

CHARTBOOK

A REFERENCE GRAMMAR

**UNDERSTANDING
AND USING
ENGLISH
GRAMMAR**

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CHAPTER 1

Verb Tenses

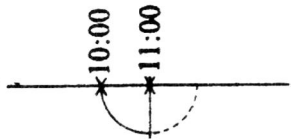
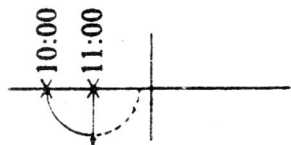
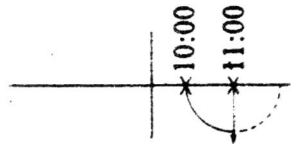
AN OVERVIEW OF ENGLISH VERB TENSES FOLLOWS IN CHARTS 1-1 THROUGH 1-5. The diagram shown below will be used in the tense descriptions:



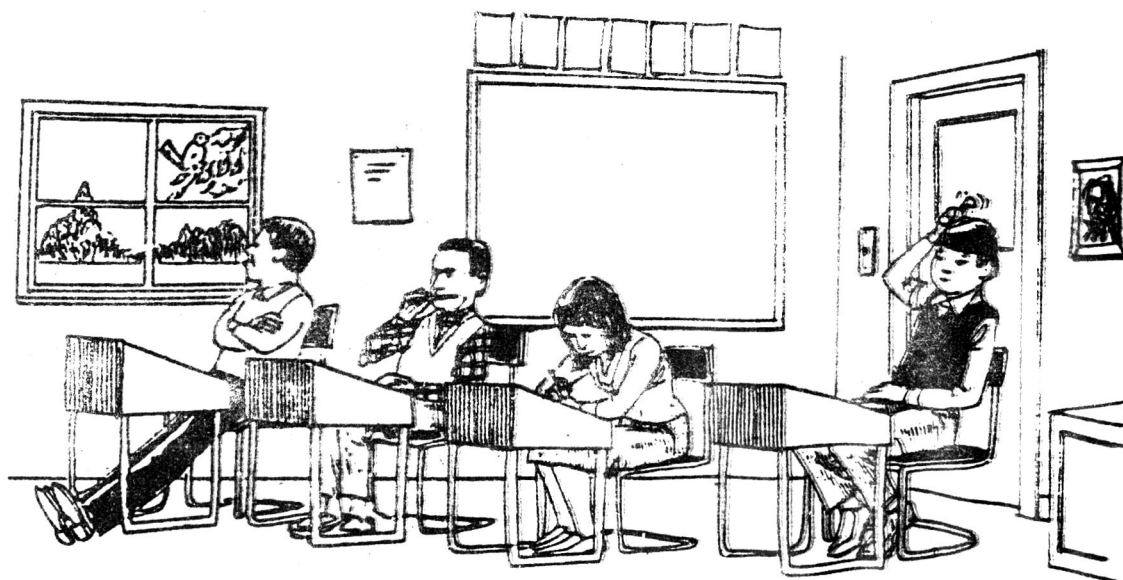
1-1 THE SIMPLE TENSES

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

1-2 THE PROGRESSIVE TENSES*

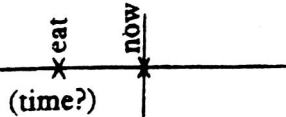
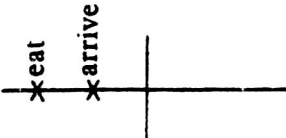
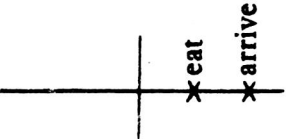
Form: <i>be + -ing (present participle)</i> Meaning: The progressive tenses give the idea that an action is <i>in progress</i> during a particular time. The tenses say that an action <i>begins before</i>, <i>is in progress during</i>, and <i>continues after</i> another time or action.		
PRESENT PROGRESSIVE 	(a) He is sleeping right now.	He went to sleep at 10:00 tonight. It is now 11:00 and he is still asleep. His sleep began in the past, is <i>in progress at the present time</i>, and probably will continue.
PAST PROGRESSIVE 	(b) He was sleeping when I arrived.	He went to sleep at 10:00 last night. I arrived at 11:00. He was still asleep. His sleep began before and <i>was in progress at a particular time in the past</i>. It probably continued.
FUTURE PROGRESSIVE 	(c) He will be sleeping when we arrive.	He will go to sleep at 10:00 tomorrow night. We will arrive at 11:00. The action of sleeping will begin before we arrive and it <i>will be in progress at a particular time in the future</i>. Probably his sleep will continue.

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

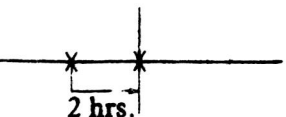
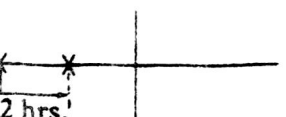


Yoko **is writing** in her book. Carlos **is biting** his pencil. Wan-Ning **is scratching** his head. Ahmed **is staring** out the window.

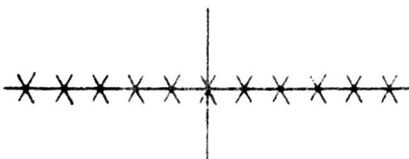
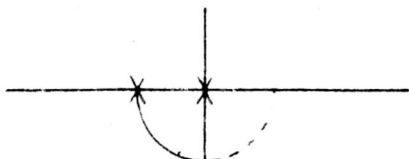
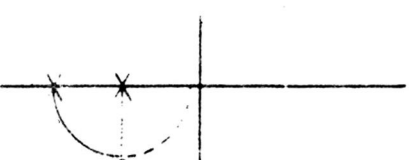
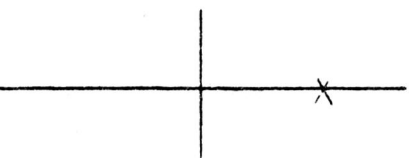
1-3 THE PERFECT TENSES

Form: have + past participle Meaning: The perfect tenses all give the idea that one thing <i>happens before</i> another time or event.		
PRESENT PERFECT 	(a) I have already eaten .	I <i>finished</i> eating some- time <i>before now</i> . The ex- act time is not impor- tant.
PAST PERFECT 	(b) I had already eaten when they arrived.	First I finished eating. Later they arrived. My eating was completely <i>finished before another time in the past.</i>
FUTURE PERFECT 	(c) I will already have eaten when they arrive.	First I will finish eating. Later they will arrive. My eating will be com- pletely <i>finished before an- other time in the future.</i>

1-4 THE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE TENSES

Form: have + been + -ing (present participle) Meaning: The perfect progressive tenses give the idea that one event is <i>in progress immediately before, up to, until another time or event</i> . The tenses are used to express the <i>duration</i> of the first event.		
PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE 	(a) I have been studying for two hours.	Event in progress: studying. When? <i>Before now, up to now.</i> How long? For two hours.
PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE 	(b) I had been studying for two hours before my friend came.	Event in progress: studying. When? <i>Before another event in the past.</i> How long? For two hours.
FUTURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE 	(c) I will have been studying for two hours by the time you arrive.	Event in progress: studying. When? <i>Before another event in the future.</i> How long? For two hours.

1-5 SUMMARY CHART OF VERB TENSES

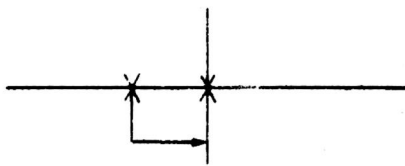
SIMPLE PRESENT  The world is round. I study every day.	PRESENT PROGRESSIVE  I am studying right now.
SIMPLE PAST  I studied last night.	PAST PROGRESSIVE  I was studying when they came.
SIMPLE FUTURE  I will study tomorrow.	FUTURE PROGRESSIVE  I will be studying when you come.

PRESENT PERFECT



I have already *studied* Chapter One.

PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE



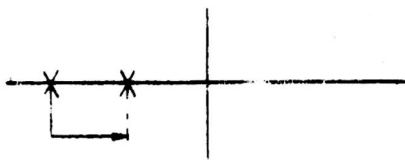
I *have been studying* for two hours.

PAST PERFECT



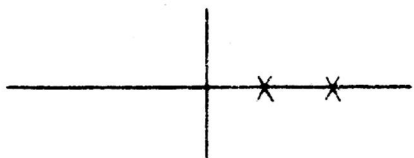
I *had* already *studied* Chapter One before I began to study Chapter Two.

PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE



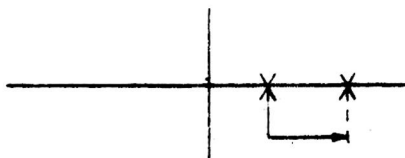
I *had been studying* for two hours before my friends came.

FUTURE PERFECT



I *will* already *have studied* Chapter Four before I study Chapter Five.

FUTURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE



I *will have been studying* for two hours by the time you arrive.

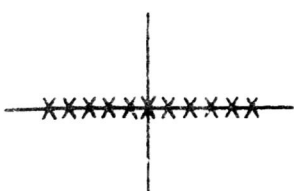
1-6 SPELLING OF **-ING** AND **-ED** FORMS

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

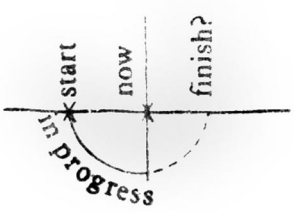
*Exception: If a verb ends in **-ee**, the final **-e** is not dropped: *seeing, agreeing, freeing*.

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

1-7 SIMPLE PRESENT

	(a) Water consists of hydrogen and oxygen. (b) Most animals kill only for food. (c) The world is round.	The simple present says that something was true in the past, is true in the present, and will be true in the future. It is used for <i>general statements of fact</i>.
	(d) I study for two hours every night. (e) My classes begin at nine. (f) He always eats a sandwich for lunch.	The simple present is used to express <i>habitual or everyday activity</i>.
	(g) I have only a dollar right now. (h) I don't recognize that man. (i) He needs a pen right now.	Certain verbs are not used in the progressive tenses. (See Chart 1-9.) With these verbs, the simple present may indicate a situation that exists right now, at the moment of speaking.

1-8 PRESENT PROGRESSIVE

	(j) John is sleeping right now. (k) I need an umbrella because it is raining. (l) John and Mary are talking on the phone.	The present progressive expresses an activity that is <i>in progress at the moment of speaking</i>. It began in the recent past, is continuing at present, and will probably end at some point in the future.
	(m) I am taking five courses this semester. (n) John is trying to improve his work habits. (o) She is writing another book this year.	Often the activity is of a general nature: something generally in progress this week, this month, this year. Note (o): The sentence means that writing a book is a general activity she is engaged in at present, but it does not mean that at the moment of speaking she is sitting at her desk with pen in hand.

1-9 NONPROGRESSIVE VERBS

NONPROGRESSIVE (a) Ali <i>knows</i> this grammar.		Some verbs are <i>nonprogressive</i> : they are not used in any of the progressive tenses. These verbs describe states (i.e., conditions that exist); they do not describe activities that are in progress. In (a): "Ali knows" describes a mental state that exists.		
PROGRESSIVE (b) Kim <i>is reading</i> about this grammar.		COMPARE: In (b): "Kim is reading" is an activity in progress. Progressive tenses can be used with the verb <i>read</i> but not with the verb <i>know</i> .		
COMMON NONPROGRESSIVE VERBS				
(1) MENTAL STATE	<i>know</i> <i>realize</i> <i>understand</i> <i>recognize</i>	<i>believe</i> <i>feel</i> <i>suppose</i> <i>think*</i>	<i>imagine</i> <i>doubt</i> <i>remember</i> <i>forget</i>	<i>want</i> <i>need</i> <i>prefer</i> <i>mean</i>
(2) EMOTIONAL STATE	<i>love</i> <i>like</i> <i>appreciate</i>	<i>hate</i> <i>dislike</i>	<i>fear</i> <i>envy</i>	<i>mind</i> <i>care</i>
(3) POSSESSION	<i>possess</i>	<i>have*</i>	<i>own</i>	<i>belong</i>
(4) SENSE PERCEPTIONS	<i>taste*</i> <i>smell*</i>	<i>hear</i> <i>feel*</i>	<i>see*</i>	
(5) OTHER EXISTING STATES	<i>seem</i> <i>look*</i> <i>appear*</i>	<i>cost</i> <i>owe</i> <i>weigh*</i>	<i>be*</i> <i>exist</i>	<i>consist of</i> <i>contain</i> <i>include</i>

*Verbs with an asterisk are also commonly used as progressive verbs, with a difference in meaning, as in the following examples:

	NONPROGRESSIVE (<i>existing state</i>)	PROGRESSIVE (<i>activity in progress</i>)
<i>think</i>	I <i>think</i> he is a kind man.	I <i>am thinking</i> about this grammar.
<i>have</i>	He <i>has</i> a car.	I <i>am having</i> trouble. She <i>is having</i> a good time.
<i>taste</i>	This food <i>tastes</i> good.	The chef <i>is tasting</i> the sauce.
<i>smell</i>	These flowers <i>smell</i> good.	Don <i>is smelling</i> the roses.
<i>see</i>	I <i>see</i> a butterfly. <i>Do you see</i> it?	The doctor <i>is seeing</i> a patient.
<i>feel</i>	The cat's fur <i>feels</i> soft.	Sue <i>is feeling</i> the cat's fur.
<i>look</i>	She <i>looks</i> cold. I'll lend her my coat.	I <i>am looking</i> out the window.
<i>appear</i>	He <i>appears</i> to be asleep.	The actor <i>is appearing</i> on the stage.
<i>weigh</i>	A piano is heavy. It <i>weighs</i> a lot.	The grocer <i>is weighing</i> the bananas.
<i>be</i>	I <i>am</i> hungry.	Tom <i>is being</i> foolish.**

**COMPARE:

(a) *Bob is foolish.* = Foolishness is one of Bob's usual characteristics.

(b) *Tom is being foolish.* = Right now, at the moment of speaking, Tom is doing something that the speaker considers foolish.

The verb *be* (+ *an adjective*) is used in the progressive to describe a temporary characteristic. Very few adjectives are used with *be* in the progressive; some of the most common are: *foolish, nice, kind, lazy, careful, patient, silly, rude, polite, impolite*.

1-10 USING THE PRESENT PROGRESSIVE WITH *ALWAYS*

(a) Mary <i>always leaves</i> for school at 7:45.	In sentences referring to present time, usually the simple present is used with <i>always</i> to describe habitual or everyday activities, as in (a).
(b) Mary <i>is always leaving</i> her dirty socks on the floor for me to pick up! Who does she think I am? Her maid?	In special circumstances, a speaker may use the present progressive with <i>always</i> to complain, i.e., to express annoyance or anger, as in (b).*
(c) I <i>am always/forever/constantly picking</i> up Mary's dirty socks!	In addition to <i>always</i> , the words <i>forever</i> and <i>constantly</i> are used with the present progressive to express annoyance.

*COMPARE:

"Mary *is always leaving* her dirty socks on the floor" expresses annoyance.

"Mary *always leaves* her dirty socks on the floor" is a statement of fact in which the speaker is not necessarily expressing an attitude of annoyance. Annoyance may, however, be included in the speaker's tone of voice.



