

OXFORD

**THE
GRAMMAR
HANDBOOK**

IRWIN FEIGENBAUM

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THE GRAMMAR HANDBOOK

IRWIN FEIGENBAUM



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Preface

This book was begun in response to a need in upper-level ESL courses: a grammar handbook. Although native speakers of English have had a wide variety of such reference books, the learner of English has not. Native-language handbooks do not serve the nonnative speaker: very often, they rely on a feel for the language that the student does not have; they deal with problems that the student does not have (for example, uneducated or nonstandard usage); and they do not deal with the problems that this student does have (such as, using a present perfect or a past verb form). This handbook is designed to meet this need.

In advanced ESL composition courses

The Grammar Handbook was developed for use in advanced ESL composition courses. Here the pedagogical emphasis is on English structures above the sentence, but students still need help in producing correct words and sentences. One important problem, however, is that students have different requirements: the frequency and the types of mistakes vary widely, even in a relatively homogeneous class. This reference handbook accommodates such variation. The teacher can individualize instruction by referring a student to a helpful section. The teacher can provide class instruction when many students require help with a problem. And students can use the handbook to check and correct their own work without a teacher's direction.

In intermediate and advanced ESL classes

This handbook can be useful in intermediate and advanced ESL classes, where new material is being learned and where there is emphasis on increased accuracy (fewer errors) in the use of previously learned material. It can provide the basis for a review of grammar in which students restudy large portions of English grammar or focus on smaller problem areas (see ORGANIZATION OF THE HANDBOOK below). Intermediate students too can profit from this handbook: the material that they have already studied is presented in a clear step-by-step format; and as the students' level in English rises, more of the book becomes useful.

Editor's Note: The masculine pronoun is generally used throughout the book. It is used for simplicity's sake rather than to indicate a philosophical viewpoint.

Contents of the handbook

The *Grammar Handbook* is intended to provide a reasonably complete coverage of word, phrase, and sentence grammar. There is also some coverage of intersentential relations; this is seen in sentence (or clause) combining and rearranging. The underlying principle is that language is for communication; therefore, the language student must learn to produce language forms and to use them to convey information.

The style of English covered in the *Handbook* is a relatively formal one appropriate for writing and public speech; however, there is some reference to the style appropriate for informal conversation. Differences between British and American English are also noted where they are important.

Decisions of what to include in this book were based on five principal sources:

1. Other grammar texts that indicate what students should learn.
2. Composition texts that indicate, by statement and by implication, what students require in order to deal with written texts.
3. Professional journals and books that indicate student problems and requirements.
4. Organized meetings and informal discussions in which teachers voiced their needs and their students' needs.
5. The author's experience in teaching ESL for many years in the United States and abroad, and his work with many experienced and new teachers.

Organization of the handbook

The description of English structure does not follow any one linguistic model; instead, the aim has been to present an analysis that is understandable to people with limited background in formal grammar analysis. Even in sections where particular presentations are unique, the teacher and students will be able to find their way without special preparation.

Chapters and sections within chapters are intended to be independent. The material is presented in separate sections, each focusing on one specific point; form and function have been separated to facilitate this focus. Thus, it is not necessary to use this book from the first page. Go directly to the section(s) that deal with the issue in point.

Each section ends with a short exercise. While the exercise provides some practice, its principal purpose is to

check mastery of the rules, processes, and/or examples in the section. For this reason, some items in some exercises are unusual. Changing *parry* to the third person singular will indicate whether the student can use the appropriate spelling rule; on the other hand, using a familiar word may indicate that the student has learned a particular form, but not a general means for producing many forms.

Throughout the *Handbook*, common student mistakes are pointed out in sections called "Notes," and incorrect and correct forms are regularly contrasted to help students see their problems clearly.

Conventional terminology is used, to help in locating information in the Table of Contents, the chapters, and the index. The information in the chapters is arranged by language structure:

1. Sentences: structures and purposes
2. Nouns and noun-equivalents
3. Verbs
4. Adjectives and adverbs
5. Combining sentences
6. Rearrangement of sentence patterns
7. Punctuation

This arrangement will facilitate finding material in the book, when specific terms are not known or used.

The structural presentation is also intended to show useful processes and patterns in English. For this reason, such issues as question formation and negation are addressed separately as productive processes. This idea of patterning has also been used in the chapter on punctuation, where the organization is by use and not by a list of the marks. The arrangement provides an overall view of language use and structure. In addition, the processes themselves are laid out so that students can learn how to produce correct forms. Self-instructional step-by-step procedures allow independent learning of material, and they allow students to find and correct their own errors.

Further reading

To those teachers and students whose interest in the structure of English continues beyond this handbook, I would like to suggest the following books for further reading and reference:

Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, and Jan Svartvik, *A Grammar of Contemporary English*

Leech and Svartvik, *A Communicative Grammar of English*

Quirk and Greenbaum, *A Concise Grammar of English*.

Acknowledgments

Many people have influenced the development of this handbook, including students who used parts of it and fellow teachers whose ideas and reactions influenced the content and form. I would like to thank three people whose work has most directly contributed to the present volume, suggesting important improvements as it moved from proposal through editing to final form. Marilyn S. Rosenthal was the Manager of the English Language Teaching Department at Oxford University Press when the proposal was submitted; I would like to thank her for accepting a book unlike others on the market and setting the project on its course. Cheryl Pavlik was hired as the editor for the (very long) manuscript; I would like to thank her for her thoughtful work. Once accepted, this project came under the direction of Debra Sistino, an ESL editor at Oxford University Press; I would like to thank her for the myriad tasks she performed in managing the project over a long period of time.

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**THE
GRAMMAR
HANDBOOK**

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1 Sentences: Structures and Purposes

A **SIMPLE SENTENCE PATTERNS**

Every sentence has two basic parts, the subject and the predicate. The subject contains a noun or noun-equivalent that names the topic of the sentence. The predicate contains the verb.

In addition to a subject (S) and a verb (V), some sentences have other parts. All the parts of a sentence are related by grammar and meaning; the parts work together to express a thought or idea.

Note: Every simple sentence must have a subject (S) and a verb (V). If not, it is a **sentence fragment**, not a sentence.

(1) Sentence fragment: no verb

X A television set next to the stereo in the living room.

(2) Sentence fragment: no subject

X Then drove my car to a garage.

Exercise

Some of these sentences are correct; some are not, because they are fragments. In each sentence, underline the subject with one line and put two lines under the verb. If the sentence has a subject and a predicate with a verb, write **OK**. If the sentence does not have a subject, write **S**. If the

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sentence does not have a complete predicate (if there is no verb), write V.

- OK 1. I have classes from 9:00 a.m. to 1:30 p.m.
_____ 2. Therefore, had a choice.
_____ 3. I could go to the post office before my classes.
_____ 4. Or could go there after my classes.
_____ 5. The post office open until 5:30 p.m.
_____ 6. My roommate needed some things at the post office.
_____ 7. Some stamps for domestic letters and five international air letters.
_____ 8. I bought them for him.
_____ 9. And carried them around with me all morning.
_____ 10. I gave them to him after my last class.

A1 Sentence Pattern With Intransitive Verbs

This sentence pattern has two necessary parts: a subject (S) and a verb (V).

| | S | V |
|-----|------|-------------------|
| (3) | John | is singing. |
| (4) | It | must have snowed. |

It is used to describe an action or activity. The S indicates the doer of the action; the V indicates the action.

This pattern is also used to describe the weather. When verbs like *snow* and *rain* are used, they require the **empty it** as the S. (The term “empty *it*” means that the word *it* does not have any meaning; it does not refer to any other word or idea.)

Only certain verbs can be used in this pattern. They are called **intransitive verbs**; this means that there are no nouns or noun-equivalents after the verb to indicate people or things affected by the activity.

Exercise

The following simple sentences have intransitive verbs. Underline the subjects with one line. Underline the verbs with two lines.

1. In the United States, offices open around 8:00 or 9:00 in the morning.

Sentences: Structures and Purposes

2. They close at around 5:00 or 6:00 p.m.
3. Some stores close at 9:00 or 10:00 at night.
4. People work for about eight hours a day, with an hour for lunch around noon.
5. However, places of business do not close during lunch-time.

Exercise

This is a list of simple sentences. However, some of the sentences are not correct: they do not have a subject or a verb. Decide if the sentence is complete. If it is, write **OK**. For each incorrect sentence, decide what is missing—the subject or the verb—and write **S** or **V**.

- OK 1. Peter works part-time in the school cafeteria.
 _____ 2. Sometimes he helps in the kitchen.
 _____ 3. Other times serves in the food line.
 _____ 4. His boss around a lot.
 _____ 5. She can work anywhere in the cafeteria.

A2 Sentence Patterns With Transitive Verbs

In addition to the subject (S) and the verb (V), these sentence patterns have a third necessary part called the **direct object (DO)**.

The DO is the person or thing directly affected by the verb; it is the direct receiver of the action. The DO is a noun or noun-equivalent.

| | S | V | IO | DO | OC |
|------|----------------------|-------------|------------|---------------|------------|
| (5) | We | saw | | them. | |
| (6) | Paul | should kill | | that rat. | |
| (7) | Most of the students | know | | the answers. | |
| (8) | Elaine | bought | Alex | a new shirt. | |
| (9) | She | asked | his mother | his size. | |
| (10) | She | will give | him | the gift. | |
| (11) | The people | elected | | Truman | President. |
| (12) | Anne | likes | | black coffee. | |
| (13) | Anne | likes | | coffee | black. |

S = Subject **IO** = Indirect Object **OC** = Object Complement
V = Verb **DO** = Direct Object

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These sentence patterns are used to describe actions or activities. They can be used when there is no observable action. In example 7, the verb *know* does not indicate an action; the direct object *the answers* does not receive any action and is not affected by any action.

A verb that is used with a direct object is called a **transitive verb**. Sentence patterns with transitive verbs are the ones that can be changed to the passive voice (see Chapter 6, page 259).

Exercise

The following sentences have transitive verbs. Underline the subjects with one line. Underline the verbs with two lines. Put parentheses around the direct objects.

1. John writes (all his checks) very carefully.
2. On the line "Pay to the Order of," he puts the person's or the company's name.
3. He always spells names correctly.
4. Next to the dollar sign (\$), he uses numbers for the amount of the check.
5. All his checks have periods for decimal points.

Exercise

Some of the following sentences are not complete: one of the necessary parts is missing. If the sentence is complete, write **OK**. If the sentence is not complete, decide which part is missing, and write **S**, **V**, or **DO**.

- OK 1. On the third line of his checks, he must write in words, not numbers.
- _____ 2. Next to the word "For," writes the reason for the check.
- _____ 3. Sometimes he puts "rent."
- _____ 4. Last signs his name on the line.
- _____ 5. John writes his name very clearly.

A3 Sentence Patterns With Indirect Objects

Some of the sentences with a direct object (DO) can also have an indirect object (IO).

The IO is usually a person, although it can be an animal or a thing. It indicates the person who receives the benefits or bad results of the action.

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In example 8, *Elaine* is the subject; she did the action. The action was to buy; the verb is *bought*. *A new shirt* was the direct receiver of the action; it is the direct object. *Alex* is the indirect object, the person who received (or will receive) the benefit of the action: he received or is going to receive a gift from Elaine. In example 9, Alex's mother is involved in the action of asking; *his mother* is the indirect object.

The indirect object in examples 8 and 9 is a noun or noun-equivalent. It appears after the verb and before the direct object.

There is another way to indicate the person who is the indirect object. This way is to use a phrase with the prepositions *to*, *for*, *from*, or *of*; the phrase appears after the direct object.

S V IO DO

(14) She bought him a new shirt.

S V DO Prep phrase

(15) She bought a new shirt for him.

Examples 14 and 15 have the same meaning.

Some transitive verbs can be used both ways to indicate an indirect object: (1) a noun or noun-equivalent before the direct object or (2) a prepositional phrase after the direct object. Other transitive verbs use only a prepositional phrase after the direct object. The verb *tell* is used both ways, but *say* can use only the prepositional phrase.

S V DO

(16) They told a story.

S V IO DO

(17) They told the children a story.

S V DO Prep phrase

(18) They told a story to the children.

S V DO

(19) They said hello.

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S V DO Prep phrase

(20) They said hello to her.

S V IO DO

(21) XThey said her hello.

The chart in Appendix B shows some transitive verbs and their ways of indicating an indirect object.

Exercise

The following sentences have transitive verbs plus a phrase with *to*, *for*, or *from*. Rewrite the sentences, indicating the indirect objects another way. Underline the subject once. Underline the verb twice. Put parentheses around the indirect object, and write **IO** above it. Put parentheses around the direct object, and write **DO** above it.

Some of Paula Gibson's close friends decided

1. Some ^{DO} of Paula ^{IO} Gibson's ^{DO} close friends decided to throw *(to throw) (her) (a surprise party)* a surprise birthday party for her.
2. They told their plans to Paula's mother.
3. Mrs. Gibson would bake a birthday cake for Paula.
4. She would lend her stereo to them.
5. She gave the key to Paula's apartment to Paula's friends.

Exercise

Rewrite the sentences, using phrases with *to*, *for*, *from*, or *of*.

On the day of the party, Paula's mother left

1. On the day of the party, Paula's mother left her a *a message for her at the dormitory* message at the dormitory.
2. At 7:00 that evening, Paula should bring her father the car.
3. The automobile company had sent him a letter.
4. For a few days, the company would lend Mr. Gibson another car.
5. Paula asked Maria a favor: to drive her back to the dormitory from her home.

A4 **Sentence Patterns With Object Complements**

Some of the sentences with a direct object (DO) can also have an **object complement** (OC).

An object complement describes or identifies the direct object in the clause. In example 11, the subject did an action, and there was a direct receiver of that action: *Truman* is the direct object (DO). But there is more information. The result of the election was that Mr. Truman was chosen as President.

One way to think about the meaning connection between the DO and the OC is to think of the verb *be*. In example 11, Mr. Truman was elected to *be* President.

Examples 12 and 13 are similar in grammar and meaning, but they are not the same. In both examples, there are the same subject (S), verb (V), and direct object (DO). The difference in meaning is seen in the last unit of grammar and meaning. The sentence pattern with a DO is often used to answer a question about *what* or *who(m)*.

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------|
| (22) WHAT does Anne like? | |
| Black coffee. | (short answer) |
| She likes black coffee. | (complete sentence) |

An object complement (OC) is used to answer the question *how?*, *in what form?*, or *to be what?*

- | | |
|--|---------------------|
| (23) How/In what form does Anne take her coffee? | |
| Black. | (short answer) |
| She takes it black. | (complete sentence) |
| (24) What did they elect Mr. Truman to be? | |
| President. | (short answer) |
| They elected him | (complete sentence) |
| President. | (complete sentence) |

The object complement is a noun or noun-equivalent (example 24) or an adjective (example 23). It appears after the DO (if it appears before the DO, it is part of the DO, as in example 22).

Exercise

The following sentences have object complements. Underline the verb with two lines. Put parentheses around

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the direct object and write **DO** above it. Put parentheses around the object complement and write **OC** above it. Label each OC **N** or **Adj**.

1. In the United States, voters elect (^{DO} a person) (^{OC N} President).
2. On election day, they make him happy.
3. This leaves other candidates very unhappy.
4. The President names someone Secretary of State.
5. The Secretary of State must keep the President informed

Exercise

Answer each question, using a complete sentence. Use the sentence pattern with S V DO or the pattern with S V DO OC.

1. What do people in your country drink in the morning?
They drink coffee.
2. How do they take it?
3. In 1978, what did the College of Cardinals in Rome elect Pope John Paul II to be?
4. What do Americans usually drink in the morning?
5. How do you take your tea?

Exercise

All of the sentences have transitive verbs (they have direct objects). Underline the verb with two lines. Put parentheses around each direct object, indirect object, and object complement, and label them **IO**, **DO**, and **OC**.

- _____ 1. They made (^{DO} Mary) (^{OC} the class president)
- _____ 2. They made Mary a cake.
- _____ 3. In spite of the large number of students in that class, no one could tell the professor the answer.
- _____ 4. Some Americans eat their big meal of the day in the early afternoon.
- _____ 5. However, most have theirs in the evening.
- _____ 6. They call the big meal of the day "dinner."
- _____ 7. Few Americans drink wine with their meals.
- _____ 8. They have hot coffee or a soft drink.
- _____ 9. In hot weather, many people prefer iced tea.
- _____ 10. Still others drink a lot of cold beer.

A5 **Sentence Patterns With Linking Verbs**

| | S Subject | V Linking Verb | SC Subject Complement | Adv Adverbial |
|------|--|-------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------|
| (25) | It | was | | in 1860. |
| (26) | Abraham Lincoln | became | President of the United States. | |
| (27) | He | had been | a legislator. | |
| (28) | That | was | | in Illinois. |
| (29) | He | might be | the most famous American President. | |
| (30) | The Gettysburg Address and the Emancipation Proclamation | have remained | very important. | |

These sentence patterns have **connecting** or **linking verbs**. These verbs connect the subject (S) and the subject complement (SC) in the pattern.

The subject complement is an adjective, noun, or noun-equivalent that (1) appears after the verb and (2) describes or identifies the subject. (Remember that an object complement describes or identifies the direct object.)

The connection between the subject (S) and the subject complement (SC) is indicated by a connecting verb. Connecting verbs are not meant to indicate actions, even though some activity may be involved. For instance, in example 26, becoming President involves actions.

In addition to the verb *be*, connecting verbs or linking verbs include: *appear*, *become*, *feel*, *get* (= *become*), *grow* (= *become*), *look*, *occur*, *remain*, *seem*, *smell*, *sound*, *taste*, and *turn* (= *become*).

This sentence pattern is used for a condition. The subject is described (with an adjective) or identified (with a noun or noun-equivalent) by the subject complement.

The pattern is often used with the “empty *it*” subject, to discuss weather (example 31); to specify days, dates, and times (example 25); and to identify people and things (examples 32 and 33).

S
V
SC

(31) It was very cloudy.

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(32) (What is that?)

s v SC
It is a hot dog.

(33) (Who was in the car?)

s v SC
It was my friend Alice.

In these examples, the “empty *it*” does not refer to a particular person or thing; it is used to fill the subject part of the sentence pattern.

Exercise

The following sentences have linking verbs. Underline the subject once. Underline the verb twice. Underline the subject complement once and write **SC** above it. Label each SC as a noun (**N**) or an adjective (**Adj**).

1. Telephone calls are relatively inexpensive.
SC Adj
2. They are also a very fast method of communication.
3. However, a phone call in a foreign language can be a hard job.
4. It can be hard even for a talkative person.
5. Even some native speakers are uncomfortable on the phone.

Exercise

Some of the following sentences are not complete: one of the necessary parts is missing. If the sentence is complete, write **OK**. If the sentence is not complete, decide which part is missing, and write **S**, **V**, or **SC**.

- OK 1. My friend Catherine is happy with her bank.
- _____ 2. Her money is safe.
- _____ 3. But is always available in her checking account.
- _____ 4. The people in the bank helpful with any problems.
- _____ 5. For almost two years, she has remained.

Linking Verbs With Adverbials

A linking verb can appear in a sentence pattern with an adverbial (Adv). The verb connects the subject and the adverbial, as in examples 25 and 28.

The adverbial is an adverbial of place or time. The pattern is used to tell the location of the subject: it tells where or when the subject is.

Exercise

These sentences have linking verbs and adverbials. Underline the verb twice. Underline once the adverbial of place or time. Then complete the sentences with a subject, a linking verb, or an adverbial of place or time.

1. In my country, the main meal of the day is dinner.
2. Washington, D.C. _____ about 220 miles south of New York City.
3. New Year's Day is _____.
4. _____ are every four years.
5. _____ is south of India.

B. FOUR TYPES OF SENTENCES

Another way to look at sentences is to consider their use in communication. In this section, we consider the purpose of a sentence:

1. What does the speaker or writer intend to communicate?
2. What kind of response or reaction is expected?

B1 Statements (Declarative Sentences)

One type of sentence is called a **statement** or a **declarative sentence**. Statements are the most common type of sentence. Statements are used in all types of situations: in spoken and written English, and in formal and informal styles.

Form of statements

There are three signals that a sentence is a statement:

1. The word order has the subject before the verb.

 s v

(34) The door closed slowly.

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2. A statement is spoken with falling intonation at the end.

(35) The door closed slowly.

3. The end punctuation for a written statement is a period.

(36) The door closed slowly.

Statements are affirmative or negative. Negative statements are signaled by *not* (*n't*), by a negative like *never* or *at no time*, or by a near-negative like *seldom* or *hardly ever*.

Sometimes, it is necessary to adjust the form of the verb.

(37) affirmative

The door *closed* slowly.

(38) negative

The door *did not close* slowly.

These negative signals often appear next to the verb in the sentence.

(39) She is seldom at work on Saturdays.

At the beginning of a sentence, a negative signal requires a rearranged sentence.

(40) *At no time* has he told us why he needs to leave early. (See Chapter 6, page 254 for the grammar and the meanings of negative sentences.)

Form of responses to statements

The hearer or reader—the receiver—of a statement is expected to respond with an understanding of what has been presented. In a conversation, the hearer may indicate this understanding by nodding his head or by using short oral responses like “I see,” “Yes,” or “OK.” After receiving the statement, the hearer or reader may indicate his understanding by using the information or idea in his own sentences at a later time.

Exercise

The following sentences are statements. Underline the subject once and the verb twice. If the verb has more than one word, underline the entire verb twice.

1. Albert and his two roommates were going to register early.
2. They wanted to get the same physics course and lab.

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- Unfortunately, Albert had to work on the first morning of registration.
- He told them to register without him.
- Registration started at 8:00 a.m.
- Late registrants always seemed to get the worst choices.
- The two of them stood in line for almost two hours.
- They got the preferred course and lab.
- Albert did not register until the second day.
- He was not happy about his course schedule.

Exercise

Each of the following sentences has a subject and a predicate with a verb plus a direct object or a subject complement. Make a statement, arranging the 3 parts of each sentence in correct order. Then match each of the responses with one of the statements: write the letter of the response.

- choose / most of their own courses / university students
University students choose most of their own courses.

Response: b

- different requirements / each major / has

Response: _____

- all their classes in the morning / like / some students

Response: _____

- easy to get a good schedule / is not / it

Response: _____

- best to register early / is / it

Response: _____

- But I can't. I haven't picked my courses yet.
- I like the idea of having some choices.
- I know it. Pat spent several hours trying to work out a good one.
- We found them printed in the university catalog.
- My roommates want theirs in the afternoon so that they can sleep late.

B2 Questions (Interrogative Sentences)

The second type of sentence is called a **question** or an **interrogative sentence**.

There are two kinds of interrogative sentences. We ask questions to learn something new or to confirm information that we already have.

Questions to learn

1. Information or *wh*-questions
2. Affirmative *yes/no* questions

Questions to confirm

3. Negative *yes/no* questions
4. Tag questions
5. Restatements

Two very common signals show that a sentence is a question, not a statement:

1. The question mark at the end of a written question
(41) What is the difference between a college and a university?

In writing, a question mark is a sure signal of a question: every question has one, and it is used only with a question.

2. Question word order

A question has an auxiliary or the verb *be* in front of the subject. When the hearer or reader finds a verb form in front of the subject, he has a clear signal that the sentence is not just a statement. In question word order, the verb form in front of the subject is one of the following: *is, am, are, was, were, have, has, had, do, does, did, will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, might, dare* (very rare), and *need* (very rare).

Step 1. If the verb has 2 or more words, MOVE the first word of the verb in front of the subject.

S V

┌──────────────────┐ ┌──────────┐

The school year *will* begin in September.

Vaux S V

┌──┐ ┌──────────┐ ┌──────────┐

Will the school year begin in September?

Sentences: Structures and Purposes

- Step 2.** If the verb has only one word and if that word is a form of *be*, MOVE it in front of the subject.

S V
Albert *is* in my calculus class.

V S
Is Albert in my calculus class?

- Step 3.** If the verb has only one word and if that word is not *be*, then look at the tense of the verb.
- If the verb is in the past tense, ADD the auxiliary *did* in front of the subject and change the verb to the simple form.

S V
Albert registered for calculus this semester.

Vaux S V
Did Albert register for calculus this semester?

- If the subject is *he*, *she*, *it*, or an equivalent and the verb is in the present tense, ADD *does* in front of the subject and CHANGE the verb to the simple form.

S V
Henry likes his mathematics class.

Vaux S V
Does Henry like his mathematics class?

- In all other cases, ADD the auxiliary *do* in front of the subject, but DO NOT CHANGE the form of the verb.

S V
Albert and Henry study together.

Vaux S V
Do Albert and Henry study together?

The verb *have* is the only verb in English that has two possible word orders for questions. It can be treated like

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the verb *be* in Step 2, or it can be treated like all other verbs in Step 3.

(42a) statement

Albert has two physics classes.

(42b) Question word order, Step 2

v s

Has Albert two physics classes?

(42c) Question word order, Step 3b

Vaux S V

Does Albert have two physics classes?

Both arrangements are correct. Step 2 is more common in British English; Step 3 is more common in American English.

Question word order is a very common signal of a question, but it is not a completely sure signal. Some questions do not have this order, (see Chapter 5, pages 214-215), and some statements have it (see Chapter 6, page 254).

Exercise

Change the following statements into questions. Use both of the signals discussed previously.

1. A college is similar to a university.
Is a college similar to a university?
2. They both provide advanced education for their students.
3. They are also different from one another.
4. A college has only one course of study.
5. It could be a college of engineering.
6. Marie has decided to go to a liberal arts college.
7. A university is a collection of colleges.
8. Universities often have medical and law schools.
9. Clara and her brother had been trying to choose between a small college and a big university.
10. They were willing to work hard to get a good education.

Exercise

Change the following questions into statements. Eliminate the two question signals.

Sentences: Structures and Purposes

The first year at a college or university is called

1. Is the first year at a college or university called the *the "freshman" year.*
"freshman" year?
2. Are the second and third years called the "sophomore" year and the "junior" year?
3. Has William decided to transfer to a university?
4. Will he get credit for his two years of study at the state college?
5. Does Marsha work part-time?
6. Do her parents help her with her college expenses?
7. Did they buy her that car?
8. Are many students working their way through college?
9. Can they expect to work hard?
10. Is it worth the effort?

Information or Wh-questions

An information question usually has a question word. Because most information questions have these question words and because most of these question words begin with the letters *w* and *b*, information questions are often called **wh-questions** in grammar texts.

Form of information questions

Four signals show that the sentence is an information question:

1. An information question begins with a question word or a phrase with a question word.
 - (43) *When* will you be registering for classes?
 - (44) *At what time* will you be registering for classes?

| Question word | Asks for this information |
|---|---|
| <i>who</i> subject | the identification of a person, people |
| <i>whom</i> direct object indirect object object of preposition | |
| <i>whose</i> | the identification of the possessor |
| <i>what</i> | the identification of the place(s), thing(s), idea(s) |

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| Question word | Asks for this information |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------|
| <i>which</i> | the indication of a choice |
| <i>how</i> | manner |
| <i>how (often, far, etc.)</i> | degree |
| <i>how much/many</i> | quantity |
| <i>when</i> | time |
| <i>where</i> | place |
| <i>why</i> | reason |

***Note:** In informal conversation, many people use *who* for both subjects and objects.

The question word *which* is used when the possible choices are known. If the possible choices are not known, use another question word, such as *what* or *who*.

(45) Alan told me that you were considering three typewriters.

Which did you buy?

(46) I saw your sister at the store yesterday buying clothes.

