beginning with after, before, when,\* while, and since can be changed to modifying adverbial phrases. |
| --- | --- |
| 1. Clause: After he (had) finished his homework, Peter went to bed. 2. Phrase: After finishing his homework, Peter went to bed. 3. Phrase: After having finished his homework, Peter went to bed. | 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. |
| 1. Phrase: Peter went to bed after finishing his homework. | The modifying adverbial phrase may follow the main clause, as in (h). |

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

| 1. While I was walking down the street, I ran into an old friend. 2. While walking down the street, I ran into an old friend. 3. Walking down the street, I ran into an old friend. | Sometimes while is omitted, but the -ing phrase at the beginning of the sentence gives the same meaning (i.e., “during the same time”).  Examples (a), (b), and (c) have the same meaning. |
| --- | --- |

## Expressing Cause and Effect in Modifying Adverbial Phrases

| 1. Because she needed some money to buy a book, Sue went to a cash machine. 2. Needing some money to buy a book, Sue went to a cash machine. 3. Because he lacked the necessary qualifications, he was not considered for the job. 4. Lacking the necessary qualifications, he was not considered for the job. | 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). |
| --- | --- |
| 1. Having seen that movie before, I don’t want to go again. 2. Having seen that movie before, I didn’t want to go again. | Having + past participle gives the meaning not only of “because” but also of “before” |
| 1. Because he is a doctor, Oskar often gets calls in the middle of the night. 2. Being a doctor, Oskar often gets calls in the middle of the night. 3. Because she was unable to afford a car, she bought a bike. 4. Unable to afford a car, she bought a bike. 5. Being unable to afford a car, she bought a bike. | A form of be in the adverb clause may be changed to being. The use of being makes the cause-and-effect relationship clear.  Examples (i), (j), and (k) have the same meaning. |

## Using Upon + -ing in Modifying Adverbial Phrases

| 1. Upon reaching the age of 18, I can get my driver’s license. 2. 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. | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1. **Because** Julian felt sick, he left work early. 2. **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

| 1. 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). |
| --- | --- |
| 1. Because of the cold weather, we stayed home. 2. 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). |
| 1. 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. |
| 1. 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

| 1. Ali failed the test because he didn’t study. 2. Ali didn’t study. Therefore, he failed the test. 3. Ali didn’t study. Consequently, he failed the test. | Examples (a), (b), and (c) have the same meaning.  Therefore and consequently mean “as a result.” In grammar, they are called transitions (or conjunctive adverbs).  Transitions connect the ideas between two sentences. They are used most commonly in formal written English and rarely in spoken English. |
| --- | --- |
| 1. Ali didn’t study. Therefore, he failed the test. 2. Ali didn’t study. He, therefore, failed the test. 3. 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 | 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. |
| 1. Ali didn’t study, so he failed the test. | In (g): So is used as a conjunction between two independent clauses. It has the same meaning as therefore.  So is common in both formal writing and spoken English. A comma usually precedes so when it connects two sentences, as in (g). |

## Summary of Patterns and Punctuation

| ADVERB CLAUSES | 1. Because it was hot, we went swimming. 2. We went swimming because it was hot. | An adverb clause may precede or follow an independent clause.  Punctuation: a comma is used if the adverb clause comes first. |
| --- | --- | --- |
| PREPOSITIONS | (c) Because of the hot weather, we went swimming.  (d) We went swimming because of the hot weather. | A preposition is followed by a noun object, not by a subject and verb.  Punctuation: a comma is usually used if the prepositional phrase precedes the subject and verb of the independent clause. |
| TRANSITIONS | (e) It was hot. Therefore, we went swimming.  (f) It was hot. We, therefore, went swimming.  (g) It was hot. We went swimming, therefore.  (h) It was hot; therefore, we went swimming. | A transition is used with the second sentence of a pair. It shows the relationship of the second idea to the first idea. A transition is movable within the second sentence.  Punctuation: A semicolon (;) may be used in place of a period, as in (h). |
| CONJUNCTIONS | (i) It was hot, 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