Oh no! I spilled food on my clothes again.

I'm always spilling something on my clothes.

It makes me so mad at myself!

1-11 REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS

REGULAR VERBS: The simple past and past participle end in <i>-ed</i> .				English verbs have four principal parts: (1) simple form (2) simple past (3) past participle (4) present participle
SIMPLE FORM	SIMPLE PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	PRESENT PARTICIPLE	
<i>hope</i>	<i>hoped</i>	<i>hoped</i>	<i>hoping</i>	
<i>stop</i>	<i>stopped</i>	<i>stopped</i>	<i>stopping</i>	
<i>listen</i>	<i>listened</i>	<i>listened</i>	<i>listening</i>	
<i>study</i>	<i>studied</i>	<i>studied</i>	<i>studying</i>	
<i>start</i>	<i>started</i>	<i>started</i>	<i>starting</i>	

IRREGULAR VERBS: The simple past and past participle do not end in <i>-ed</i> .				Some verbs have irregular past forms. Most of the irregular verbs in English are given in the following alphabetical list.
SIMPLE FORM	SIMPLE PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	PRESENT PARTICIPLE	
<i>break</i>	<i>broke</i>	<i>broken</i>	<i>breaking</i>	
<i>come</i>	<i>came</i>	<i>come</i>	<i>coming</i>	
<i>find</i>	<i>found</i>	<i>found</i>	<i>finding</i>	
<i>hit</i>	<i>hit</i>	<i>hit</i>	<i>hitting</i>	
<i>swim</i>	<i>swam</i>	<i>swum</i>	<i>swimming</i>	

1-11.1 AN ALPHABETICAL LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS

SIMPLE FORM	SIMPLE PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	SIMPLE FORM	SIMPLE PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
arise	arose	arisen	cling	clung	clung
be	was, were	been	come	came	come
bear	bore	borne/born	cost	cost	cost
beat	beat	beaten/beat	creep	crept	crept
become	became	become	cut	cut	cut
begin	began	begun	deal	dealt	dealt
bend	bent	bent	dig	dug	dug
bet	bet	bet*	do	did	done
bid	bid	bid	draw	drew	drawn
bind	bound	bound	eat	ate	eaten
bite	bit	bitten	fall	fell	fallen
bleed	bled	bled	feed	fed	fed
blow	blew	blown	feel	felt	felt
break	broke	broken	fight	fought	fought
breed	bred	bred	find	found	found
bring	brought	brought	fit	fit	fit*
broadcast	broadcast	broadcast	flee	fled	fled
build	built	built	fling	flung	flung
burst	burst	burst	fly	flew	flown
buy	bought	bought	forbid	forbade	forbidden
cast	cast	cast	forecast	forecast	forecast
catch	caught	caught	forget	forgot	forgotten
choose	chose	chosen	forgive	forgave	forgiven

SIMPLE FORM	SIMPLE PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	SIMPLE FORM	SIMPLE PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
forsake	forsook	forsaken	show	showed	shown/showed
freeze	froze	frozen	shrink	shrank/shrunk	shrunk
get	got	gotten*	shut	shut	shut
give	gave	given	sing	sang	sung
go	went	gone	sit	sat	sat
grind	ground	ground	sleep	slept	slept
grow	grew	grown	slide	slid	slid
hang	hung	hung	slit	slit	slit
have	had	had	speak	spoke	spoken
hear	heard	heard	speed	sped/speeded	sped/speeded
hide	hid	hidden	spend	spent	spent
hit	hit	hit	spin	spun	spun
hold	held	held	spit	spit/spat	spit/spat
hurt	hurt	hurt	split	split	split
keep	kept	kept	spread	spread	spread
know	knew	known	spring	sprang/sprung	sprung
lay	laid	laid	stand	stood	stood
lead	led	led	steal	stole	stolen
leave	left	left	stick	stuck	stuck
lend	lent	lent	sting	stung	stung
let	let	let	stink	stank/stunk	stunk
lie	lay	lain	strive	strove	striven
light	lit/lighted	lit/lighted	strike	struck	struck/stricken
lose	lost	lost	string	strung	strung
make	made	made	swear	swore	sworn
mean	meant	meant	sweep	swept	swept
meet	met	met	swim	swam	swum
mislay	mislaid	mislaid	swing	swung	swung
mistake	mistook	mistaken	take	took	taken
pay	paid	paid	teach	taught	taught
put	put	put	tear	tore	torn
quit	quit	quit*	tell	told	told
read	read	read	think	thought	thought
rid	rid	rid	throw	threw	thrown
ride	rode	ridden	thrust	thrust	thrust
ring	rang	rung	understand	understood	understood
rise	rose	risen	undertake	undertook	undertaken
run	ran	run	upset	upset	upset
say	said	said	wake	woke/waked	woken/waked
see	saw	seen	wear	wore	worn
seek	sought	sought	weave	wove	woven
sell	sold	sold	weep	wept	wept
send	sent	sent	win	won	won
set	set	set	wind	wound	wound
shake	shook	shaken	withdraw	withdrew	withdrawn
shed	shed	shed	wring	wrung	wrung
shine	shone/shined	shone/shined	write	wrote	written
shoot	shot	shot			

1-11.2 TROUBLESOME IRREGULAR VERBS

Differences between American English and British English:

American	British
<i>bet-bet-bet</i>	<i>bet-bet-bet</i> OR <i>bet-betted-betted</i>
<i>fit-fit-fit</i>	<i>fit-fitted-fitted</i>
<i>get-got-gotten</i>	<i>get-got-got</i>
<i>quit-quit-quit</i>	<i>quit-quit-quit</i>

American: *burn, dream, kneel, lean, leap, learn, smell, spell, spill, spoil* are usually regular: *burned, dreamed, kneeled, leaned, leaped, etc.*

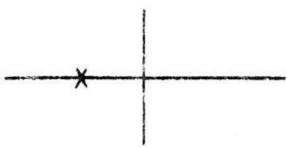
British: simple past and past participle forms of these verbs can be regular but more commonly end with *-t*: *burnt, dreamt, knelt, leant, leapt, learnt, smelt, spelt, spilt, spoilt*.

Differences between transitive and intransitive verbs:

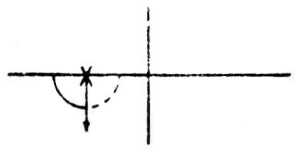
TRANSITIVE (followed by an object)	INTRANSITIVE (not followed by an object)
(a) <i>raise, raised, raised</i> Tom raised his head.	(b) <i>rise, rose, risen</i> The sun rises in the east.
(c) <i>set, set, set</i> I will set the book on the desk.	(d) <i>sit, sat, sat</i> I sit in the front row.
(e) <i>lay, laid, laid</i> I am laying the book on the desk.	(f) <i>lie, *lay, lain</i> He is lying on his bed.
(g) <i>hang, hung, hung</i> I hung my clothes in the closet. (h) <i>hang, hanged, hanged</i> They hanged the criminal by the neck until he was dead.	

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

1-12 SIMPLE PAST

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

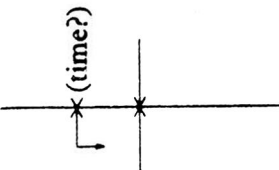
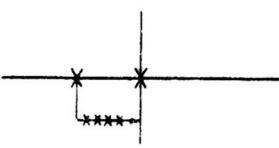
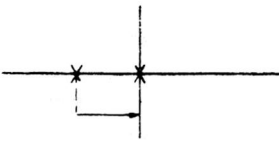
1-13 PAST PROGRESSIVE

	(g) I was walking down the street when it began to rain. (h) While I was walking down the street, it began to rain. (i) I was standing under a tree when it began to rain.	In (g): 1st: I was walking down the street. 2nd: It began to rain. In other words, both actions occurred at the <i>same</i> time, but <i>one action began earlier and was in progress when the other action occurred.</i>
	(j) At eight o'clock last night, I was studying. (k) Last year at this time, I was attending school.	In (j): My studying began before 8:00, was in progress at that time, and probably continued.
	(l) While I was studying in one room of our apartment, my roommate was having a party in the other room.	Sometimes the past progressive is used in both parts of a sentence when two actions are in progress simultaneously.
	(m) It rained this morning. (n) It was raining this morning.	In some cases, the simple past and the past progressive give almost the same meaning, as in (m) and (n).

1-14 USING EXPRESSIONS OF PLACE WITH PROGRESSIVE TENSES

(a) Kay is <i>studying in her room</i>. (b) Kay is <i>in her room studying</i>. (c) Jack was <i>in bed</i> reading a book when I came.	An expression of place can sometimes come between the auxiliary <i>be</i> and the <i>-ing</i> verb in a progressive tense, as in (b) and (c).
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1-15 PRESENT PERFECT

	(a) They <i>have moved</i> into a new apartment. (b) <i>Have</i> you ever <i>visited</i> Mexico? (c) I <i>have</i> already <i>seen</i> that movie. (d) I <i>have</i> never <i>seen</i> snow.	The present perfect expresses the idea that something happened (or never happened) <i>before now, at an unspecified time in the past</i>. The exact time it happened is not important. If there is a specific mention of time, the simple past is used: <i>I saw that movie last night.</i>
	(e) We <i>have had</i> four tests so far this semester. (f) I <i>have written</i> my wife a letter every other day for the last two weeks. (g) I <i>have met</i> many people since I came here in June. (h) I <i>have flown</i> on an airplane many times.	The present perfect also expresses the <i>repetition of an activity before now</i>. The exact time of each repetition is not important.
	(i) I <i>have been</i> here <i>since seven o'clock</i>. (j) We <i>have been</i> here <i>for two weeks</i>. (k) I <i>have had</i> this same pair of shoes <i>for three years</i>. (l) I <i>have liked</i> cowboy movies <i>ever since I was a child</i>. (m) I <i>have known</i> him <i>for many years</i>.	The present perfect also, when used with <i>for</i> or <i>since</i>, expresses a situation that <i>began in the past and continues to the present</i>. In the examples, notice the difference between <i>since</i> and <i>for</i>: <i>since</i> + a particular time <i>for</i> + a duration of time

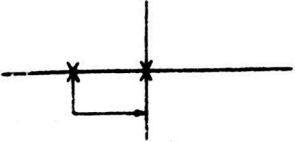
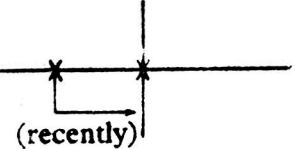
NOTE: The expression *have got* can have two meanings:

(a) I *have gotten* (British, *have got*) four letters so far this week.

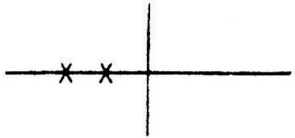
(b) I *have got* a problem.

In (a): *have gotten* (*have got*) is present perfect. In (b): *have got* is NOT present perfect. In (b) *have got* means *have*: *I've got a problem.* = *I have a problem.* The expression *have got* is common in informal spoken English. Its meaning is present; it has no past form.

1-16 PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE

	Right now I am sitting at my desk. (a) I have been sitting here <i>since</i> seven o'clock. (b) I have been sitting here <i>for</i> two hours. (c) You have been studying <i>for</i> five straight hours. Why don't you take a break? (d) It has been raining <i>all day</i>. It is still raining right now.	This tense is used to indicate the <i>duration</i> of an activity that <i>began in the past and continues to the present</i>. When the tense has this meaning, it is used with time words such as <i>for, since, all morning, all day, all week</i>.
	(e) I have been thinking about changing my major. (f) All of the students have been studying hard. Final exams start next week. (g) My back hurts, so I have been sleeping on the floor lately. The bed is too soft.	When the tense is used without any specific mention of time, it expresses a <i>general activity in progress recently, lately</i>.
	(h) I have lived here since 1985. I have been living here since 1985. (i) He has worked at the same store for ten years. He has been working at the same store for ten years.	With certain verbs (most notably <i>live, work, teach</i>), there is little or no difference in meaning between the two tenses when <i>since</i> or <i>for</i> is used.

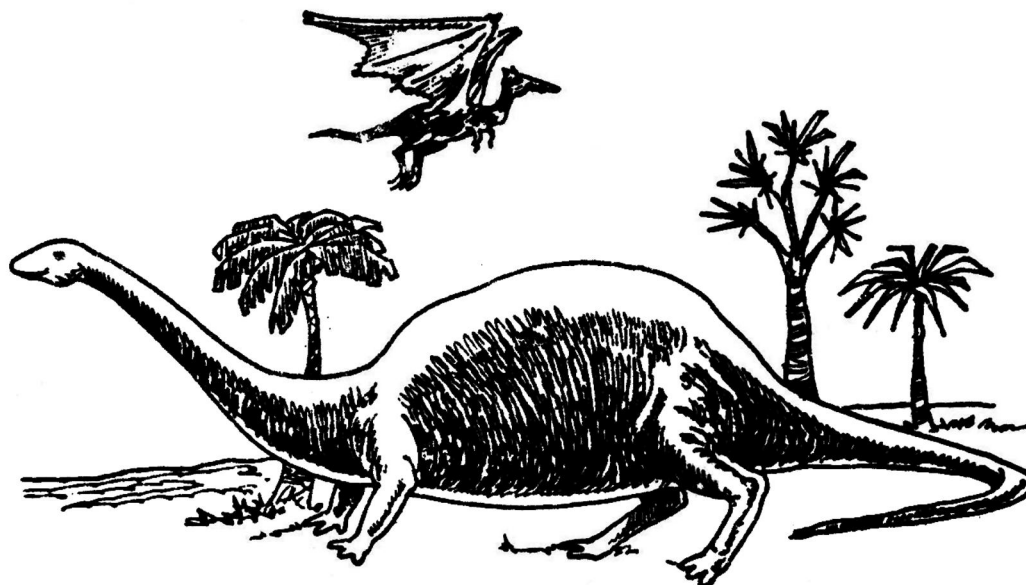
1-17 PAST PERFECT

	(a) My parents <i>had</i> already <i>eaten</i> by the time I got home. (b) Until yesterday, I <i>had</i> never <i>heard</i> about it. (c) The thief simply walked in. Someone <i>had forgotten</i> to lock the door.	The past perfect expresses an activity that was <i>completed before another activity or time in the past.</i>
	(d) Sam <i>had</i> already <i>left</i> <i>when</i> we got there. (e) Sam <i>had left</i> <i>before</i> we got there. (f) Sam <i>left</i> <i>before</i> we got there. (g) <i>After</i> the guests <i>had left</i>, I went to bed. (h) <i>After</i> the guests <i>left</i>, I went to bed.	In (d): <i>First</i>: Sam left. <i>Second</i>: We got there.* If either <i>before</i> or <i>after</i> is used in the sentence, the past perfect is often not necessary because the time relationship is already clear. The simple past may be used, as in (f) and (h). Note: (e) and (f) have the same meaning; (g) and (h) have the same meaning.

*COMPARE:

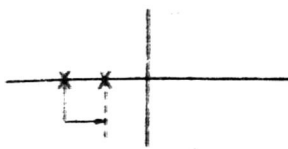
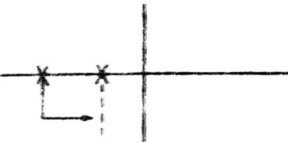
Sam *left when* we got there. = *First*: We got there.