What did she buy?

2. An information question usually has question word order: there is a verb auxiliary or a form of the verb *be* in front of the subject (see Chapter 5, page 215).

Vaux S

(47) Why have you chosen that college?

There is one situation when an information question does not have the question word order: when the question word refers to the subject of the clause.

S V

(48) Who likes American food?

In this case, the verb looks like the verb in a statement; it doesn't take an auxiliary.

(49) X Who does like American food?

(50) X Does who like American food?

3. An information question is spoken with falling intonation.

(51) Why have you chosen that college?

Note: It is important to signal information questions with falling intonation. Falling intonation signals that the answer should be information. Rising intonation signals a different kind of answer. (See Chapter 1, pages 22 and 31.)

4. The end punctuation mark for a wh-question is a question mark.

(52) How did you come to this country?

Exercise

Look at the answer that follows each question. Then add the appropriate question word.

1. When did you find out about the accident?
At about 4:30.
2. _____ told you about it?
Mr. and Mrs. Applewhite.
3. From _____ did they hear about it?
From their cousin in Detroit.
4. _____ did they tell you about it?
Because they know that we are concerned about drunk driving.
5. _____ are you going to do with the information?
We are going to add it to the report we are sending to our congressman.

Exercise

Make wh-questions from the statements. The underlined words indicate where to use question words.

1. The last year of college is called the "senior" year .
What is the last year of college called?
2. Most students attend college for four years .
3. Working students often need five years to complete their education.
4. They are studying hard because they have a test tomorrow .

5. A student can get a good education at a state college or university .
6. Bill lost his brother's calculator .
7. Bill lost his sister's book.
8. It was her expensive chemistry book.
9. He found the book after class .
10. He bought his brother a new calculator by paying for it in installments .

Yes/No Questions (Affirmative)

The second type of question is called a **yes/no question**. The asker of this question wants to find out if something is true or not; he expects the answer to be *yes* or *no*.

Form of affirmative yes/no questions

Three signals show that a sentence is a yes/no question:

1. A yes/no question has question word order: there is a verb auxiliary or a form of the verb *be* in front of the subject (see Chapter 5, page 214).

Vaux S

(53) Did the door close slowly?

2. The end punctuation for a yes/no question is a question mark.

(54) Did the door close slowly?

3. A yes/no question is spoken with rising intonation at the end. The rise tells the hearer to answer *yes* or *no*.

(55) Did the door close slowly?

In speaking, many people ask yes/no questions without changing word order. They merely use rising intonation.

(56) The door closed slowly?

Form of responses to affirmative yes/no questions

In informal conversation, a one-word answer is all right. However, in more formal English, two other answers of-

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ten occur. One of these answers has the word *yes* or *no* plus a complete sentence.

- (57) Is today Tuesday?
Yes, today is Tuesday.
(or)
No, it is not Tuesday.

A complete sentence is always appropriate as an answer.

The other common way to answer a *yes/no* question is with the word *yes* or *no* plus a short answer; it is used when we do not wish to repeat a lot of information that is already clear in the conversation. To many people, this type of answer is more polite than a one-word answer.

- (58) Is today Tuesday?
Yes, it is.
No, it is not.

Note: In examples 57 and 58, there is a comma between the *yes* or *no* and the rest of the answer.

Note: When the tag statement is affirmative, the subject pronoun and the form of the verb can not be contracted. When the tag statement is negative, they can be contracted.

- (59) Yes, we are.
(60) X Yes, we're.
(61) No, we are not.
(62) No, we're not.

(See Chapter 6, page 251 for more information about contractions.)

A short answer is part of a sentence pattern: it has a subject plus an auxiliary verb or a form of the verb *be*; if it is negative, it also has *not* or *n't*.

(Yes,) + Subject + { Vaux
(pronoun) { *be*

- (63) Were the guests satisfied?
Yes, they were.

(No,) + Subject + { Vaux } + { *not*
(pronoun) { *be* } { *n't*

- (64) Were Tom and Sara there?
No, they weren't.

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The subject (pronoun)

The subject in a tag statement is usually a pronoun. Because a short answer is a response to another sentence, the subject has already been stated. Therefore, we can use a pronoun as the subject.

(65) Did he like the chili?

Yes, he did.

(66) Will all the students register for classes at the same time?

No, they will not.

Sometimes a short answer is a short form of a statement with the word *there* (see Chapter 6, page 267). In this case, the word *there* is used in the subject position.

(67) Is there enough time to eat lunch before we leave?

Yes, *there* is.

The verb form in short answers

1. If the verb has 2 or more words, divide the sentence after the first word in the verb phrase (and include *not* or *n't* if the statement is negative).

(68) *Have* they ever *eaten* southern fried chicken?

Yes, they have.

2. If the verb has only one word and if the word is a form of the verb *be*, divide the sentence after the verb (and include *not* or *n't* if the statement is negative).

(69) *Was* the chicken very spicy?

No, it wasn't.

3. If the verb has only one word and if the word is not a form of the verb *be*, divide the sentence after the subject and look at the tense of the verb and the subject.
 - a. If the verb is in the past tense, add the auxiliary *did* after the subject.

(70) Did we *like* it?

Yes, we did.

- b. If the subject is *he*, *she*, *it*, or an equivalent, add the auxiliary *does* after the subject.

(71) Does your mother make it?

No, she doesn't.

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c. In all other cases, add the auxiliary *do* after the subject.

(72) Do you want to learn how to make it?
Yes, I do.

The verb form in a short answer is one of the following: *is, am, are, was, were, have, has, had, do, does, did, will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, or might*. Notice that these are the same verb forms that are used to form question word order.

Exercise

Make yes/no questions from the following statements.

1. Americans eat chicken with their hands.
Do Americans eat chicken with their hands?
2. A hot dog is also eaten with the hands.
3. Many types of food are found in the United States.
4. Mexican food has become very popular recently.
5. During the visit, Pierre's wife ate Chinese food for the first time.
6. She was crazy about cheeseburgers.
7. You can find Italian food in almost every city.
8. You find all kinds of food in the big cities.
9. Pierre and his wife found good regional food in small towns.
10. Visitors to the United States should try all the different types of food.

Exercise

Answer the following questions, using **yes** or **no** plus a tag statement.

1. Are there over 100 countries in the United Nations?
2. Was the U.N. founded in 1955?
3. Did the U.N. set up its headquarters in New York?
4. Has the International Court been meeting in the United States?
5. Have all the Secretaries-General been from Third World countries?
6. Is there a part of the U.N. concerned with health problems?
7. Can the General Assembly discuss any subject?

8. Does the General Assembly have the power to enforce its decisions?
9. Does the Security Council have the power to enforce its decisions?
10. Do all the members of the Security Council have a “veto”?

Negative Questions

One type of confirmation question is the **negative question**. The user of this question wants to confirm that something is correct.

Form of negative questions

There are three signals that a sentence is a negative yes/no question:

1. The word order in a negative question has a verb auxiliary plus not before the subject. (See Chapter 5, page 215.)

 Vaux S V

(73) Wasn't this book written in the United States?

The negative word *not* is almost always contracted. Using the full form is very formal.

(74) Was this book not written in the United States?

2. A negative question is spoken with rising intonation at the end.

(75) Wasn't this book written in the United States?

3. The end punctuation is a question mark.

(76) Wasn't this book written in the United States?

Form of answers to negative questions

Naturally, the expected answer to a negative question includes the word *yes* or *no*. However, the answer—the *yes* or *no*—does not refer to the question; the *yes* or *no* refers to the facts of the situation.

For example, the situation is the following: (1) this handbook was written in the United States, and (2) it was written in 1983.

(77) Wasn't this handbook written in the United States?
Yes, it was (written in the United States).

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- (78) Was this handbook written in the United States?
Yes, it was (written in the United States).

The difference between examples 77 and 78 is that the asker of 77 expected the answer to be *yes*; he would have been surprised to find out that the book had been written in another country. Therefore, when the answer to a negative question is *no*, it is a good idea to provide the correct information.

- (79) Wasn't this book written in 1980?
No, it wasn't (written in 1980). It was written just last year.
- (80) Was this book written in 1980?
No, it wasn't. It was written in 1983.

The asker of 79 thought that he knew when the book was written; he asked for a confirmation that he was correct. The asker of 80 did not expect a confirmation; he asked for information that he did not know.

A negative question should be answered in exactly the same way you answer any affirmative question—according to the facts of the situation.

- (81) Didn't they arrive earlier than you did?
Yes, they *did*.
(or)
No, they *didn't*. We got here first.

The following two examples are not correct responses in English.

- (82) X Yes, they *did not arrive* earlier than we did.
(83) X No, they *arrived* earlier than we did.

Exercise

A friend of yours has heard some things about the English system of measurement; but he is not sure about them, so he asks you some questions to get confirmation. If your friend's conclusion or knowledge is accurate, answer with **yes** plus a short answer. If it is not correct, answer with **no** plus a short answer, and add another sentence with the correct information.

1. Isn't the English system easier to learn and use than the metric system?

No, it isn't. They're both pretty easy.

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2. Isn't some of the opposition to change due to people's habits?
3. Isn't a quart larger than a liter?
4. Haven't most countries in the world adopted the English system?
5. Doesn't water boil at 200 °F?
6. Isn't -40 °C the same as -40 °F?
7. Isn't a kilometer longer than a mile?
8. Don't children find it hard to remember that (1) 12 inches = 1 foot, (2) 3 feet = 1 yard, and (3) 5280 feet = 1 mile?
9. Can't scientists communicate more easily when they all use the same system?
10. Don't pints and quarts measure weight?

Exercise

Change the statements into negative questions. You want confirmation.

1. The metric system is used in the United States.
Isn't the metric system used in the United States?
2. Temperature is commonly measured according to the Fahrenheit scale.
3. Goods are weighed in pounds and ounces.
4. Quantities are sometimes measured in pints, quarts, and bushels.
5. Some people have wanted to change to the metric system.
6. They stress the ease of using it.
7. There has been a lot of opposition to the change.
8. Scientists are using metric measurements.
9. Some manufacturers have changed to metric.
10. Some goods are labeled in both the metric and English systems.

Tag Questions

Another type of confirmation question is called a **tag question**. The person asking this type of question wants the answer to confirm (or not) information that he already has. This information is included in the sentence, for the answerer's response. Tag questions are most often found in conversation; they are not common in writing, except sometimes in informal writing.

Form of tag questions

Four signals show that a sentence is a tag question:

1. The first part of the sentence is a statement that includes the information to be confirmed.

(84) statement

$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{S} & \text{V} & \text{DO} \\ \hline \text{Elena} & \text{will open} & \text{a checking account,} \\ & & \text{won't she?} \end{array}$

2. The second part of the sentence is the tag question. It has question word order.

(85) Elena will open a checking account, won't she?
tag question

We look at the complete question in order to decide how to form the correct tag question. Tag questions are formed like this:

| | | |
|-----------|---|---|
| Vaux | + | Subject (pronoun or <i>there</i>) |
| <i>be</i> | | |
| Vaux | + | <i>n't</i> + Subject (pronoun or <i>there</i>) |
| <i>be</i> | | |

The verb auxiliary is one of the following: *is, am, are, was, were, have, has, had, do, does, did, will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, or might.*

If the statement in the first part of the sentence is affirmative, the tag question is negative, as in example 86. If the statement is negative, the tag question is affirmative, as in example 87.

AFFIRMATIVE NEGATIVE
 ↑ ↓
 (86) Elena *will open* a checking account, *won't* she?

NEGATIVE AFFIRMATIVE
 ↑ ↓
 (87) Elena *won't open* a savings account, *will* she?

The subject in a tag question is usually a pronoun.

(88) *Elena* will open a checking account, won't *she*?

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Sometimes a tag question is a short form of a question with *there*. In this case, *there* is used in the subject position.

(89) There are different types of bank accounts, aren't *there*?

3. The tag question has falling or rising intonation. It has falling intonation if the asker is sure that the answerer will agree with him.

(90) Today is August 19, isn't it?

In example 90, the user is sure of the date. In example 91, the tag question has rising intonation because the user is not so sure that the answerer will agree with him.

(91) Today is August 19, isn't it?

4. The end punctuation for a tag question is a question mark.

(92) Today is August 19, isn't it?

Form of answers to tag questions

Tag questions call for agreement or disagreement from the hearer. A person answers a tag question with *yes* or *no* according to the correct information, that is, the information in the statement part. (See Chapter 1, page 23.)

Exercise

Rewrite the following sentences, adding tag questions.

1. Checking accounts are very useful.

Checking accounts are very useful, aren't they?

2. There is no danger of losing money.

3. Your money is always available when you need it.

4. Canceled checks can be good records of money that you spend.

5. A savings account is also a useful account.

6. The bank pays interest on the money in a savings account.

7. However, the money is not always immediately available.

8. People should talk to their banker to decide on the best type of account.

9. You and I do not need a savings account to pay for our school expenses.

10. Sandra, on the other hand, will be better off with both a checking account and a savings account.

Exercise

Answer the following tag questions, using **yes** or **no** plus a short answer.

1. A savings account will increase in value, won't it?
Yes, it will.
2. The money in a savings account is safe, isn't it?
3. A checking account is best for everyone, isn't it?
4. Banks can change foreign currency, can't they?
5. Grocery stores in the United States will accept travelers checks in dollars, won't they?
6. Grocery stores in the United States will not accept travelers checks in foreign currency, will they?
7. Money in a checking account is not always available, is it?
8. There is a good reason to have a bank account, isn't there?

Restatement Questions

The third type of confirmation question is a **restatement**. The person who asks this type of question wants confirmation (or not) that he heard or read something accurately. What he observed or concluded is included in the question. He is asking, "Did I hear that correctly or come to the correct conclusion?"

Restatement questions usually occur in conversation. They do not occur often in written English. A more formal way to ask for this type of confirmation is to use a sentence like: *Is it true that . . . ?* or *Am I correct in assuming that . . . ?* These sentences occur in formal speech and in writing.

Three signals show that a question is a restatement question:

1. A restatement question usually has the structure of a statement.
(93) She dialed Abu Dhabi from her own apartment?
2. A restatement question has rising intonation. The rise tells the hearer to answer with *yes* or *no*.

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(94) She dialed Abu Dhabi from her own apartment?

3. The end punctuation for a restatement is a question mark.

(95) She dialed Abu Dhabi from her own apartment?

Exercise

You have heard some things about American food, but they surprise you. Change these groups of words into restatement questions to show that you are surprised and that you want someone to confirm what you have heard.

1. Americans / corn-on-the-cob / eat

Americans eat corn-on-the-cob?

2. eat it / they / with their hands
3. a very popular food / is / it
4. do not get sick / from it / they
5. are expected to try it / too / visitors
6. I / might have to eat some / myself
7. can politely refuse / I / if I want to
8. mind / they / won't

B3 Imperatives

The third type of sentence is called an **imperative sentence**. In an imperative, the speaker or writer indicates that he wants some action or situation to result from his words. An imperative may be affirmative or negative.

Form of imperative sentences

Five signals show that a sentence is an imperative:

1. Many imperatives do not have grammatical subjects. Unlike all other sentences, there is nothing in the subject (S) part of the clause.

(96) ^S ^V ^{DO} Write your name at the top of the page.

2. The verb form is the simple form (sometimes called the **base form** or the **infinitive without to**); this is also known as the **imperative mood**.

(97) *Be* on time for the test.

(98) *Answer* all the questions on the test.

The negative is formed by adding *do not* or *don't*.

(99) *Don't* begin to work before 8:30.

3. Polite words or phrases are often used in imperative sentences, especially if they are requests or suggestions.

(100) *Please* bring me your test paper when you have finished.

(101) *Would you please* answer the telephone.

(Note that here the subject *you* is used.) *Would you please* answer the telephone.

4. The usual end punctuation for a written imperative sentence is a period.

(102) *Be* on time for the test.

(103) *Would you please* answer the telephone.

However, when the imperative is very strong, the end punctuation is an exclamation mark.

(104) *Don't* touch that poison ivy!

5. The usual intonation for an imperative is falling intonation at the end.

(105) Be on time for the test.

However, when the imperative has the grammar structure of a yes/no question, the intonation may be rising or falling (see Chapter 5, page 233).

(106) Would you please answer the telephone.

(107) Would you please answer the telephone.

Form of responses to imperative sentences

The receiver of an imperative is expected to help the user. He helps by understanding the new action or situation. He may indicate this understanding by responding orally with an utterance like "Yes" or "OK" or by nodding his head. Also the receiver often helps by doing something. If the imperative does not call for him to act, he responds only by showing that he understands the imperative and agrees that it is possible and/or good to do.

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Commands and Instructions

A common use of imperatives is to command or instruct people to do something.

(108) Do not come back until you have finished the job.

(109) Read the examples before beginning the test.

The term **you-understood** is often used to describe the doer of an imperative sentence: we understand that the subject is *you*, that is, the person spoken to. Sometimes, but not often, the doer of the action is expressed in an imperative sentence, for emphasis or clarity.

(110) You lift up that end of the table.

(111) Robert and Mary, lift up this end.

(112) Theodore, open the door for them.

The conversational situation and the verb in the simple form indicate that these sentences are imperatives.

Requests

Request imperatives are grammatically similar to commands and instructions, but requests usually have polite words or phrases. The most common polite addition is the word *please*.

(113) Please open the door for me.

There are other ways to make requests.

(114) Could you tell me the time.

(115) Would you return this book to the library for me.

(116) I wonder if you could lend me a pen.

Examples 114 and 115 look like questions, but they do not have that purpose; therefore, they do not have question marks. Example 116 is not a statement. These three sentences are requests; they have the same meanings as 117, 118, and 119, respectively.

(117) Please tell me the time.

(118) Please return this book to the library for me.

(119) Please lend me a pen.

Examples 114, 115, and 116 are imperatives; their purpose is to get some action from the hearer or reader. One appropriate response to 114 is “Yes. It’s 2:35.”

Suggestions

Suggestion imperatives are like other imperatives: (1) they call for acknowledgement and/or approval of the new action or situation, and (2) an expected response is the action. But suggestions are also different from other imperatives: the doer of the action may be another person besides the “you” of **you-understood**.

(120) Let’s have lunch before the test.

When Mary says sentence 122 to John, she is suggesting that both John and she should have lunch. John could respond by (1) saying “OK” and (2) putting on his jacket and walking to the cafeteria with Mary.

The negative form of a suggestion imperative with *Let’s* uses *not*.

(121) Let’s *not* have lunch before the test.

There is a second suggestion imperative.

(122) Shall we have lunch before the test.

It is similar to a yes/no question: it has the question word order. But it does not have the purpose of a question; it is a suggestion. In writing, it is clearly a suggestion; the end punctuation is a period, not a question mark. In conversation, the situation will often indicate the purpose of the sentence.

The third type of suggestion imperative is shown in examples 123 and 124.

(123) Why don’t you come to my house at 7:00.

(124) Why don’t they finish their work after lunch.

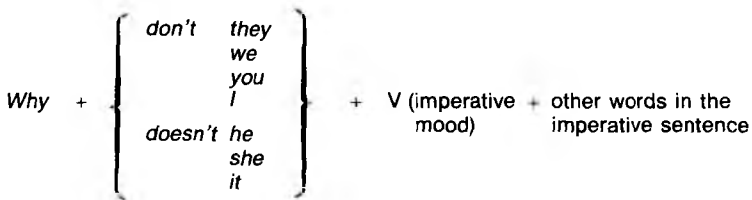
Examples 123 and 124 are similar to information questions: they begin with a question word, and they have the question word order. And sometimes a sentence like 123 or 124 is used to ask a question (then it has a question mark at the end). On the other hand, a sentence like 123 or 124 is often used to make a suggestion or invitation. When it is written, there is no question mark at the end; when it is spoken, the conversational situation is the clue to the expected response. These invitations are very informal.

Examples 125, 126, and 127 show two suggestions and one question, with appropriate responses.

Chapter 1

- (125) Why don't you come to my house at 7:00.
OK. I'll be there then.
- (126) Why don't they finish their work after lunch.
All right. I'll tell them to stop for lunch now and to finish work after they eat.
- (127) Why don't they finish their work after lunch?
Because they are going on their vacation this afternoon.

This type of informal suggestion has the following structure:



Exercise

Write imperative sentences for the following.

Tell your friend what to do when he arrives in the United States.

1. Tell him that he should open a checking account in a bank.
Open a checking account in a bank.
2. Tell him to change some of his travelers checks into cash.
3. Tell him not to change all of them into cash.
4. Tell him to use his passport for identification until he has some local form of identification such as a driver's license or school I.D.

Request something.

5. Ask someone for the correct time.
Could you tell me the time.
6. Ask someone to tell you how to get to the nearest post office.
7. Ask the teller at the bank to cash your 50-dollar check.

Make some suggestions.

8. Suggest that you and a friend go to the bookstore together this afternoon.
Let's go to the bookstore this afternoon!
9. Invite a friend to come to a party at your apartment tomorrow evening.
10. Suggest to your friend that she should bring her two roommates to the party.

Exercise

Match the responses to the imperative sentences. The responses are words and/or actions.

1. Write your name on the first line of this form.
Response: Action e
2. Would you two mail this letter for me.
Response: Words _____
3. Answer all 50 questions in half an hour.
Response: Action _____
4. Can you tell me where the library is.
Response: Words _____ Action _____
5. Please open the door for me.
Response: Action _____
6. Don't use a pen. You may want to change an answer.
Response: Action _____

Responses

Words

- a. Yes, we'd be happy to.
- b. Yes. It's right behind that tall building.

Actions

- c. You start immediately.
- d. You open it.
- e. You write your full name very carefully.
- f. Point it out to her.
- g. You take out a pencil.

B4 Exclamations

The fourth type of sentence is called an **exclamation** or **exclamatory sentence**. In an exclamation, the speaker or writer indicates that he feels very strongly about a situation: he is very happy, very angry, very surprised, etc.

Exclamations do not occur often in written English, ex-

cept when speech is written down. Exclamations should not be used often because too many at one time decreases their individual effect.

Form of exclamations

Two signals show that a sentence is an exclamation:

1. Many exclamations begin with the words *what* + a noun or *how* + an adjective or adverbial.

(128) What an interesting meal that was!

(129) How sweet American food is!

(130) How quickly Americans eat!

The word *what* or *how* indicates that the next unit of meaning (the noun, adjective, or adverbial) is the cause of the strong emotion in the situation. This is a rearrangement of the usual word order in a sentence, so that the cause of the strong emotion follows the introductory word. Exclamations that begin with *what* or *how* can only be affirmative.

2. The end punctuation for a written exclamatory sentence is called an exclamation mark or exclamation point.

(131) How quickly Americans eat!

There is a second type of exclamation. The grammar of the sentence is like the grammar of a statement. The written end punctuation or the spoken loudness and emotion are the only indications of an exclamation.

(132) That was an interesting meal!

(133) American food is sweet!

(134) Americans eat quickly!

Form of responses to exclamations

There is no clear way to respond to an exclamation. The hearer or reader is expected to understand that there are strong feelings about the situation. Often, the receiver will agree or disagree with the sentence or say something else to let the speaker or writer know that the message has been understood. Example 135 shows several likely responses to an exclamatory sentence.

(135) How sweet American food is!

Do you really think so?

Yes, I certainly agree.

Do you think so?

I haven't found it especially sweet.

Exercise

Change the following statements into exclamations, using **what** or **how** and an exclamation point. The underlined words show the causes of the strong emotion.

1. The summers in the South are hot .
How hot the summers in the South are!
2. The sun rises early .
3. It sets late in the evening .
4. There is a pleasant change in temperature when the sun goes down.
5. The summers in the North are pleasant .
6. The days usually are warm .
7. We have cool nights after sundown.
8. They had a severe winter in Milwaukee last year.
9. It was lucky that they could take a vacation in Florida.
10. They quickly forgot the cold weather.

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2 Nouns and Noun-Equivalents

A COMMON AND PROPER NOUNS

Most nouns are **common nouns**; they are not names, for example, *book* and *friend*. **Proper nouns** are the names given to particular people, places, things, and ideas, for example, *California* and my friend *Howard*. Both *friend* and *Howard* are nouns; but *friend* is a common noun, a noun that is used in many different situations; *Howard* is a proper noun, the name of a particular person.

Proper nouns begin with capital letters, for example, *California*. The following are some frequently used types of proper nouns.

1. Names of people: Thomas Jefferson
2. Titles of people when used with their names: President Jefferson
3. Days of the week: Sunday, Monday, etc.
4. Months of the year: January, February, etc., but not seasons: spring, summer, fall/autumn, winter
5. Geographical features: the Atlantic Ocean, Mt. Everest
6. Countries, states, cities: England, Los Angeles
7. Nationalities: American, Polish
8. Languages: English, Thai

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9. Specific course/class names: History 104, Design Graphics, but not the field of study: history
10. Heavenly bodies: Mercury, Alpha Centauri; as a special case, earth, sun, moon are generally not capitalized except when used in connection with other heavenly bodies or for clarity of reference, for example, *The space capsule drifted back toward Earth.*

Exercise

Indicate whether the noun is common (c) or proper (p).

- ___ c 1. a red pencil
- ___ 2. Mrs. Alice Gennaro
- ___ 3. fear
- ___ 4. an island
- ___ 5. Uncle Sam (a symbol of the U.S.)
- ___ 6. white paper
- ___ 7. my cousin
- ___ 8. first place (in a race)
- ___ 9. boxes of candy
- ___ 10. the Prime Minister

Exercise

Capitalize the proper nouns in the following sentences.

- He began working on this book in the fall of 1979;*
1. He began working on this book in the fall of 1979; it was august or september, I think.
it was August or September, I think.
 2. The earth rotates on its axis once every 23 hours and 56 minutes.
 3. They could not tell me if president kennedy had been elected in 1960.
 4. Did you study english and chemistry?
 5. The tour includes a two-day visit to cairo after a trip through the suez canal.

B COUNTABILITY

English nouns can be divided into two groups: those that we can count and those that we can not count.

The nouns that we can count are called **countable nouns** or **count nouns** (*one chair, two chairs, three chairs*). (Uncountable nouns are discussed in Chapter 2, pages

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48-49.) Sometimes we understand why a noun is countable or not; other times we do not. For example, *information* may seem to be countable (*one information, two informations*), but it is not a countable noun in English.

B1 Singular and Plural Form

Countable nouns have two forms: **singular** (*one book, an idea, the word*) and **plural** (*two books, ideas, the words*).

The plural form of regular nouns is written by adding the letter *s* to the end of the singular form.

| | | |
|-----------------|-------|---------------|
| Singular | + s = | Plural |
| book | + s = | books |
| horse | + s = | horses |
| calendar | + s = | calendars |

Sometimes adding the letter *s* also requires a change in the spelling. Turn to Appendix A for the correct rule.

Exercise

The word *one* is used with singular nouns; words for other numbers are used with plural nouns. Read the following sentences. Add **one**, **two**, or **four** in each blank and correct any mistakes in the form of singular and plural nouns.

1. It takes two hand^s to drive a car carefully.
2. Each person has _____ parent and _____ grandfather.
3. But we have only _____ father.
4. Yesterday I had _____ cup of coffee: _____ at breakfast and _____ at lunch.
5. When I replaced all the tires on my car, I found out how expensive _____ tires are.
6. The word *noun* has _____ letters.
7. We have _____ choice: to leave now or to wait until tomorrow morning.
8. Mrs. Jackson has _____ daughter: _____ daughter who is 7 years old, _____ daughter who is 4 years old, and _____ twins who were born last week.