| 1. Because the weather was nice, we went to the zoo. 2. It was such nice weather that we went to the zoo. 3. The weather was so nice that we went to the zoo. | Examples (a), (b), and (c) have the same meaning. |
| --- | --- |
| 1. It was such good coffee that I had another cup. 2. It was such a foggy day that we couldn’t see the road. | Such … that encloses a modified noun:  Such + adjective + noun + that |
| 1. The coffee is so hot that I can’t drink it. 2. I’m so hungry that I could eat a horse. 3. She speaks so fast that I can’t understand her. 4. He walked so quickly that I couldn’t keep up with him. | So … that encloses an adjective or adverb:  So + adjective or adverb + that |
| 1. She made so many mistakes that she failed the exam. 2. He has so few friends that he is always lonely. 3. She has so much money that she can buy whatever she wants. 4. He had so little trouble with the test that he left 20 minutes early. | So … that is used with many, few, much and little. |
| 1. It was such a good book (that) I couldn’t put it down. 2. 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

| 1. I turned off the TV in order to enable my roommate to study in peace and quiet. 2. I turned off the TV so (that) my roommate could study in peace and quiet. | In order to expresses purpose.  Examples (a) and (b) have the same meaning. |
| --- | --- |
| **So That + Can or Could** | |
| (c) I’m going to cash a check so that I can buy my textbooks.  (d) I cashed a check so that I could buy my textbooks. | So that also expresses purpose. It expresses the same meaning as in order to. The word that is often omitted, especially in speaking.  So that is often used instead of in order to when the idea of ability is being expressed. Can is used in the adverb clause for a present/future meaning.  In (c): so that I can buy = in order to be able to buy  Could is used after so that in past sentences, as in (d). |
| **So That + Will / Would or Simple Present** | |
| (e) I’ll take my umbrella so that I won’t get wet.  (f) Yesterday I took my umbrella so that I wouldn’t get wet.  (g) I’ll take my umbrella so that I don’t get wet. | In (e): so that I won’t get wet = in order to make sure that I won’t get wet  Would is used in past sentences, as in (f).  In (g): It is sometimes possible to use the simple present after so that in place of will; the simple present expresses a future meaning. |

## Showing Contrast (Unexpected Result)

| All of these sentences have the same meaning. The idea of cold weather is contrasted with the idea of going swimming. Usually if the weather is cold, one does not go swimming, so going swimming in cold weather is an “unexpected result”. It is surprising that the speaker went swimming in cold weather. | | |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Adverb Clauses | Even though  Although  Though | 1. Even though it was cold, I went swimming. 2. Although it was cold, I went swimming. 3. Though it was cold, I went swimming. |
| Conjunctions | But … anyway  But … still  Yet … still | 1. It was cold, but I went swimming (anyway). 2. It was cold, but I (still) went swimming. 3. It was cold, yet I (still) went swimming. |
| Transitions | Nevertheless  Nonetheless  However … still | 1. It was cold. Nevertheless, I went swimming. 2. It was cold; nonetheless, I went swimming. 3. It was cold. However, I (still) went swimming. |
| Prepositions | Despite  In spite of  Despite the fact that  In spite of the fact that | 1. I went swimming despite the cold weather. 2. I went swimming in spite of the cold weather. 3. I went swimming despite the fact that the weather was cold. 4. 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 | 1. Mary is rich, while John is poor. 2. 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  On the other hand | (e) Mary is rich; however, John is poor.  (f) John is poor, Mary is rich, however.  (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 | 1. If I don’t eat breakfast, I get hungry. 2. You’ll be late if you don’t hurry. 3. You’ll get wet unless you take your umbrella. | If and unless state conditions that produce certain results. |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Transitions | 1. I always eat breakfast. Otherwise, I get hungry during class. 2. You’d better hurry. Otherwise, you’ll be late. 3. 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 | 1. I always eat breakfast, or (else) I get hungry during class. 2. You’d better hurry, or (else) you’ll be late. 3. 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