Second: Sam left.



Millions of years ago, dinosaurs roamed the earth, but they *had become* extinct by the time humankind first *appeared*.

1-18 PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE

	(i) The police had been looking for the criminal <i>for two years</i> before they caught him. (j) The patient had been waiting in the emergency room <i>for almost an hour</i> before a doctor finally treated her. (k) He finally came at six o'clock. I had been waiting for him <i>since four-thirty</i>.	The past perfect progressive emphasizes the <i>duration</i> of an activity that was <i>in progress</i> before another activity or time in the past.
	(l) When Judy got home, her hair was still wet because she had been swimming. (m) Her eyes were red because she had been crying.	This tense also may express an activity <i>in progress</i> recent to another time or activity in the past.

1-19 SIMPLE FUTURE/BE GOING TO

	(a) He will finish his work tomorrow. (b) He is going to finish his work tomorrow.	Will or be going to is used to express future time.* In speech, going to is often pronounced "gonna."
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*The use of **shall** with *I* or *we* to express future time is possible but uncommon in American English. **Shall** is used much more frequently in British than in American English.

"Stop! What are you doing?"

"I'm trying to get this piece of toast out of the toaster. It's stuck."

"Well, don't use a knife. You **will electrocute/are going to electrocute** yourself!"

"What do you suggest I do?"

"Unplug it first."



1-20 WILL VERSUS BE GOING TO

To express a PREDICTION—either WILL or BE GOING TO is used:	
(a) According to the weather report, it will be cloudy tomorrow. (b) According to the weather report, it is going to be cloudy tomorrow. (c) Be careful! You 'll hurt yourself! (d) Watch out! You 're going to hurt yourself!	When the speaker is making a prediction (a statement about something s/he thinks will be true or will occur in the future), either will or be going to is possible. There is no difference in meaning between (a) and (b). There is no difference in meaning between (c) and (d).
To express a PRIOR PLAN—only BE GOING TO is used:	
(e) A: Why did you buy this paint? B: I 'm going to paint my bedroom tomorrow. (f) I talked to Bob yesterday. He is tired of taking the bus to work. He 's going to buy a car. That's what he told me.	When the speaker is expressing a prior plan (something the speaker intends to do in the future because in the past s/he has made a plan or decision to do it), only be going to is used.* In (e): Speaker B has made a prior plan. She decided to paint her bedroom last week. She intends to paint her bedroom tomorrow. In (f): The speaker knows Bob's intention to buy a car. Bob made the decision in the past and he intends to act on this decision in the future. Will is not appropriate in (e) and (f).
To express WILLINGNESS—only WILL is used:	
(g) A: The phone's ringing. B: I 'll get it. (h) A: I don't understand this problem. B: Ask your teacher about it. She 'll help you.	In (g): Speaker B is saying: "I am willing, I am happy to get the phone." He is not making a prediction. He has made no prior plan to answer the phone. He is, instead, volunteering to answer the phone and uses will to show his willingness. In (h): Speaker B feels sure about the teacher's willingness to help. Be going to is not appropriate in (g) and (h).

*COMPARE:

Situation 1: A: Are you busy this evening?

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

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

Situation 2: A: Are you busy this evening?

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

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

1-21 EXPRESSING THE FUTURE IN TIME CLAUSES

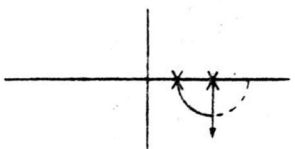
(a) Bob will come soon. <i>When Bob comes</i>, we will see him. (b) Linda is going to leave soon. <i>Before she leaves</i>, she is going to finish her work. (c) I will get home at 5:30. <i>After I get home</i>, I will eat dinner. (d) The taxi will arrive soon. <i>As soon as it arrives</i>, we'll be able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

*A "time clause" is an adverb clause. See Chart 8-5 for more information.

1-22 USING THE PRESENT PROGRESSIVE AND THE SIMPLE PRESENT TO EXPRESS FUTURE TIME

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

1-23 FUTURE PROGRESSIVE

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

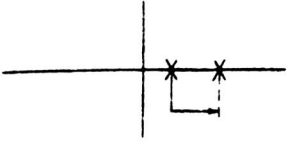
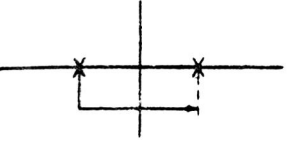


I'm leaving for Florida tomorrow. Two days from now I **will be lying** on the beach in the sun.

1-24 FUTURE PERFECT

	(a) I will graduate in June. I will see you in July. By the next time I see you, I will have graduated. (b) I will have finished my homework by the time I go out on a date tonight.	The future perfect expresses an activity that will be <i>completed</i> before another time or event in the future. (Notice in the examples: by the time introduces a time clause; the simple present is used in a time clause.)
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1-25 FUTURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE

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



CHAPTER 2

Modal Auxiliaries and Similar Expressions

2-1 INTRODUCTION

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

Modal auxiliaries generally express a speaker's attitudes, or "moods." 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 these attitudes.

Each modal has more than one meaning or use. (See Chart 2-23.)

(a) MODAL AUXILIARIES I We You They He She It } + { <i>can do it.</i> <i>could do it.</i> <i>had better do it.</i> <i>may do it.</i> <i>might do it.</i> <i>must do it.</i> <i>ought to do it.</i> <i>shall do it.</i> <i>should do it.</i> <i>will do it.</i> <i>would do it.</i>	Modals do not take a final <i>-s</i>, even when the subject is <i>he, she</i>, or <i>it</i>. CORRECT: <i>He can do it.</i> INCORRECT: <i>He cans do it.</i> Modals are followed immediately by the simple form of a verb. CORRECT: <i>He can do it.</i> INCORRECT: <i>He can to do it./He can does it./He can did it.</i> The only exception is <i>ought</i>, which is followed by an infinitive (<i>to</i> + the simple form of a verb). CORRECT: <i>She ought to go to the meeting.</i>
(b) SIMILAR EXPRESSIONS <i>be able to do it</i> <i>be going to do it</i> <i>be supposed to do it</i> <i>be to do it</i> <i>have to do it</i> <i>have got to do it</i> <i>used to do it</i>	In (b) is a list of some common expressions whose meanings are similar to those of some of the modal auxiliaries. For example, <i>be able to</i> is similar to <i>can</i>; <i>be going to</i> is similar to <i>will</i>. An infinitive (<i>to</i> + the simple form of a verb) is used in these similar expressions.

2-2 POLITE REQUESTS WITH 'I' AS THE SUBJECT

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

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

2-3 POLITE REQUESTS WITH 'YOU' AS THE SUBJECT

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

2-4 POLITE REQUESTS WITH WOULD YOU MIND

ASKING PERMISSION (a) <i>Would you mind if I closed</i> the window? (b) <i>Would you mind if I used</i> the phone?	Notice in (a): <i>would you mind if I</i> is followed by the simple past.* The meaning in (a): <i>May I close the window? Is it all right if I close the window? Will it cause you any trouble or discomfort if I close the window?</i>
TYPICAL RESPONSES No. Not at all. No, of course not. No, that would be fine.	Another typical response might be "unh-unh," meaning <i>no</i> .
ASKING SOMEONE ELSE TO DO SOMETHING (c) <i>Would you mind closing</i> the window? (d) Excuse me? <i>Would you mind repeating</i> that?	Notice in (c): <i>would you mind</i> is followed by <i>-ing</i> (a gerund). The meaning in (c): <i>I don't want to cause you any trouble, but would you please close the window? Would that cause you any inconvenience?</i>
TYPICAL RESPONSES No. I'd be happy to. Not at all. I'd be glad to.	

*Sometimes in informal spoken English, the simple present is used: *Would you mind if I close the window?* (Note: The simple past does not refer to past time after *would you mind*; it refers to present or future time. See Chart 10-3 for more information.)

2-5 USING IMPERATIVE SENTENCES TO MAKE POLITE REQUESTS

(a) <i>Shut</i> the door. (b) <i>Be</i> on time. (c) <i>Don't shut</i> the door. (d) <i>Don't be</i> late.	An imperative sentence has an understood subject (<i>you</i>), and the verb (e.g., <i>shut</i>) is in the simple form. <i>Shut the door.</i> = (<i>You</i>) <i>shut the door.</i> <i>Be on time.</i> = (<i>You</i>) <i>be on time.</i> In the negative, <i>don't</i> precedes the simple form of the verb.
(e) <i>Turn</i> right at the corner. (f) <i>Shut</i> the door. (g) <i>Please shut</i> the door. <i>Shut the door, please.</i>	An imperative sentence can be used to give directions, as in (e). An imperative sentence can be used to give an order, as in (f). It can also be used to make a polite request, as in (g), when the word <i>please</i> is added.*

*Sometimes *would you/could you* is added as a tag question (almost as an afterthought) to turn an imperative into a polite request; e.g., *Shut the door, would/could you?* Sometimes, usually in a formal situation, *won't you* is added to an imperative as a tag question to make a polite request; e.g., *Have a seat, won't you?* (See Appendix 1, Chart B-4 for information about tag questions.)

2-6 EXPRESSING NECESSITY: **MUST, HAVE TO, HAVE GOT TO**

(a) All applicants must take an entrance exam. (b) All applicants have to take an entrance exam.	Must and have to both express necessity. In (a) and (b): It is necessary for every applicant to take an entrance exam. There is no other choice. The exam is required.
(c) I'm looking for Sue. I have to talk to her about our lunch date tomorrow. I can't meet her for lunch because I have to go to a business meeting at 1:30. (d) Where's Sue? I must talk to her right away. I have an urgent message for her.	In everyday statements of necessity, have to is used more commonly than must . Must is usually stronger than have to and can indicate urgency or stress importance. In (c): The speaker is simply saying, "I need to do this and I need to do that." In (d): The speaker is strongly saying, "This is very important!"
(e) I have to ("hafta") be home by eight. (f) He has to ("hasta") go to a meeting tonight.	Note: have to is usually pronounced "hafta"; has to is usually pronounced "hasta."
(g) I have got to go now. I have a class in ten minutes. (h) I have to go now. I have a class in ten minutes.	Have got to also expresses the idea of necessity: (g) and (h) have the same meaning. Have got to is informal and is used primarily in spoken English. Have to is used in both formal and informal English.
(i) I have got to go ("I've gotta go/I gotta go") now.	Usual pronunciation of got to is "gotta." Sometimes have is dropped in speech: "I gotta do it."
(j) PRESENT or FUTURE I have to/have got to/must study tonight. (k) PAST: I had to study last night.	The idea of past necessity is expressed by had to . There is no other past form for must (when it means necessity) or have got to .

2-7 LACK OF NECESSITY AND PROHIBITION: **HAVE TO AND MUST IN THE NEGATIVE**

LACK OF NECESSITY (a) Tomorrow is a holiday. We don't have to go to class. (b) I can hear you. You don't have to shout .*	When used in the negative, must and have to have different meanings. do not have to = lack of necessity. In (a): It is not necessary for us to go to class tomorrow because there is a holiday.
PROHIBITION (c) You must not look in the closet. Your birthday present is hidden there. (d) You must not tell anyone my secret. Do you promise?	must not = prohibition (DO NOT DO THIS!) In (c): Do not look in the closet. I forbid it. Looking in the closet is prohibited. Negative contraction: mustn't . (The first "t" is not pronounced: "muss-ənt.")

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

2-8 ADVISABILITY: *SHOULD*, *OUGHT TO*, *HAD BETTER*

(a) You <i>should study</i> harder. You <i>ought to study</i> harder. (b) Drivers <i>should obey</i> the speed limit. Drivers <i>ought to obey</i> the speed limit.	<i>Should</i> and <i>ought to</i> have the same meaning: they express advisability. The meaning ranges in strength from a suggestion ("This is a good idea.") to a statement about responsibility or duty ("This is a very important thing to do."). In (a): "This is a good idea. This is my advice." In (b): "This is an important responsibility."
(c) You <i>shouldn't leave</i> your keys in the car.	Negative contraction: <i>shouldn't</i>. *
(d) I <i>ought to</i> ("otta") <i>study</i> tonight, but I think I'll watch TV instead.	<i>Ought to</i> is sometimes pronounced "otta" in informal speaking.
(e) The gas tank is almost empty. We <i>had better stop</i> at the next service station. (f) You <i>had better take</i> care of that cut on your hand soon, or it will get infected.	In meaning, <i>had better</i> is close to <i>should/ought to</i>, but <i>had better</i> is usually stronger. Often <i>had better</i> implies a warning or a threat of possible bad consequences. In (e): If we don't stop at a service station, there will be a bad result. We will run out of gas. Notes: <i>Had better</i> has a present or future meaning. It is followed by the simple form of a verb. It is more common in speaking than writing.
(g) You'd <i>better</i> take care of it. (h) You <i>better</i> take care of it. (i) You'd <i>better not</i> be late.	Contraction: 'd <i>better</i>, as in (g). Sometimes in speaking, <i>had</i> is dropped, as in (h). Negative form: <i>had better + not</i>.

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



"You *should put* on a sweater."

"You *ought to drink* some hot tea."

"You *had better go* inside and get warm."

2-9 THE PAST FORM OF *SHOULD*

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

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

2-10 EXPECTATIONS: *BE SUPPOSED TO* AND *BE TO*

(a) The game is supposed to begin at 10:00. (b) The game is to begin at 10:00. (c) The committee is supposed to meet tomorrow. (d) The committee is to meet tomorrow.	Be supposed to and be to (a form of <i>be</i> followed immediately by an infinitive, e.g., <i>is to begin</i>) express the idea that someone (I, we, they, the teacher, lots of people, my father, etc.) expects something to happen. Be supposed to and be to often express expectations about scheduled events or correct procedures. In (a) and (b): The speaker expects the game to begin at 10:00 because that is the schedule. Be to is stronger, more definite, than be supposed to.
COMPARE: (e) I should go to the meeting. I can get some information if I go. Going to the meeting is a good idea. (f) I am supposed to go to the meeting. My boss told me that he wants me to attend.	Be supposed to and be to also express expectations about behavior; often they give the idea that someone expects a particular person to do something. Be supposed to is close in meaning to should, but be supposed to, as in (f), gives the idea that someone else expects (requests or requires) this behavior.
COMPARE: (g) I must be at the meeting. The meeting can't occur without me because I'm the only one who has certain information. (h) I am to be at the meeting. My boss ordered me to be there. He will accept no excuses.	Be to is close in meaning to must, but be to, as in (h), includes the idea that someone else strongly expects (demands or orders) this behavior. Be to is used to state strong expectations: e.g., rules, laws, instructions, demands, orders.