Irregular Singular and Plural Forms

There are a number of common irregular plural forms:

Noun and Noun-Equivalents

| Singular | Plural |
|-----------------|---------------|
| child | children |
| foot | feet |
| man | men |
| tooth | teeth |
| woman | women |

Some English nouns have the same form for the singular and the plural. Some have a form which looks like a singular: that is, there is no final *s*: *Chinese, sheep, fish*. Others of these nouns look like plurals: that is, there is a final *s*: *series, means*.

Some specialized or technical words have kept their Latin or Greek forms in English:

| | Singular | Plural |
|-----------|-----------------|---------------|
| -us/-i | stimulus | stimuli |
| -a/-ae | alumna | alumnae |
| -um/-a | stratum | strata |
| -is/-es | thesis | theses |
| -on/-a | criterion | criteria |
| -ex/-ices | index | indices |

Some Latin and Greek nouns are being made into regular English nouns. Therefore, we find two plural forms—one foreign, the other English:

| Singular | Plural |
|-----------------|--|
| medium | media (foreign) mediums (English) |
| formula | formulae (foreign) formulas (English) |

Latin and Greek forms present special problems. It is best to check a dictionary for the correct singular and plural forms.

Exercise

Complete the chart of singular and plural noun forms.

| Singular | Plural |
|-----------------|---------------|
| 1. <u>man</u> | men |
| 2. apex | _____ |
| 3. _____ | media |
| 4. sheep | _____ |

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| | |
|---------------|------------|
| 5. child | _____ |
| 6. _____ | teeth |
| 7. base | _____ |
| 8. basis | _____ |
| 9. _____ | means |
| 10. foot | _____ |
| 11. _____ | data |
| 12. series | _____ |
| 13. boot | _____ |
| 14. alumnus | _____ |
| 15. _____ | fish |
| 16. criterion | _____ |
| 17. _____ | cases |
| 18. _____ | appendixes |
| 19. _____ | appendices |
| 20. _____ | women |

Singular and Plural Nouns: Special Problems

Some English nouns are always plural. They have no singular forms:

1. Pairs: two equal parts joined together

| | | |
|------------|--------|------------------------|
| binoculars | pliers | eyeglasses |
| scissors | shears | pajamas, pyjamas |
| pants | shorts | jeans |
| trousers | | glasses (“eyeglasses”) |

2. Plurals in s

| | |
|--------------|------------------------|
| fireworks | earnings |
| manners | grounds |
| oats | wages |
| quarters | savings |
| surroundings | stairs |
| tropics | looks (“good looks”) |
| ashes | minutes (of a meeting) |
| clothes | odds (in betting) |

3. Plurals not in s

| | | |
|------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|
| cattle | people | police |
| (singular - cow) | (singular - person) | (singular - police officer) |

Another problem in countable nouns is the **collective nouns**. The collective nouns refer to groups of people (for example, *family*, *team*, and *committee*), but most of the time they are considered singular nouns. The plural usage is much more common in British English than it is in American English.

Although most of the time a collective noun refers to a group, it may refer to the members of a group.

- (1) Our team is playing well this season.
- (2) The team are doing their exercises.

The singular meaning of *team* in example 1 requires the verb form *is*. The plural meaning in 2 requires the verb form *are*. (See Chapter 2, page 55 and Chapter 3, page 86 for subject-verb agreement and Chapter 2, page 66 for pronoun forms.)

There is no problem with the singular and plural forms. The collective nouns are regular in their formation:

| Singular | Plural |
|-----------------|---------------|
| family | families |
| team | teams |
| committee | committees |

Some English nouns are **complex**: they are a combination of noun and adjective or prepositional phrase. The plural is formed by putting the *s* after the noun, not after the adjective or prepositional phrase.

| | |
|----------------------|--|
| one son-in-law | two sons-in-law X two son-in-laws |
| a postmaster general | several postmasters general X several postmaster generals |

Other examples of complex nouns are the following:

| | |
|-----------------|---|
| mother-in-law | attorney general |
| father-in-law | body politic |
| daughter-in-law | court-martial |
| sister-in-law | notary public (American English) |
| brother-in-law | Secretary-General (of the United Nations) |

Exercise

Choose **is** for singular nouns and **are** for plural nouns.

1. The police _____ investigating the crime.
2. Our team _____ playing for the championship tonight.
3. The rich _____ getting richer.
4. Nowadays some diseases _____ less serious than in past centuries.
5. The people _____ waiting for a bus.
6. His sisters-in-law _____ cooking Thanksgiving dinner.

B2 Uncountable Nouns

In addition to nouns that can be counted (*one book, two books, three books*, etc.), there are nouns that can not be counted. For example, we can not count ink in the same way we count books, as ~~Xone ink, Xtwo inks, Xthree inks~~.

The nouns that we can not count in this way are called **uncountable nouns**, **non-count nouns**, or **mass nouns**. Sometimes it is not possible to figure out if a noun is countable or uncountable. For example, *news* may look like a countable noun (*one new, two news, three news*, etc.), and *vocabulary* may seem like something that you can count; but they are uncountable nouns in English. Therefore, when you are uncertain whether the word is countable or not, you should consult your dictionary.

An uncountable noun has only one form; it does not have singular and plural forms like countable nouns. The uncountable nouns *information* and *news*, for example, never change to ~~Xinformations~~ and ~~Xnew~~.

Since an uncountable noun does not have singular and plural forms, it can not appear with other words that indicate the meaning of singular or plural. For example, we can not have ~~Xseveral news~~ or ~~Xan information~~. (Turn to Chapter 4, pages 133, 143, and 145 for more information about uncountable nouns and quantifiers.)

Commonly, uncountable nouns are used for materials or substances: for example, *ink, chalk, soap, air*, and *milk*. They are also commonly used for abstract qualities: for example, *honesty, beauty*, and *danger*. There are always exceptions to this rule. For example, the abstract nouns *difficulty* and *worry* have both plural and singular forms.

Noun and Noun-Equivalents

Here are some common uncountable nouns that look like countable nouns:

1. Diseases: mumps, laryngitis, measles
2. -cs subjects: statistics, physics, politics
3. Some games: checkers, billiards, darts, dominoes

Some common uncountable nouns are:

| | | |
|--|----------------------------------|-------------|
| advice | garbage | money |
| baggage | homework | music |
| china | information | news |
| clothing (clothes is countable plural) | knowledge | punctuation |
| education | luggage | spelling |
| equipment | machinery (machine is countable) | traffic |
| food | mail | vocabulary |
| furniture | | writing |

Note: *Clothes* is a countable plural which can be used with quantifiers such as *few*, 'She has few clothes.' but never with numbers. X She has five clothes.

Exercise

Identify each noun as uncountable (**u**), countable-singular (**slng.**), or countable-plural (**pl.**).

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| <u>u</u> 1. equipment | <u>u</u> 6. water u |
| <u>u</u> 2. oxygen | <u>u</u> 7. happiness |
| <u>pl</u> 3. television | <u>pl</u> 8. people c-pl |
| <u>u</u> 4. politics | <u>pl</u> 9. car -c-s |
| <u>u</u> 5. clothes | <u>pl</u> 10. scissors |

Exercise

Choose **much** for uncountable nouns and **many** for countable-plural nouns.

1. I did not find very much information in that report.
2. Did you see many cattle when you visited Texas?
3. Road construction requires much heavy machinery.
4. Many machines used in road construction can be very expensive.
5. Don't use the freeways during rush hours: you will find too much traffic then.

Chapter 2

Counters

Since we can not count uncountable nouns, we have to use another way if we want to discuss amounts. We use **counters**. Counters allow us to count uncountable nouns. For example, we can not count *soap*, but we can count *bars of soap*; we can not count *milk*, but we can count *bottles of milk*.

A counter is a countable noun that specifies an amount, either specifically (a *gram*) or generally (a *box*). Common counters indicate quantities, units, and containers.

1. quantities

a *pound* of butter
a *kilo* of flour
two *feet* of rope
several *quarts* of
orange juice

a *cup* (8 fluid
ounces) of oil
an *ounce* of gold
ten *grams* of silver
one *meter* of ribbon

2. units

a *cake* of soap
a *bar* of soap
several *pieces* of
equipment

a *piece* of advice
two *items* of news
a *bit* of information

3. containers

a *bottle* of milk
some *jars* of jam
a *box* of sugar

a *bag* of salt
many *cups* of coffee
a *glass* of water

A number can be a counter in a few situations where the quantity is clear and conventional. For example, in a restaurant, we might order *two coffees*; it is clear that we mean *two cups of coffee*. If a person asks for *one sugar* in his coffee, he wants one teaspoon of sugar or one lump of sugar in it.

Exercise

Complete this shopping list. Put in an appropriate counter. Use **pound** (0.45 kilo), **quart** (0.946 liter), **box**, **head**, or **can**.

- 5 pounds of apples
1 can of orange juice
1 big pound of laundry detergent
1 quart of bleach

- 2 _____ of veal chops
- 1 _____ of milk
- 1 big _____ of cabbage
- 2 small _____ of baked beans
- 1 _____ of hot dogs
- 10 _____ of cat food

Exercise

Put in an appropriate counter or an appropriate noun.

1. In December 1981, one ounce of gold cost about \$400.
2. I keep a _____ of black ink in my desk.
3. I like one teaspoon of _____ in my black coffee.
4. My car holds 10 gallons of _____.
5. Every time I fill up my car, I have to add a _____ of oil.
6. When she read the letter, she got two _____ of bad advice.
7. Do you think he drinks too many _____ of coffee each day?
8. We used almost two feet of _____ to tie up the package.
9. For her birthday, he bought a large _____ of perfume.
10. When I bought the toothbrushes, I remembered to buy a tube of _____.

B3 Uncountable Nouns and Countable Nouns: Two Meanings

Many English nouns have two meanings: an uncountable noun meaning and a countable noun meaning. A few of these nouns are presented in the following chart.

| Countable Meaning | Noun | Uncountable Meaning |
|---------------------------------------|----------|--|
| a company He owns many businesses. | business | commerce; trade Business is good this year. |

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| Countable Meaning | Noun | Uncountable Meaning |
|--|------------|---|
| a dessert made of flour and sugar <i>She made three cakes.</i> | cake | food made of flour and sugar <i>Do you want any cake?</i> |
| a difference <i>There have been many technological changes in the past ten years.</i> | change | money returned after a purchase <i>You didn't give me the correct change.</i> |
| an activity to practice a skill <i>I didn't finish the grammar exercises.</i> | exercise | effort used doing something <i>We don't get much exercise.</i> |
| a container <i>Give me a glass, please.</i> | glass | material used in making windows <i>The statue was made of glass.</i> |
| a written report; a newspaper <i>I bought three papers.</i> | paper | material on which we write <i>We need some paper.</i> |
| a machine for receiving pictures <i>They just bought a new television.</i> | television | technology of visual communication <i>Some people say that television is bad for children.</i> |
| a moment when an event takes place <i>She always talks about the good times.</i> | time | what is measured by hours, days, etc. <i>Time passes slowly when you are bored.</i> |

An uncountable noun can be made into a countable noun in order to signal the meaning *different kind(s) of*.

- (3) Many people drink wine with their meals.
- (4) The wines of California are not as famous as the wines of France or Germany.

In example 3, we are discussing the drink—wine (which is uncountable). In example 4, we are discussing several different types of wine, for example, white wine and red wine.

Note: A countable noun can not be made into an uncountable noun. For instance, example 5 is incorrect.

(5) X Computer had not been invented then.

The subject of the sentence—*computer*—refers to any computer or to all computers in general. Nevertheless, the *computer* is a countable noun: it must have a determiner when it appears in the singular form. (See Chapter 4, page 133 for general reference.)

(6) The computer had not been invented then.

Exercise

Identify whether each underlined noun has an uncountable meaning (**u**) or a countable meaning (**c**).

- u 1. Radio has allowed us to communicate quickly over very large distances.
- _____ 2. My radio can pick up signals from half-way around the world.
- _____ 3. Marie Antoinette said, "Let them eat cake!"
- _____ 4. They had left the papers on the couch in the living room.
- _____ 5. The glass was broken, and we had to get a new rear window for the car.
- _____ 6. The glass was broken, and the wine spilled all over the table.
- _____ 7. The wines of Australia are not as famous as the wines of Germany.
- _____ 8. There are exercises throughout this handbook.
- _____ 9. Exercise is important in maintaining good health.

C **NOUNS AND NOUN PHRASES**

A noun can appear alone in a clause, for instance, *answers* in example 7.

(7) *Answers* are sometimes not reliable.

However, nouns also appear with other words in noun phrases. A **noun phrase** includes a noun and other words, phrases, or clauses. In a clause, a noun phrase fills the same place as a noun. Adjectives come before nouns in noun phrases.

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noun phrase

(8) Simple *answers* are sometimes not reliable.
Prepositional phrases come after nouns in noun phrases.

noun prepositional phrase

(9) *Answers* to complex questions are sometimes not reliable.

Articles come before nouns, and clauses come after them in a noun phrase.

article noun clause

(10) The *answers* which we receive are sometimes not reliable.

A noun is sometimes used as an adjective.

noun noun

(11) Computer *answers* are sometimes not reliable.
(See Chapter 4, page 157.)

In a noun phrase, it is important to know which noun is the principal one. For instance, in example 9, the subject of the sentence is *Answers*; it is not *questions* because *answers* is the principal noun.

Exercise

For each underlined noun phrase, identify the principal noun (pn) and the other parts of the phrase. Enter the information in the chart.

1. This is the common method of making change.
2. It is used in various parts of the United States and Canada .
3. Of course, it is nice to have a good system that works well .
4. The principal benefit of the method is fewer mistakes.
5. The addition method may seem very odd to you.

Noun and Noun-Equivalents

| | Article | Adjective | PRINCIPAL NOUN | Prepositional phrase | Clause |
|----|------------|---------------|----------------|----------------------|--------|
| 1. | <i>the</i> | <i>common</i> | <i>method</i> | | |
| 2. | | | | | |
| 3. | | | | | |
| 4. | | | | | |
| 5. | | | | | |

D **SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT**

The singular or plural form of a noun may affect the form of the verb.

S
V

(12) The different *procedure* was not useful in dangerous conditions.

S
V

(13) The different *procedures* were not useful in dangerous conditions.

The singular noun *procedure* is the subject (S) of the sentence; it requires the singular verb form *was*. The plural subject (S) *procedures* requires the plural verb form *were*. (See Chapter 3, page 86 for more information about subject-verb agreement.)

An uncountable noun may affect the form of the verb in a clause.

(14) The *information* was not welcome at that time.

(15) *News* comes quickly via television.

The uncountable nouns usually require the singular form of the verb: *was* and *comes*.

Exercise

Find the principal noun in the subject noun phrase and

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underline it. Supply the correct verb form: **is, are, was, or were.**

1. Very little business was conducted today because of the holiday.
2. The first holiday which we celebrate each year _____ New Year's Day, January 1.
3. Other holidays _____ celebrated during the year.
4. But January 1 _____ just the first day of the year.
5. New Year's parties _____ usually very noisy.
6. The noise from the parties _____ very loud.
7. People _____ singing from 10:00 p.m. until dawn today.
8. The reason for all those noisy songs _____ New Year's Eve.
9. The neighbors who just moved in across the hall _____ not noisy.
10. The news tonight _____ full of stories of war.

E NOUN-PRONOUN AGREEMENT

The singular or plural form of a noun affects the pronouns that can refer to it.

(16) An artificial ^{singular} heart is not practical for
all of the _{plural} patients.

(17) ^{singular} It is not practical for all of _{plural} them.

An uncountable noun also affects the pronouns that can refer to it: only *it* can be used.

(18) ^{uncountable} News comes quickly via television.

(19) ^{uncountable} It comes quickly via television.

The pronouns *they*, *their*, and *theirs* can not be used for an uncountable noun, even if the amount is very large.

(20) We used such a large ^{uncountable} volume of information that we needed a computer.

uncountable

We used such a large volume of it that we needed a computer.

Exercise

Fill in the blanks with **it** or **they**.

1. Information is important because it helps us make decisions.
2. Newspapers provide information with lots of details, but _____ can be read only by literate people.
3. Radio is more useful than newspapers because _____ is available to people who can not read.
4. Television has an advantage over radio: _____ is seen as well as heard.
5. But not everyone has a television set because _____ are expensive.
6. A family needs money for rent and food before _____ can invest in a television set.
7. A radio is more practical because _____ is not as expensive as a television.
8. Through radio and television, the countries of the world are in close contact. Will _____ understand each other better?
9. Does news from around the world help? Will _____ improve our understanding?
10. People have access to information. Will _____ use _____ properly?

F NOUN-EQUIVALENTS

A **noun-equivalent** is any word, phrase, or clause that (1) refers to a person, place, thing, or idea and (2) appears in one of the usual noun places in a clause.

One common noun-equivalent is a pronoun. (See Chapter 2, page 59.)

Another common noun-equivalent is a verb form. There are two of these: (1) an infinitive (*to* + the simple form of the verb) and (2) a gerund (the simple form of the verb + *-ing*).

(22) noun direct object (DO): *sports*
Howard likes sports.

(23) infinitive direct object (DO): *to run*
Howard likes to run.

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- (24) gerund direct object (DO): *hiking*
Howard likes hiking.

There are several uses of infinitives. Example 23 shows only one: its use as a noun-equivalent in a clause. A gerund has only one use: it is a verb form that has the function of a noun in a sentence. (See Chapter 5 for more about gerunds and infinitives as noun-equivalents.)

An entire clause can function like a noun.

- (25) noun phrase direct object (DO): *the answer*
Mary knows the answer.

- (26) clause pattern as direct object (DO):
that a meter is longer than a yard
Mary knows that a meter is longer than a yard.

Clause patterns used like nouns are called **noun clauses**. (See Chapter 5 for more about noun clauses.)

Exercise

Identify the underlined nouns or noun-equivalents:

- a. Noun
- b. Pronoun
- c. Verb form: infinitive
- d. Verb form: gerund
- e. Clause

- _____ 1. In English, we say “ten pounds” and “ten dollars.”
- _____ 2. It would be more logical to write 10£ and 10\$, but we do not write them that way.
- _____ 3. On the other hand, we do follow logic by writing 25¢, with the ¢ after the number.
- _____ 4. And we say “twenty-five cents,” with cents after the number.
- _____ 5. Students of English must forget logic .
- _____ 6. They must imitate how we do it in English.

F1 **Pronouns****Pronouns: Use**

Pronouns can appear in clauses wherever nouns can appear; the word **pronoun** means *in place of a noun*. Pronouns are often used to replace a noun or noun-equivalent in a clause pattern.

(27) *Anita* is working part-time.

(28) *She* wants to pay her own school expenses.

(29) With this job, she is able to pay almost all of *them*.

It would be possible to repeat the name *Anita* in example 28, but we avoid repetition by using *she*. And the pronoun *them* is used in order to avoid repeating *her own school expenses*. The pronouns *she* and *them* refer to the nouns *Anita* and *expenses*; the nouns are the **antecedents** of the pronouns.

Pronouns can shorten a sentence by reducing the number of words in it; for instance, in example 29, *them* = *her own school expenses*.

Pronouns also show that several sentences are part of the same message; for instance, examples 27, 28, and 29.

A pronoun can be used to point to persons, places, things, or ideas that are clear in the message.

(30) X Anita and Martha have jobs. *She* works in the evening.

The message in example 30 is not clear, because the pronoun *she* does not have a clear antecedent, that is, it can refer either to *Anita* or to *Martha*. Example 31 may also be unclear: Who is referred to by the pronoun *we*—*you and I?*, *someone else and I?*, or *you, someone else, and I?*

(31) We are reading about the pronouns in English.

Note: A noun and a pronoun are not used together if they refer to the same person, place, thing, or idea.

(32) X All students in this school they must come to class.

The verb *must* has a subject: *all students*. The pronoun *they* refers to this same subject; therefore, example 32 is incorrect. The correct sentence is Example 33.

(33) All students in this school must come to class.

Exercise

Underline each pronoun and draw an arrow from the pronoun to its antecedent.

Many international students have studied English for many years before they go to study in an English-speaking country. After many years, they feel that they can read and write it well. And, of course, most of them can. However, frequently their experience in speaking it has been limited.

Last month, Li came to ask a question after class. He felt that it was very important. Several of his friends came along to hear the answer. The problem was that an American student had walked up to Li in the Student Union and had asked him where the nearest bathroom was. Li told him that there were no bathing facilities in the whole building. The American student laughed at the answer.

Li's English teacher told him and his friends that in American English, *bathroom*, *washroom*, *restroom*, and *men's room* or *ladies' room* mean *toilet*. They laughed, too, when they understood what had happened.

Exercise

Correct any mistakes in pronoun use.

1. Lack of practice speaking a new language ^x it can cause problems.
2. Li's teacher thought of Li and the American student. She understood his reaction.
3. Li's friends had learned some new words. They were very funny.
4. Each student he or she must expect some embarrassing moments.
5. The important thing is that the student should be ready to learn from any mistakes that they might make.

Form of Pronouns: First, Second and Third Person

A pronoun points to a person, a place, a thing, or an idea in the conversation or composition. A pronoun can be used only when it is clear what is pointed to or referred to.

Pronouns can be first, second, or third person.

First person (the speaker or writer): *I, me, we, us*

Second person (the receiver of the message): *you*

Third person (someone or something else): *he, him, she, her, it, they, them*

Note: Whenever a pronoun occurs in a grouping with nouns or other pronouns, the best order is (a) second person, (b) third person, and then (c) first person. Example 34 is not polite in English.

(34) X I and John went to eat after the movie.

3rd person 1st person

(35) John and I went to eat after the movie.

2nd person 3rd person

(36) You and John can finish the work later.

2nd person 3rd person 1st person

(37) The police wanted to talk to you, Elaine, and me.

Exercise

Rearrange the pronouns if necessary.

1. I and you know English.

You and I know English.

2. You may teach me and them to speak it better.

3. They and I are students.

4. We and they are studying two foreign languages.

5. It is hard for you, us, and them to remember all the vocabulary.

Form of Pronouns: Subjects and Objects

Pronouns in English have many different forms. Before you can decide on a form, you must know how it is used. For example, you must know what position it occupies. If a pronoun fills the position of a subject or a subject complement, it should be a subject pronoun. If it fills the position of a direct object, an indirect object, object of a preposition, or an object complement, it should be an object pronoun.

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Subject Pronouns

I
you
he
she
it
we
they

Object Pronouns

me
you
him
her
it
us
them

Note: The pronouns *it* and *you* are used for subjects and objects.

(38) $\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \\ \hline \end{array}$ I $\begin{array}{c} \text{IO} \\ \hline \end{array}$ told her the news.

(39) $\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \\ \hline \end{array}$ He $\begin{array}{c} \text{DO} \\ \hline \end{array}$ bought them in the morning.

(40) $\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \\ \hline \end{array}$ We $\begin{array}{c} \text{DO} \\ \hline \end{array}$ gave $\begin{array}{c} \text{Object of} \\ \text{preposition} \\ \hline \end{array}$ it to them.

However, when identifying yourself there are two ways which are considered correct.

(41) $\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \\ \hline \end{array}$ It $\begin{array}{c} \text{V} \\ \hline \end{array}$'s $\begin{array}{c} \text{SC} \\ \hline \end{array}$ I.

(42) $\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \\ \hline \end{array}$ It $\begin{array}{c} \text{V} \\ \hline \end{array}$'s $\begin{array}{c} \text{SC} \\ \hline \end{array}$ me.

Example 41 is correct according to formal English usage: the subject pronoun for the first person singular is *I*. However, sentences like 42 occur very often in conversational English. Although example 42 does not follow the rules of formal usage, it is accepted informal English.

When the subject or object is complex, people often make pronoun usage mistakes such as the following:

(43) X Me and John went to eat after the movie.

(44) X They saw John and I.

(45) X To you and I, it really sounds like a bad idea.

Errors like these can be avoided by using this simple test:

separate the two parts of the subject or object and use each part with the verb *went*. The sentence *John went to eat after the movie* sounds all right, but the sentence *Me went to eat after the movie* is clearly wrong.

In sentence 44, we need the object pronoun for the direct object: *me*. The sentence *They saw I* is obviously wrong.

Exercise

Choose the correct pronoun form. Circle your answer.

1. Is the package for you or for I/me?
2. When did the postman give she/her the notice about the package?
3. It could not have been after 8:30, because she/her leaves for work then.
4. Perhaps he/him left the notice with the next-door neighbors.
5. But if he saw the neighbors, why didn't he give they/them the package?
6. I think that either you or I/me must sign for it in person.
7. We/us can go to the post office tomorrow morning.
8. Maybe you can, but I/me can not.
9. My boss asked I/me to work tomorrow.
10. Then I/me will go alone. Do you think they/them will give I/me the package if only I/me sign?

Exercise

Correct any mistakes in pronoun form.

1. You and him are learning about English.
You and he are learning about English.
2. Between you and I, this is very good advice.
3. To them, it may seem odd.
4. However, she and I have looked into the matter.
5. And you and me can benefit.

Form of Pronouns: Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter

The masculine forms *he/him* and the feminine forms *she/her* are used only for human beings and animals whose sex is

known. The neuter form *it* is used for animals whose sex is not known, things, ideas, and uncountable nouns. The masculine and feminine forms are also used to refer to objects or ideas that the speaker feels very close to. For example, a captain might use sentence 46 in discussing a ship.

(46) She is a fine ship.

(This use of the masculine and feminine forms for inanimate objects is not common.)

The plural forms *they/them* are used for countable nouns. They are used for masculine, feminine, or neuter nouns, or for any combination of them.

There is often a problem in deciding whether to use a masculine pronoun (*he*, *him*, or *his*) or a feminine pronoun (*she*, *her*, or *hers*). This problem exists when the pronoun substitutes for an indefinite, such as *everyone*, or for a noun that can be either masculine or feminine (such as *parent*).

Very conservative formal usage says that the pronoun *he*, *him*, or *his* should be used if the person is clearly a man (example 47) or if it is not possible to determine *he* or *she* (example 48).

(47) Every father decides how *he* wants to raise *his* children.

(48) Every parent decides how *he* wants to raise *his* children.

If the person is clearly a woman, the pronoun *she*, *her*, or *hers* should be used.

(49) Every mother decides how *she* wants to raise *her* children.

Modern usage presents another possibility: the combinations *he/she* (read as “he or she”), *him/her*, *his/her*, and *his/hers*. They are used if it is not possible to determine *he* or *she*.

(50) Every parent decides how *he/she* wants to raise *his/her* children.

It is not possible to use a neuter pronoun—*it* or *its*—in this case. While it is true that a neuter pronoun would avoid the problem of deciding on a masculine or feminine pronoun, *it* and *its* can not be used for human beings. (The use of plural pronouns to solve this problem is shown in Chapter 2, page 66.)

Exercise

Fill in the blanks with appropriate pronouns.

1. Police Officer Franklin is not a man, but she has not had any problems on the job.
2. The other police say that _____ are satisfied that _____ does the job very well.
3. People in the community are happy that _____ is on the police force.
4. Mr. Franklin is happy that _____ is not the only "breadwinner" in the house.

Exercise

Cross out the noun or noun-phrase subject in the second sentence and substitute the correct pronoun.

1. Most people in this country work 40 hours a week. ~~Many people in this country~~ work five days a week, 8 hours a day. *They*
2. However, Mr. and Mrs. Stone do not. Mr. and Mrs. Stone do not work full-time.
3. Mr. Stone is a writer. Mr. Stone works only 25 hours a week.
4. Mrs. Stone is even luckier. Mrs. Stone only works on weekends.
5. Mr. and Mrs. Stone have two children. Mr. and Mrs. Stone do not need outside care for their children.
6. They are very glad that they don't need such care. Such care is expensive and can be impersonal.
7. Their daughter's name is Mary. Mary is four years old.
8. Robert is their son. Robert is one year old.