| 1. If I **don’t eat** breakfast, I always **get** hungry during class. 2. If I **don’t eat** breakfast tomorrow morning, I **will get** hungry during class. 3. Water **freezes** if the temperature **reaches** 32F/0C. 4. Water **will freeze** if the temperature **reaches** 32F/0C. | In conditional sentences that express real or true, factual ideas in the present/future, the simple present (not the simple future) is used in the if-clause.  The result clause has various possible verb forms. A result clause verb can be:   * The simple present, to express a habitual activity or situation, as in (a). * The simple future, to express a particular activity or situation in the future, as in (b). * The simple present or simple future, to express an established, predictable fact or general truth, as in (c) and (d). |
| --- | --- |
| 1. If it **rains**, we **should stay** home.   If it **rains**, I **might decide** to stay home.  If it **rains**, we **can’t go**.  If it **rains**, we’**re going to stay** home. | The result clause can also include modals and phrasal modals such as **should**, **might**, **can**, **be going to**, as in (e). |
| 1. If anyone **calls**, please **take** a message. 2. If anyone **should call**, please take a message. | An imperative verb can be used in the result clause, as in (f).  Sometimes should is used in an if-clause, as in (g). It indicates a little more uncertainty than the use of the simple present, but basically the meaning of examples (f) and (g) is the same. |

## Unreal (Contrary to Fact) in the Present or Future

| 1. If I taught this class, I wouldn’t give tests. 2. If he were here right now, he would help us. 3. If I were you, I would accept their invitation. | In (a): actually, I don’t teach this class.  In (b): actually, he is not here right now.  In (c): actually, I am not you.  Note: were is used for both singular and plural subjects. Was (with I, he, she, it) is sometimes used in very informal speech: If I was you, I’d accept their invitation. |
| --- | --- |
| Compare:   1. If I had enough money, I would buy a car. 2. If I had enough money, I could buy a car. | In (d): the speaker wants a car but doesn’t have enough money. Would expresses desired or predictable results.  In (e): the speaker expressing one possible result.  Could = would be able to; could expresses possible options. |

## Unreal (Contrary to Fact) in the Past

| 1. If you had told me about the problem, I would have helped you. 2. If they had studied, they would have passed the exam. 3. If I hadn’t slipped on the stairs, I wouldn’t have broken my arm. | In (a): actually, you did not tell me about it.  In (b): actually, they did not study. Therefore, they failed the exam.  In (c): actually, I slipped on the stairs. I broke my arm.  Note: The auxiliary verbs are often reduced in speech. “If you’d told me, I would’ve helped you (or I-duv helped you).” |
| --- | --- |
| Compare:   1. If I had enough money, I would have bought a car. 2. If I had had enough money, I could have bought a car. | In (d): would expresses a desired or predictable result.  In (e): could expresses a possible option.  Could have bought = would have been able to buy |

## 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. |
| --- |
| 1. Real Situation: It is raining right now, so I will not go for a walk. 2. Conditional Statement: If it were not raining right now, I would go for a walk. |
| (c) Real Situation: It was raining yesterday afternoon, so I did not go for a walk.  (d) Conditional Statement: If it had not been raining, I would have gone for a walk. |

## 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. |
| --- |
| 1. Real Situation: I did not eat breakfast several hours ago, so I am hungry now. 2. Conditional Statement: If I had eaten breakfast several hours ago, I would not be hungry now. |
| (c) Real Situation: He is not a good student. He did not study for the test yesterday.  (d) If he were a good student, he would have studied for the test yesterday. |

## Omitting If

| 1. Were I you, I wouldn’t do that. 2. Had I known, I would have told you. 3. 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

| 1. I would have gone with you, but I had to study. 2. 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 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 present | 1. I don’t know French. 2. It is raining right now. 3. 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. |
| A wish about the past | 1. John didn’t come. 2. Mary couldn't come. | I wish John had come.  I wish Mary could have come. |
| 1. I wish I could come. (It’s not possible. I can’t come.) 2. 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

| 1. He isn’t going to be here next week.   I wish he were going to be here next week.   1. 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). |