2-11 MAKING SUGGESTIONS: *LET'S*, *WHY DON'T*, *SHALL I/WE*

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

2-12 MAKING SUGGESTIONS: *COULD*

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

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

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

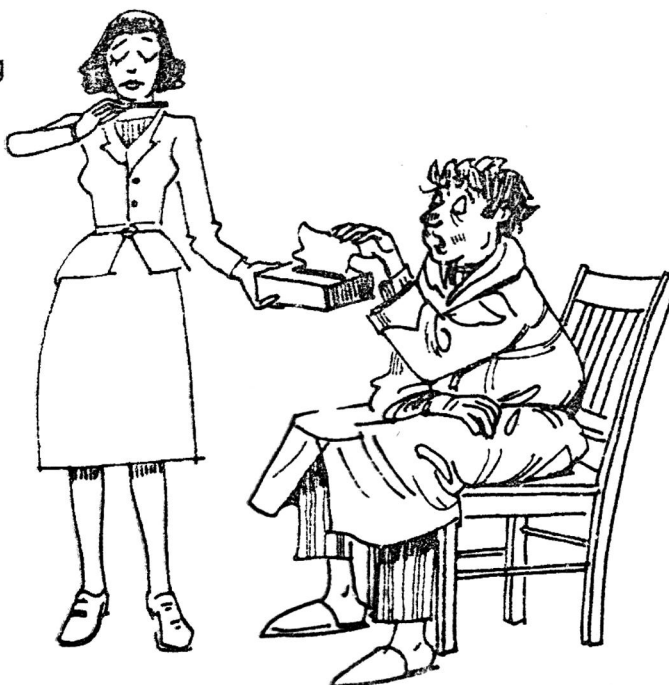
2-13 EXPRESSING DEGREES OF CERTAINTY: PRESENT TIME

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

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

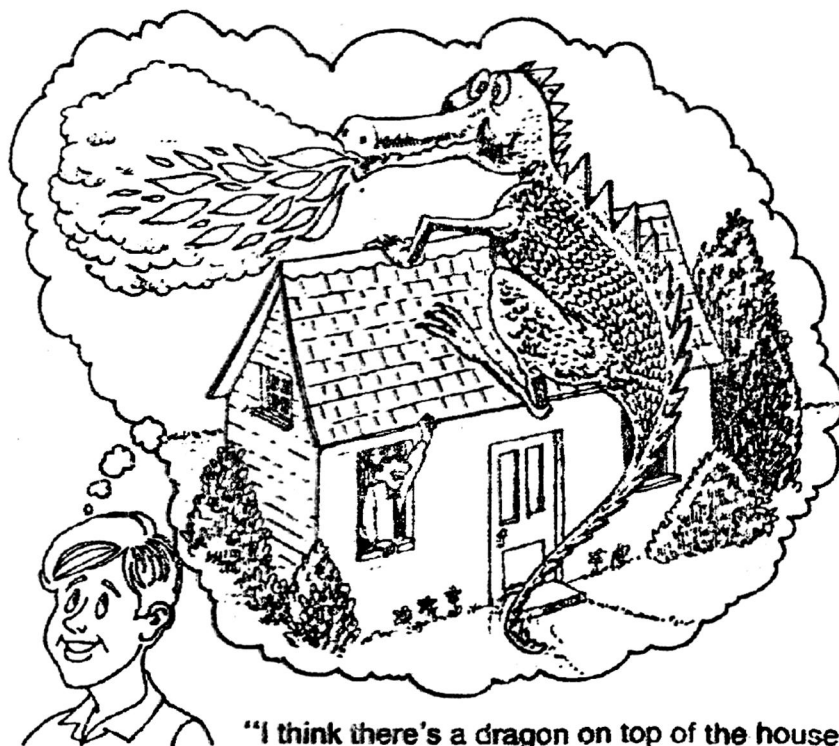
"You're coughing and sneezing, blowing your nose, and running a fever. You **must** feel terrible."

"I do."



2-14 DEGREES OF CERTAINTY: PRESENT TIME NEGATIVE

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



"I think there's a dragon on top of the house, Dad!"

"Son, it *couldn't be* a dragon. We don't have any dragons around here. They exist only in story books."

2-15 DEGREES OF CERTAINTY: PAST TIME

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

2-16 DEGREES OF CERTAINTY: FUTURE TIME*

100% sure: Kay <i>will do</i> well on the test. 90% sure: She <i>should do</i> well on the test. She <i>ought to do</i> well on the test. less than 50% sure: She <i>may do</i> well on the test. She <i>might do</i> well on the test. She <i>could do</i> well on the test.	→ (The speaker feels sure.) → (The speaker is almost sure.) → (The speaker is guessing.)
(a) Kay has been studying hard. She <i>should do/ought to do</i> well on the test tomorrow.	<i>Should/ought to</i> can be used to express expectations about future events. In (a): The speaker is saying, "Kay will probably do well on the test. I expect her to do well. That is what I think will happen."
(b) I wonder why Sue hasn't written us. We <i>should have heard/ought to have heard</i> from her last week.	The past form of <i>should/ought to</i> is used to mean that the speaker expected something that did not occur.

*COMPARE: *Must* expresses a strong degree of certainty about a *present* situation. (See Chart 2-13.) *Should* and *ought to* express a fairly strong degree of certainty about a *future* situation. *Will* indicates that there is no doubt in the speaker's mind about a *future* event.

2-17 PROGRESSIVE FORMS OF MODALS

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

2-18 USING USED TO (HABITUAL PAST) AND BE USED TO

(a) Jack used to live in Chicago.	In (a): At a time in the past, Jack lived in Chicago, but he does not live in Chicago now. Used to expresses a habit, activity, or situation that existed in the past but which no longer exists.
(b) Mary is used to cold weather. (c) Mary is accustomed to cold weather.	Be used to means be accustomed to. (b) and (c) have the same meaning: Living in a cold climate is usual and normal to Mary. Cold weather, snow, and ice do not seem strange to her.
COMPARE: (d) Jack used to live in Chicago. (e) Mary is used to living in a cold climate. She is accustomed to living there.	To express habitual past, used is followed by an infinitive, e.g., to live as in (d). Be used to and be accustomed to are followed by an -ing verb form (a gerund*), as in (e).
(f) Bob moved to Alaska. After a while he got used to/got accustomed to living in a cold climate.	In the expressions get used to and get accustomed to, get means become.

*See Chart 4-2, *Using Gerunds as the Objects of Prepositions*.

2-19 USING **WOULD** TO EXPRESS A REPEATED ACTION IN THE PAST

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



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

2-20 EXPRESSING PREFERENCE: **WOULD RATHER**

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

2-21 USING CAN AND BE ABLE TO

(a) Tom is strong. He <i>can lift</i> that heavy box. (b) I <i>can play</i> the piano. I've taken lessons for many years. (c) You <i>can see</i> fish at an aquarium. (d) That race car <i>can go</i> very fast.	<i>Can</i> usually expresses the idea that something is possible because certain characteristics or conditions exist. <i>Can</i> combines the ideas of <i>possibility</i> and <i>ability</i>. In (a): It is possible for Tom to lift that box because he is strong. In (b): It is possible for me to play the piano because I have acquired that ability. In (c): It is possible to see fish at an aquarium because an aquarium has fish. In (d): It is possible for that car to go fast because of its special characteristics.
(e) Dogs can bark, but they <i>cannot/can't talk</i>.	Negative form: <i>cannot</i> or <i>can't</i>. (Also possible, but not as common: <i>can not</i>, written as two words.)
COMPARE: (f) I <i>can walk</i> to school. It's not far. (g) I <i>may walk</i> to school. Or I may take the bus.	In (f): I can walk to school because certain conditions exist. In (g): I am less than 50% certain that I will walk to school.
COMPARE: (h) I'm not quite ready to go, but you <i>can leave</i> if you're in a hurry. I'll meet you later. (i) When you finish the test, you <i>may leave</i>.	<i>Can</i> is also used to give permission. In giving permission, <i>can</i> is usually used in informal situations, as in (h); <i>may</i> is usually used in formal situations, as in (i).
COMPARE: (j) Tom <i>can lift</i> that box. (k) <i>Uncommon</i>: Tom <i>is able to lift</i> that box. (l) Ann <i>will be able to lift</i> that box. Bob <i>may be able to lift</i> that box. Sue <i>should be able to lift</i> that box. Jim <i>used to be able to lift</i> that box.	The use of <i>be able to</i> in the simple present (<i>am/is/are able to</i>) is uncommon (but possible). <i>Be able to</i> is more commonly used in combination with other auxiliaries, as in (l).

2-22 PAST ABILITY: **COULD**

(a) When I was younger, I could run fast. (Probable meaning: I used to be able to run fast, but now I can't run fast.)	In affirmative sentences about past ability, could usually means "used to be able to." The use of could usually indicates that the ability existed in the past but does not exist now.
(b) Tom has started an exercise program. He was able to run two miles yesterday without stopping or slowing down.	If the speaker is talking about an ability to perform an act at one particular time in the past, was/were able to can be used in affirmative sentences but not could . Could is not appropriate in (b).
--Did you read the news about the mountain climbers? (c) INCORRECT: They could reach the top of Mt. Everest yesterday. (d) CORRECT: They were able to reach the top yesterday. They managed to reach the top yesterday. They reached the top yesterday	Note that (c) is incorrect. Instead of could , the speaker needs to use were able to , managed to , or the simple past.
(e) They couldn't reach/weren't able to reach the top yesterday. (f) Tom couldn't run/wasn't able to run five miles yesterday.	In negative sentences, there is no difference between using could and was/were able to .

2-23 SUMMARY CHART OF MODALS AND SIMILAR EXPRESSIONS

AUXILIARY	USES	PRESENT/FUTURE	PAST
<i>may</i>	(1) polite request	<i>May I borrow your pen?</i>	
	(2) formal permission	You <i>may leave</i> the room.	
	(3) less than 50% certainty	--Where's John? He <i>may be</i> at the library.	He <i>may have been</i> at the library.
<i>might</i>	(1) less than 50% certainty	--Where's John? He <i>might be</i> at the library.	He <i>might have been</i> at the library.
	(2) polite request (rare)	<i>Might I borrow your pen?</i>	

(continued)

AUXILIARY	USES	PRESENT/FUTURE	PAST
<i>should</i>	(1) advisability	I <i>should study</i> tonight.	I <i>should have studied</i> last night
	(2) 90% certainty	She <i>should do</i> well on the test. (<i>future only, not present</i>)	She <i>should have done</i> well on the test.
<i>ought to</i>	(1) advisability	I <i>ought to study</i> tonight.	I <i>ought to have studied</i> last night.
	(2) 90% certainty	She <i>ought to do</i> well on the test. (<i>future only, not present</i>)	She <i>ought to have done</i> well on the test.
<i>had better</i>	(1) advisability with threat of bad result	You <i>had better be</i> on time, or we will leave without you.	(<i>past form uncommon</i>)
<i>be supposed to</i>	(1) expectation	Class <i>is supposed to begin</i> at 10.	Class <i>was supposed to begin</i> at 10.
<i>be to</i>	(1) strong expectation	You <i>are to be</i> here at 9:00.	You <i>were to be</i> here at 9:00.
<i>must</i>	(1) strong necessity	I <i>must go</i> to class today.	I <i>had to go</i> to class yesterday.
	(2) prohibition (<i>negative</i>)	You <i>must not</i> open that door.	
	(3) 95% certainty	Mary isn't in class. She <i>must be</i> sick. (<i>present only</i>)	Mary <i>must have been</i> sick yesterday.
<i>have to</i>	(1) necessity	I <i>have to go</i> to class today.	I <i>had to go</i> to class yesterday.
	(2) lack of necessity (<i>negative</i>)	I <i>don't have to go</i> to class today.	I <i>didn't have to go</i> to class yesterday.
<i>have got to</i>	(1) necessity	I <i>have got to go</i> to class today.	I <i>had to go</i> to class yesterday.
<i>will</i>	(1) 100% certainty	He <i>will be</i> here at 6:00. (<i>future only</i>)	
	(2) willingness	--The phone's ringing. I'll get it.	
	(3) polite request	<i>Will</i> you please <i>pass</i> the salt?	
<i>be going to</i>	(1) 100% certainty	He <i>is going to be</i> here at 6:00. (<i>future only</i>)	
	(2) definite plan	I'm <i>going to paint</i> my bedroom. (<i>future only</i>)	I <i>was going to paint</i> my room, but I didn't have time.

AUXILIARY	USES	PRESENT/FUTURE	PAST
<i>can</i>	(1) ability/possibility	I <i>can run</i> fast.	I <i>could run</i> fast when I was a child, but now I can't.
	(2) informal permission	You <i>can use</i> my car tomorrow.	
	(3) informal polite request	<i>Can</i> I <i>borrow</i> your pen?	
	(4) impossibility (negative only)	That <i>can't be</i> true!	That <i>can't have been</i> true!
<i>could</i>	(1) past ability		I <i>could run</i> fast when I was a child.
	(2) polite request	<i>Could</i> I <i>borrow</i> your pen? <i>Could</i> you <i>help</i> me?	
	(3) suggestion	--I need help in math. You <i>could talk</i> to your teacher.	You <i>could have talked</i> to your teacher.
	(4) less than 50% certainty	--Where's John? He <i>could be</i> at home.	He <i>could have been</i> at home.
	(5) impossibility (negative only)	That <i>couldn't be</i> true!	That <i>couldn't have been</i> true!
<i>be able to</i>	(1) ability	I <i>am able to help</i> you. I <i>will be able to help</i> you.	I <i>was able to help</i> him.
<i>would</i>	(1) polite request	<i>Would</i> you please <i>pass</i> the salt? <i>Would</i> you <i>mind</i> if I left early?	
	(2) preference	I <i>would rather go</i> to the park than <i>stay</i> home.	I <i>would rather have gone</i> to the park.
	(3) repeated action in the past		When I was a child, I <i>would visit</i> my grandparents every weekend.
<i>used to</i>	(1) repeated action in the past		I <i>used to</i> visit my grandparents every weekend.
<i>shall</i>	(1) polite question to make a suggestion	<i>Shall</i> I <i>open</i> the window?	
	(2) future with "I" or "we" as subject	I <i>shall</i> arrive at nine. (<i>will</i> = more common)	

Note: Use of modals in reported speech is discussed in Chapter 7. Use of modals in conditional sentences is discussed in Chapter 10.



CHAPTER 3

The Passive

3-1 FORMING THE PASSIVE

ACTIVE: (a) Mary ^S ^V <i>helped</i> ^O the boy. PASSIVE: (b) The boy ^S ^V <i>was helped</i> by Mary.	Form of the passive: <i>be + past participle</i>. In the passive, <i>the object of an active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb</i>: "the boy" in (a) becomes the subject of the passive verb in (b). (a) and (b) have the same meaning.
ACTIVE: (c) An accident <i>happened</i>. PASSIVE: (d) (<i>none</i>)	Only transitive verbs (verbs that are followed by an object) are used in the passive. It is not possible to use verbs such as <i>happen, sleep, come, and seem</i> (intransitive verbs) in the passive. (See Appendix 1, Chart A-1.)
ACTIVE <i>simple present</i> Mary <i>helps</i> John. <i>present progressive</i> Mary <i>is helping</i> John. <i>present perfect</i> Mary <i>has helped</i> John. <i>simple past</i> Mary <i>helped</i> John. <i>past progressive</i> Mary <i>was helping</i> John. <i>past perfect</i> Mary <i>had helped</i> John. <i>simple future</i> Mary <i>will help</i> John. <i>be going to</i> Mary <i>is going to help</i> John. <i>future perfect*</i> Mary <i>will have helped</i> John.	PASSIVE <i>is helped</i> by Mary. <i>is being helped</i> by Mary. <i>has been helped</i> by Mary. <i>was helped</i> by Mary. <i>was being helped</i> by Mary. <i>had been helped</i> by Mary. <i>will be helped</i> by Mary. <i>is going to be helped</i> by Mary. <i>will have been helped</i> by Mary.