Form of Pronouns: Singular and Plural

The pronouns, like the nouns, are singular, plural, and uncountable.

| Singular | Plural | Uncountable |
|----------|-----------|-------------|
| I/me | we/us | |
| you | you | |
| he/him | they/them | |
| she/her | they/them | |
| it | they/them | it |

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There is sometimes a problem in deciding whether to use a singular or plural noun to refer to indefinites (such as *everybody*) or to nouns that can be either masculine or feminine (such as *parent*). Although the indefinites are singular in formal usage (and the verb forms are also singular), informally the pronoun *they* is often used.

(51) Everybody decides how *they* want to raise *their* children.

(Notice that the indefinite *everybody* goes with the singular verb *decides*, but that *they* goes with the plural verb *want*.)

The use of *they*, *them*, *their*, and *theirs* to refer to indefinites or singular nouns should be limited to informal, conversational English.

Collective nouns present another problem for choosing singular or plural pronoun substitutes. Collectives refer to groups, for example, *family*, *team*, or *class*. Collectives are countable, and the pronouns (and the verb forms) for the plural form are clear.

(52) The four teams were ready for their matches.

The problem is with the singular of a collective noun: it is grammatically singular, but sometimes it is logically plural because the members of the group are considered individually.

(53) His family is strong. It has been built on a strong foundation of love and trust.

In example 53, *family* is considered as a unit; therefore, the singular pronoun *it* is used (and the verbs are *is* and *has been built*).

(54) His family have not been well. They have had colds and the flu all winter.

In example 54, *family* is made of individual people. The individual people have been ill; the family unit itself has not been ill. The pronoun *they* is used (and the verbs are *have been* and *have had*).

In American usage, a singular collective noun usually requires a singular pronoun to refer to it. British usage more often uses a singular or a plural pronoun for a collective noun, according to the logic of the situation. If the learner of English is not sure which pronoun forms to use, it is possi-

ble to avoid the problem and at the same time make the idea clearer.

- (55) *The members of his family* have not been well. They have had colds and the flu all winter.

Exercise

Fill in the correct pronoun.

1. Our team will not arrive at the same time because they are traveling by plane and by car.
2. Every fan at the game will wave a flag to show that _____ supports the team.
3. Each student must determine the best way for _____ to study.
4. The class had been scheduled to meet early in the morning. The registrar had been able to find a room for _____ then.
5. Many people were not happy about this. It seemed that each of the students had _____ own reason to ask for a change.

Pronouns for General Reference: You, One, They

We use the pronoun *you*, *one*, or *they* to make a general statement about people. In this case, the pronoun does not refer to any particular person or people; that is, there is no antecedent for it.

In examples 56 and 57, the pronouns *you* and *one* mean *people in general* or *anyone*.

- (56) You should be especially careful driving on a mid-city freeway.
- (57) One should be especially careful driving on a mid-city freeway.

The use of *you* for *people in general* is informal: it appears in conversation and informal writing. Sometimes, it can be confusing, because the pronoun *you* has two common meanings: *the person(s) spoken to* (the second person) and *anyone* (the third person). For instance, does example 56 include all people or just the receiver of the message?

In American English, the use of *one* for *people in general* is formal: it appears more often in writing. However, in British English, *one* is consistently used in both speaking

and writing. Therefore, both are correct: 58 is more common in American English; 59 is more common in British English.

(58) You can easily lose your way in a new city.

(59) One can easily lose one's way in a new city.

Informally, *they* is often used to avoid naming specific people.

(60) They say that Siberia is very cold.

The meaning of *they* is unclear, because there is no antecedent for it. This informal use should be avoided in writing and in careful speech. Instead of the general *they*, use a clearer indication of who is referred to.

(61) Travelers in Asia say that Siberia is very cold.

If the identity of the people referred to by *they* is unimportant or unknown, you simply rephrase the statement.

(62) I have heard that Siberia is very cold.

(63) Siberia is very cold.

Exercise

Indicate whether the pronouns *you*, *one*, and *they* are used for general reference (**gen.**) or for specific reference (**spec.**) to particular people in these sentences.

- spec. 1. I heard that *you* intend to major in computer science.
- _____ 2. It is hard to tell if a book is good until *you* read it.
- _____ 3. *They* say that television will be in every home.
- _____ 4. Yesterday, *they* reported the results of the college survey.
- _____ 5. Several persons together as a group might be able to change Melinda's mind; *one* can not.

F2 Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive Pronouns: Form

The reflexive pronouns are formed from a pronoun plus *self* (singular or uncountable) or *selves* (plural).

| | Singular | Plural | Uncountable |
|---------------|----------|------------|-------------|
| First person | myself | ourselves | |
| Second person | yourself | yourselves | |

Noun and Noun-Equivalents

| | Singular | Plural | Uncountable |
|-------------------------|-----------------|---------------|--------------------|
| Third person, masculine | himself | themselves | |
| Third person, feminine | herself | themselves | |
| Third person, neuter | itself | themselves | itself |

We often find reflexive forms like 64 and 65.

(64) X hisself

(65) X theirselves

These forms are logical: a possessive pronoun plus *self* or *selves*, similar to *myself*. However, they are not correct. Note the difference in form between the second person singular and the second person plural, *yourself* and *yourselves*.

Exercise

Fill in the blanks with correct forms of reflexive pronouns.

- Cathy went to buy a new winter coat with the money she had earned herself.
- Her parents were helping her with college expenses, but their income _____ was not big enough to pay for everything.
- Her father had said, "Because college is so expensive, you and your brother will have to help _____."
- David was already paying for all his school expenses by _____.
- Their mother thought to _____ that independent children will do well.

Reflexive Pronouns: Use

A reflexive pronoun is used in a sentence when the subject and object refer to the same person or thing.

(66a) X Jack hit Jack with the hammer.

(66b) Jack hit himself with the hammer.

(66c) He hit himself with the hammer.

Example 66a is incorrect because both the subject and the object are the same. Compare the examples above with the following ones.

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(67a) Jack hit Rick with the hammer.

(67b) Jack hit him with the hammer.

(68) $\begin{array}{cccc} \text{S} & \text{V} & \text{IO} & \text{DO} \\ \hline \text{I} & \text{bought} & \text{myself} & \text{a birthday present.} \end{array}$

In example 68, the subject and the indirect object are the same person: the speaker/writer.

(69) $\begin{array}{ccc} \text{S} & \text{V} & \text{Object of preposition} \\ \hline \text{She} & \text{said} & \text{to herself that tomorrow was another day.} \end{array}$

In example 69, the speaker and the object of the preposition *to* are the same woman.

A reflexive pronoun can be used for emphasis.

(70) Those people did the whole thing themselves.

In example 70, the speaker/writer wants to emphasize that the people acted *alone, with no help* from anyone else.

A reflexive pronoun in a prepositional phrase with *by* means *alone*.

(71) We stood there by ourselves waiting for the bus.

Exercise

Identify the use of the reflexive pronoun in each sentence.

- to show that the subject or object are the same person(s) or thing(s)
- to emphasize
- to mean *alone, without help*

- c 1. My brother traveled all the way around the world by himself.
2. He made all the plane reservations himself.
3. He bought himself the cheapest ticket he could find.
4. He took a picture of himself for his passport.
5. And he could only blame himself if anything went wrong.

F3 Impersonal It; Empty It

The pronoun *it* has several uses where it does not have an

antecedent: it is used to take the place of the subject of a sentence.

One of these uses is to discuss time (example 72), days and/or dates (example 73), and weather (example 74).

(72) It was 7:45 in the evening.

(73) It is Tuesday, April 2.

(74) It will be sunny and hot tomorrow.

Another use is to identify.

(75) (Who is on the telephone?)

It is Robert Johnson.

The **empty *it*** is used sometimes for emphasis.

(76) It is very important that we finish before tomorrow.

(77) It was at a sports shop when Phyllis first realized that she missed playing tennis.

(See Chapter 6, page 269.)

F4 Pronoun Uses of *There* and *Then*

The adverbs *there* and *then* are sometimes used as pronouns in order to point to an earlier unit of meaning in the sentence, composition, or conversation.

(78) We arrived at the airport at 3:00 in the morning.
We had to wait *there* until 5:00 a.m.

In example 78, *there* means *at the airport*.

(79) They could wait only until 7:00 p.m.
They would have to leave *then*.

In example 79, *then* refers to 7:00 p.m.; it means *at 7:00 p.m.*

The word *there* is often used to fill a noun position in a clause pattern.

(80) Question word order
Were *there* many people near the ticket counter?

(81) Tag statement
Yes, *there* were.

(See Chapter 6, page 267.)

Exercise

Fill in each blank with **it**, **there**, or **then**.

1. How many people were *there* at the bank this morning?
2. Do you think that _____ is as hot today as yesterday?
3. You should go to the bank at 9:00. _____ will not be many people _____.
4. Tell me when _____ is 2:00 so I can get to the bank before it closes.
5. _____ certainly is helpful to have a checking account.

F5 Possessive Form of Nouns and Pronouns

Another form and use of nouns and pronouns is the **possessive**. Although there are several uses of the possessive form, its principal use is to show ownership or possession.

Possessive Nouns: Form

The possessive of nouns is formed in two ways. One of these ways is a prepositional phrase with the preposition *of*.

(82) The agenda *of the meeting* was long.

The second way to form the possessive of nouns is to add an ending. This ending is written with an apostrophe and an *s* (example 83) or with an apostrophe alone (example 84).

(83) The *President's* press conference was on Wednesday.

(84) The *Senators'* press conference was on Thursday.

The noun with the ending appears *before* the noun indicating what or who(m) is possessed; example 85 is not correct.

(85) X The press conference President's was on Wednesday.

It is possible for the possessive to appear without a following noun, if the meaning of the sentence is clear.

(86) The President's press conference was on Wednesday, and the Senators' was on Thursday.

Noun and Noun-Equivalents

The correct written form—either 's or '—is determined by following three steps:

1. Write the correct form of the singular, plural, or uncountable noun.
2. Add an apostrophe after the last letter of the noun.
- 3a. If the last letter is *s*, STOP: do not add anything after the apostrophe.
- 3b. If the last letter is NOT *s*, ADD an *s* after the apostrophe. For example:
 - (87) Step 1 (the) Senators (press conference)
Step 2 (the) Senators' (press conference)
Step 3a the Senators' press conference
 - (88) Step 1 (the) President (press conference)
Step 2 (the) President' (press conference)
Step 3b the President's press conference
 - (89) Step 1 (that) man (score)
Step 2 (that) man' (score)
Step 3b (that) man's score
 - (90) Step 1 (those) men (score)
Step 2 (those) men' (score)
Step 3b those men's score

The same three steps can be used when the possessor or possessors are named in a phrase. We look at the last word in the phrase.

- (91) Step 1 John and Mary (house)
Step 2 John and Mary' (house)
Step 3b John and Mary's house

Note: With some nouns ending in *s*, there are two possible written forms: *Mr. Jones' car* and *Mr. Jones's car*. The first one follows the three steps. The second is used to show that some people say the possessive form with an extra syllable, like "Joneses." Both forms are correct.

Exercise

Fill in each blank with the correct possessive form of the noun or noun phrase. Use a possessive form with an apostrophe.

1. The United Nations had scheduled a meeting.
The United Nations meeting was held on Monday.

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2. The Security Council had a long debate. The _____ debate was very heated.
3. A permanent member called a press conference. The _____ press conference did not attract a lot of attention.
4. Two temporary members held a secret meeting. The _____ meeting did not produce any noticeable results.
5. The Secretary-General tried for a compromise. Many people were unaware of the _____ efforts.
6. On Wednesday, two representatives from UNESCO addressed the Security Council. We all heard the _____ address.

Exercise

Fill in each blank with the correct noun or pronoun form.

1. The union's strike was suspended. The management was happy that the union had done this.
2. On the other hand, one corporation chairman's actions did not please the union. The union said that the _____ had promised to negotiate.
3. The union mentioned other corporation chairmen's promises to negotiate. The _____ promised to negotiate if the strike were suspended.
4. The head of the union's position was clear. Management considered what _____ proposed.
5. Management's position was clear, too. Negotiators discussed what _____ proposed.

Possessive Nouns: An Apostrophe or Of An ending with an apostrophe

1. Use this ending when the possessor is:
 - a) human
(92) Maurice's first purchase in an American store surprised him.
(93) He was surprised by the shopkeeper's way of counting change.
 - b) an animal that is familiar, such as a pet
(94) My dog's leg was broken.

- c) an animal which is high on the evolutionary scale
(95) An ape's brain is smaller than a human's brain.
2. Use this ending with certain expressions of time and place.
(96) A month's vacation will give you a good rest.
(97) Much of Mexico's border with the United States is the Rio Grande River.

A prepositional phrase with of

Use this phrase when the possessor is:

- a) not an animal
(98) The leg of the table was broken.
(99) X The table's leg was broken.
- b) an animal which is low on the evolutionary scale
(100) The life of the amoeba is very limited.
- c) stated in a long or complicated phrase
(101) It depends on the attitude of *the user of the sentence*.
(102) X It depends on *the user of the sentence's attitude*.

Exercise

Write a correct possessive phrase for each sentence, with an apostrophe (') or with the preposition **of**.

1. My older sister got a driver's license.
My older sister's driver's license
2. The picture has a frame.
3. It was a vacation that lasted two months.
4. Her husband Alvin wrote the letter.
5. Mr. Jones developed a new rose.
6. His pet cat has a green food bowl.
7. Two of the more outspoken members presented the solution.
8. All snakes have fangs.
9. The problem has unusual aspects.
10. Our aunt found the picture.

**Possessive Pronouns with Following Nouns
(Possessive Adjectives)**

There are two sets of possessive pronouns. One set replaces the possessive noun phrases.

(103) The agenda of the meeting was long.

Its agenda was long.

(104) The Senators' press conference was on Thursday.

Their press conference was on Thursday.

These pronouns are sometimes called **possessive adjectives** because they appear in front of nouns, as adjectives do. The pronouns in this set are:

| Singular | Plural | Uncountable |
|----------|--------|-------------|
| my | our | |
| your | your | |
| his | their | |
| her | their | |
| its | their | its |

Note: Possessive pronouns do not have apostrophes. The word *it's* is not a possessive term: *it's* is the short form of *it is*.

These pronouns do not change form. The noun after them can be singular, plural, uncountable, masculine, feminine, etc.; the noun does not affect the form of the pronoun. The form of the pronoun is affected only by the possessor. For instance, in examples 105 through 108, the form is always *her*, because the possessor is one woman.

(105) Mrs. Thompson has *a son* and a daughter.

(masculine singular)

Her son is in Canada.

(106) Mrs. James has *two sons* and a daughter.

(masculine plural)

Her sons are in Detroit.

(107) Mrs. James has two sons and *a daughter*.

(feminine singular)

Her daughter is at home.

(108) Mrs. James has *a day job* and a night job.

(neuter singular)

Her day job is in television.

Note: These forms are used in discussing the parts of a person's body. Example 109 is not correct English.

(109) X Mary Ann washed *the* hands before lunch.

(110) Mary Ann washed *her* hands before lunch.

Exercise

Fill in the blank with an appropriate possessive pronoun.

1. Mr. and Mrs. Arlington visited *their* daughters in Dallas.
2. The older daughter is married and lives with _____ husband in a small house.
3. The younger daughter lives with _____ roommate in an apartment.
4. Then, the Arlingtons went to Chicago to visit _____ son.
5. He lives there with one of _____ grandparents.
6. He met _____ parents at the airport.
7. He asked, "How was _____ flight?"
8. _____ mother answered, "We almost missed _____ flight."
9. _____ father said that they were stuck in a traffic jam on the way to the airport.
10. He said, "And that's not all. I forgot _____ pipe in the hotel, too."

Possessive Pronouns with No Following Nouns

The second set of possessive pronouns is used when there is no following noun.

- (111) We saw Bill's new car, but not Ann's.
We saw his new car, but not *hers*.
X We didn't see *hers* car.

The pronouns in this set are:

| Singular | Plural | Uncountable |
|----------|--------|-------------|
| mine | ours | |
| yours | yours | |
| his | theirs | |
| hers | theirs | |
| its | theirs | its |

These pronouns do not change form. They do not have apostrophes. The form is determined by the possessor.

Exercise

Fill in the blanks with possessive pronoun forms.

1. Those checks belong to Francis.
They are his.
2. Francis and Alice bought a new car.
It is _____.
3. I paid for the television set myself.
It is _____.
4. My sister and I own a car. It is _____.
5. Since she bought the book, she insists that it is _____.
6. If you prefer the seat on the aisle, you can have it. It's _____.
7. I will drive my car, and you and your wife will drive _____.
8. You have your opinions, and they have _____.

Possessive Nouns and Pronouns: Meaning

The possessive can be used to signal several different types of relationships. These are:

1. ownership
(112) *Carlo's* English book was found yesterday.
2. close relationship
(113) The cover *of the book* was missing.
(114) *Carlo's* class in pronunciation meets three times a week.
(115) This is *his* first day in the school.
(116) The cost *of the classes* is high.
3. doer of an action
(117) The President is coming tomorrow. We must finish all the work before *his* arrival.
4. receiver of an action
(118) The police were unsure about the time of *Alice's* murder. (= the time when someone murdered Alice)
(119) The renovation *of the school* was overdue.
5. period of time
(120) Each week the students have *three hours'* practice in the language lab.

- (121) There is a break *of 30 minutes* after the weekly test.

Exercise

Identify the meaning of the underlined possessive.

- a. ownership or possession
- b. close relationship
- c. doer of action
- d. receiver of action
- e. period of time

- a 1. My sandwich was stale.
- _____ 2. Actually, Mary's salad did not look good, either.
- _____ 3. In the middle of the movie there will be an intermission of a quarter of an hour.
- _____ 4. Our missing the test was serious, but not a disaster.
- _____ 5. It was her roommate's turn to clean the apartment.
- _____ 6. We were not surprised by their dismissal from their jobs.
- _____ 7. They were lucky not to lose their jobs.
- _____ 8. Where did you leave David's car?
- _____ 9. If you left it in our garage, where is ours?

Double Possessive Forms

There is a construction that is made of two possessive forms.

- (122) John is a friend of mine.

This sentence has two possessive forms:

1. a prepositional phrase with *of* (*of mine*)
2. a possessive pronoun (*mine*)

Sometimes more than one possessive form is needed. Therefore, example 123 is not correct.

- (123) X John is a friend of me.

Instead of the objective-case form of the pronoun (*me*), example 122 has the form of the possessive pronoun that appears when there is no following noun: *mine*. Example 124

is incorrect because it has the wrong possessive pronoun form.

(124) \times John is a friend of my.

This **double possessive** is used to mean part of a larger group. For instance, example 122 means that I have several friends and that John is one of them.

Example 125 is correct English, but it does not have the same meaning as 122.

(125) John is my friend.

This sentence discusses only John; there is no indication of other people besides John. Example 126 indicates that all of my friends helped me, while example 127 indicates that some—but not all—helped me.

(126) My friends helped me move into my apartment.

(127) Friends of mine helped me move into my apartment.

Example 128 indicates that I own the pictures (but we do not know who is in the pictures). Example 129 indicates that I am in the pictures (but we do not know who owns them).

(128) Did you see those pictures of mine?

(129) Did you see those pictures of me?

Exercise

Correct any errors in the possessives.

1. Where do they get those ideas of their?
2. Did you see those pictures of hers?
3. Some cousins of him had come for a short visit.
4. Two uncles of ours had come, too.
5. You may bring a friend your if you wish.

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3 Verbs

A VERBS: MEANING

The verb is one of the necessary parts in a sentence pattern. Every sentence has a subject (S) and a predicate (Pred.); and every predicate has a verb (V).

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \qquad \text{V} \qquad \text{Adv.} \\ \text{---} \quad \text{---} \quad \text{---} \\ \text{Pred.} \end{array}$$
 (1) They live in New York.

The verb in a sentence pattern can have one word (as in example 1), or it can have several words.

- (2) They *are studying* English.
 (3) She *must have finished* the test.

When the verb is a phrase of two or more words, one word is the **main verb** or **principal verb**; for instance, example 3 has the main verb *finish*. Any other part of the phrase is an **auxiliary verb** or **helping verb**. Example 2 has one auxiliary (*are*), while example 3 has two (*must* and *have*).

AI Two-Word and Three-Word Verbs

Meanings

When we use a dictionary to look up the meaning of a verb, we are used to thinking of one-word verbs like *go*, *happen*, and *operate*. But in English, there are also two-word verbs and three-word verbs, such as *call up*, *take after*, *pass away*, and *put up with*.

Two-word and three-word verbs are like idioms; they must be defined as a unit. The meaning of *take* plus the meaning of *after* will not equal the meaning of *take after*; the two-word verb means *resemble*.

- (4) Mary *takes after* her mother. They both have blond hair and blue eyes.

Grammar

In a sentence pattern, the direct object (DO) sometimes affects the order of the parts of a two-word verb.

- 1. Separable transitive:** The verb *call up* is transitive; it has a direct object. (See Chapter 1, page 6.)

- (5) He *called up* his friend.
(6) He *called* his friend *up*.
(7) He *called* her *up*.
(8) X He *called up* her.

The verb *call up* is separable. This means that the two parts may be separated, with the direct object (DO) between them.

- a) If the DO is a pronoun, the verb must be separated, as in example 7. Example 8 is incorrect because the verb is not separated.
b) In other cases, there is a choice: the verb can be separated (example 6) or not (example 5).

A very long or complicated DO will not separate a separable two-word verb.

- (9) He *called up* someone who would know the answer.
(10) X He *called* someone who would know the answer *up*.

Example 10 is too difficult to understand because the two parts of the verb are far from each other.

- 2. Inseparable transitive:** The verb *take after* is transitive; it has a direct object.

- (11) She *takes after* her father.
(12) X She *takes* her father *after*.
(13) She *takes after* him.
(14) X She *takes* him *after*.

The verb *take after* is inseparable: the direct object (DO) never separates the two parts of the verb.

3. **Inseparable intransitive:** The verb *passed away* is intransitive: it does not have a direct object. Therefore, there is no direct object (DO) to separate the parts of the verb. (See Chapter 1, page 4.) All intransitive two-word verbs are inseparable.

(15) He *passed away* after a long illness.

4. **Three-word verbs:** All three-word verbs are inseparable.

(16) She would not *put up with* that kind of behavior.

(17) She would not *put up with* it.

There is a list of common two-word verbs in Appendix B. The list shows if the verb is separable or inseparable.

Exercise

Complete each sentence. Choose a verb and use it with a pronoun (if one is given).

break __ in = to break something in order to enter

break in(to) __ = to enter a place illegally

break in __ = to enter illegally

break in on __ = to interrupt someone or something

1. The television program was stopped when the announcer *broke in on it* _____. (it)

2. The guard told the police that the thieves _____
_____.

3. When did they _____ the bank?

4. They _____ at midnight. (it)

5. The front door of the bank was very heavy, so the thieves were unable to _____ . (it)

count __ in = to include

count on __ = to depend

count __ out = to exclude

6. He is such a coward that when we mentioned the dangers, he immediately said that we should _____
_____. (him)

7. When we mentioned the benefits, he said that we should _____
_____. (him)

8. Since he changes his mind so often, it is not wise to _____ (him)

B VERBS: SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT

Subject-verb agreement means that the subject (S) in a sentence pattern affects the choice of the verb form. For instance, in example 18, the subject *I* requires the verb form *am*.

(18) I ~~is~~ ^{am} studying English.
~~are~~

1. Singular and uncountable nouns appear with the same singular verb form. This is often called the **third person singular, present tense form**.

(19) ^{singular S} A good *teacher* ~~is~~ ^{is} important to him.
~~are~~

(20) ^{uncountable S} *Time* ~~is~~ ^{is} important to him.
~~are~~

Plural nouns appear with another verb form.

(21) ^{plural S} Easy *tests* ~~is~~ ^{are} not helpful at all.
~~are~~

2. Compound subjects joined with *and* appear with a plural verb form.

(22) ^S *Phillip and Charles* ~~live~~ ^{live} in a dormitory.

Other compound subjects show subject-verb agreement between the last noun and the verb form.

(23) $\overbrace{\text{Either her mother or her brothers}}^{\text{S}}$ ~~were~~ ^{was} using the car.

(24) $\overbrace{\text{Either her brothers or her mother}}^{\text{S}}$ ~~were~~ ^{was} using the car.

3. Gerunds, infinitives, phrases, and clauses appear with a singular verb form.

(25) $\overbrace{\text{What I want to know}}^{\text{noun clause S}}$ ~~is~~ ^{is} when they will repay my money. ~~are~~

(26) $\overbrace{\text{To err}}^{\text{infinitive S}}$ ~~is~~ ^{is} human. ~~are~~

4. Indefinites (*each, every, any, etc.*) appear with singular verb forms.

(27) Everyone ~~enjoy~~ ^{enjoys} a holiday celebration.

The verb form is singular even though the subject (S) *everyone* has the meaning of *all people*, that is, a plural meaning.

5. Sometimes a collective noun refers to a group; sometimes it refers to the members of a group. The singular or plural meaning may determine the verb form to use.

(28) singular meaning: the group

Our family ~~have~~ ^{has} just gotten a new car.

(29) plural meaning: the individuals in the group

Our family ~~is~~ ^{are} well after many colds and other illnesses this past winter.

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A sentence like example 29 is not common in American English, but is very common in British English.

6. If the subject is long or complicated, it is necessary to determine which word(s) will influence the subject-verb agreement.

(30) One of Alice's friends ~~has~~ arrived.
~~have~~

In example 30, the verb form *has* agrees with the word *one*: Alice has many friends, but only one is here.

(31) A number of Bill's friends ~~has~~ arrived.
~~have~~

In example 31, who arrived? a number? some of Bill's friends?

Of course, subject-verb agreement is a concern only when there are two or three forms to choose from. For example, subject-verb agreement is not a concern in the past tense (except for the verb *be* or with some verb auxiliaries).

(32) Our family *had* just bought a new car.

(33) Studying *should* not occupy one's entire life.

Exercise

Choose the correct words; cross out the wrong ones. Be sure that the subject-verb agreement is correct.

1. ~~One~~ }
Two } dead fish were lying on the shore.

2. Good news { am }
 { is } what I want to hear.
 { are }

3. What I want to hear { am }
 { is } good news.
 { are }

4. Both }
One } of the television programs was very boring.

5. People { has }
 { have } been arriving all afternoon.

6. Either Carla or her roommates { am }
 { is } going to help.
 { are }

7. Carla and her roommates $\left. \begin{array}{c} \text{am} \\ \text{is} \\ \text{are} \end{array} \right\}$ going to be there early.
8. Phyllis and I $\left. \begin{array}{c} \text{am} \\ \text{is} \\ \text{are} \end{array} \right\}$ bringing a baseball and a bat.
9. Each team $\left. \begin{array}{c} \text{plays} \\ \text{play} \end{array} \right\}$ two games.
10. To forgive $\left. \begin{array}{c} \text{am} \\ \text{is} \\ \text{are} \end{array} \right\}$ divine.

C **VERBS: TIME, STATUS, RELEVANCE**

English verbs appear in several forms in order to provide certain information about the situation that they describe.