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

The wagon *is being pulled* by two horses.



3-2 USING THE PASSIVE

(a) Rice is grown in India. (b) Our house was built in 1890. (c) This olive oil was imported from Spain.	Usually the passive is used without a "by phrase." The passive is most frequently used when it is not known or not important to know exactly who performs an action. In (a): Rice is grown in India by people, by farmers, by someone. In sentence (a), it is not known or important to know exactly who grows rice in India. (a), (b), and (c) illustrate the most common use of the passive, i.e., without the "by phrase."
(d) <i>Life on the Mississippi</i> was written by Mark Twain.	The "by phrase" is included only if it is important to know who performs an action. In (d), <i>by Mark Twain</i> is important information.
(e) My aunt made this rug. (active) (f) This rug was made by my aunt. That rug was made by my mother.	If the speaker/writer knows who performs an action, usually the active is used, as in (e). The passive may be used with the "by phrase" instead of the active when the speaker/writer wants to focus attention on the subject of a sentence. In (f) the focus of attention is on two rugs.

3-3 INDIRECT OBJECTS AS PASSIVE SUBJECTS

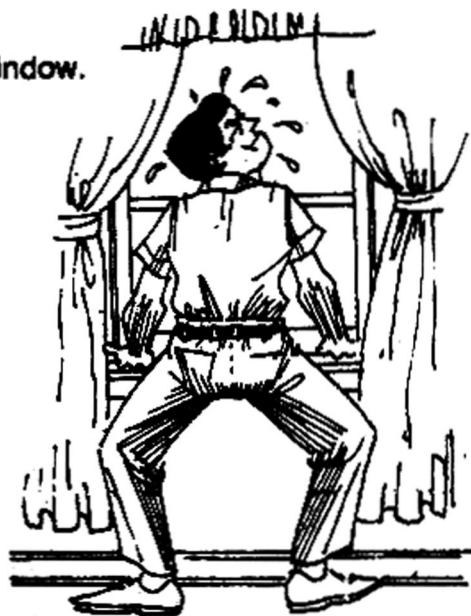
I.O. D.O.	I.O. = indirect object. D.O. = direct object.
(a) Someone gave Mrs. Lee an award. (b) Mrs. Lee was given an award.	Either an indirect object or a direct object may become the subject of a passive sentence.
(c) Someone gave an award to Mrs. Lee. (d) An award was given to Mrs. Lee.	(a), (b),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

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

3-5 STATIVE PASSIVE

(a) The door <i>is old</i>. (b) The door <i>is green</i>. (c) The door <i>is locked</i>.	In (a) and (b): <i>old</i> and <i>green</i> are adjectives. They describe the door. In (c): <i>locked</i> is a past participle. It is used as an adjective. It describes the door.
(d) I locked the door five minutes ago. (e) The door was locked by me five minutes ago. (f) Now the door <i>is locked</i>.	The passive form may be used to describe an existing situation or state, as in (f) and (i). No action is taking place. The action happened before. There is no "by phrase." The past participle functions as an adjective.
(g) Ann broke the window. (h) The window was broken by Ann. (i) Now the window <i>is broken</i>.	When the passive form expresses an existing state rather than an action, it is called the "stative passive."
(j) I <i>am interested in</i> Chinese art. (k) He <i>is satisfied with</i> his job. (l) Ann <i>is married to</i> Alex.	Often stative passive verbs are followed by a preposition other than <i>by</i>. (See Appendix 2.)
(m) I don't know where I am. I <i>am lost</i>. (n) I can't find my purse. It <i>is gone</i>. (o) I <i>am finished with</i> my work. (p) I <i>am done with</i> my work.	(m) through (p) are examples of idiomatic usage of the passive form. These sentences have no equivalent active sentences.

Sam can't open the window.
It *is stuck*.



3-4 THE PASSIVE FORM OF MODALS AND SIMILAR EXPRESSIONS¹

THE PASSIVE FORM: *modal + be + past participle*

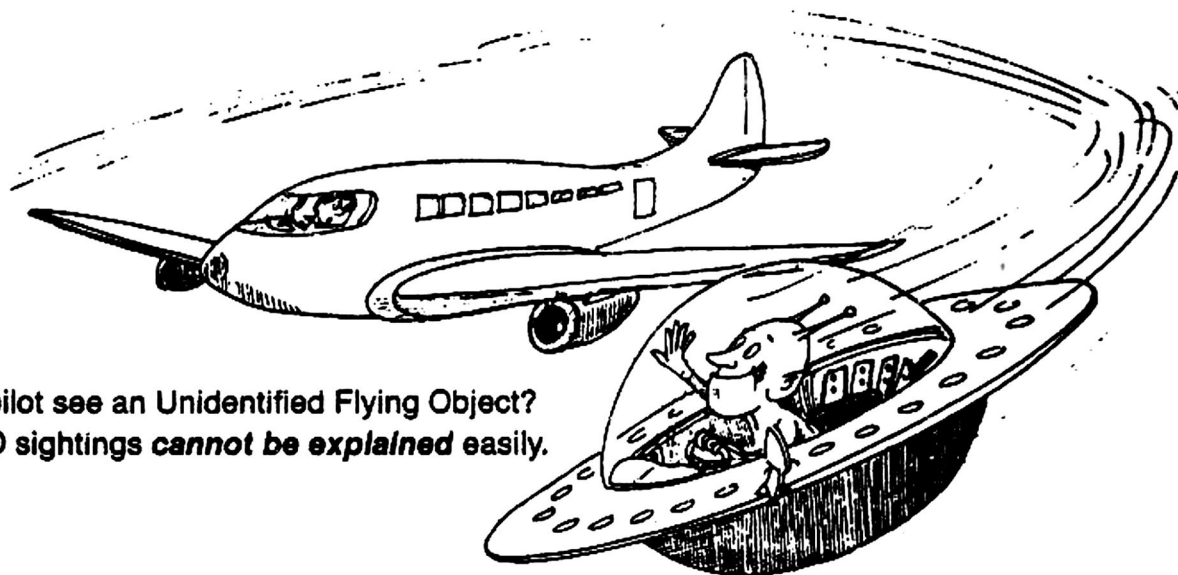
- | | | |
|-----------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| (a) Tom | <i>will be invited</i> | to the picnic. |
| (b) The window | <i>can't be opened.</i> | |
| (c) Children | <i>should be taught</i> | to respect their elders. |
| (d) | <i>May I be excused</i> | from class? |
| (e) This book | <i>had better be returned</i> | to the library before Friday. |
| (f) This letter | <i>ought to be sent</i> | before June 1st. |
| (g) Mary | <i>has to be told</i> | about our change in plans. |
| (h) Fred | <i>is supposed to be told</i> | about the meeting. |

THE PAST-PASSIVE FORM: *modal + have been + past participle*

- | | | |
|----------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------|
| (i) The letter | <i>should have been sent</i> | last week. |
| (j) This house | <i>must have been built</i> | over 200 years ago. |
| (k) Jack | <i>ought to have been invited</i> | to the party. |

*See Chapter 2 for a discussion of the form, meaning, and use of modals and similar expressions.

Does the pilot see an Unidentified Flying Object?
Some UFO sightings *cannot be explained* easily.



3-6 THE PASSIVE WITH GET

(a) I'm <i>getting hungry</i> . Let's eat soon. (b) You shouldn't eat so much. You'll <i>get fat</i> . (c) I stopped working because I <i>got sleepy</i> .	<i>Get</i> may be followed by certain adjectives.*
(d) I stopped working because I <i>got tired</i> . (e) They <i>are getting married</i> next month. (f) I <i>got worried</i> because he was two hours late.	<i>Get</i> may also be followed by a past participle. The past participle functions as an adjective; it describes the subject. The passive with <i>get</i> is common in spoken English but is often not appropriate in formal writing.

*Some of the common adjectives that follow *get* are: *angry, anxious, bald, better, big, busy, chilly, cold, dark, dizzy, empty, fat, full, good, heavy, hot, hungry, late, light, mad, nervous, old, rich, sick, sleepy, tall, thirsty, warm, well, wet, worse*.

3-7 PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVES

--The problem confuses the students. (a) It is a <i>confusing</i> problem.	The present participle conveys an active meaning. The noun it modifies does something. In (a): The noun "problem" does something; it "confuses." Thus, it is described as a "confusing problem."
--The students are confused by the problem. (b) They are <i>confused</i> students.	The past participle conveys a passive meaning. In (b): The students are confused by something. Thus, they are described as "confused students."
--The story amuses the children. (c) It is an <i>amusing</i> story. --The children are amused by the story. (d) They are <i>amused</i> children.	In (c): The noun "story" performs the action. In (d): The noun "children" receives the action.



There is an old saying: Let *sleeping* dogs lie.



CHAPTER 4

Gerunds and Infinitives

A gerund = *the -ing form of a verb* (e.g., talking, playing, understanding).

An infinitive = *to + the simple form of a verb* (e.g., to talk, to play, to understand).

4-1 GERUNDS: INTRODUCTION

S V
(a) **Playing** tennis is fun.

S V O
(b) We enjoy **playing** tennis.

PREP O
(c) He's excited about **playing** tennis.

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

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

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

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

It is fun **to sleep** in a tent.
(infinitive)

Sleeping in a tent is fun.
(gerund)



4-2 USING GERUNDS AS THE OBJECTS OF PREPOSITIONS

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

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



One day when Sally and Timmy were kids, they talked **about doing** something that they had never done before.

"Let's explore a cave," said Sally.

"I don't know where any caves are," replied Timmy. "I have a better idea. Let's smoke Uncle Ben's cigars!"

So they sneaked a couple of cigars out of their uncle's house. They were **scared of getting** caught by their parents, so they went down the street to a vacant lot. Neither of them was used **to smoking**. Sally complained **about feeling** sick to her stomach, and Timmy got very dizzy. They hated the cigars and never smoked again in their lives.

To this day, neither one of them approves **of smoking**.

4-3 COMMON VERBS FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS

VERB + GERUND (a) I <i>enjoy playing</i> tennis.	Gerunds are used as the objects of certain verbs. In (a), <i>enjoy</i> is followed by a gerund (<i>playing</i>). <i>Enjoy</i> is not followed by an infinitive. INCORRECT: <i>I enjoy to play tennis</i> . Common verbs that are followed by gerunds are given in the list below.		
(b) Joe <i>quit smoking</i> . (c) Joe <i>gave up smoking</i> .	(b) and (c) have the same meaning. Some two-word verbs, e.g., <i>give up</i> , are followed by gerunds. These two-word verbs are given in parentheses in the list below.		
VERB + GERUND			
<i>enjoy</i>	<i>quit (give up)</i>	<i>avoid</i>	<i>consider (think about)</i>
<i>appreciate</i>	<i>finish (get through)</i>	<i>postpone (put off)</i>	<i>discuss (talk about)</i>
<i>mind</i>	<i>stop*</i>	<i>delay</i>	<i>mention</i>
		<i>keep (keep on)</i>	<i>suggest</i>

**Stop* can also be followed immediately by an infinitive of purpose (*in order to*). See Chart 4-11.

COMPARE the following:

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

Ivan enjoys *hiking*.

He goes *hiking* every weekend during summer.



4-4 GO + GERUND

(a) Did you <i>go shopping</i>? (b) We <i>went fishing</i> yesterday.	<i>Go</i> is followed by a gerund in certain idiomatic expressions to express, for the most part, recreational activities.																									
<table><tr><th colspan="3">GO + GERUND</th></tr><tr><td><i>go birdwatching</i></td><td><i>go hiking</i></td><td><i>go sightseeing</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>go boating</i></td><td><i>go hunting</i></td><td><i>go skating</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>go bowling</i></td><td><i>go jogging</i></td><td><i>go skiing</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>go camping</i></td><td><i>go mountain climbing</i></td><td><i>go sledding</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>go canoeing</i></td><td><i>go running</i></td><td><i>go swimming</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>go dancing</i></td><td><i>go sailing</i></td><td><i>go tobogganing</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>go fishing</i></td><td><i>go shopping</i></td><td><i>go window shopping</i></td></tr></table>			GO + GERUND			<i>go birdwatching</i>	<i>go hiking</i>	<i>go sightseeing</i>	<i>go boating</i>	<i>go hunting</i>	<i>go skating</i>	<i>go bowling</i>	<i>go jogging</i>	<i>go skiing</i>	<i>go camping</i>	<i>go mountain climbing</i>	<i>go sledding</i>	<i>go canoeing</i>	<i>go running</i>	<i>go swimming</i>	<i>go dancing</i>	<i>go sailing</i>	<i>go tobogganing</i>	<i>go fishing</i>	<i>go shopping</i>	<i>go window shopping</i>
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4-5 COMMON VERBS FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVES

VERB + INFINITIVE (a) I <i>hope to see</i> you again soon. (b) He <i>promised to be</i> here by ten. (c) He <i>promised not to be</i> late.	Some verbs are followed immediately by an infinitive, as in (a) and (b). See Group A below. Negative form: <i>not</i> precedes the infinitive.
VERB + (PRO)NOUN + INFINITIVE (d) Mr. Lee <i>told me to be</i> here at ten o'clock. (e) The police <i>ordered the driver to stop</i> .	Some verbs are followed by a (pro)noun and then an infinitive, as in (d) and (e). See Group B below.
(f) I <i>was told to be</i> here at ten o'clock. (g) The driver <i>was ordered to stop</i> .	These verbs are followed immediately by an infinitive when they are used in the passive, as in (f) and (g).
(h) I <i>expect to pass</i> the test. (i) I <i>expect Mary to pass</i> the test.	Ask, expect, would like, want, and need may or may not be followed by a (pro)noun object. COMPARE: In (h): I think I will pass the test. In (i): I think Mary will pass the test.
GROUP A: VERB + INFINITIVE <i>hope to</i> <i>plan to</i> <i>intend to*</i> <i>decide to</i> <i>promise to</i> <i>agree to</i> <i>offer to</i> <i>refuse to</i> <i>seem to</i> <i>appear to</i> <i>pretend to</i> <i>ask to</i> <i>expect to</i> <i>would like to</i> <i>want to</i> <i>need to</i>	
GROUP B: VERB + (PRO)NOUN + INFINITIVE <i>tell someone to</i> <i>advise someone to**</i> <i>encourage someone to</i> <i>remind someone to</i> <i>invite someone to</i> <i>permit someone to</i> <i>allow someone to</i> <i>warn someone to</i> <i>require someone to</i> <i>order someone to</i> <i>force someone to</i> <i>ask someone to</i> <i>expect someone to</i> <i>would like someone to</i> <i>want someone to</i> <i>need someone to</i>	

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

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

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

4-6 COMMON VERBS FOLLOWED BY EITHER INFINITIVES OR GERUNDS

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

GROUP A: VERB + INFINITIVE OR GERUND (WITH NO DIFFERENCE IN MEANING)

begin like have
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.