One type of information is **time**: this tells *when*. We can discuss a situation in the present, the past, or the future.

The second is the **status** of the situation. Is it an action which continues over a period of time, or one which occurs from time to time?

The third type of information is **relevance**. Is an earlier event important at a later time, or does it have no particular relevance later?

| Time | Status | Relevance |
|---------|---------------------------|-------------|
| Present | Progressive or Continuous | Perfect |
| Past | Simple | Non-perfect |
| Future | | |

D **SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE: FORM**

The **simple present tense** form of a verb is the form in a dictionary. It is sometimes called the **infinitive**, **base**, or **simple** form. It is also the first form in a chart of irregular forms. The form is used with most subjects.

(34) My sister and her husband *live* in Chicago.

(35) I *visit* them twice each year.

There is a special form to use when the subject of the verb is *he*, *she*, *it*, or any subject that has the same meaning as

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he, she, or it. This form is called the **third person singular, present tense form.**

(36) My sister *works* for a large corporation in downtown Chicago.

Add the letter *s* to the simple form of the verb:

work + *s* = *works*

drive + *s* = *drives*

get + *s* = *gets*

Sometimes adding the letter *s* also requires a change in spelling. Turn to Appendix A for the correct rule.

Changing final *y* to *i* and adding *es*

infinitive + *s* = third person singular

carry + *s* = *carries*

Adding *es*

infinitive + *s* = third person singular

push (one syllable) + *s* = *pushes* (two syllables)

Adding *es* or *s* after *o*

infinitive + *s* = third person singular

echo + *s* = *echoes*

Note: Irregular form: *have* + *s* = *has*.

Note: The verb *be* has two possible forms in the present tense. In writing, the full form is usually used. The contracted forms are used in conversation and in very informal writing.

| Full Forms: (more formal) | Contractions: (less formal, to use in conversation) |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| I am | I'm |
| he is | he's |
| she is | she's |
| it is | it's |
| you are | you're |
| we are | we're |
| they are | they're |

Exercise

Fill in the correct simple present tense form of the verb in parentheses.

1. My friend Mary Ann (run) runs her own business.
2. Some of her customers (travel) _____ on business.
3. A tourist (think) _____ about expenses when he (travel) _____.
4. He (want) _____ to see as much as possible.
5. She (hope) _____ that they (like) _____ their trips.

E SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE: MEANING

The **simple present tense** is used to describe actions or situations that exist at the present time.

(37) My sister *works* in one of the skyscrapers downtown.

The present time is a period of time that includes the moment of speaking or writing. However, it does not indicate only the exact moment of speaking or writing. At the moment of writing example 37, my sister may be at work or at home or in a store buying a coat—we cannot tell this from the information given in the example. But we do know what she usually or generally does.

1. The simple present tense is used to describe actions or situations that do not change; these statements are eternal truths.
 - (38) The earth *revolves* around the sun.
 - (39) The square root of 196 *is* 14.
2. The simple present tense is used for repeated or habitual actions.
 - (40) She *meets* many different people each week.
3. The simple present tense is used to describe states, situations which we do not think of as continuous activities. (See Chapter 3, page 103.)
 - (41) She *likes* big-city life.
 - (42) They *have* a new house.
4. With a clear indication of future time, i.e., *tomorrow*, *tonight*, etc., the simple present tense can be used to describe actions that are scheduled to take place in the future.

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(43) They *leave* for Los Angeles tomorrow morning.

Note: The future time indicator does not have to be in the same sentence; it can be understood from the context of the conversation or writing.

Do not use the simple present tense:

1) to describe actions that are true or that exist only at the exact moment of speaking or writing. The progressive form is used for this purpose.

(44) Right now my sister *is buying* a new winter coat; she usually *buys* a new one every two or three years.

2) to show that an action began in the past and continues through the present. In this situation, the present perfect form of the verb is necessary.

(45) X Phillip *works* for that company since 1975.

(46) Phillip *has worked* for that company since 1975.

Exercise

Identify the meaning of the following sentences.

- a. an eternal truth
- b. a repeated action

- b 1. Only a small percentage of the people vote in local elections every two years.
- _____ 2. A leap year has 366 days.
- _____ 3. The Robinsons move to a new city approximately every five years.
- _____ 4. The sun sets late in the summer and early in the winter.
- _____ 5. After class we study in the library for two or three hours.
 - c. an action scheduled for the future
 - d. a continuing state or situation
- _____ 6. It is important to vote in all elections.
- _____ 7. My cousins live in California because of the warm weather.
- _____ 8. Next week they travel to another city.
- _____ 9. Some students live in dormitories on campus.

- _____ 10. Both my sister and my brother-in-law enjoy living in a big city.

F **SIMPLE PAST TENSE: FORM**

The **simple past tense** of a regular verb is formed by adding the ending *ed* to the simple form.

- (47) Yesterday James *worked* on his term paper all morning.

This form is used with all the subjects (S): *I, he, she, it, you, we, and they*. There is no special form for *he, she, and it*.

- (48) He *wanted* to play first base.

- (49) His teammates *wanted* him to play center field.

Sometimes adding *ed* to a verb requires a spelling change. Turn to Appendix A for the correct rule.

Doubling the final consonant

infinitive + *ed* = past

prefer + *ed* = *preferred*

Cancelling the final *e*

infinitive + *ed* = past

use + *ed* = *used*

Changing final *y* to *i*

infinitive + *ed* = past

try + *ed* = *tried*

Irregular Forms

1. The verb *be* is the only verb that has more than one form in the simple past tense:

| | | | |
|-----|-------|------|--------|
| I | } was | we | } were |
| he | | you | |
| she | | they | |
| it | | | |

2. There are many irregular verbs in English. The most common ones are listed in Appendix D.

Exercise

Change the verbs in these sentences. Change simple present tense verbs to the simple past, and change simple past tense verbs to the simple present.

1. Emily knows that the answers are reasonable even though they seem strange. *Emily knew that the answers were reasonable even though they seemed strange.*
2. Our next door neighbors sometimes take us shopping with them.
3. Our favorite professor taught only afternoon and evening classes.
4. The city manager drew up all plans for street improvements.
5. Sometimes the line of students went all the way around the gymnasium.
6. They need to finish the plans before the legislature adjourns.
7. I was seldom in my office in the evenings.

G SIMPLE PAST TENSE: MEANING—“TIME”

The simple past tense is used to tell a story, to tell about past events, to tell what happened. It describes single past actions, past states, and repeated actions in the past.

- (50) single past action
They *moved* to a new neighborhood.
- (51) past state
They *had* a new car.
- (52) repeated past actions
She *made* two trips.

This tense is sometimes described as **not current**: the action or state is not currently relevant. In fact, the past tense is often used to indicate that a past action or situation does not exist in the present time; there has been a change from the past time to the present time.

- (53) My sister and brother-in-law *had* two children in 1978, when you met them, but now they have three.

The simple past tense is sometimes called the **definite past tense**. It is used when we tell specifically when something happened. It is used with expressions of time that tell *when*, such as *last May*, *yesterday*, and *after Mary finished the work*.

- (54) They *left* Buffalo last May.

(55) We *went* to the movies yesterday.

(56) After Mary *finished* the work, she had lunch.

Exercise

Identify each of the uses of the past tense.

- a. single past action
- b. a past condition or state
- c. several repeated past actions

- 6 1. Robert Atkins liked the challenge of something new.
- _____ 2. He changed jobs five times in 14 years.
- _____ 3. His wife left him after his last change.
- _____ 4. She was very unhappy about moving from city to city.
- _____ 5. She often complained to him.
- _____ 6. Then she decided to divorce him.
- _____ 7. Every day for two weeks, he tried to change her mind.
- _____ 8. He moved to his new job the day before yesterday.
- _____ 9. They sold their house when he left.

H OTHER PAST FORMS

1. One other indicator of past time is the phrase *used to* + an infinitive. *Used to* emphasizes a change in situation.

(57) I *used to* swim a mile a day.

(Indicates that there has been a change.)

(58) negative

When she was young, she *did not use to* eat a lot of ice cream.

(Indicates that now she does.)

(59) interrogative

When you were young, *did you use to* eat a lot of ice cream?

Note: In the past tense and with the negative, *used to* becomes *use to* with the use of the auxiliary *do*.

Note: The past time indicator *used to* is different from the adjective phrase *be used to*. *Used to* means a habitual ac-

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tivity in the past. *Be used to* means *be accustomed to* or *be familiar with*. *Be used to* is followed by a noun or noun-equivalent.

(60) I'm *used to getting up* early.

Used to is followed by the base form of a verb.

(61) She *used to call* me every day.

2. Another indicator of past time is the modal auxiliary verb *would*.

(62) My grandfather *would* always tell me stories about his boyhood.

3. It is possible to combine the past and future with *be going to*.

(63) Last month, Maria told me that she *was going to* travel to Brazil.

Example 63 reports a past situation: at that past time (*last month*) Maria had future plans (*travel to Brazil*).

Exercise

If the sentence is correct, write **OK**. If the sentence is not correct, write **X** and correct it.

- X 1. Now, I am used to eat American food.
Now, I am used to eating American food.
2. Five years ago, I use to run everyday.
3. Did you used to study hard?
4. When we lived abroad, we would experiment with different types of food.
5. Whenever she visited a foreign country, she used to would not miss a chance to try the native food.

I **FUTURE TIME**

There are several ways to discuss events and states in the future.

1. The first way to discuss the future is with the verb *be* and the phrase *going to*.

(64) She *is going to* consider your proposal.

(65) They *are going to* leave for Los Angeles tomorrow morning.

There is subject-verb agreement: *she* + *is* and *they* + *are*.

The phrase with *go* does not indicate any motion or going. In example 64, she will make her consideration while she is seated; in example 65, there is motion but it is indicated by the verb *leave*, not by *going*.

2. The second way to discuss the future is with *will* or *shall* in the verb phrase.

(66) I *shall leave* before noon tomorrow.

(67) They *will pick up* their package later.

The verb phrase has the simple form of the main verb: for example, *leave*, not *left* or *leaving*. There is only one form of the main verb when it is used with *will* or *shall*: there is no special form for the third person singular.

In American English, *will* is commonly used with all subjects:

| | |
|-------------------|-------------------|
| I will leave | we will deny |
| you will arrive | you will know |
| he will stay | they will pick up |
| she will consider | |
| it will break | |

In British English, *shall* is often used with the first person pronouns; *will* is used with all other subjects.

| | |
|-------------------|-------------------|
| I shall leave | we shall deny |
| you will arrive | you will know |
| he will stay | they will pick up |
| she will consider | |
| it will break | |

(The auxiliaries *will* and *shall* often have uses besides indicating future time. These are discussed in Chapter 3, pages 119 and 121–123.)

Note: Neither *will* nor *shall* nor *be going to* occur in future time clauses with the words *if*, *when*, *before*, *after*.

(68) X She will consider your proposal when you *will present* it to her.

(69) She will consider your proposal when you *present* it to her.

(70) You and I will discuss the proposal before you *type* it.

(71) She will read it after you and I *discuss* it.

(72) I'll tell her if I *see* her tonight.

3. The third way to discuss the future is with the present tense (simple or progressive). With a clear indication of future time, the present tense indicates that something is planned for the future.

(73) They *leave* for Los Angeles tomorrow morning.

(74) They *are leaving* for Los Angeles tomorrow morning.

4. The fourth way to discuss the future is with the verb *be* and an infinitive-with-*to*.

(75) The General Assembly *is to meet* tomorrow afternoon.

There is subject-verb agreement: *General Assembly* (= *it*) + *is*. This indicates that an action has been planned or formally scheduled. It is more formal than the other ways.

Exercise

If the sentence is correct, write **OK**. If the sentence is not correct, write **X** and correct it.

- X 1. Alicia and James going to go around the world when they have enough money. *Alicia and James are going to go around the world when they have enough money*
- _____ 2. They will save 10% of their salaries each month.
- _____ 3. They estimate that they shall have enough money in three years.
- _____ 4. I am going travel around the world too.
- _____ 5. I leave in six months.

J **PROGRESSIVE: FORM**

Every **progressive** verb form has two parts: an auxiliary verb and a main verb. The first part is the auxiliary verb *be*. This part tells whether the verb is present, past, future, infinitive, etc.

(76) present progressive
He *is* living in Chicago.

(77) past progressive
She *was* traveling in Asia at that time.

(78) future progressive
They *will be* finishing at the time of our arrival.

(79) infinitive

It is important *to be* working hard when they arrive.

In addition to the auxiliary verb *be* and the main verb, a progressive verb phrase may have other auxiliary verbs.

(80) modal progressive

They *must be* living in an apartment.

(81) present perfect progressive

I *have been* looking for them for an hour.

Note: In the present and past progressives, there must be subject-verb agreement.

(82) X They was looking for you.

(83) They were looking for you.

(84) He was looking for you.

Note: In the present progressive, the form of *be* may be a full form or a contraction.

| Full Forms: (more formal) | Contractions: (less formal, to use in conversation) |
|------------------------------|---|
| I am working | I'm working |
| he is working | he's working |
| she is working | she's working |
| it is working | it's working |
| you are working | you're working |
| we are working | we're working |
| they are working | they're working |

Note: The contracted form of *is* and the contracted form of *has* are the same: *it + is = it's*; *it + has = it's*. The verb tense becomes clear if you consider the entire verb form.

(85) She's *doing* it now. = She *is doing* it now.

(86) She's *done* it now. = She *has done* it now.

Note: There must be a form of *be*.

(87) X He living in Chicago.

(88) He *is* living in Chicago.

The second part of a progressive verb form is sometimes called the **present participle** of the main verb. It is always the simple or base form + *ing*: there are no irregular pres-

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ent participles in English. Sometimes, however, adding *ing* requires a spelling change. Turn to Appendix A for the correct rule.

Doubling the final consonant

infinitive + *ing* = present participle

prefer + *ing* = *preferring*

Canceling the final *e*

infinitive + *ing* = present participle

use + *ing* = *using*

Exercise

If the sentence has a correct progressive verb phrase, write **OK**. If the verb phrase is incorrect, write **X** and make the verb a correct progressive. Then identify the progressive verb phrase: put the letter in the parentheses.

- a. present progressive
- b. past progressive
- c. modal progressive (modals = *will, can, could, may, must*, etc.)
- d. present perfect progressive
- e. future progressive

- OK 1. Mr. and Mrs. Miller are packing for their vacation trip. (a)
- _____ 2. When Kate walked in, they finishing dinner. ()
- _____ 3. Actually they were reviewing their proposal. ()
- _____ 4. They should be visit their cousins in Montreal. ()
- _____ 5. The police was chasing the robbers down Columbus Street. ()
- _____ 6. They voting in the next election. ()
- _____ 7. You are doing that too late to help. ()
- _____ 8. He has been working for the police department since 1978. ()
- _____ 9. They will be wait inside if it is cold. ()
- _____ 10. I am asking everyone to donate some money to this charity. ()

K **PROGRESSIVE: MEANING—“STATUS”**

The progressive verb form is used to indicate that an activity is incomplete at a certain time. It is progressing or continuing; therefore, it is not finished. The time should be clear: the form of the verb *be* gives this information, and often there is another indication of when.

(89) John *was correcting* his history term paper when he saw Mary enter the library.

Example 89 tells us that (1) the action (*correcting the term paper*) was going on at a particular moment (when John noticed Mary's arrival in the library) and that (2) the action was not begun or ended at that moment (John was in the middle of doing the job when Mary walked in). Sentences like 89 and 90 describe an interruption: one action interrupts or breaks into another, continuing action.

(90) She *is* usually *sleeping* when I *leave* for work.

However, it is not necessary to have an interruption: two activities could be going on at the same time.

(91) John *was correcting* his history term paper, while Alice *was doing* some research.

1. The progressive verb form is often called **temporary**. The action or situation is happening at a particular time, but there has been a change or there is going to be a change.

(92) Alfred changed his major last semester; now he *is studying* computer science.

A progressive verb form can describe a continuing situation, a single continuing action, or a series of repeated actions.

(93) continuing situation

The newspaper *was lying* on the couch.

(94) single continuing action

Rob and Marie *are eating* dinner.

(95) series of repeated actions

Claudine *has been making* her own clothes for the past five years.

2. The present progressive can be used to describe an action in the future. The idea is that the action will take

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place in the future; the plans and preparations are in progress.

(96) The Jeffersons *are leaving* for their vacation in Australia tomorrow.

The adverb *tomorrow* gives a clear indication that this sentence describes a future action.

Note: The present progressive form is not used for situations that began in the past and continue to the present time. To show a connection between a past situation and a present situation, it is necessary to use the present perfect (simple or progressive).

(97) X Mr. and Mrs. Fitzgerald *are living* in Boston since 1973.

(98) Mr. and Mrs. Fitzgerald *have lived* (or *have been living*) in Boston since 1973.

Exercise

Identify each of the meanings of the progressive.

- a. a continuing situation
- b. one single activity
- c. a series of repeated activities

- a 1. They are enjoying a two-week vacation in Bermuda.
- _____ 2. At 10:00 last night, I was watching my favorite television program.
- _____ 3. Mary is refereeing all the games in the basketball tournament.
- _____ 4. The Robinsons are planning their son's birthday party.
- _____ 5. For the past six months he has been rebuilding an old car.
- _____ 6. At that time in his life, he was writing one novel every two years.
- _____ 7. His parents will be arriving on the 9:30 flight this evening.
- _____ 8. We are playing tennis tomorrow afternoon around 4:00.
- _____ 9. Right now, they are playing a round of golf.
- _____ 10. Martha could still be living near Dallas.

K1 Progressive and State Verbs

The progressive is not usually used for **states**, that is, for situations without activity. To describe states, it is necessary to use the simple form of the verb, even when discussing a situation that is true at a particular moment.

- (99) X At that moment, she *was needing* an eraser.
 (100) At that moment, she *needed* an eraser.
 (101) X Carol *is owning* a blue sportscar.
 (102) Carol *owns* a blue sportscar.
 (103) X Ted and Mark *have been knowing* the Jensens a long time.
 (104) Ted and Mark *have known* the Jensens a long time.

These verbs are commonly used to describe states and therefore do not usually take the progressive form.

| | | |
|--------------|-----------|-------------------|
| appear | hate | resemble |
| be | hear | satisfy |
| believe | know | see |
| belong (to) | like | seem |
| consist (of) | love | smell |
| contain | mean | sound |
| cost | need | suffice |
| desire | owe | suit |
| despise | own | surprise |
| deserve | please | taste |
| detest | possess | think (about, of) |
| dislike | prefer | understand |
| feel | recognize | want |
| forget | remember | wish |
| have | require | |

Under certain conditions, state verbs can appear in the progressive:

1. When they are used to describe an action.

- (105) When I saw Ellen, she *was smelling* the melons to decide which one to buy. (describes an action)
 (106) All the melons *smelled* bad, so she did not buy any. (describes a state, since a melon cannot smell in the active sense)
 (107) *Are you having* a good time on your vacation? (describes an action)

(108) They *have* a room with a view of the ocean.
(possession, no action)

2. When the emphasis is on a temporary situation that is a change from the usual situation.

(109) He *is being* especially polite this afternoon.

(110) The sharp increase in the price of oil *was costing* some countries more than they could afford.

Exercise

Provide a correct form of the verb in parentheses. Use the simple present, the present progressive, the simple past, or the past progressive.

1. A progressive verb form (consist of) consists of two parts, while a simple verb form (have) has only one.
2. Why is Peter so quiet?
He (think about) _____ his trip abroad.
3. Why didn't he buy the watch?
Because it (cost) _____ more than he could afford.
4. When we walked in, they (listen to) _____ the latest news.
5. They (hear, negative) _____ it very well because there was a lot of noise outside.
6. What's all that noise next door?
They (have) _____ a party, I think.
7. What (mean) _____ the word *actual* _____?
8. I (understand) _____ what the President (mean) _____ yesterday.

L PERFECT: FORM

1. Simple perfect

Every simple perfect verb form has at least two parts: the auxiliary verb *have* and a main verb. The first part,

the auxiliary verb *have*, tells whether the perfect is present, past, future, etc.

- (111) present perfect
He *has* lived here since 1979.
- (112) past perfect
He *had* lived in many countries before coming here.
- (113) future perfect
You *will have* finished long before we arrive.
- (114) modal perfect
I *would have* told you if you had asked me.

Note: In the present perfect, there must be subject-verb agreement.

- (115) X He *have* lived here since 1979.
(116) He *has* lived here since 1979.
(117) We *have* lived here since 1975.

Note: In the present perfect, the verb *have* may be a full form or a contraction.

| Full forms: (more formal) | Contractions: (less formal, to use in conversation) |
|------------------------------|---|
| I have worked | I've worked |
| you have worked | you've worked |
| we have worked | we've worked |
| they have worked | they've worked |
| he has worked | he's worked |
| she has worked | she's worked |
| it has worked | it's worked |

Note: The contracted form of *has* and the contracted form of *is* are the same: *he + has = he's*; *he + is = he's*. The verb tense becomes clear if you consider the entire verb.

- (118) What's *happened* here? = What *has happened* here?
(119) What's *happening* here? = What *is happening* here?

Note: In the past perfect, the verb *had* may be a full form or a contraction.

| Full Forms: (more formal) | Contractions: (less formal, to use in conversation) |
|------------------------------|---|
| I had worked | I'd worked |
| you had worked | you'd worked |
| we had worked | we'd worked |
| they had worked | they'd worked |
| he had worked | he'd worked |
| she had worked | she'd worked |
| it had worked | it'd worked |

Note: The contracted form of *had* and the contracted form of *would* are the same: *he + had = he'd*; *he + would = he'd*. The verb tense is clearer if you look at the entire verb form.

(120) *I'd gone.* = *I had gone.*

(121) *I'd go.* = *I would go.*

Note: It is important to remember to include a form of *have*; for example, do not say or write example 122.

(122) X He been in Chicago since 1978.

The second part of a perfect verb form is the past participle of the main verb. It is the simple form of the verb + *ed*. For regular verbs, the past tense and the past participle forms are the same.

(123) past tense

He *walked* to the library in the rain.

(124) present perfect

He *has walked* there every day this week.

Sometimes adding *ed* requires a spelling change. Turn to Appendix A for the correct rule.

Doubling the final consonant

infinitive + *ed* = past participle

infer + *ed* = *inferred*

Canceling the final *e*

infinitive + *ed* = past participle

use + *ed* = *used*

Changing final *y* to *i*infinitive + *ed* = past participle*try* + *ed* = *tried*

There are many irregular verbs in English. The most common ones are listed in Appendix D.

Note: In American English, the past participle of *get* is *gotten*; in British English, the past participle is *got*.

(125) I have gotten the report. (American English)

(126) I have got the report. (British English)

In conversational American English, *have got* = *have* and *has got* = *has*.

(127) I've got the book = I have the book.

Note: We use *have* as both the auxiliary marker of the perfect and also the verb meaning *to possess*.

(128) present perfect

She *has had* our book for almost a month.

(129) past perfect

Before that, Bob *had had* it.

Note: The perfect often occurs with adverbs such as *since*, *yet*, and *already*.

(130) She has had my book *since* last month.

(131) She started reading it last week, but she hasn't finished it yet.

(132) I have *already* promised to lend it to Jack next.**2. Perfect progressive or continuous**

The perfect progressive, or continuous, has the past participle of *be* and a verb + *ing*.

(133) present perfect progressive

She has *been studying* English for several years.

(134) past perfect progressive

We had *been waiting* for an hour when John finally showed up.**Exercise**

If the sentence has a correct perfect verb form, write **OK**.
If the verb is not a correct perfect form, write **X** and cor-

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rect the verb. Then identify the perfect verb phrase in each sentence:

- a. present perfect
 - b. past perfect
 - c. modal perfect (modals = *may, might, can, could, will, must*)
 - d. present perfect progressive
1. The Richmonds aren't home. They ^{have} already gone on their vacation. (a)
2. They had talked about it for more than three months. ()
3. There had be several family arguments before they made the final decision. ()
4. They could have visited relatives in Japan, but Mrs. Richmond wanted to go on a safari. ()
5. She said they had been plan to go to Africa for a long time, so they went there. ()
6. As a travel agent, I could have cutted their expenses. ()
7. They would have been able to go for longer than two weeks. ()
8. I have be helping with their travel plans for a long time, but for some reason this time they decided to do it themselves. ()

M **PERFECT: MEANING—"RELEVANCE"**

1. **Past-through-present continuation**

The present perfect is used to describe a single activity, a repeated action, or a state (condition) that began in the past and continues until the present time.

(135) a single activity

Mark *has worked* in the chemistry lab since 1978.

Example 135 describes a single activity (working in the lab) that began in the past (in this sentence, we know exactly when it began) and continues up to the present time (that is, Mark is working in the lab now).

(136) a repeated action

They *have visited* us several times.

(137) a state

The car *has been* in the garage for a few days.

All present perfect progressive verb forms indicate actions which began in the past and continue to the present. Some situations can be described with either a simple or a progressive verb form.

(138) Mark *has lived* / *has been living* in Washington for ten years.

Other situations will take only one of the forms.

Note: Examples 139 and 140 are not correct ways to describe continuation; they require the present perfect.

(139) X Mark *works* in the chemistry lab since 8 o'clock this morning.

(140) X Mark *is working* in the chemistry lab since 8 o'clock this morning.

2. Completion

The present perfect is used to describe a single activity, a repeated action, or a state (condition) that took place in the past and ended before the present time, but is still relevant in the present. It may be relevant because the action was recently completed.

(141) The radio can't be broken; it *has just been repaired*.

It may be relevant because it describes a single activity that the speaker feels is likely to occur again.

(142) We *have won* the Junior Championship three times.

Compare examples 142 and 143.

(143) When he was young, he won the Junior Championship three times. (He will never win it again.)

The present perfect is sometimes called the **indefinite past tense**. It can be used with general expressions of past time, such as *just* (meaning *immediately before now*) and *since*.

(144) They *have just moved* into a new apartment.

(145) She *has lived* in many places *since* she left Canada.

However, the present perfect cannot be used with definite indications of past time, that is, expressions that tell when.

(146) X They *have moved* into a new apartment *last May*.

Example 146 is not correct. With an indication of exactly when, it is necessary to use the simple past tense.

(147) They *moved* into a new apartment *last May*.

However, the present perfect may also include the idea that the situation or action can occur again or can continue.

(148) He has been President.

(149) He was President.

Example 148 can describe a situation which began in the past, continues up to the present, and may continue into the future. On the other hand, example 149 is about a situation that existed in the past. Therefore, example 149 may be used to discuss Abraham Lincoln; but example 148 may not, since it describes a person who is still living.

3. *Past-in-the-past*

The past perfect is used to describe one of two past events when one occurred before the other.

(150) Mrs. Allen *had left* before the telegram arrived.

Mrs. Allen left her apartment at noon; the telegram arrived at 12:30 p.m. Therefore, the verb *had left* is used to make clear that one event (Mrs. Allen's leaving) took place before another event (the arrival of the telegram).

In less formal usage, it is possible to use two past-tense verbs if there is another indication in the sentence of which event took place first.

(151) Mrs. Allen *left* before the telegram *arrived*.

The word *before* indicates clearly which event came before the other. Example 150 is clearer, however, because the reader or hearer has two indications of the order of events: the verb phrase and the word *before*.

The past perfect also has a progressive form.

(152) I *had been studying* for 3 hours when Alice arrived.

The progressive form shows that the action continued up to the point of Alice's arrival.

Past-in-the-past is also used in reported or indirect speech, when we are concerned with the sequence of tenses in a complex sentence. (See Chapter 5, page 228.)