- (a) It *began to rain*. / It *began raining*.
(b) I *started to work*. / I *started working*.
(c) It *was beginning to rain*.

In (a): There is no difference between "began to rain" and "began raining."

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
forget try

The verbs in Group B may be followed by either an infinitive or a gerund, but the meaning is different.

- (d) Judy always *remembers to lock* the door.
(e) Sam often *forgets to lock* the door.
(f) I *remember seeing* the Alps for the first time. The sight was impressive.
(g) I'll *never forget seeing* the Alps for the first time.

Remember + infinitive = remember to perform responsibility, duty, or task, as in (d).

Forget + infinitive = forget to perform a responsibility, duty, or task, as in (e).

Remember + gerund = remember (recall) something that happened in the past, as in (f).

Forget + gerund = forget something that happened in the past, as in (g). **

- (h) I *regret to tell* you that you failed the test.
(i) I *regret lending* him some money. He never paid me back.

Regret + infinitive = regret to say, to tell someone, to inform someone of some bad news, as in (h).

Regret + gerund = regret something that happened in the past, as in (i).

- (j) I'm *trying to learn* English.
(k) The room was hot. I *tried opening* the window, but that didn't help. So I *tried turning* on the fan, but I was still hot. Finally, I turned on the air conditioner.

Try + infinitive = make an effort, as in (j).

Try + gerund = experiment with a new or different approach to see if it works, as in (k).

*Notice the patterns with **prefer**:

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

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

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

4-7 REFERENCE LIST OF VERBS FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS

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

4-8 REFERENCE LIST OF VERBS FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVES

A. VERBS FOLLOWED IMMEDIATELY BY AN INFINITIVE

1. afford	I <i>can't afford to buy</i> it.
2. agree	They <i>agreed to help</i> us.
3. appear	She <i>appears to be</i> tired.
4. arrange	I'll <i>arrange to meet</i> you at the airport.
5. ask	He <i>asked to come</i> with us.
6. beg	He <i>begged to come</i> with us.
7. care	I <i>don't care to see</i> that show.
8. claim	She <i>claims to know</i> a famous movie star.
9. consent	She finally <i>consented to marry</i> him.

10. <i>decide</i>	<i>I have decided to leave</i> on Monday.
11. <i>demand</i>	<i>I demand to know</i> who is responsible.
12. <i>deserve</i>	She <i>deserves to win</i> the prize.
13. <i>expect</i>	<i>I expect to enter</i> graduate school in the fall.
14. <i>fail</i>	She <i>failed to return</i> the book to the library on time.
15. <i>forget</i>	<i>I forgot to mail</i> the letter.
16. <i>hesitate</i>	<i>Don't hesitate to ask</i> for my help.
17. <i>hope</i>	Jack <i>hopes to arrive</i> next week.
18. <i>learn</i>	He <i>learned to play</i> the piano.
19. <i>manage</i>	She <i>managed to finish</i> her work early.
20. <i>mean</i>	<i>I didn't mean to hurt</i> your feelings.
21. <i>need</i>	<i>I need to have</i> your opinion.
22. <i>offer</i>	They <i>offered to help</i> us.
23. <i>plan</i>	<i>I am planning to have</i> a party.
24. <i>prepare</i>	We <i>prepared to welcome</i> them.
25. <i>pretend</i>	He <i>pretends not to understand</i> .
26. <i>promise</i>	<i>I promise not to be</i> late.
27. <i>refuse</i>	<i>I refuse to believe</i> his story.
28. <i>regret</i>	<i>I regret to tell</i> you that you failed.
29. <i>remember</i>	<i>I remembered to lock</i> the door.
30. <i>seem</i>	That cat <i>seems to be</i> friendly.
31. <i>struggle</i>	<i>I struggled to stay</i> awake.
32. <i>swear</i>	She <i>swore to tell</i> the truth.
33. <i>threaten</i>	She <i>threatened to tell</i> my parents.
34. <i>volunteer</i>	He <i>volunteered to help</i> us.
35. <i>wait</i>	<i>I will wait to hear</i> from you.
36. <i>want</i>	<i>I want to tell</i> you something.
37. <i>wish</i>	She <i>wishes to come</i> with us.

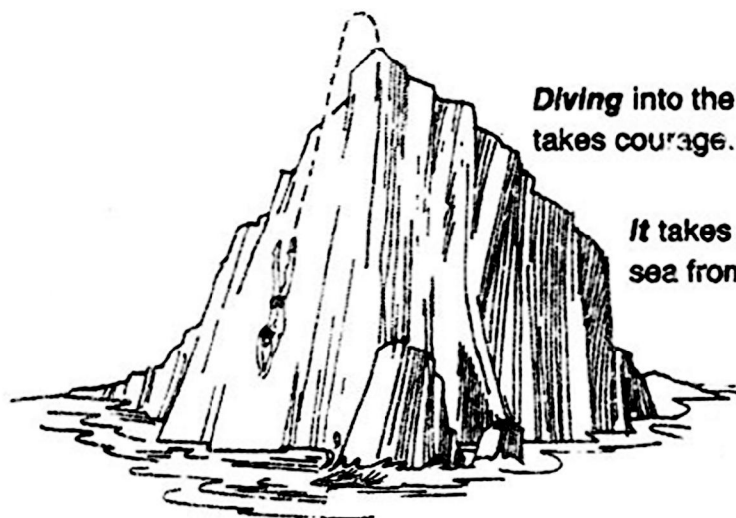
B. VERBS FOLLOWED BY A (PRO)NOUN + AN INFINITIVE

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

4-9 USING GERUNDS AS SUBJECTS; USING *IT* + INFINITIVE

(a) <i>Riding with a drunk driver</i> is dangerous.	A gerund is frequently used as the subject of a sentence, as in (a).
(b) <i>To ride with a drunk driver</i> is dangerous. (c) <i>It</i> is dangerous <i>to ride with a drunk driver</i> .	Sometimes an infinitive is used as the subject of a sentence, as in (b). However, an infinitive is more commonly used with <i>it</i> , as in (c). The word <i>it</i> refers to and has the same meaning as the infinitive phrase at the end of the sentence.*

*Sometimes a gerund is used with *it* when the speaker is talking about a particular situation and wants to give the idea of "while": *Tom was drunk. It was dangerous riding with him.* = *We were in danger while we were riding with him.*



Diving into the sea from a high cliff takes courage.

It takes courage *to dive* into the sea from a high cliff.

4-10 INFINITIVE OF PURPOSE: *IN ORDER TO*

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

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

However, to talk about a particular thing and a particular situation, *be used* + *an infinitive* is used: *A chain saw was used to cut down the old oak tree.* (*INCORRECT: A chain saw was used for cutting down the old oak tree.*)

4-11 ADJECTIVES FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVES

(a) <i>We were sorry to hear</i> the bad news. (b) <i>I was surprised to see</i> Tim at the meeting.	Certain adjectives can be immediately followed by infinitives, as in (a) and (b). In general, these adjectives describe a person (or persons), not a thing. Many of these adjectives describe a person's feelings or attitudes.										
<table border="0"><tr><td colspan="5" data-bbox="58 388 980 422">SOME COMMON ADJECTIVES FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVES</td></tr><tr><td data-bbox="58 438 196 709"><i>glad to</i> <i>happy to</i> <i>pleased to</i> <i>delighted to</i> <i>content to</i> <i>relieved to</i> <i>lucky to</i> <i>fortunate to</i></td><td data-bbox="319 438 526 669"><i>sorry to*</i> <i>sad to*</i> <i>upset to*</i> <i>disappointed to*</i> <i>proud to</i> <i>ashamed to</i></td><td data-bbox="651 438 829 669"><i>ready to</i> <i>prepared to</i> <i>anxious to</i> <i>eager to</i> <i>willing to</i> <i>motivated to</i> <i>determined to</i></td><td data-bbox="940 438 1091 569"><i>careful to</i> <i>hesitant to</i> <i>reluctant to</i> <i>afraid to</i></td><td data-bbox="1214 438 1395 602"><i>surprised to*</i> <i>amazed to*</i> <i>astonished to*</i> <i>shocked to*</i> <i>stunned to*</i></td></tr></table>		SOME COMMON ADJECTIVES FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVES					<i>glad to</i> <i>happy to</i> <i>pleased to</i> <i>delighted to</i> <i>content to</i> <i>relieved to</i> <i>lucky to</i> <i>fortunate to</i>	<i>sorry to*</i> <i>sad to*</i> <i>upset to*</i> <i>disappointed to*</i> <i>proud to</i> <i>ashamed to</i>	<i>ready to</i> <i>prepared to</i> <i>anxious to</i> <i>eager to</i> <i>willing to</i> <i>motivated to</i> <i>determined to</i>	<i>careful to</i> <i>hesitant to</i> <i>reluctant to</i> <i>afraid to</i>	<i>surprised to*</i> <i>amazed to*</i> <i>astonished to*</i> <i>shocked to*</i> <i>stunned to*</i>
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*The expressions with asterisks are usually followed by infinitive phrases with verbs such as *see, learn, discover, find out, hear*.

4-12 USING INFINITIVES WITH TOO AND ENOUGH

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

4-13 PASSIVE AND PAST FORMS OF INFINITIVES AND GERUNDS

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

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

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

I appreciated having had the opportunity to meet the king. = I met the king in 1985. I appreciated in 1987 having had the opportunity to meet the king in 1985.



Susan doesn't like *being forced to leave* the room (*In order*) *to study* whenever her roommate feels like *having* a party.

4-14 USING GERUNDS OR PASSIVE INFINITIVES FOLLOWING NEED

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

4-15 USING A POSSESSIVE TO MODIFY A GERUND

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

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

4-16 USING VERBS OF PERCEPTION

(a) I saw my friend run down the street. (b) I saw my friend running down the street. (c) I heard the rain fall on the roof. (d) I heard the rain falling on the roof.	Certain verbs of perception are followed by either <i>the simple form*</i> or <i>the -ing form**</i> of a verb. There is usually little difference in meaning between the two forms except that the -ing form usually gives the idea of "while." In (b): I saw my friend while she was running down the street.																				
(e) I heard a famous opera star sing at the concert last night. (f) When I walked into the apartment, I heard my roommate singing in the shower.	Sometimes (not always) there is a clear difference between using the simple form or the -ing form. In (e): I heard the singing from beginning to end. In (f): The singing was in progress when I heard it.																				
VERBS OF PERCEPTION FOLLOWED BY THE SIMPLE FORM OR THE -ING FORM <table><tr><td><i>see</i></td><td><i>hear</i></td><td><i>feel</i></td><td><i>smell</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>notice</i></td><td><i>listen to</i></td><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td><i>watch</i></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td><i>look at</i></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td><i>observe</i></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr></table>		<i>see</i>	<i>hear</i>	<i>feel</i>	<i>smell</i>	<i>notice</i>	<i>listen to</i>			<i>watch</i>				<i>look at</i>				<i>observe</i>			
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<i>watch</i>																					
<i>look at</i>																					
<i>observe</i>																					

*The simple form of a verb = the infinitive form without "to."

INCORRECT: I saw my friend to run down the street.

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

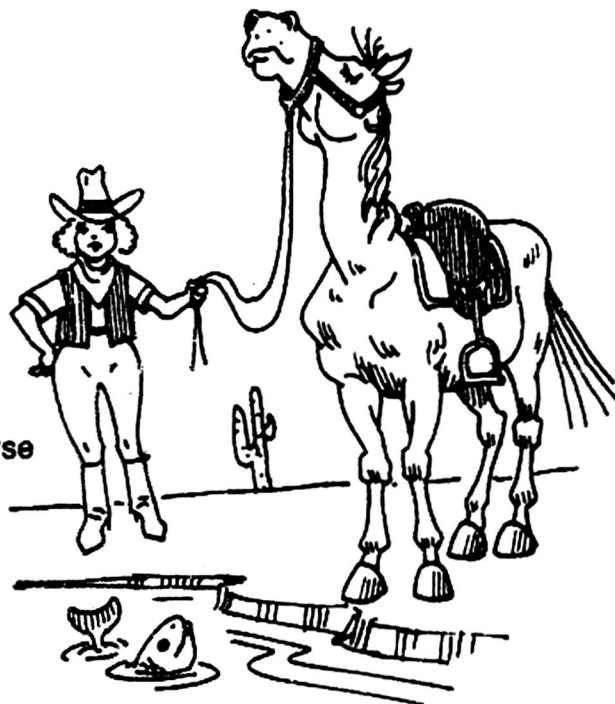
4-17 USING THE SIMPLE FORM AFTER **LET** AND **HELP**

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

4-18 USING CAUSATIVE VERBS: *MAKE, HAVE, GET*

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

There's an old saying: You can lead a horse to water, but you can't **make** him **drink**.



4-19 SPECIAL EXPRESSIONS FOLLOWED BY THE -ING FORM OF A VERB

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



CHAPTER 5

Singular and Plural

5-1 FINAL -S/-ES

(a) NOUN + -S : <i>Friends</i> are important. NOUN + -ES : I like my <i>classes</i> .	A final -s or -es is added to a noun to make a noun plural. <i>friend</i> = a singular noun <i>friends</i> = a plural noun
(b) VERB + -S : John <i>works</i> at the bank. VERB + -ES : She <i>watches</i> birds.	A final -s or -es is added to a simple present verb when the subject is a singular noun or third person singular pronoun.* <i>John works</i> = singular <i>The students work</i> = plural <i>He works</i> = singular <i>They work</i> = plural
SPELLING: FINAL -S vs. -ES	
(c) sing → <i>sings</i> song → <i>songs</i>	For most words (whether a verb or a noun), simply a final -s is added to spell the word correctly.
(d) wash → <i>washes</i> watch → <i>watches</i> class → <i>classes</i> buzz → <i>buzzes</i> box → <i>boxes</i>	Final -es is added to words that end in -sh , -ch , -s , -z , and -x .
(e) toy → <i>toys</i> buy → <i>buys</i> (f) baby → <i>babies</i> cry → <i>cries</i>	For words that end in -y : In (e): If -y is preceded by a vowel, only -s is added. In (f): If -y is preceded by a consonant, the -y is changed to -i and -es is added.

*A singular noun = *Mary, my father, the machine.*

A third person singular subject pronoun = *she, he, it.*

A baby *cries*.
All *babies* cry.