Exercise

Identify the type of situation in each sentence.

- a. continuation up to the time indicated by the verb
- b. completion before the time indicated by the verb

- b 1. She has finished two books of short stories.
- _____ 2. Robert and Phil should have been finishing their homework at that time.
- _____ 3. The flowers have smelled better since the rain.
- _____ 4. The Robinsons have moved into a new house.
- _____ 5. The Robinsons moved into a new house yesterday.
- _____ 6. They had been drinking right before the accident.
- _____ 7. They had been seen only once by the police.

Identify the type of situation in each sentence. If the situation is **d**, underline the part of the sentence that describes the **FIRST** event.

- c. two events at the same time
- d. one event before another

- _____ 8. The telegram arrived at 12:30; Mrs. Smith had left.
- _____ 9. The telegram arrived after Mrs. Smith left.
- _____ 10. Mrs. Smith left when the telegram arrived.
- _____ 11. Mrs. Smith left when she had read the telegram.
- _____ 12. The telegram had arrived when Mrs. Smith left.

Exercise

Respond to the sentences. Use the present perfect or the past, whichever is appropriate.

- a. He has burned it.
- b. He burned it.

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1. Why can't she prove that she wrote him a letter?
 b
2. What did he do with the letter before he left the house?

3. He did a strange thing then: _____
4. I can not give you any written evidence. _____
5. I saw him destroy the letter; _____.
 - c. She studied English.
 - d. She has studied English.
6. What did Anne do in New York? _____
7. Why is Betty finding French vocabulary easy to learn?

8. She prepared for her trip to England. _____
9. She can get along in India: _____
10. David: Did she take your advice?
Leon: Yes. _____

N **VERB + VERB: INFINITIVES AND GERUNDS**

Sometimes a predicate includes a verb + infinitive or verb + gerund. Infinitives and gerunds are sometimes called **verbals**. Appendix C lists which verbs take infinitives and which take gerunds.

V + infinitive

(153) They decided to produce inefficient cars.

V + gerund

(154) They delayed producing more efficient ones.

to + V

Some verbs are followed by an infinitive-with-*to*; *decide* is one of these verbs. There is one actor (*they*) for both actions (*decide* and *produce*) in example 153.

V-ing

Other verbs are followed by a gerund (*V-ing*); *delay* is one of these verbs. There is one actor (*they*) for both actions (*delay* and *produce*) in example 154.

Some verbs can be followed by either an infinitive or a gerund, with no change of meaning; *continue* is one of these verbs.

(155) They continued *to produce* those models.

(156) They continued *producing* those models.

With a few verbs like *forget*, *remember*, and *stop*, there is a change of meaning.

(157) I *remembered* paying my tuition.

(158) I *remembered* to pay my tuition.

Example 157 indicates that I paid my tuition and I remembered that I had at a later time. On the other hand, example 158 indicates that I paid my tuition; I didn't forget to pay it.

O + to V

Some verbs allow a second actor in the sentence.

First
Second

(159) We advised them to change their production plans.

These verbs are followed by (1) a noun or pronoun in the objective case and (2) an infinitive-with-*to*.

The *V-ing* verbals can also be used to express a second actor.

(160) She anticipated buying a new car.

(161) She anticipated their buying a new car.

Example 160 has one actor (*she*) and two actions (*anticipate* and *buy*), but example 161 has a second actor. The subject (S) of a *V-ing* is expressed with a possessive form; example 161 has *their*.

O + V

A few verbs have a second actor which appears with an infinitive-without-*to*. These verbs fall into two groups. The first group can be called **verbs of sense**. Some of these are: *see*, *hear*, *watch*, *smell*.

(162) I *heard* him leave.

(163) We *will watch* him perform.

The sense verbs may also be followed by the *V-ing* form.

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The *V-ing* form of the verb emphasizes that the second action took place over a period of time.

- (164) We *smelled* a fire burning. Then we *heard* the building explode.

The second group is called **causative verbs**. These are: *make, have, and let*.

- (165) The teacher *had* all the students write a composition.
(166) No one did a good job, so she *made* them write it again.
(167) Tom didn't hand in the second composition, so she *wouldn't let* him leave when class was over.

In these verb + verb sentences, either verb can be negative, depending on the speaker's idea. The way to make a main verb negative is shown in Chapter 6, page 249. Gerunds and infinitives are made negative by putting *not* directly in front of the verbal.

- (168) They decided *not* to produce inefficient cars.
(169) We advised them *not* to change their production plans.
(170) She anticipated their *not* buying a new car.

Verb + verb combinations are shown in Appendix C.

Exercise

The verb + verb constructions are incorrect. Correct them by changing the second part of each sentence.

1. We should let them to do it.
We should let them do it.
2. When did they finish to do it?
3. They encouraged he and I to do it.
4. Despite their lack of success, they kept on to try.
5. He cannot stand you to have the right answers.

Provide a correct form of the verb in parentheses in each sentence. Add the correct form of each pronoun in parentheses.

6. One country threatened (invade) _____ in order to regain the territory; the other pledged (defend) _____ its territory.

7. The Secretary-General advised (they, negotiate) _____ instead of fighting.
8. He felt that they should begin (talk) _____ as soon as possible.
9. A neutral country endeavored (act) _____ as an intermediary.
10. It was hard to imagine (they, fight) _____ for such a small piece of land.

O **VERBS: ATTITUDE**

Time, status, and relevance are used to report what happened, what is going to happen, etc. In addition to these three types of information, it is possible to express an **attitude** or evaluation of a situation. For example, we can indicate that an action is probable or that it is contrary-to-fact; we can indicate that there is permission or an obligation to do something. Modal auxiliaries and phrases are used in order to give the speaker's or writer's point of view about a situation.

P **MODALS**

Modals are a type of auxiliary. They are used to indicate an attitude about an action or a state. Most modals can be used when discussing the present, past, or future. However, modals have only two forms. One form is used for the past and the other for the present and the future. For a complete list of modals and their meanings, see page 119.

- (171) They *might be* police. (present)
- (172) Carol *might leave* tomorrow. (future)
- (173) We *might have dialed* the wrong number. (past)

Modals can also be used with the progressive form of some tenses.

- (174) They *should be carrying* guns. (present progressive)
- (175) The students *might have been waiting* in the library. (present perfect progressive)
- (176) Carol *will be going* by plane. (future progressive)

P1 Modals: Form

1. Most modals are not used with the word *to*.
(177) X He wants *to can* speak English.
(178) He wants *to be able to* speak English.
2. Modals never take a final *s*, even with the third person singular.
(179) X She *cans* tell you about the exam.
(180) She *can* tell you about the exam.
3. Never use two modals together.
(181) X They *might will* come to the party next week.
(182) They *might* come to the party next week.
4. The verb which follows a modal is always in the base form.
(183) X She *may goes* next week.
(184) She *may go* next week.
(185) X You *should are* studying.
(186) You *should be* studying.
(187) X He *must has* left already.
(188) He *must have* left.
5. Short answers with modals never include the main verb, unless it is *be*. But they always include any other auxiliaries.
(189) Shouldn't he be here?
Yes, he *should be*.
(190) Could they have gotten lost?
Yes, they *could have*.
(191) Would we have been on time?
No, we *wouldn't have been*.
or
No, we *wouldn't have*.
6. The negative is formed by putting *not* after the modal auxiliary; the auxiliary *do* (*do*, *does*, or *did*) is not used.
(192) X She *does not can* speak English.
(193) She *can not* speak English.
7. Questions are formed by putting the auxiliary in front of the subject (S); the auxiliary *do* (*do*, *does*, or *did*) is not used.

(194) X *Does she can speak English?*

(195) *Can she speak English?*

8. There are several contractions.

| Full Forms: (more formal) | Negatives Contractions: (less formal, to use in conversation) |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| might not | mightn't |
| cannot/can not | can't |
| could not | couldn't |
| shall not | shan't (unusual in American English) |
| should not | shouldn't |
| will not | won't |
| would not | wouldn't |

The affirmative full forms with *will* and *shall* have contractions with 'll.

(196) I *shall* return. = I'll return.

(197) They *will* have finished long before his arrival.
= They'll have finished long before his arrival.

The affirmative full forms with *should* and *would* have contractions with 'd.

(198) He *would* have come earlier if he had known about the problem. = He'd have come earlier if he'd known about the problem.

In example 198, the verb forms *have* (simple) and *known* (past participle) help us to determine the full form:

he'd have come = he would have come

he'd known = he had known

The perfect form *have* is sometimes contracted in conversation.

(199) He could've come. = He could *have* come.

Note: Although the 've sounds like the preposition *of*, it must be written 've or *have* as in example 199.

(200) X He could of come.

9. Sometimes both members of a pair (*will/would, shall/should, may/might, can/could*) can be used in describing a present or future situation.

(201) present tense form; future situation

Tomorrow, the train *may* be late.

(202) past tense form; future situation

Tomorrow, the train *might* be late.

The two sentences are close in meaning, but the sentence with *might* is less strong, that is, less sure or definite, as would be a sentence with *would, should, or could*.

Exercise

If the sentence is correct, write **OK**. If it is not correct, write **X** and correct it.

- OK 1. He could do that next week.
- _____ 2. They want to can speak English.
- _____ 3. He must does all the homework.
- _____ 4. She could have done that for you.
- _____ 5. Should we have gone?
No, we shouldn't.
- _____ 6. They do not might go with us.
- _____ 7. Florence can't remember all the new vocabulary words.
- _____ 8. Should I speak with Professor Gramer?

Q MODALS: MEANING

Q1 Permission

Both *may* and *can* are used in sentences of permission. Very conservative grammar books say that only *may* expresses permission; however, *can* is common in many situations, except the most formal ones.

Requests for permission

(203) *May* I borrow your eraser?

(204) *Can* I borrow your eraser?

Might and *could* are used for requests that are less direct, more polite, and more formal.

Meanings of Modals

| Speaker's attitude or evaluation | Present or future verb forms | Past verb forms |
|---|---|---|
| Permission and Ability Permission (requests, statements) | <i>may, can, might, could</i> | |
| Ability (physical, mental, general) | <i>can, be able to</i> | <i>could</i> |
| Definiteness (degree of sureness) Possibility | <i>can, may, could, might</i> | <i>may have, could have, might have</i> |
| Probability (a conclusion, a deduction) | <i>must, should</i> | <i>must have, should have</i> |
| Certainty (a prediction, agreement, promise) | <i>will (shall), will (shall) have</i> (usual present tense forms) | <i>(usual past tense)</i> |
| Emphasized certainty | <i>do (does), shall (will)</i> | <i>did</i> |
| Advisability and Necessity Advisability (choice) | <i>should, ought to, had better, had best</i> | <i>should have, ought to have</i> |
| Necessity (an obligation, no choice) | <i>be supposed to, must, have to (have got to), need to</i> | <i>had to</i> |

(205) *Might* I borrow your eraser?

(206) *Could* I borrow your eraser?

Appropriately, the responses are direct; they require *may* or *can*.

(207) Yes, you *may*.

(208) Yes, you *can*.

Statements of permission

(209) You *may* leave after you finish the test.

(210) You *can* leave after you finish the test.

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Q2 Ability

Can is used for present sentences of ability.

(211) physical ability

She *can* run a mile in 5 minutes.

(212) mental ability

He *can* work with very sophisticated computers.

(213) general ability

He *can* read Spanish because he used to live in Mexico.

Could is used for past sentences of ability.

(214) Five years ago she could run a mile in $4\frac{1}{2}$ minutes.

A very common way to discuss ability is with the phrase *be able to*. This phrase has an advantage over *can*: it can be used in all the tenses and forms of other verbs.

(215) They *have been able to* speak English for almost two years.

(216) Mr. Phillips *may be able to* see you this afternoon.

Exercise

Use one of these modals in each blank.

may

might

can

could

be able to

1. When he was younger, he could play baseball all day long, but now he can play only a few hours.
2. She _____ play the piano since she was ten years old.
3. John said to his history professor, "_____ I turn in my term paper the day after tomorrow?"
4. _____ you tell me the time?

Q3 Definiteness

A speaker can use modals to indicate how sure he is that an action or situation takes place, will take place, or took place. Sureness can be low (possibility), high (probability), or 100% (certainty). In addition, a speaker can emphasize the certainty.

Possibility is the lowest of the levels of definiteness. *Can*, *could*, *may*, and *might* are used for present and future situations. *Could* and *might* show a less strong possibility than *can* and *may*.

- (217) These grammar rules *may not* be new to you; nevertheless, you *might* benefit from the review.
- (218) He drives very fast. So he *can* get to Dallas in less than an hour.
- (219) She *could* speak both American and British English, but that is hard to believe.

Perfect forms are used for the past time.

- (220) You *might have* done well on yesterday's test, but I do not know the results yet.

Modals of **probability** indicate a conclusion or deduction, an evaluation based on earlier information. *Must* and *should* are used for present and future conclusions.

- (221) He runs about 10 miles a day. He *should* be ready for ~~the~~ the race next month.
- (222) He runs and exercises very hard. He *must* want to win very much.

Perfect forms are used for the past time.

- (223) It is around 11:00. He *must have* finished his morning practice.

Modals of **certainty** indicate a prediction, agreement, or promise. *Will* (sometimes *shall* with *I* or *we*) is used for present and future statements of prediction, agreement, or promise.

- (224) present time prediction
Whenever a person studies a foreign language, he *will* need a lot of practice.
- (225) future time agreement or promise
I *will* meet you at the tennis courts at 7:45 tomorrow morning.

Perfect forms indicate completion.

- (226) By the end of next month, they *will have* driven over 5,000 miles.

Usual present- and past-tense forms express the certainty of actions and situations. (See Chapter 3, pages 91 and 94.)

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Emphasized certainty indicates very strongly the truth or existence of a situation or activity. It is used to contradict or deny another idea or to remove any doubt about a situation or activity.

Do, does, and did with the simple form of the verb show emphasis in the present and past tenses.

(227) Perhaps you think that I loaf, but I *do* work very hard.

(228) She is dishonest, but she *does* have a way of making you like her.

(229) They did not bring any refreshments, but they *did* help us clean up after the party.

Shall (sometimes *will* with *I* or *we*) is used for emphatic agreements, predictions, or promises.

(230) General MacArthur said, "I *shall* return."

In example 230, *I shall return* is more than just a prediction or a promise; it is a very strong insistence of his intention to return.

The form to use for emphasis is the form not used other times.

| Normal | | Emphasized |
|--------|---|------------|
| will | → | shall |
| shall | → | will |

Exercise

Use one of these modals in each blank. Make any necessary changes for time or subject-verb agreement.

| | | |
|-------|--------|-------|
| can | must | will |
| could | should | shall |
| may | might | do |

1. I promise that I *will* study tomorrow.
2. The windshield is wet. It _____ rained while we were in the movies.
3. It _____ rained, but I do not think so.
4. The food was tasteless, but we _____ like the wine.

5. Certainly he _____ be able to run a four-minute mile, despite the unlikelihood of the situation.
6. If you translate the words before you understand the whole sentence, you _____ probably be making mistakes.

Q4 **Advisability and Necessity**

Advisability and **necessity** are related in meaning. They both indicate that there is some reason or motivation for the action or situation. The reason or motivation can come from outside a person—from a law, for example—or from inside a person—from the person's love for someone.

Advisability is not as strong as necessity. It means (1) that there is a benefit to do it, or there is a disadvantage not to do it; but (2) that there is an element of choice whether to do it or not.

Should and *ought to* are used for statements of advisability.

(231) They *should* study at least five hours tonight.

(232) They *ought to* study at least five hours tonight.

Should is used for questions.

(233) *Should* they study tomorrow morning also?

Should have and *ought to have* indicate advisability about a past situation; however, the choice was not to do it.

(234) They *should have* studied last week too, but they went to the beach instead.

Had better and *had best* are used for sentences about present or future advisability; they have the same meaning. They imply a warning of bad results if the advice is not followed.

(235) You *had better* study a lot next week.

Had better and *had best* are not past tense modals.

(236) X She *had best* practice English pronunciation yesterday.

Be supposed to is used for advisability that comes from outside the person.

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(237) We *are supposed to* obey all laws, but some laws appear to be silly.

Necessity is stronger than advisability. There is an obligation; there is no feeling of choice whether to do something or not.

Must is a common way of indicating necessity.

(238) A person *must* have a valid passport in order to travel to foreign countries.

This modal has only a present tense form. Another modal must be used for other tenses.

Have to (less formal: *have got to*) is a common way of indicating necessity because it can be used in all tenses.

(239) A person *has to* have a valid passport in order to travel to foreign countries.

Examples 238 and 239 have the same meaning. Example 240 does not have an equivalent with *must*.

(240) I *have had to* renew my visa several times.

Need (to) is another way of indicating necessity. It can be used in all verb tenses, too.

(241) A person *needs to* have a valid passport in order to travel to foreign countries.

(242) I *have needed to* renew my visa several times.

Note: For negation in sentences of necessity, the negative of *have to* or *need (to)* means that there is no necessity: there is a choice.

(243) When you travel abroad, you *do not have to* carry travelers checks. You can carry money any way that you wish.

(244) She *did not need to* come to the United States to study English. She could have gone to Great Britain or Australia.

The negative of *must* is different: *must not* means that there is no choice. There is the necessity of not doing something.

(245) When you travel abroad, you *must not* be careless with your passport.

(246) She *must not* think that lots of practice is unimportant.

Exercise

Use one of these modals in each blank. Make any necessary changes for time and subject-verb agreement.

| | |
|-----------------|-----------|
| should (have) | must |
| ought to (have) | have to |
| had better | need (to) |
| had best | |

1. That beaker has acid in it. You ought to
be very careful; you must not spill
any of it.
2. In order to solve the problem, they will _____
carry out their own experiments, but they will not
_____ to use my results.
3. However, they _____ look at my
results. It might help them find mistakes in their work.

R **CONDITIONAL AND CONTRARY-TO-FACT SENTENCES**

Conditional statements have two parts: (1) the cause and (2) the effect or result.

- (247) If he goes to Washington, he will see Mary.
 (248) If he went to Washington, he would see Mary.
 (249) If he had gone to Washington, he would have seen
 Mary.
 (250) If he had gone to Washington last week, he would
 be here today.

The cause is presented in a subordinate clause beginning with *if*, and the result is presented in an independent clause with a modal auxiliary.

Example 247 is a prediction about a real situation. It has the present tense in the first clause. Example 248 is like a prediction, but the cause and the result are unreal; they are guesses about a situation. It has a past tense verb form in the first clause.

Examples 249 and 250 are statements about a situation that did not happen; sometimes this type of situation is called **unrealized**. It has the past perfect in the first clause.

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| Example | Cause | Result |
|-------------------|---|--|
| 251 real | <i>if</i> + present tense, <i>when</i> <i>goes</i> | (then) <i>will, shall, may, can</i> example: <i>will see</i> |
| 252 unreal | <i>if</i> + past tense, <i>went</i> | (then) <i>would, should, might, could</i> example: <i>could visit</i> |
| 253 unrealized | <i>if</i> + past perfect, <i>had gone</i> | (then) <i>would, should, might, could + have</i> example: <i>would have visited</i> |

(251) real situation

John has already made his plans: he is going to the United States. If he goes to Washington, he will see Mary.

(252) unreal situation

Bill is not sure about his travel plans: he might go to Washington, or he might visit Chicago. If he went to Washington, he could visit Mary.

(253) unrealized situation with cause and effect both in the past

Henry visited Japan instead of the United States last year. If he had gone to the U.S., he would have visited Mary in Washington.

(254) unrealized situation with cause in the past and effect in the present

Ralph is not here today; he is in Washington. If he had gone to Washington last week, he would be here today.

Conditional statements about unrealized situations have two ways of expressing the cause. The examples above show one way: *if* + past perfect. The second way is shown in example 255.

(255) Had he gone to Washington, he would have visited Mary.

The subordinate clause does not have *if*. Instead, the verb phrase has been rearranged as if it were a question. Examples 249 and 255 have the same meaning. The second way is less common and more formal than the first one.

Note: Irregular forms

When the past tense form is used to describe an unreal situation, the verb *be* has special forms to go with *I*, *he*, *she*, and *it*.

(256) If $\left. \begin{array}{l} I \\ he \\ she \\ it \\ you \\ we \\ they \end{array} \right\}$ were stronger, we could play tennis.

This is the usual form for *you*, *we*, and *they*.

Contrary-to-fact statements use past and past perfect verb forms, as follows:

| Present or future time situation | Past time situation |
|----------------------------------|---------------------|
| past tense | past perfect |

(257) present time situation

She talks to Philip as if he were a child.

(258) past time situation

He treated Claire as if she had been dishonest.

In example 257, Philip is an adult; in example 258, Claire was not dishonest. The sentences contain information that is untrue—contrary-to-fact. Some common introducers of contrary-to-fact information are *as if*, *as though*, *suppose (that)*, and *wish (that)*.

Exercise

Identify the sentences.

- a. real
- b. unreal
- c. past, unrealized

- c 1. If we had added salt, Maurice could not have eaten the soup.
- _____ 2. If he spent more time studying, he would speak English better.

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- _____ 3. Had he presented the situation clearly, he might have received a more sympathetic response.
- _____ 4. If we add salt, the soup will be tastier.

Provide the correct verb forms.

5. Even though they are very nervous, they act as if they (be) were confident.
6. If I (be) _____ in that position, I would do nothing at all.
7. If she (be) _____ with you yesterday, you would not have had any trouble.

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4 **Adjectives and Adverbs**

A **DETERMINERS**

A **determiner** appears in front of the noun in a phrase; and if there are several words in the phrase, the determiner appears before all the other parts of the phrase. Determiners are sometimes optional, sometimes required.

(1) She was going to buy ^{noun phrase}
a book.

(2) ^{noun phrase}
My chemistry report was almost 15 pages long.

(3) We were not sure whether to buy

^{noun phrase}
those very long and very unusual sandwiches.

A determiner may appear with an uncountable noun (*that information*) or a plural countable noun (*several people*), but these nouns may appear alone (*information, people*). However, a singular countable noun must have a determiner in front of it within a sentence (*a person*, but not *X person*). (See Chapter 2, page 53.)

Note: In some languages, a determiner is not used when a person's occupation or nationality is identified. However, in English the determiner *a* (or *an*) must be used.

- (4) Ann is a teacher.
- (5) X Ann is teacher.
- (6) John is an Englishman.
- (7) X John is Englishman.

There are a few cases when singular countable nouns appear without determiners in front of them. One of these cases is in discussions of means or methods.

- (8) They went from Tokyo to Calcutta *by plane* and from Calcutta to Bombay *by train*.
- (9) They did most of the work *by hand*, but some of it was done *by computer*.

Notice the following phrases that indicate means or methods: *by mail, through the mail(s), by telephone, on the telephone*.

Another case is in discussions of location.

- (10) They are at school.
 in school.
 (at) home.
 at college.
 in town.
 in hospital. (British English)

In these examples, we are discussing a location and its principal use; for example, *They are at college* means that they are in that place because they are college students. When we refer to a particular building or place, but not to its principal use, we use an article.

- (11) They are *at the college* visiting their son, who is a student there.

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Another case is in discussions about seasons of the year.

(12) We were there *in spring*.

The definite article may be used in example 12: *in the spring*.

No article is used in the phrase *at night*, but the other times of the day require an article.

(13) He works at night.
 in the morning.
 in the afternoon.
 in the evening.
 during the day.

No article is used in phrases about meals.

(14) We were late *for breakfast*.

(15) There was enough time to discuss our plans *at lunch*.

(16) Did she invite Mary *to dinner*?

A1 Articles

There are two articles in English. The **definite article** is *the*. The **indefinite article** is *a* (or *an*). There is only one written form of the definite article: *the*.

Indefinite Article: Form and Meaning

There are two forms of the indefinite article: *a* and *an*. The form to use in a particular phrase depends on the word which follows the indefinite article. If the word begins with a vowel sound, the *an* form is used; if the word begins with a consonant sound, *a* is used.

- (17) an elephant
- (18) an orange book
- (19) a book
- (20) a grey elephant

It is important to remember that the deciding factor is the first *sound* of the following word, not the first *letter*. Note the use of *a/an* in the following phrases.

- (21) a history book
- (22) an hour
- (23) a university
- (24) an unusual idea

Note: The word *another* may be considered as two words: the indefinite article and *other*. Because of the beginning vowel sound of *other*, the *an* form is used: *an* + *other*. Two articles can not appear together. We can say and write *another idea* and *the other idea*, but we can not use X *the another idea*.

The indefinite article has the meaning of *one* or *singular*; therefore, it can be used only with singular nouns.

- (25) a thought
- (26) an idea
- (27) a person

It can not be used with an uncountable noun or a plural noun.

- (28) X an information (uncountable)
- (29) X a police (plural)

Because *another* = *an* + *other*, *another* can not be used with an uncountable or plural noun.

- (30) X another information
- (31) X another things

Unlike *a/an*, the definite article *the* can be used with any noun.

- (32) the thought (singular)
- (33) the information (uncountable)
- (34) the police (plural)

Exercise

Provide the correct form of the indefinite article: **a** or **an**.

1. a reason
2. added reason
3. other reason

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4. _____hound
5. _____universal principle
6. _____historical principle
7. _____unprincipled person
8. _____umbrella
9. _____apple-red umbrella
10. _____hasty retreat

Exercise

If the article usage is correct, write **OK**. If the article usage is not correct, write **X** and correct the mistake.

1. Telephone is a very useful instrument.
- _____ 2. We do not use telegrams very often.
- _____ 3. A letters will be sent instead of telegrams.
- _____ 4. My father is postman.
- _____ 5. He delivers the mail by car because he works in the country.
- _____ 6. He begins work early in the morning in summer as well as in winter.
- _____ 7. Piece of bad news can ruin your whole day.
- _____ 8. Good news, on the other hand, can brighten your whole day.
- _____ 9. We usually expect that telegram brings bad news.

Definite Article: Meaning

The definite article is used when the noun being referred to in a statement is clear to the sender and the receiver of a message. The article *the* indicates that these people know definitely which person(s), place(s), thing(s), or idea(s) are being discussed.

Sometimes a noun is definite because of grammar, and sometimes the context makes it definite.

Grammar: words, phrases, and clauses that describe a noun can make that noun definite.

(35) adjectives in front of the noun

Did you find any mistakes in the *first three* solutions?

- (36) phrase after the noun
I could not finish all of the questions *on our test*.
- (37) clause after the noun
She returned the dictionary *that I had lent to her*.

The following two examples have different meanings. Example 38 refers to any number of mistakes—one, two, several, etc. Example 39 refers to all the mistakes: the definite article means *all*.

- (38) He found mistakes in my term paper.
(39) He found the mistakes in my term paper.

An earlier sentence can make a noun definite.

- (40) She bought a television set and a fan at a drugstore near her apartment. However, the fan had to be returned.

In the second sentence, *the* is used because the noun was referred to before.

Context: a noun can be definite because of the common understanding of the people involved in the communication. Because they are living in or thinking about the same situation, they know what to expect there.

- (41) There are ten major bodies in the solar system. *The sun* is the biggest and the most important; *the planets* revolve around it. Earth is the most important planet to human beings; *the other planets* are more or less important in relation to their sizes and distances from Earth.

The phrase *the sun* is used because (1) the context of the discussion is clear—the solar system—and (2) there is only one sun in this system. Similarly, *the planets* is used: (1) there is a clear context, and (2) the phrase refers to all 9 of them. And the phrase *the other planets* is used in this same situation to refer to all 8 planets, after Earth is excluded. Example 42 would not be correct in a discussion about the solar system, because there are many moons in the system.

- (42) X The moon is 2,160 miles in diameter.

On the other hand, it would be correct in a discussion limited to Earth.

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In discussions with comparative or superlative adjectives, we often use the definite article (*the*).

- (43) We have a small car and a medium-size car. We are going to use *the* larger car for our long trip.
- (44) All four of our children can drive, but *the* two youngest ones have not had very much experience.

In examples 43 and 44, *the* is used because there is no other one. In one situation, there are two cars; only one can be larger, so there can not be any other larger one. In the other situation, the number *two* and the superlative form *youngest* eliminate the possibility of any other ones. (See Chapter 4, page 170.)

Exercise

The definite article is underlined several times in this paragraph. Determine why it is used.

- a. grammar: words, phrases, or clauses make the noun definite
 - b. grammar: reference to the noun in a previous sentence
 - c. context: common understanding of what to find in the situation
1. a The university that my brother attends is large.
 2. _____ I think that the campus is confusing because it is very big. My brother gave me directions to his dormitory:
 3. _____ Park in the north parking lot.
 4. _____ Walk two blocks south from the lot.
 5. _____ Go past the gymnasium.
 6. _____ The dormitory is the tall building with white doors.

Definite vs. Indefinite Articles

The indefinite article refers to any one person, place, thing, or idea when there may be one other or several others. For instance, in discussing the solar system, we might find example 45.

(45) There is a moon near Earth.

Because there are other moons in the context (the solar system), the indefinite article is used. On the other hand, if discussing only Earth, “the moon” would be correct because there is only one in the context of Earth.

The first time a singular noun is used in a conversation or in a written message, it will probably have *a (an)* in front of it.

(46) He saw *a* picture on page 53.

Example 46 should be used if this is the first statement about a picture. The second sentence will have the definite article because the noun has been made definite by the information in the first sentence.

(47) He saw *a* picture on page 53. *The* picture was in black and white.

Exercise

For each sentence, determine why the underlined indefinite article is used.

- a. the first mention
- b. one of several possibilities

- b 1. Each state in the United States has a governor.
- _____ 2. The governor of a state is elected by the residents of the state.
- _____ 3. An election can be held anytime during the year.

Exercise

Answer the questions with complete sentences.

1. He bought a hot dog, fried chicken, and a hamburger. Which one did he like best?

He liked the hamburger best.

2. I have a two-year-old car and a ten-year-old car. Which one is probably more reliable?
3. There is a piece of fried chicken, a large piece of broiled steak, and a piece of bread with butter. Which one(s) could you eat with your hands?
4. Mary has a dictionary and a grammar handbook. Which one will she use to check the use of articles?

5. Which one will Mary use to check the structure of sentences?

General Reference

There are three ways to refer to people, places, things, or ideas in general.

One way to signal general reference is to use the singular form of a noun with the indefinite article.

- (48) In our modern society, we use *a computer* quite a lot.

The second way is to use the singular form of a noun with the definite article.

- (49) In our modern society, we use *the computer* quite a lot.

The third way is to use the plural form of a noun without a determiner, or an uncountable noun without a determiner.

- (50) In our modern society, we use *computers* quite a lot.

- (51) In our modern society, we use computer *technology* quite a lot.

These three ways have the same meaning. We are not referring to any one computer or to any group of computers; we are discussing all computers in general.

Exercise

Tell why the underlined noun phrases are used.

- a. general reference
- b. specific reference

- a 1. A grammar book can be a useful resource for a student of the English language .
2. However, the student must know how to find information in the book he is using .

The and Proper Nouns

The is generally not used with the following types of proper nouns:

1. Names of people

(52) × We saw the Professor Rosen.

(53) We saw Professor Rosen.

But we use *the Rosens* to mean *the people in the Rosen family*.

(54) We met the Rosens at the movies last night.

2. Holidays, days, months

(55) × The New Year's Day is January 1.

(56) New Year's Day is January 1.

(57) Schools are closed on Saturday and Sunday.

(58) The solstices are in June and December.

However, *the* may be used in discussions of one particular occurrence.

(59) Do you remember the first Sunday we rode our bikes to the state park?

3. Streets

(60) We met at the corner of First Street and Main Avenue.

4. Geographical names

(61) San Francisco

(62) Texas

(63) Australia

(64) Asia

Note: exceptions: *the Hague, the Bronx, the Vatican*

The definite article is used if the name includes an indication of political structure. The words *republic, kingdom,* and *union* indicate the type of structure; but *France* and *Great Britain* do not.

(65) France

(66) the United States

(67) Great Britain

(68) the United Kingdom

(69) the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

The names of rivers, seas, oceans, and canals have *the*.

(70) the Mississippi (River)

(71) the Dead Sea

(72) the Panama Canal

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The names of lakes and mountains do not have *the*.

- (73) Lake Titicaca
- (74) Mount Everest

Plural geographical names have *the*.

- (75) the Netherlands
- (76) the United States

5. Names of languages

Names of languages have the definite article only when the word *language* is used directly after it:

- (77) X The French is a very beautiful language.
- (78) French is a very beautiful language.
- (79) The French language is very beautiful.

Exercise

Add the definite article where it is required.

1. English is spoken in ^{the} Union of South Africa, as well as in Nigeria and Kenya.
2. They introduced us to Pope John.
3. We had arrived in Rome on Tuesday or Wednesday.
4. Flying over Suez Canal and Red Sea was exciting.
5. The airline office was on Broadway, near the Consulate of Soviet Union.

A2 Possessives

The determiner in a noun phrase can be a possessive. It will be a noun with an ending (apostrophe or apostrophe plus *s*, see Chapter 2, page 72) or a possessive adjective—the possessive pronoun form that appears in front of a noun (see Chapter 2, page 75).

- (80) *Antonio's* new passport
- (81) *immigration officers'* questions
- (82) *her* unexpected answer
- (83) *their* car

The form of the possessive is not influenced by other words in the noun phrase. The possessive is determined by the possessor. For instance, in example 82, the possessive would still be *her* even if the noun were plural.

- (84) *her* unexpected answers

A3 **Demonstratives**

There are four **demonstratives**.

| | Uncountable | Countable | |
|------|-------------|-----------|--------|
| | | Singular | Plural |
| near | this | this | these |
| far | that | that | those |

This and *these* are used with nouns which are near the speaker or writer. The hearer or reader himself may be near or far, but this information is not indicated by the demonstrative.

(85) I think you should read *this book*.

When John says example 85 to Frances, he may be (1) sitting next to her, (2) talking to her on the telephone, or (3) writing a letter that will travel 5,000 miles.

That and *those* are used with nouns which are far from the speaker or writer.

(86) I hope that you read *those* stories I sent you.

In example 86, the speaker or writer is now far from the stories, but we have no information about the location of John when he hears or reads the sentence.

Nearness or farness may be physical; for example, the book may be in John's hands when he uses the phrase *this book*. However, nearness or farness may be a matter of time; for example, perhaps Frances read *those stories* many weeks ago.

Exercise

Circle the correct demonstrative.

1. this/these people
2. that/those news
3. this/these page
4. that/those ideas
5. this/these demonstrative

Exercise

Use the correct demonstrative in each blank space.

The rules in the book that I am reading now are easier than the rules in a book that I read last week. _____ rules are short and clear; _____ other rules were much more difficult to understand. _____ book,

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which I am reading for my class, has exercises; but _____ book, which I finished last week, did not have any. My teacher gave me _____ piece of advice: read the rules and practice using them.

A4 **Indefinite Determiners**

The indefinites are used when we do not want to refer to any special one or ones.

Each and every

These two indefinites occur only with singular nouns.

(87) Each check had been carefully written.

(88) The teller counted every dollar slowly.

We understand that example 87 is about all the checks and that example 88 is about all the dollars. However, *each* and *every* are grammatically singular; they emphasize each individual one (see Chapter 2, page 66).

Because they are singular, they can not appear with uncountable nouns or plural countable nouns.

(89) X every information (90) X each police

Each can be used alone but *every* can not except in the phrase *every one of*.

(91) The teller counted *every one of* them slowly.

(92) *Each* had been carefully written.

(93) *Each of* them had been carefully written.

(94) X The teller counted *every* slowly.

(95) X The teller counted *every of* them slowly.

Any and some

These indefinites can be used with singular, plural, or uncountable nouns.

(96) After Tom bought the groceries, there was some change left from the \$20.

(97) After Tom bought the groceries, there wasn't any change left from the \$20.

(See Chapter 6, page 255 for more information about the use of the indefinites.)

A5 **Quantifiers**

Quantifiers tell us *how much* or *how many*. They may be

used as determiners before nouns in a noun phrase, or alone.

| 1. | Uncountable | Plural Countable |
|----|---------------------|--------------------|
| | much, more, most | many, more, most |
| | little, less, least | few, fewer, fewest |
| | a little | a few |
| | quite a little | quite a few |

The quantifiers *much* and *many* refer to large amounts.

(98) He had not learned *much* useful information in that course.

(99) He had *many* things to learn.

Note: *Much* is not used very often in an affirmative statement; *a lot (of)* or *lots (of)* is used.

(100) He had learned *much* useful information.

(101) He had learned *a lot of* useful information.

The quantifiers *little*, *a little*, *few* and *a few* refer to small amounts.

(102) There is *little* time for lunch before the movie.

(103) There is *a little* time for lunch before the movie.

(104) There were *a few* opportunities to practice English.

(105) There were *few* opportunities to practice English.

Little and *few* indicate a small amount, perhaps not enough. *A little* and *a few* indicate a small amount, perhaps enough or close to enough. Therefore, if there is *little time* (example 102), we can not eat lunch; but if there is *a little time* (example 103), we might decide to eat. In examples 104 and 105, if there were *few opportunities* to practice, the students did not have enough practice; but *a few opportunities* means that there were some opportunities, that they were helpful, and there is a positive feeling about the amount.

Another way to consider the meanings of these quantifiers is to look at opposites or negatives.

| Positive | Negative |
|----------|-----------|
| a little | no, none, |
| a few | nothing |

| Positive | Negative |
|----------|----------|
| enough | little |
| many | few |
| much | |

(106) Maria contributed *nothing* to the charity; on the other hand, Jacqueline donated *a little* money.

(107) Philip made *many* promises to us, but he kept *few* of them.

Quite a little and *quite a few* mean *much* and *many*. This may seem illogical, because *quite* = *very*; and *a little* and *a few* = *a small amount*. Example 108 describes a crowd of people.

(108) *Quite a few* people met him at the airport.

(See Chapter 4, page 170 for comparative and superlative forms.)

2. a lot (of) = lots (of) plenty (of)
 enough several (of)

The quantifiers *a lot (of)* and *(lots of)* have the same meaning: *a large amount*. They are used in informal conversation; they usually appear instead of *much* in affirmative sentences. *Enough* indicates a satisfactory amount (but we do not know whether that is a large or small amount); *plenty (of)* means *a large amount*, perhaps more than enough. These five quantifiers can be used with plural countable nouns and with uncountable nouns.

(109) We had *a lot of* time before the plane left.

(110) We had *lots of* time before the plane left.

(111) We had *lots of* books about prehistoric Africa.

(112) We had *enough* books but not *enough* time to do the research report.

(113) We thought that we had *plenty of* books and *plenty of* time.

The quantifier *several* is used with plural countable nouns.

(114) We found *several* opportunities to practice.

The quantifier *enough* sometimes appears after the noun.

(115) We did not have *time enough* to do the research report.

(See Chapter 4, page 165 for information about *enough* as a **de-emphasizer**.)

- | | |
|----------------|---------------|
| 3. all (of) | both (of) |
| half (of) | a number (of) |
| one-third (of) | |

The quantifiers *all (of)*, *half (of)*, *one-third (of)*, and other fractions can be used with countable or uncountable nouns.

- (116) half the water (117) half the glasses

However, if there is no determiner, *half* can not be used with the noun.

- (118) × half (of) information

Both (of) and *a number (of)* can be used only with countable nouns.

- (119) both the glasses (120) a number of the glasses

When quantifiers are used with pronouns, they require *of*

- (121) We bought *a few of* them.

- (122) They had *enough of* it.

Each quantifier should be considered as a unit, even if it is written as two or three words. For instance, example 123 has two grammatical units and two meaning units.

- (123) a number of people

grammar: quantifier + noun plural

meaning: *several* + *persons*

It is important to treat the quantifier as a unit for two reasons. One reason is that the grammar of the noun phrase may affect another part of the sentence, such as the verb.

- (124) *A number of* people are waiting outside.

The plural noun *people* is the subject of the sentence, therefore the verb form is *are waiting* instead of *is waiting*. The second reason is the meaning.

- (125) *A little* cat hid under the car.

- (126) *A little* sugar would improve the flavor.

In example 125, *little* is an adjective describing size. The subject of this sentence has three parts: a determiner (the article *a*) + an adjective (*little*) + a noun (*cat*). In example 126, *a little* is one unit of meaning specifying a quantity.

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The subject of this sentence has two parts: a determiner (the quantifier *a little*) + a noun (*sugar*).

Quantifiers can be used with a following noun; in this case, they are similar to adjectives.

(127) Did they have *much* time?

(128) Yes, they had *plenty of* time.

In this case, one of the quantifiers required *of*; one did not.

Quantifiers can be used alone; in this case, they are similar to nouns.

(129) Did they have a lot of plants?

Yes, they had *plenty*.

(130) We bought *a few*.

Exercise

Fill in each blank with one of these quantifiers: **a few, a little, few, little, many, much, quite a few, quite a little.**

1. We use commercial banks because they offer us many services.
2. We can have a checking account and buy travelers checks without _____ expense.
3. Travelers checks are useful when traveling because _____ people refuse to accept them.
4. And they involve _____ inconvenience.
5. It is worthwhile to spend _____ time choosing the best bank for you.

Exercise

The subject (S) of each of the following sentences is a phrase with a quantifier. Underline the complete phrase and circle the correct verb form.

1. A lot of students (travel) travels abroad to study.
2. Is/are there enough money for everyone to study abroad?
3. One-quarter of the time abroad is/are spent learning a foreign language.
4. One-tenth of the students do/does not succeed.
5. Plenty of determination is/are required to be an international student.

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| | |
|-----------|-----------------------------|
| 100 | one hundred, or a hundred |
| 1,000 | one thousand, or a thousand |
| 1,000,000 | one million, or a million |

In reading these numbers, we use *one* when we want to be exact or to emphasize the number and when we read data. We use *a* in speaking more generally, less exactly.

(138) According to the last census, the population of the city is 175,000. (“one hundred seventy-five thousand”; statistical information)

(139) The police estimated that about 100,000 people attended the parade. (“a hundred thousand” or “one hundred thousand”)

Numbers from 1,100 to 9,999 can be read in two ways: (a) ____ thousand, ____ hundred, or (b) ____ hundred.

(140) 1,200 a. one thousand, two hundred
 b. twelve hundred

(141) 2,340 a. two thousand three hundred
 forty
 b. twenty-three hundred forty

It is not usual to write large numbers in words; most often we use figures.

(142) 56,471

(143) fifty-six thousand four hundred seventy-one

Note: The compound numbers—the ones from 21 to 99—are the only ones to have hyphens when numbers are written in words.

(144) × fifty-six-thousand

(145) fifty-six thousand

The cardinal numbers can appear first in the noun phrase (as determiners) or later, after another determiner.

(146) Nine people had arrived.

(147) The first nine people had arrived.

The cardinal numbers can appear with no other word after them; in this case, they are like nouns.

(148) Eleven people arrived after lunch.

Nine had arrived earlier.

(149) The first nine had arrived early.

When the cardinal number refers to part of a larger group, we use a prepositional phrase with *of*.

- (150) We had invited 20 people to our party.
 Nine *of our guests* arrived early.

The prepositional phrase must have a determiner and a plural noun to indicate the larger group; therefore example 151 is not correct.

- (151) ✗ One of my friend could not come.

The cardinal numbers can appear with pronouns; in this case, we use *of*.

- (152) Nine *of them* had arrived early.
 (153) The first nine *of them* had arrived early.

Exercise

If the sentence is correct, write **OK**. If the sentence is not correct, write **X** and correct it.

- OK 1. I gave her a dollar and expected forty-five cents change.
 _____ 2. It cost only fifty seven cent.
 _____ 3. About twenty-five-hundred students and teachers came to see the parade.
 _____ 4. One of the people had arrived the day before.
 _____ 5. A thousand them were caught in the snowstorm on the way.
 _____ 6. The other fifteen-hundred or so watched from inside buildings.

A7 Ordinal Numbers

The **ordinal numbers** indicate place in an arrangement or order. The ordinal numbers from 1st to 99th are as follows:

| | | |
|-------------|------------------|---------------------|
| 1st first | 10th tenth | 20th twentieth |
| 2nd second | 11th eleventh | 21st twenty-first |
| 3rd third | 12th twelfth | 22nd twenty-second |
| 4th fourth | 13th thirteenth | 23rd twenty-third |
| 5th fifth | 14th fourteenth | 24th twenty-fourth |
| 6th sixth | 15th fifteenth | 25th twenty-fifth |
| 7th seventh | 16th sixteenth | 26th twenty-sixth |
| 8th eighth | 17th seventeenth | 27th twenty-seventh |
| 9th ninth | 18th eighteenth | 28th twenty-eighth |
| | 19th nineteenth | 29th twenty-ninth |

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| | | |
|----------------|---------------|-----------------|
| 30th thirtieth | 50th fiftieth | 70th seventieth |
| 40th fortieth | 60th sixtieth | 80th eightieth |
| | | 90th ninetieth |

Form

1. Most of the ordinal numbers are formed by adding *-th* at the end of the cardinal number: *ten* + *th* = *tenth*. The ending *-eth* is added to *thirty*, *forty*, etc.; and the final *y* is changed to *i*: *thirtieth*, *fortieth*, etc.
2. The compound ordinals (those with two digits)—*21*, *33*, *62*, *96*, etc.) are written with hyphens.
3. The ordinal figures are combinations. They have numerals (*1*, *2*, *30*, *85*, etc.) and the last two letters of the written ordinal number. For example, the ordinal is *21st*, because *twenty-first* ends in the two letters *-st*.

Note: Ordinal numbers are not written with small raised circles.

(154) ~~×~~ 22°

(155) 22nd

22° means “22 degrees” in measurements of temperature or angles.

4. Notice the following irregular forms:
 - a. *First* and *second* are completely unexpected: they have no relation to the cardinal numbers *one* and *two*.
 - b. *Third*, *fifth*, and *twelfth* are irregular in pronunciation and spelling.
 - c. *Eighth* and *ninth* have irregular spellings (not ~~×~~ *eightth* and ~~×~~ *nineth*, as we might expect).
5. The cardinal numbers above *99th* are as follows:

| | |
|-------------|----------------|
| 100th | one hundredth |
| 1,000th | one thousandth |
| 1,000,000th | one millionth |

Exercise

Complete the ordinal figures by adding two letters.

1. 101 ~~st~~

2. 32 _____

3. 46 _____
4. 55 _____
5. 73 _____

Write, in words, the corresponding ordinal numbers.

6. 101 _____
7. 67 _____
8. 44 _____
9. 79 _____
10. 200 _____

ADJECTIVES

Adjectives: Meaning

Adjectives are words, phrases, and clauses that describe. They answer the questions *which one(s)?* and *what kind(s)?*

(156) He bought an electric typewriter.

In example 156, the adjective *electric* tells us what kind of typewriter it was.

Adjectives: Place and Form

An adjective appears before the principal noun in a noun phrase, that is, in front of the noun that it describes.

Adj. Noun

(157) brown eyes

Adj. Noun

(158) a forty-watt bulb

Adj. Adj. Noun

(159) the large wooden crate

Note: One-word adjectives do not appear after the noun.

Noun Adj.

(160) eyes brown

Note: An adjective can appear without a noun, in the following construction: *the* + Adj. This construction means *the people who are*; for example, *the rich* means *the people who are rich*.

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Note: Adjectives can also appear in phrases with indefinite pronouns (see Chapter 4, page 144). In such phrases, the adjective comes after the pronoun.

- (161) They needed *someone smart* to solve the problem.
(162) There was *nothing funny* about the accident.

Most adjectives can appear after the verb *be* and other linking verbs, as in example 164 (see Chapter 1, page 11).

- (163) She looks old.
(164) Her eyes are brown.

Some adjectives can appear only in front of a noun.

- (165) That was his principal idea.
(166) X His idea was principal.

Other adjectives like this are *chief*, *main*, *only*, *outright*, *same*, and *very*.

Some adjectives have different meanings in these two places.

- (167) He is an old friend.
(168) My friend is old.

Example 167 refers to a friend that I have known for a long time; there is no information about his age. In contrast, example 168 says that my friend is old; it says nothing about how long we have been friends. Other adjectives like this are *certain*, *clear*, *definite*, *late*, *particular*, *plain*, and *true*.

An adjective has only one form. This form is not affected by the nouns it describes: there are no masculine, feminine, neuter, singular, or plural adjective forms.

- (169) X others things (plural form of adjective with plural form of the noun)

Example 169 is incorrect, because adjectives do not have endings to signal the meaning of plural, the way that nouns do. Adjectives change forms only to signal the meanings of comparative and superlative (see Chapter 4, page 170).

Exercise

Underline each one-word adjective.

1. Often, new residents and international students in the United States are not comfortable about using checks.
2. Checks are often used for purchases instead of cash.

3. We use checks for large payments when it might be unsafe to carry money.
4. For example, I pay the monthly rent by check, and I wrote a big check for my last car.
5. Checks are useful because they give us permanent receipts of our expenditures.

83 Adjective-Equivalents

In addition to one-word adjectives, there are **adjective-equivalents**. These words, phrases, and clauses describe nouns and are used in the same way as adjectives.

Adjectives and Prepositions

It is often difficult to determine which preposition should follow a particular adjective; for example, is it *accustomed to* or *accustomed with*? Appendix G shows adjectives and their accompanying prepositions. Some adjectives can be followed by several prepositions and prepositional phrases. Sometimes, the prepositions indicate different meanings; sometimes, they do not.

Exercise

Complete each sentence, using one of these words and the correct preposition that goes with the word.

parallel homesick interested perpendicular
 different impatient independent sick

1. If two lines meet in a 90° angle, we say that one line is perpendicular to the other.
2. Ivan is not happy living abroad; he is _____ his own country.
3. I understand that she is bored with school. I have not been able to find anything that she is _____.
4. Alan is not at all like Louis; in fact, he is completely _____ his brother.
5. You must learn to relax and take your time; you should not be so _____ very young children.
6. If line AB is _____ line CD, they will not intersect.

4. Adverbs

A noun can be described by an adverb. The adverb (or adverb phrase) comes after the noun which it describes. (See Chapter 4, page 161.)

(174) He chose the typewriter *over there*.

The adverb phrase *over there* describes the noun *typewriter* and provides information as to which one.

5. Nouns-as-adjectives

Any noun in English can be used to describe any other noun. The noun-as-adjective comes in front of the noun which it describes.

(175) He did not buy an *expensive typewriter* cover.

The adjective *expensive* and the noun *typewriter* describe the noun *cover*; they provide information about what kind.

Exercise

Underline the adjective equivalents and identify them.

- a. an adjective clause
 - b. a participle phrase
 - c. an infinitive phrase
 - d. a prepositional phrase
 - e. an adverb
 - f. a noun-as-adjective
1. a When she walked out of the store where she bought the computer, she realized that she had
 2. _____ locked her car keys in the car.
 3. _____ She decided that the thing to do was to call a
 4. _____ garage nearby.
 5. _____ The man answering the phone said that he could
 6. _____ send someone to help her in about half an hour.
 7. _____ Because it was raining, he told her to wait inside the computer store.
 8. _____ The result of this delay was that she had to rush
 9. _____ to meet her friends who had invited her to have lunch with them.

Participial Adjectives

There are pairs of adjectives used to describe a feeling that is the result or reaction in a situation. The *-ing* form is

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used for the cause or reason for the reaction, and the *-ed* form is used for the person(s) with the feeling or reaction.

(176a) That research interests John.

(176b) the cause of the interest:

That research is *interesting* (to John).

(176c) the person with the reaction:

John is *interested* (in that research).

Note: Do not let the tense or form of the verb confuse you in choosing the correct adjective form.

(176d) That research interested John.

In spite of the verb form in example 176d, we still describe the research as *interesting* and John as *interested*.

These adjective pairs come from verbs that describe reactions to a situation. Some of them are: *amaze, arouse, bore, enervate, excite, exhaust, frighten, interest, intrigue, invigorate, please, refresh, satisfy, shock, stun, suit, surprise, and tire*.

Exercise

If the sentence is correct, write **OK**. If it is incorrect or does not say what the user intended to say, write **X** and correct it.

X 1. Phillip told us, "I am very ~~interesting~~^{interested} in computers."

_____ 2. After we had watched for three hours of the day, we decided that it was very boring.

_____ 3. Certainly, after that long play we were very boring.

Fill in the correct adjective form.

4. I am sure that they were (exhaust)^{exhausted} after all that (tire)^{tiring} work.

5. Some of us were (amaze) ; others were just (surprise) ; but all of us were (please) with the very (satisfy) news.

B4 Order of Parts of a Noun Phrase

Different kinds of structures can be used in a noun phrase. It is very unusual to have many of them together because

Adjectives and Adverbs

it is difficult to understand a long, complicated phrase. When two or more of these structures occur, they appear in the following order:

| Pre-determiner | Determiner | Adjective | Noun | Adverb | Prepositional phrase | Adjective, Participle, or Infinitive phrase |
|---|---|---|-----------------------------------|---------------|--------------------------|---|
| <i>all (of)</i> <i>both (of)</i> <i>some (of)</i> | article possessive demonstrative indefinite quantifier cardinal number ordinal number | size general age shape color adjective from proper noun noun-as- adjective | | | | |
| <i>all (of)</i> <i>both (of)</i> <i>some (of)</i> | the two fewer any the first | red big American good old | books cars bottle person | over there | near the lamp of wine | that have low gas mileage costing more than \$10 to arrive in Chicago |

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(177) Both of the ^{general} nice ^{age} old ^{shape} square ^{color} red ^{noun as adj.} leather ^{noun} bags were his.

(178) The ^{general} cheap ^{age} old ^{color} black ^{noun as adj.} aluminum ^{noun} wire was thrown away.

Exercise

Arrange each list to make a noun phrase to form a correct sentence.

1. Clark decided to buy about astronomy
 book *that expensive*
 expensive *book about*
 that *astronomy.*
2. Therefore, he could not buy books
 that I had showed
 him
 the
 two
3. budget
 for this month
 his allowed him to buy book
 costing more
 than \$25
 new
 one
4. He has to wait until he has saved enough
 from his part-time
 job
 for his library
 money
 to buy additional
 books

ADVERBS

Adverbs: Meaning

Adverbs are words, phrases, and clauses that modify sentences, adjectives, or other adverbs. They answer questions such as *how*, *how long*, *how often*, *when*, *where*, *why*, *to what extent*. They can also tell the speaker's or writer's attitude about a statement.

(179) Mark often buys things on sale.

In example 179, the adverb *often* provides information about how often the action takes place.

Note: Adverbs can also function as adjectives; that is, they can describe nouns. (See Chapter 4, page 157.)

2 Adverbs: Place and Form

Adverbs can appear in several different places in a sentence depending on their use in that sentence. For example, a **de-emphasizer** will probably appear next to the word it modifies. A **sentence modifier** will probably appear at the beginning of the sentence it modifies. And some adverbs can appear in several different places in the sentence, depending on the meaning and emphasis that the user of the sentence wants to provide. (See Chapter 6, page 272.)