5-2 IRREGULAR PLURAL NOUNS

The nouns in (a) have irregular plural forms:					
(a)	<i>man-men</i> <i>woman-women</i>	<i>child-children</i> <i>ox-oxen</i>	<i>mouse-mice</i> <i>louse-lice</i>	<i>foot-feet</i> <i>goose-geese</i> <i>tooth-teeth</i>	
Some nouns that end in -o add -es to form the plural:					
(b)	<i>echoes</i>	<i>heroes</i>	<i>potatoes</i>	<i>tomatoes</i>	
Some nouns that end in -o add only -s to form the plural:					
(c)	<i>autos</i> <i>kilos</i> <i>memos</i>	<i>photos</i> <i>pianos</i> <i>radios</i>	<i>solos</i> <i>sopranos</i> <i>studios</i>	<i>tatoos</i> <i>videos</i> <i>zooz</i>	
Some nouns that end in -o add either -es or -s to form the plural:					
(d)	<i>mosquitoes/mosquitos</i> <i>tornadoes/tornados</i>	<i>volcanoes/volcanos</i> <i>zeroes/zeros</i>			
Some nouns that end in -f or -fe are changed to -ves in the plural:					
(e)	<i>calf-calves</i> <i>half-halves</i> <i>knife-knives</i>	<i>leaf-leaves</i> <i>life-lives</i> <i>loaf-loaves</i>	<i>self-selves</i> <i>shelf-shelves</i> <i>thief-thieves</i>	<i>wolf-wolves</i> <i>scarf-scarves/scarfs</i>	
Some nouns that end in -f simply add -s to form the plural:					
(f)	<i>belief-beliefs</i>	<i>chief-chiefs</i>	<i>cliff-cliffs</i>	<i>roof-roofs</i>	
Some nouns have the same singular and plural form: (e.g., One deer is Two deer are)					
(g)	<i>deer</i>	<i>fish</i>	<i>means</i>	<i>series</i>	<i>sheep</i> <i>species</i>
Some nouns that English has borrowed from other languages have foreign plurals:					
(h)	<i>criterion-criteria</i> <i>phenomenon-phenomena</i>	(k) <i>analysis-analyses</i> <i>basis-bases</i> <i>crisis-crises</i> <i>hypothesis-hypotheses</i> <i>oasis-oases</i> <i>parenthesis-parentheses</i> <i>thesis-theses</i>	(m) <i>bacterium-bacteria</i> <i>curriculum-curricula</i> <i>datum-data</i> <i>medium-media</i> <i>memorandum-memoranda</i>		
(i)	<i>cactus-cacti/cactuses</i> <i>stimulus-stimuli</i> <i>syllabus-syllabi/syllabuses</i>				
(j)	<i>formula-formulae/formulas</i> <i>vertebra-vertebrae</i>	(l) <i>appendix-appendices/appendixes</i> <i>index-indices/indexes</i>			

5-3 POSSESSIVE NOUNS

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



There's a ball in the **boy's** pocket.

5-4 USING NOUNS AS MODIFIERS

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

5--5 COUNT AND NONCOUNT NOUNS

(a) I bought <i>a chair</i> . Sam bought <i>three chairs</i> . (b) We bought <i>some furniture</i> . <i>INCORRECT: We bought a furniture.</i> <i>INCORRECT: We bought some furnitures.</i>		<i>Chair</i> is a count noun; chairs are items that can be counted. <i>Furniture</i> is a noncount noun. In grammar, furniture cannot be counted.	
SINGULAR		PLURAL	
COUNT NOUN	a chair one chair	chairs two chairs some chairs a lot of chairs many chairs*	A count noun: (1) may be preceded by <i>a/an</i> in the singular; (2) takes a final <i>-s/-es</i> in the plural.
NONCOUNT NOUN	furniture some furniture a lot of furniture much furniture*		A noncount noun: (1) is not immediately preceded by <i>a/an</i> ; (2) has no plural form; does not take a final <i>-s/-es</i> .

*See Chart 5-8 for other expressions of quantity that are used with count and noncount nouns.

5-6 NONCOUNT NOUNS

Notice in the following: Most noncount nouns refer to a "whole" that is made up of different parts.	
(a) I bought some chairs, tables, and desks. In other words, I bought some <i>furniture</i> .	In (a): <i>furniture</i> represents a whole group of things that is made up of similar but separate items.
(b) I put some <i>sugar</i> in my <i>coffee</i> .	In (b): <i>sugar</i> and <i>coffee</i> represent whole masses made up of individual particles or elements.*
(c) I wish you <i>luck</i> .	In (c): <i>luck</i> is an abstract concept, an abstract "whole." It has no physical form; you can't touch it. You can't count it.
(d) <i>Sunshine</i> is warm and cheerful.	In (d): Phenomena of nature, such as <i>sunshine</i> , are frequently used as noncount nouns.
(e) NONCOUNT: Ann has brown <i>hair</i> . COUNT: Tom has <i>a hair</i> on his jacket.	Many nouns can be used as either noncount or count nouns, but the meaning is different; e.g., <i>hair</i> in (e) and <i>lights</i> in (f).
(f) NONCOUNT: I opened the curtains to let in some <i>light</i> . COUNT: Don't forget to turn off the <i>lights</i> before you go to bed.	(Dictionaries written especially for learners of English as a second language are a good source of information on count/noncount usages of nouns.)

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

5-7 SOME COMMON NONCOUNT NOUNS

The following are typical of nouns that are commonly used as noncount nouns. Many other nouns can be used as noncount nouns. This list serves only as a sample.

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



There are more stars in the universe than there are grains of sand on all the beaches on earth.

5-8 EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY

An expression of quantity (e.g., *one*, *several*, *many*, *much*) may precede a noun. Notice below: Some expressions of quantity are used only with count nouns; some only with noncount nouns; some with both count and noncount nouns.

EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY	USED WITH COUNT NOUNS	USED WITH NONCOUNT NOUNS
one each every	<i>one apple</i> <i>each apple</i> <i>every apple</i>	Ø* Ø Ø
two both a couple of three, etc. a few several many a number of	<i>two apples</i> <i>both apples</i> <i>a couple of apples</i> <i>three apples</i> <i>a few apples</i> <i>several apples</i> <i>many apples</i> <i>a number of apples</i>	Ø Ø Ø Ø Ø Ø Ø Ø
a little much a great deal of	Ø Ø Ø	<i>a little rice</i> <i>much rice</i> <i>a great deal of rice</i>
not any/no some a lot of lots of plenty of most all	<i>not any/no apples</i> <i>some apples</i> <i>a lot of apples</i> <i>lots of apples</i> <i>plenty of apples</i> <i>most apples</i> <i>all apples</i>	<i>not any/no rice</i> <i>some rice</i> <i>a lot of rice</i> <i>lots of rice</i> <i>plenty of rice</i> <i>most rice</i> <i>all rice</i>

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



one apple



three apples

several apples

a few apples / a little fruit

some apples / some fruit



many apples / much fruit

a number of apples / a great deal of fruit

a lot of apples / a lot of fruit

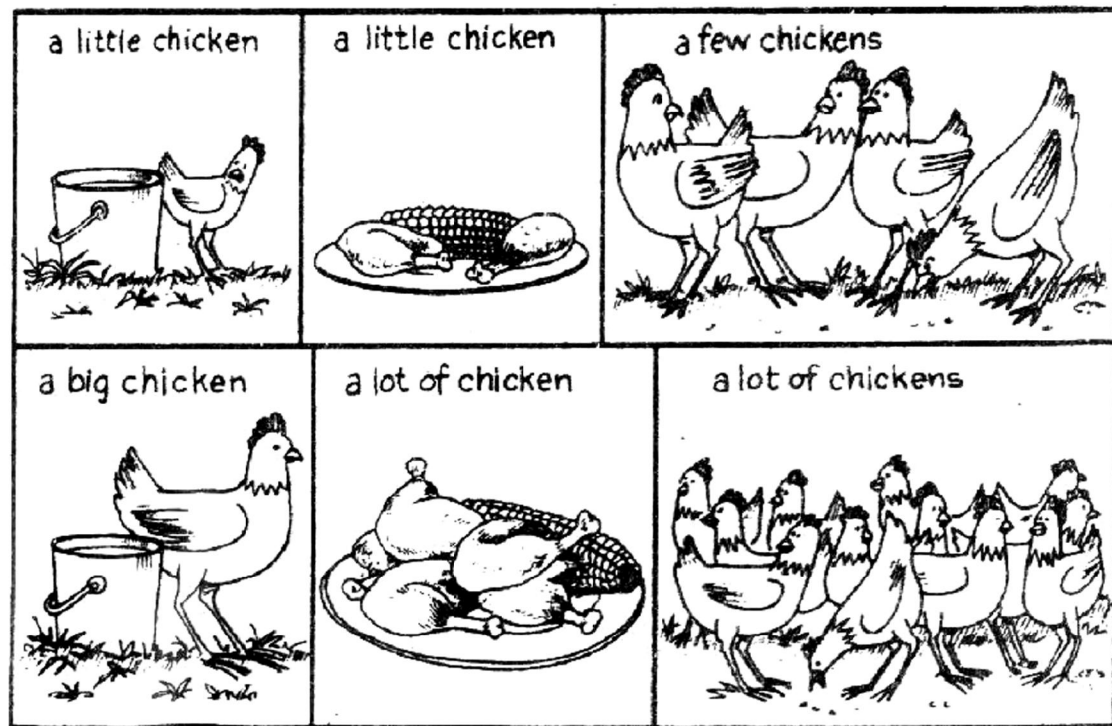
plenty of apples / plenty of fruit

some apples / some fruit

5-9 USING A FEW AND FEW; A LITTLE AND LITTLE

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

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



5-10 USING OF IN EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY

MOST + NONSPECIFIC NOUN (a) <i>Most books</i> are interesting. (b) INCORRECT: <i>Most of books</i> are interesting.	In (a): The speaker is not referring to specific books. The speaker is not referring to "those books" or "your books" or "the books written by Mark Twain." The noun "books" is nonspecific. In (b): The word <i>of</i> is not added to an expression of quantity (e.g., <i>most</i>) if the noun it modifies is nonspecific.
MOST + OF + SPECIFIC NOUN (c) <i>Most of those books</i> are mine. (d) <i>Most of my books</i> are in English. (e) <i>Most of the books</i> on that table are mine.	A noun is specific when it is preceded by: —<i>this, that, these, those</i>, as in (c); OR —<i>my, John's, their</i> (any possessive) as in (d); OR —<i>the</i>, as in (e). When a noun is specific, <i>of</i> is used with an expression of quantity.*
EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY FOLLOWED BY OF + A SPECIFIC NOUN <i>all, most, some/any</i> + <i>of</i> + specific plural <i>count</i> noun or <i>noncount</i> noun, as in (f) <i>many, (a) few, several, both, two, one</i> + <i>of</i> + specific plural <i>count</i> noun, as in (g) <i>much, (a) little</i> + <i>of</i> + specific <i>noncount</i> noun, as in (h) (f) <i>count: Most of those chairs</i> are uncomfortable. <i>noncount: Most of that furniture</i> is uncomfortable. (g) <i>count: Many of those chairs</i> are uncomfortable. (h) <i>noncount: Much of that furniture</i> is uncomfortable.	

*NOTE: *of* is always a part of the following expressions of quantity, whether the noun is nonspecific or specific: *a lot of, lots of, a couple of, plenty of, a number of, a great deal of*.

NONSPECIFIC: I've read *a lot of books*. SPECIFIC: I've read *a lot of those books*.

5-10.1 USING OF WITH ALL AND BOTH

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

5-11 SINGULAR EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY: ONE, EACH, EVERY

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

*COMPARE:

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

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

Everyone/Everybody has a schedule.

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

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

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

5-12 BASIC SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT

SINGULAR VERB

PLURAL VERB

(a) My friend <i>lives</i> in Boston.	(b) My friends <i>live</i> in Boston.	verb + <i>-s/-es</i> = third person singular in the simple present tense noun + <i>-s/-es</i> = plural
(c) That <i>book</i> on political parties <i>is</i> interesting.	(d) The <i>ideas</i> in that book <i>are</i> interesting.	A prepositional phrase that comes between a subject and a verb does not affect the verb.
	(e) My brother and sister <i>live</i> in Boston.	Two (or more) subjects connected by <i>and</i> take a plural verb.
(f) <i>Every man, woman, and child</i> <i>needs</i> love. (g) <i>Each book and magazine</i> <i>is</i> listed in the card catalog.		EXCEPTION: <i>Every</i> and <i>each</i> are always followed immediately by singular nouns. In this case, even when there are two (or more) nouns connected by <i>and</i> , the verb is singular.
(h) <i>Growing flowers</i> <i>is</i> her hobby.		A gerund used as the subject of a sentence takes a singular verb.

5-13 SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT: USING EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY

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

5-14 SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT: USING *THERE* + *BE*

SINGULAR VERB	PLURAL VERB	
(a) <i>There is a book</i> on the shelf.	(b) <i>There are some books</i> on the shelf.	The subject follows <i>be</i> when <i>there</i> is used.* In (a): The subject is <i>book</i> . In (b): The subject is <i>books</i> .

*In the structure *there* + *be*, *there* is called an *expletive*.



There is a bag in the picture.
There are groceries in the bag.

5-15 SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT: SOME IRREGULARITIES

SINGULAR VERB

(a) <i>The news is</i> interesting. (b) <i>The United States is</i> big. (c) <i>The Philippines consists</i> of more than 7,000 islands. (d) <i>The United Nations has</i> its headquarters in New York City. (e) <i>Sears is</i> a department store. (f) <i>Mathematics is</i> easy for her. <i>Physics is</i> easy for her, too.	Sometimes a noun that ends in <i>-s</i> is singular. Notice the examples: If the noun is changed to a pronoun, the singular pronoun <i>it</i> is used (not the plural pronoun <i>they</i>) because the noun is singular. In (a): <i>news</i> = <i>it</i> (not <i>they</i>). In (b): <i>the United States</i> = <i>it</i> (not <i>they</i>). Note: Fields of study, as in (f), that end in <i>-ics</i> take singular verbs.
(g) <i>Eight hours of sleep is</i> enough. (h) <i>Ten dollars is</i> too much to pay. (i) <i>Five thousand miles is</i> too far to travel.	Expressions of <i>time</i>, <i>money</i>, and <i>distance</i> usually take a singular verb.

PLURAL VERB

(j) <i>Those people are</i> from Canada. (k) <i>The police have</i> been called.	<i>People</i>* and <i>police</i> do not end in <i>-s</i> but are plural nouns and take plural verbs.
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SINGULAR VERB

PLURAL VERB

(l) <i>English is</i> spoken in many countries. (n) <i>Chinese is</i> his native language.	(m) <i>The English drink</i> tea. (o) <i>The Chinese have</i> an interesting history.	In (l): <i>English</i> = language. In (m): <i>the English</i> = people from England. Some nouns of nationality that end in <i>-sh</i>, <i>-ese</i>, and <i>-ch</i> can mean either language or people; e.g., <i>English</i>, <i>Spanish</i>, <i>Chinese</i>, <i>Japanese</i>, <i>Vietnamese</i>, <i>Portuguese</i>, <i>French</i>.
	(p) <i>The poor have</i> many problems. (q) <i>The rich get</i> richer.	A few adjectives can be preceded by <i>the</i> and used as a plural noun (without final <i>-s</i>) to refer to people who have this quality. Other examples: <i>the young</i>, <i>the old</i>, <i>the living</i>, <i>the dead</i>, <i>the blind</i>, <i>the deaf</i>, <i>the handicapped</i>.

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

5-16 PERSONAL PRONOUNS: AGREEMENT WITH NOUNS

(a) <i>A student</i> walked into the room. <i>She</i> was looking for the teacher. (b) <i>A student</i> walked into the room. <i>He</i> was looking for the teacher. (c) <i>Some students</i> walked into the room. <i>They</i> were looking for the teacher.	A singular pronoun is used to refer to a singular noun, as in (a) and (b). A plural pronoun is used to refer to a plural noun, as in (c).
(d) <i>A student</i> should always do <i>his</i> assignments. (e) <i>A student</i> should always do <i>his/her</i> assignments. <i>A student</i> should always do <i>his or her</i> assignments.	With a "generic noun"* (e.g., in (d): <i>a student</i> = <i>anyone who is a student</i>) a singular masculine pronoun has been used traditionally, but many English speakers now use both masculine and feminine pronouns, as in (e).

*A generic noun does not refer to any person or thing in particular; rather, it represents a whole group. (See Appendix 1, Chart D-1, *Basic Article Usage*.)

5-17 PERSONAL PRONOUNS: AGREEMENT WITH INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

The following are indefinite pronouns: <table border="0"> <tr> <td><i>everyone</i></td><td><i>someone</i></td><td><i>anyone</i></td><td><i>no one</i></td></tr> <tr> <td><i>everybody</i></td><td><i>somebody</i></td><td><i>anybody</i></td><td><i>nobody</i></td></tr> <tr> <td><i>everything</i></td><td><i>something</i></td><td><i>anything</i></td><td><i>nothing</i></td></tr> </table>				<i>everyone</i>	<i>someone</i>	<i>anyone</i>	<i>no one</i>	<i>everybody</i>	<i>somebody</i>	<i>anybody</i>	<i>nobody</i>	<i>everything</i>	<i>something</i>	<i>anything</i>	<i>nothing</i>
<i>everyone</i>	<i>someone</i>	<i>anyone</i>	<i>no one</i>												
<i>everybody</i>	<i>somebody</i>	<i>anybody</i>	<i>nobody</i>												
<i>everything</i>	<i>something</i>	<i>anything</i>	<i>nothing</i>												
(f) <i>Somebody</i> left <i>his</i> book on the desk. (g) <i>Everyone</i> has <i>his or her</i> own ideas. (h) INFORMAL: <i>Somebody</i> left <i>their</i> book on the desk. <i>Everyone</i> has <i>their</i> own ideas.	A singular personal pronoun is used in formal English to refer to an indefinite pronoun, as in (f) and (g). In everyday informal English, a plural personal pronoun is often used to refer to an indefinite pronoun, as in (h).														

5-18 PERSONAL PRONOUNS: AGREEMENT WITH COLLECTIVE NOUNS

The following are examples of collective nouns:

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

(a) *My family* is large. *It* is composed of nine members.

When a collective noun refers to a single impersonal unit, a singular pronoun (*it, its*) is used, as in (a).

(b) *My family* is loving and supportive. *They* are always ready to help me.

When a collective noun refers to a collection of various individuals, a plural pronoun (*they, them, their*) is used, as in (b).*

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

5-19 USING REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

The following are reflexive pronouns:

<i>myself</i>	<i>ourselves</i>
<i>yourself</i>	<i>yourselves</i>
<i>himself, herself, itself</i>	<i>themselves</i>

(a) *He* looked at *himself* in the mirror.

A reflexive pronoun usually refers to the subject of a sentence. In (a): *he* and *himself* refer to the same person.

(b) *He himself* answered the phone, not his secretary.

(c) *He* answered the phone *himself*.

Sometimes reflexive pronouns are used for emphasis, as in (b) and (c).

(d) She lives *by herself*.

The expression *by + a reflexive pronoun* usually means "alone," as in (d).

Bob is looking at *himself* in the mirror.



Jane is looking at *herself*.

They are looking at *themselves*.

5-20 USING YOU AND ONE AS IMPERSONAL PRONOUNS

(a) <i>One</i> should always be polite. (b) How does <i>one</i> get to 5th Avenue from here?	In (a) and (b): <i>one</i> means "any person, people in general."
(c) <i>You</i> should always be polite. (d) How do <i>you</i> get to 5th Avenue from here?	In (c) and (d): <i>you</i> means "any person, people in general." <i>One</i> is more formal than <i>you</i> . Impersonal <i>you</i> , rather than <i>one</i> , is used more frequently in everyday English.
(e) <i>One</i> should take care of <i>one's</i> health. <i>One</i> should take care of <i>his</i> health. <i>One</i> should take care of <i>his or her</i> health.	In (e): Notice the pronouns that may be used in the same sentence to refer back to <i>one</i> .

5-21 FORMS OF OTHER

ADJECTIVE	PRONOUN	
<i>singular:</i> another book (is) <i>plural:</i> other books (are)	another (is) others (are)	Forms of <i>other</i> are used as either adjectives or pronouns. Notice: A final -s is used only for a plural pronoun (<i>others</i>).
<i>singular:</i> the other book (is) <i>plural:</i> the other books (are)	the other (is) the others (are)	
(a) The students in the class come from many countries. One of the students is from Mexico. <i>Another student</i> is from Iraq. <i>Another</i> is from Japan. <i>Other students</i> are from Brazil. <i>Others</i> are from Algeria.		The meaning of <i>another</i> : <i>one more in addition to the one(s) already mentioned.</i> The meaning of <i>other/others</i> (without <i>the</i>): <i>several more in addition to the one(s) already mentioned.</i>
(b) I have three books. Two are mine. <i>The other book</i> is yours. (<i>The other</i> is yours.) (c) I have three books. One is mine. <i>The other books</i> are yours. (<i>The others</i> are yours.)		The meaning of <i>the other(s)</i> : <i>all that remains from a given number; the rest of a specific group.</i>
(d) We write to <i>each other</i> every week. (e) We write to <i>one another</i> every week.		<i>Each other</i> and <i>one another</i> indicate a reciprocal relationship. In (d) and (e): I write to him every week, and he writes to me every week.
(f) Please write on <i>every other line</i> . (g) I see her <i>every other week</i> .		<i>Every other</i> can give the idea of "alternate." In (f): Write on the first line. Do not write on the second line. Write on the third line. Do not write on the fourth line. (etc.)
(h) I will be here for <i>another three years</i> . (i) I need <i>another five dollars</i> . (j) I drove <i>another ten miles</i> .		<i>Another</i> is used with expressions of time, money, and distance, even if these expressions contain plural nouns.



CHAPTER 6

Adjective Clauses

6-1 ADJECTIVE CLAUSES: INTRODUCTION

Terms:	clause:	<i>A clause is a group of words containing a subject and a verb.</i>
	independent clause:	<i>An independent clause is a complete sentence. It contains the main subject and verb of a sentence. (It is also called a main clause.)</i>
	dependent clause:	<i>A dependent clause is not a complete sentence. It must be connected to an independent clause.</i>
	adjective clause:	<i>An adjective clause is a dependent clause that modifies a noun. It describes, identifies, or gives further information about a noun. (An adjective clause is also called a relative clause.)</i>

6-2 USING SUBJECT PRONOUNS: *WHO*, *WHICH*, *THAT*

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

NOTE: In everyday usage, often one pattern is used more commonly than another:

- (1) As a subject pronoun, *who* is more common than *that*.
- (2) As a subject pronoun, *that* is more common than *which*.

6-3 USING OBJECT PRONOUNS: *WHO(M)*, *WHICH*, *THAT*

1. PRONOUN USED AS THE OBJECT OF A VERB

The man was Mr. Jones.

I saw *him*.

(e) The man *who(m)* I saw was Mr. Jones.

(f) The man *that* I saw was Mr. Jones.

(g) The man *Ø* I saw was Mr. Jones.

The movie wasn't very good.

We saw *it* last night.

(h) The movie *which* we saw last night wasn't very good.

(i) The movie *that* we saw last night wasn't very good.

(j) The movie *Ø* we saw last night wasn't very good.

Notice in the example: The adjective clause pronouns are placed at the *beginning* of the clause. (General guideline: Place an adjective clause pronoun as close as possible to the noun it modifies.)

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

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

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

2. PRONOUN USED AS THE OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION

She is the woman.

I told you *about* *her*.

(k) She is the woman *about whom* I told you.

(l) She is the woman *who(m)* I told you about.

(m) She is the woman *that* I told you about.

(n) She is the woman *Ø* I told you about.

The music was good.

We listened *to* *it* last night.

(o) The music *to which* we listened last night was good.

(p) The music *which* we listened to last night was good.

(q) The music *that* we listened to last night was good.

(r) The music *Ø* we listened to last night was good.

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

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



The woman I was dancing with stepped on my toe.

6-4 USING WHOSE

I know the man. His bicycle was stolen. (s) I know the man whose bicycle was stolen. The student writes well. I read her composition. (t) 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: <i>his</i>, <i>her</i>, <i>its</i>, and <i>their</i>. Like <i>his</i>, <i>her</i>, <i>its</i>, and <i>their</i>, whose is connected to a noun: his bicycle → whose bicycle 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.
Mr. Catt has a painting. Its value is inestimable. (u) Mr. Catt has a painting whose value is inestimable.	Whose usually modifies "people," but it may also be used to modify "things," as in (u).



The man's beard caught on fire.

His beard caught on fire when he lit a cigarette.

The man poured a glass of water on his face.



The man whose beard caught on fire when he lit a cigarette poured a glass of water on his face.

6-5 USING WHERE

The building is very old. He lives <i>there</i> (in that building). (a) The building where he lives is very old. (b) The building in which he lives is very old. The building which he lives in is very old. The building that he lives in is very old. The building Ø he lives in is very old.	Where is used in an adjective clause to modify a place (city, country, room, house, etc.). If where is used, a preposition is not included in the adjective clause. If where is not used, the preposition must be included.
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6-6 USING WHEN

	I'll never forget the day. I met you then (<i>on that day</i>).	When is used in an adjective clause to modify a noun of time (<i>year, day, time, century, etc.</i>)
(c) I'll never forget the day	when I met you.	The use of a preposition in an adjective clause that modifies a noun of time is somewhat different from that in other adjective clauses: A preposition is used preceding which , as in (d). Otherwise, the preposition is omitted.
(d) I'll never forget the day	on which I met you.	
(e) I'll never forget the day	that I met you.	
(f) I'll never forget the day	Ø I met you.	

6-7 USING ADJECTIVE CLAUSES TO MODIFY PRONOUNS

(a) There is someone (<i>whom</i>) I want you to meet.	Adjective clauses can modify indefinite pronouns (e.g. <i>someone, everybody</i>). Object pronouns (e.g., <i>whom, which</i>) are usually omitted in the adjective clause.
(b) Everything he said was pure nonsense.	
(c) Anybody who wants to come is welcome.	
(d) Paula was the only one I knew at the party.	Adjective clauses can modify the one(s) and those .*
(e) Scholarships are available for those who need financial assistance.	
(f) It is I who am responsible.	Adjective clauses rarely modify personal pronouns. (f) is very formal and uncommon. (g) is a well-known saying in which "he" is used as an indefinite pronoun (meaning "anyone," "any person").
(g) He who laughs last laughs best.	

*An adjective clause with **which** can also be used to modify the pronoun **that**. For example:

We sometimes fear **that which** we do not understand.

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

There are two goats outside Mrs. Clark's house. She's angry at **the one that is eating her flowers** but not at **the one that stayed on the other side of the fence**.



6-8 PUNCTUATION OF ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

General guidelines for the punctuation of adjective clauses:

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

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

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

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

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

6-9 USING EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY IN ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

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

6-10 USING NOUN + OF WHICH

We have an antique table. The top of it has jade inlay. (a) We have an antique table, the top of which has jade inlay.	An adjective clause may include a noun + of which (e.g., <i>the top of which</i>). This pattern carries the meaning of whose (e.g., <i>We have an antique table whose top has jade inlay.</i>). This pattern is used in an adjective clause that modifies a "thing" and occurs primarily in formal written English. Commas are used.
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6-11 USING WHICH TO MODIFY A WHOLE SENTENCE

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

6-12 REDUCTION OF ADJECTIVE CLAUSES TO ADJECTIVE PHRASES: INTRODUCTION

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

6-13 CHANGING AN ADJECTIVE CLAUSE TO AN ADJECTIVE PHRASE

There are two ways in which an adjective clause is changed to an adjective phrase:	
(1) The subject pronoun is omitted AND the <i>be</i> form of the verb is omitted. (a) CLAUSE: The man <i>who is talking</i> to John is from Korea. PHRASE: The man <i>Ø Ø talking</i> to John is from Korea. (b) CLAUSE: The ideas <i>which are presented</i> in that book are interesting. PHRASE: The ideas <i>Ø Ø presented</i> in that book are interesting. (c) CLAUSE: Ann is the woman <i>who is responsible</i> for preparing the budget. PHRASE: Ann is the woman <i>Ø Ø responsible</i> for preparing the budget. (d) CLAUSE: The books <i>that are on that shelf</i> are mine. PHRASE: The books <i>Ø Ø on that shelf</i> are mine.	
(2) If there is no <i>be</i> form of a verb in the adjective clause, it is sometimes possible to omit the subject pronoun and change the verb to its <i>-ing</i> form. (e) CLAUSE: English has an <i>alphabet that consists</i> of 26 letters. PHRASE: English has an <i>alphabet Ø consisting</i> of 26 letters. (f) CLAUSE: <i>Anyone who wants</i> to come with us is welcome. PHRASE: <i>Anyone Ø wanting</i> to come with us is welcome.	
(g) <i>George Washington</i> [Ⓢ] <i>who was the first president of the United States</i> [Ⓢ] was a wealthy colonist and a general in the army. (h) <i>George Washington</i> [Ⓢ] <i>the first president of the United States</i> [Ⓢ] was a wealthy colonist and a general in the army.	If the adjective clause requires commas, as in (g), the adjective phrase also requires commas, as in (h).



CHAPTER 7

Noun Clauses

7-1 NOUN CLAUSES: INTRODUCTION

A *noun* is used as a subject or an object.

A *noun clause* is used as a subject or an object. In other words, a noun clause is used in the same ways as a noun.

(a) **His story** was interesting.

(b) **What he said** was interesting.

In (a): *story* is a noun. It is used as the subject of the sentence.

In (b): *what he said* is a noun clause. It is used as the subject of the sentence. The noun clause has its own subject (*he*) and verb (*said*).

(c) I heard **his story**.

(d) I heard **what he said**.

In (c): *story* is a noun. It is used as the object of the verb *heard*.

In (d): *what he said* is a noun clause. It is used as the object of the verb *heard*.

WORDS USED TO INTRODUCE NOUN CLAUSES

(1) *question words*:*

when *who*
where *whom*
why *what*
how *which*
 whose

(2) *whether*
if

(3) *that*

*See Appendix 1, Unit B, for more information about question words and question forms.

7-2 NOUN CLAUSES WHICH BEGIN WITH A QUESTION WORD

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

*COMPARE: *Who is at the door?* = *who* is the subject of the question.

Who are those men? = *those men* is the subject of the question, so *be* is plural.

7-3 NOUN CLAUSES WHICH BEGIN WITH *WHETHER* OR *IF*

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