An adverb has only one form, except when signalling comparative or superlative. (See Chapter 4, page 170.)

Exercise

Underline each one-word adverb and identify its meaning.

- a. how
- b. how long
- c. how often
- d. to what extent
- e. when
- f. where
- g. why

- a 1. Mark waited impatiently while the clerk looked at his driver's license.
- _____ 2. He wondered why the clerk worked so slowly.
- _____ 3. He had arrived at the store early in order to avoid crowds.

- _____ 4. Although he rarely shopped in bargain stores, he had decided to go to this one.
- _____ 5. When he arrived there, he found long lines.
- _____ 6. He was angry to have to wait long in line.
- _____ 7. But he was happy that he was finally out of the store.

C3 Adjective and Adverb Pairs

Many adverbs are related to adjectives in meaning, and they are similar in form. A common way to form adverbs is to add *-ly* to adjectives.

| Adjective | Adverb |
|-----------|------------|
| forceful | forcefully |
| quick | quickly |
| sensible | sensibly |
| simple | simply |

(180) He was very happy.

(181) He sang happily.

In some cases, the adjective form is exactly like the adverb form. A few examples are: *deep, low, far, near, fast, early, hard, high, late, long*.

Note: Some words ending in *-ly* are not adverbs. For example, *friendly* is an adjective.

(182) Sam has a very friendly smile.

Friendly is an adjective; it modifies the noun *smile*.

Exercise

Choose the adjective or adverb and circle the correct word.

1. He is a good/well worker. He works especially good/well under pressure.
2. I hope that she does not work so quick/quickly that she becomes careless/carelessly.
3. They speak English very rapid/rapidly, and sometimes they are impatient/impatiently when I do not understand.

C4 Adverb-Equivalents

In addition to one-word adverbs, there are **adverb-equivalents**. These words, phrases, and clauses appear in

the same grammar structures as adverbs; and they signal the same meanings that adverbs do.

1. Adverb phrases

An **adverb phrase** is made up of an adverb and a word, phrase, or clause.

(183) adverb plus clause

Adv.
Clause

He ran so fast that he was out of breath.

(184) adverb plus prepositional phrase

Adv.
Prepositional phrase

They arrived sometime after four o'clock.

2. Adverb clauses

An adverb clause is added to a sentence and functions like an adverb.

S
V
Adv.

(185) They arrived before the weather got very bad.

In example 185, the adverb clause provides information about *when*.

Commonly an adverb clause comes before or after the necessary parts of a sentence.

3. Prepositional phrases

A prepositional phrase can be used as an adverb-equivalent.

(186) They arrived *before the storm*.

The prepositional phrase provides information about *when*. (See Section 4, page 167.)

4. Nouns

Nouns can be used as adverbs to tell *when*, *how often*, or *how long*.

(187) He arrived *Monday*.

(188) He takes a vacation *every year*.

(189) He works *five days a week*.

5. Infinitive and participle phrases

Infinitives (*to* + verb) and participles (verb + *-ing*) can be used as adverbs.

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- (190) *To draw* the line accurately, she measured the distance twice.
- (191) By *holding* the edge firmly, she could draw the line easily.

In example 190, the infinitive phrase *to draw the line accurately* provides information about why. And in example 191, *by holding the edge firmly* provides information about how. (See Chapter 1, page 20.)

Exercise

Identify the meanings of the underlined phrases.

- a. how
 - b. how long
 - c. how often
 - d. when
 - e. where
 - f. why
 - g. to what extent
1. When Marco arrived in the United States, he was surprised to some degree by introductions.
 2. At their first meeting, Americans say, "How do you do?"
 3. Men shake hands, but quite often women do not.
 4. In order to answer "How do you do?" they say "How do you do?" or "I'm happy to meet you."
 5. When meeting people they know well, they do not shake hands.
 6. Hand-shaking is reserved for people who do not meet regularly at all.
 7. At a party, a person does not greet everyone.
 8. According to their customs, Americans greet only the people that they will have a conversation with.
 9. Marco was also surprised that Americans do not go around and say good-bye to everyone as they leave a party.

C5 Emphasizers and De-Emphasizers

One use of adverbs is to modify an adjective or another adverb. Adverbs can (1) emphasize and increase meanings or (2) de-emphasize and decrease meanings.

| Emphasizers | De-emphasizers | |
|--|--|--|
| quite so too very | enough rather relatively somewhat indeed | Formal: for use in writing and speaking |
| a most really (as . . .) as can be | a bit a little kind of pretty sort of | Informal: for use in speaking |
| awful real | | Very informal: for use in very casual speech |

Emphasizers and **de-emphasizers** show that the meaning of the adjective or adverb is especially strong or weak.

(192) The typewriter was good.

(193) The typewriter was very good.

(194) The typewriter was good enough.

Example 193 indicates the high quality of the machine: the meaning of *very good* may be close to *excellent*. In contrast, example 194 indicates that the machine was satisfactory, but nothing more.

Most of the (de-)emphasizers appear in front of the adjectives or adverbs that they modify; *indeed*, *enough*, and *as can be* appear in back of them.

(195) × The typewriter was enough good.

(See Chapter 5, pages 190-191, 198, 202, 226, and 243 for more information on the use of *too* and *so* as emphasizees and clause combiners.)

Note: When *too* is used as an emphasizee with an adjective or adverb, it means “excessively.”

(196) Mark did not buy the largest typewriter because it was too expensive.

In example 196, we see that the cost of the typewriter was

a problem: Mark could not buy it or did not want to buy it because of the great expense.

The emphasizer *too* does not have the same meaning as *very*. Logically, example 197 is possible, but example 198 is not. However, we could add information, as in example 199; this statement says it was a bad idea to stay indoors.

(197) The weather was very nice.

(198) X The weather was too nice.

(199) The weather was too nice to stay inside and study.

Informally, *too* may have the same meaning as *very*, especially in negative sentences that give advice.

(200) Don't spend too much money on a machine.

(201) Don't spend very much money on a machine.

Examples 200 and 201 have the same meaning; 200 should be limited to informal conversations.

Note: In conversation, *a most* has the meaning of *very*.

(202) It was a most enjoyable party.

(= It was a very enjoyable party.)

Example 202 does not mean the same as *the most enjoyable party*.

6 Sentence Modifiers

Sentence modifiers are words and phrases that indicate the user's attitude or belief about a statement.

(203) Mark bought a very expensive typewriter. Actually, it was a wise purchase, because he needed special features for his job.

Some common sentence modifiers are: *actually*, *as a matter of fact*, *indeed*, *naturally*, *of course*, and *(un)fortunately*. Sentence modifiers usually come at the beginning of a sentence. They are set off from the rest of the sentence with commas. (See Chapter 7, page 288.)

Exercise

Underline the emphasizers, de-emphasizers, and the sentence modifiers. Then identify them.

- a. emphasizer
- b. de-emphasizer
- c. sentence modifier

- _____ 1. Marco was rather amused when he shook hands with the American.
- _____ 2. Of course, he expected to shake hands when they met.
- _____ 3. But he was a little surprised that the American gripped his hand so hard.
- _____ 4. Actually, Marco knew what to expect because friends had prepared him.
- _____ 5. But he was quite surprised when it happened.

Adverbs of Place, Manner, and Time

1. Adverbs of place tell *where*.

- (204) He bought a new shirt *in a department store*.
- (205) They were having a sale *there*.
- (206) *There* they were having a sale.

These adverbs can appear either at the end of the clause or at the beginning (see Chapter 6, page 258). But they do not appear in the middle of a clause.

- (207) < They were having *there* a sale.

2. Adverbs of manner tell *how*.

- (208) He paid for the shirt *in cash*.
- (209) He counted his change *carefully*.
- (210) *Carefully* he counted his change.

These adverbs can appear at the end of the clause or at the beginning.

Short one-word adverbs of manner can appear in front of the main verb.

- (211) He *carefully* counted his change.

But they can not appear between a verb and an object or object complement.

- (212) ▯ He counted *carefully* his change.

3. Adverbs of time tell *when*, *how long*, or *how often*.

- (213) He went shopping *yesterday*.
(*yesterday* = when)
- (214) He looked at different shirts *for half an hour*.
(*for half an hour* = how long)
- (215) He tried one on *from time to time*.

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- (216) *From time to time* he tried one on.
(*from time to time* = how often)

These adverbs, as in examples 213, 214, 215, and 216, can appear at the end of the clause or at the beginning. (See Chapter 6, page 258.)

Short adverbs of frequency (how often) and adverbs of indefinite time (*first, next, later, afterwards, just*, etc.) can also appear in front of the main verb.

- (217) He *usually* spends a lot of time shopping.
(218) We have *just* bought a new television set.

They appear after the verb *be* when it has only one word.

- (219) They are never late.
(220) They have never been late.

But they can not appear between a verb and an object or a complement.

- (221) X He spends *usually* a lot of time shopping.

Short, one-word adverbs of definite time can not appear in front of a main verb.

- (222) X He *yesterday* went shopping.

Adverbs of frequency tell how often an event takes place. The following list shows some of them arranged in order, from the most often to the least often.

| | |
|------------------|------------------|
| 100% of the time | always |
| | almost always |
| | most of the time |
| | usually |
| | frequently |
| | often |
| | sometimes |
| | occasionally |
| | once in a while |
| | seldom |
| | hardly ever |
| | rarely |
| | almost never |
| 0% of the time | never |

4. Place, manner, time

If two of three of these adverbs are used at the end of

a clause, they appear in the following order: place, manner, time.

(223) We met him *there yesterday*.

(224) We went *there by bus yesterday*.

Any long or complicated adverb usually appears at the end of the clause.

(225) We met him *yesterday next to the big post office downtown*.

Exercise

If the sentence is correct, write **OK**. If there is an error in adverb usage, write **X** and correct the error.

- OK 1. John bought two size Large shirts at the sale.
 _____ 2. He buys usually size Medium shirts.
 _____ 3. He tried on at the store several shirts on Monday.
 _____ 4. Then he had to choose the two which fit him best.
 _____ 5. He slowly examined each shirt.
 _____ 6. First he looked to see if it fit well.
 _____ 7. He inspected then the workmanship.
 _____ 8. He chose quickly the shirts that he wanted to buy.
 _____ 9. He did not care if he spent in that store a lot of money.
 _____ 10. On Monday he spent almost \$50.

Exercise

Add the adverbs and adverb-equivalents to the ends of the sentences. Use the following order: place, manner, time.

1. I am going shopping. downtown, tomorrow afternoon

I am going shopping downtown tomorrow afternoon.

2. A friend of mine and I are going. by car, there
 3. We expect to finish our work. early, here
 4. We can arrive. before one o'clock, if we drive fast, there
 5. We both want to be. back here, before six

C8 Adverb-Substitutes

Like pronouns, **adverb-substitutes** refer to an antecedent:

they point to an earlier unit of meaning in the sentence, composition, or conversation. (See Chapter 2, page 59.)

- (226) We arrived at the airport at 3:00 in the morning.
We had to wait *there* until 5:00.
- (227) They could wait only until 7:00 p.m.
They would have to leave *then*.
- (228) He drove at night. *Thus* he avoided a lot of traffic.

| Example | Adverb Substitute | Tells |
|---------|-------------------|---------------------|
| 226 | there | where |
| 227 | then | when |
| 228 | thus | how, in what way |

D THE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

When we compare two nouns or noun-equivalents, we use the **comparative forms** of adjectives. There are also comparative forms for adverbs.

When the comparison involves more than two, we use the **superlative forms** of adjectives or adverbs. For example, we can say that one car is the biggest one on the street or that one idea is the best of the five which were presented at a meeting.

When the adjective or adverb is not used as a comparative or a superlative, it is called the **positive form**.

| Positive | Comparative | Superlative |
|------------|-----------------|---------------------|
| big | bigger | the biggest |
| forcefully | more forcefully | the most forcefully |

D Comparative and Superlative: Form
How to make comparative and superlative forms

Adjectives and adverbs follow the same rules when they become comparative and superlative forms. To form the comparative, either add the ending *-er* after the positive form or add the word *more* in front of it.

$$\text{Positive} + \begin{matrix} -er \\ more \end{matrix} = \text{Comparative}$$

| | | | |
|------------------|---|-------------|-------------------------|
| <i>high</i> | + | <i>-er</i> | = <i>higher</i> |
| <i>expensive</i> | + | <i>more</i> | = <i>more expensive</i> |

To form the superlative, either add the ending *-est* after the positive form or add the word *most* in front of it.

| | | | |
|----------|---|----------------------------|---------------|
| Positive | + | <i>-est</i> <i>most</i> | = Superlative |
|----------|---|----------------------------|---------------|

| | | | |
|------------------|---|-------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>high</i> | + | <i>-est</i> | = the <i>highest</i> |
| <i>expensive</i> | + | <i>most</i> | = the <i>most expensive</i> |

The superlative also requires *the*.

How to decide between the endings (-er and -est) and the words (more and most)

The comparative and superlative forms follow the same rules for selecting an ending or a separate word. The important issue is the number of syllables in the positive form. If the positive form of the adjective or adverb is pronounced with one syllable, the endings *-er* and *-est* are used.

| Positive | Comparative | Superlative |
|--------------------------|---------------|----------------|
| <i>high</i> (1 syllable) | <i>higher</i> | <i>highest</i> |
| <i>fast</i> (1 syllable) | <i>faster</i> | <i>fastest</i> |

If the positive form has three or more syllables, the words *more* and *most* are used.

| Positive | Comparative | Superlative |
|------------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| <i>expensive</i> (3 syllables) | <i>more expensive</i> | <i>most expensive</i> |
| <i>reasonable</i> (4 syllables) | <i>more reasonable</i> | <i>most reasonable</i> |

The following types of two-syllable adjectives can use either way to become comparative and superlative forms:

1. final *-y*: *funny*, *happy* (but *earlier*, not X *more early*)
2. final *-ow*: *hollow*, *narrow*
3. final *-le*: *gentle*, *able*
4. final *-er*, *-ure*: *clever*, *obscure*
5. *common*, *polite*, *quiet*

All other two-syllable adjectives and adverbs use *more* and *most*.

Positive
sadly
abrupt

Comparative
more sadly
more abrupt

Superlative
most sadly
most abrupt

Note: If you can not decide between an ending (-*er* and -*est*) and a word (*more* and *most*) for a two-syllable word, use a word; your chances are better for making a correct choice, and incorrect forms will not sound very bad.

Sometimes, adding -*er* or -*est* requires a spelling change. Turn to Appendix A for the correct rule.

Doubling the final consonant

big + er = bigger

Changing the final *y* to *i*

happy + est = happiest

Canceling the final *e*

pale + er = paler

Note: Example 229 is incorrect because it has two indications of the comparative: the word *more* and the adjective + *er*.

(229) X Mexico City is more higher than San Francisco.

There are some irregular comparative and superlative forms, for example, *worse* formed from *bad* + *er*. Turn to Appendix F.

Exercise

Complete the chart of adjective and adverb forms.

| Positive | Comparative | Superlative |
|-----------------|---------------|----------------|
| 1. slow | <i>slower</i> | <i>slowest</i> |
| 2. backward | | |
| 3. | | quietest |
| 4. | more quiet | |
| 5. progressive | | |
| 6. capable | | |
| 7. slyly | | |
| 8. recalcitrant | | |
| 9. near | | |
| 10. overt | | |

D2 Comparative Meaning: Similarity

Statements of comparison can be used in order to show similarities; frequently, we use an adjective or adverb with *as . . . as*.

(230) Her typewriter cost \$500, and my typewriter cost \$500. Her typewriter is *as expensive as* mine.

(231) She types *as fast as* I do.

Note: Some grammarians insist that a comparison with the phrase *as . . . as* must be limited to affirmative sentences and that a negative sentence requires *so . . . as*. Both of these forms are correct, although the phrase with *so . . . as* is more formal and less frequently used.

(232) Her typewriter is *not as expensive as* mine.

(233) Her typewriter is *not so expensive as* mine.

D3 Comparative Meaning: Difference

Statements of comparison are used to show differences; frequently, we use an adjective or adverb and *than*.

The comparative form (*-er* or *more*) emphasizes and increases the meaning of an adjective or adverb when two persons, places, things, or ideas are compared.

(234) Marie types 65 words per minute, but Paul types 75 words per minute.

Paul types *faster than* Marie.

(235) Her typewriter is *more expensive than* his.

Another form is used in order to de-emphasize and decrease the meaning: *less* + the positive form of the adjective or adverb.

(236) His typewriter is *less expensive than* hers.

Note: Although the construction with *less* is a type of comparative, we do not use the comparative form of an adjective or adverb.

(237) X Marie types less *faster* than Paul.

(238) Marie doesn't type as fast as Paul.

Note: Comparative structures are not formed with *that*.

(239) X Marie types less fast *that* Paul.

Exercise

Complete each sentence with a comparative form of the ad-

jective or adverb; or use the comparative of a quantifier.

1. Marie is home today because she's sick, but Ronald is in the hospital. Ronald must be (sick) Marie.
2. Jose received his passport in three days, while Alonso waited almost two weeks. Jose had to wait (long) Alonso did.
3. A watch made of steel is much (practical) one made of gold and diamonds.
4. A personal check for \$50 is not (convenient) a travelers check for \$50.
5. I learn new vocabulary words (slowly) I learn new grammar rules.

D4 **Comparative Meaning: Parallelism**

The comparative form of an adjective or adverb tells us that the message is about two persons, places, things, or ideas. The second one is introduced by the word *as* (*as . . . as* or *so . . . as*) or the word *than*.

Incomplete Comparisons

The speaker or writer must state both people, things or ideas which are being compared, unless it is clear within the context of the conversation. Without such a statement, the message may be unclear as in example 240.

(240) This cereal tastes better.

Example 240 is unclear because we do not know what the cereal is being compared to. Does the cereal taste better than another cereal, better than it used to taste, or better than cardboard?

Example 241 shows another type of ambiguity.

(241) I like Mary more than Paul.

This sentence has two possible meanings. It may mean,

(242) I like Mary more than I like Paul.

or

(243) I like Mary more than Paul likes Mary.
I like Mary more than Paul does.

Parallelism

When making comparisons it is important to compare two things of the same type. For example, what is being compared in example 244?

- (244) ✗ The distance from New York to London is less than Honolulu.

Obviously the writer of this sentence did not mean to compare a city to a distance—but that is what he or she said. Example 245 presents the comparison clearly.

- (245) The distance from New York to London is less than the distance from New York to Honolulu.

When two things can logically be compared they are called **parallel**. Logical parallelism is supported by grammatical parallelism. For instance, the comparison in example 245 has the following two parts, and the parts have the same grammatical structures:

- | | | |
|-------|--------------|---------------------------|
| (246) | noun | prepositional phrase |
| | the distance | from New York to London |
| | the distance | from New York to Honolulu |

The comparison in example 247 is not logically clear and not grammatically parallel.

- (247) ✗ Alice's typewriter was more expensive than Paul.

This sentence presents a comparison between the price of a typewriter and the price of a person. The following two sentences present the comparison with correct parallelism.

- (248) Alice's typewriter was more expensive than Paul's typewriter (was).
 (249) Alice's typewriter was more expensive than Paul's (typewriter was).

Parallelism and Form of Pronouns

The choice of pronoun forms can affect the meaning of the comparison.

- (250) I like Mary more than *he*.
 (251) I like Mary more than *him*.

The choice of the subjective case *he* or the objective case *him* depends on the meaning of the statement. This is clearer if we look at the more complete statements.

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(252) I like Mary more than *he* likes Mary.

(253) I like Mary more than I like *him*.

The choice of the pronoun form *his* is the correct one in the following comparison:

(254) Alice's typewriter is more expensive than *Paul's*.

(255) Alice's typewriter is more expensive than *his*.

The pronoun form *he* could be used only in a discussion of buying Paul, and the pronoun form *him* could not be used at all.

Expand the statement in order to determine the correct form of the pronoun to use (see examples 252 and 253). It is clear which forms of the pronouns should be used because the meaning of the statement is clear. (See Chapter 2, page 62.)

Note: Some people always use the objective case form of pronouns after *as* and *than*.

(256) X He types as fast as *me*.

(257) X But he can not type faster than *her*.

This usage is informal and often confusing. In order to determine the pronoun to use, expand the statement.

(258) He types as fast as *I* (type).

(259) But he can not type faster than *she* (types).

Note: The phrase *as . . . as can be* does not present a comparison. This phrase should be considered as an emphazier. (See Chapter 4, page 165.)

Note: Although we are discussing many typewriters, the comparative form *more expensive* is correct in the following example.

(260) This typewriter is more expensive than any other in the store.

We are comparing two typewriters at a time: this typewriter and typewriter #2, this typewriter and typewriter #3, etc.

Exercise

If the sentence is correct, write **OK**. If there is a mistake in parallelism, write **X** and correct the mistake.

X 1. Alan's bank is much closer than ~~Mary's~~ ^{Mary's}.

- _____ 2. Mary has to travel about two miles more than Alan.
- _____ 3. It is less important to learn grammar rules than to practice the language.
- _____ 4. It is less important to learn grammar rules than practicing the language.
- _____ 5. Did they meet Robert sooner than she?

Exercise

Expand the sentences in order to make the parallelism very clear.

I spoke to

- 1. I spoke to him earlier than ^{her}.
- 2. I spoke to him earlier than she.
- 3. This jacket looks better with these pants than those.
- 4. Did Rafael do better or worse on the test than Antonio?
- 5. Rafael studied as long as Antonio.

D5 Superlative Meaning

The **superlative form** is used when the evaluation involves three or more people, places, things, or ideas: one is different from the others.

The superlative form (*-est* or *most*) emphasizes and increases the meaning of an adjective or adverb.

- (261) Marie types 65 words per minute, Paul types 75 words per minute, and Ann types 80 words per minute. Ann types (the) *fastest* of the three typists.
- (262) Her typewriter is the *most expensive* one that I've ever seen.

Another form is used in order to de-emphasize and decrease the meaning: *least* + positive form of the adjective or adverb.

- (263) Paul's typewriter is the *least expensive* of those that he saw.

The superlative form of an adjective or adverb joins two parts of a statement: (1) the one that is superlative and (2) all those that were included in the evaluation. For instance, example 263 includes (1) Paul's typewriter and (2) all the typewriters that he saw.

In order to be clear, a superlative statement must provide both pieces of information. If a statement does not have

Chapter 4

both pieces, the receiver of the message may be confused.

(264) John types (the) *fastest*.

Does example 264 involve an evaluation of John and other people? Which other people?

Exercise

Complete each sentence, using superlative forms.

| | | | |
|--------|-------|---|------------------|
| Length | inch | = | 2.54 centimeters |
| | foot | = | 12 inches |
| | meter | = | 1.094 yards |
| | yard | = | 3 feet |

1. An inch is (short) *the shortest* length of the four in the chart.
2. _____ is (long) _____ one in the chart.

| | | | |
|--------|-------|---|-------------|
| Weight | gram | = | 0.035 ounce |
| | kilo | = | 2.2 pounds |
| | ounce | = | 31.1 grams |
| | pound | = | 16 ounces |

3. A kilo is (heavy) _____ of the four weights shown in the chart.
4. _____ is the (light) _____ one in the chart.

| | | | |
|----------|-------|---|-------------|
| Quantity | liter | = | 1.06 quarts |
| | pint | = | 0.47 liter |
| | quart | = | 2 pints |

5. A _____ of milk will be _____
(expensive) _____ of the three quantities shown.

F **PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES**

E1 **Prepositional Phrases: Form**

A prepositional phrase has two parts: a preposition and an object of the preposition.

The preposition is the first part of the prepositional phrase. It can be a simple one-word preposition or a complex preposition with two, three, or four parts.

Adjectives and Adverbs

Prepositional phrase

(265) He leaves his house *at 7:30* each morning.

Prepositional phrase

(266) He leaves then *because of* his long trip.

Prepositional phrase

(267) He lives in a suburb *in spite of* his long commute.

Simple and Complex Prepositions

Simple Prepositions (and some complex alternates)

| | | |
|----------------|-------------------|--------------|
| aboard | about | above |
| across | after | against |
| along | alongside (of) | amid F |
| amidst F | among | amongst F |
| apropos (of) F | around | as |
| at | atop F | barring F |
| before | behind | below |
| beneath | beside | besides |
| between | beyond | but |
| by | concerning | considering |
| despite | down | during |
| except (for) | excluding | following |
| for | from | in |
| including | inside (of) | into |
| less | (un)like | minus |
| near | notwithstanding F | of |
| off (of) | on | onto |
| opposite | out (of) | outside (of) |
| over | past | per |
| pending F | plus | regarding |
| round (about) | since | than I |
| through | throughout | till |
| to | toward(s) | under |
| underneath | until | unto F |
| up | upon F | versus |
| via W | with | within |
| without | | |

F = very formal

I = very informal

W = written only

Complex Prepositions

Complex prepositions are made up of two, three, or four separate words; however, they should be considered as one unit: all the parts must be used. For example, *because of* is a complex preposition.

(268) X He leaves then *because* the long trip to work.

Example 268 is incorrect: *because* is not a preposition; therefore, it can not be at the beginning of a prepositional phrase.

| | | |
|--------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| according to | across from | along with |
| apart from | as for | as to |
| aside from | away from | because of |
| but for | by means of | by way of |
| down from | due to | except for |
| in accordance with | in addition to | in aid of |
| (in) back of | in > behalf of | in case of |
| in care of | or > | in favor of |
| in front of | | in need of |
| in place of | in charge of | |
| in relation to | in lieu of | in > regard to |
| in (the) face of | in quest of | with > |
| instead of | | |
| on top of | in respect < of | in spite of |
| together with | in view of < to | insofar as |
| | next to | on account of |
| | owing to | regardless of |
| | up to | for the sake of |

E3 Object of the Preposition

The second part of a prepositional phrase is the object of the preposition. The object of the preposition is a noun or noun-equivalent. (See Chapter 2, page 57.)

- (269) She does not trust answers from ^{noun} machines.
- (270) She does not trust answers from

Noun phrase

over-confident people who respond very quickly.

The object of a preposition can be an entire clause.

Clause

(271) She is interested in what others have considered.

The object of a preposition can be a gerund (the simple form of the verb + *-ing*).

Gerund phrase

(272) She is interested in learning new ideas.

The object of a preposition can be a pronoun (see Chapter 2, page 61).

(273) She is interested in *them*.

Note: A pronoun *object* of a preposition is an *object* form (see Chapter 2, pages 61-62). The object forms are *me*, *you*, *him*, *her*, *it*, *us*, and *them*; they are used regardless of the number of objects in the phrase.

Examples 274, 275, and 276 are incorrect.

(274) X To *I*, it seemed like a good idea.

(275) X To John and *I*, it seemed like a good idea.

(276) X It seemed like a good idea to Alice and *he*.

Exercise

Put parentheses around the prepositional phrases.

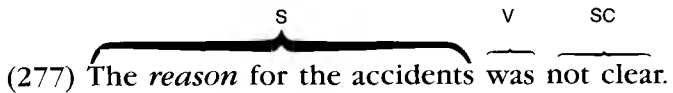
1. (In the United States) university students can choose the courses that they want to take.
2. In addition to the courses required for a major field, there are others called "electives."
3. Students choose their courses before each semester.
4. They choose among the required courses.
5. Along with them, students choose a few electives.
6. Some students are careless about choosing electives.
7. They may choose from a wide variety of courses that interest them.

8. They should think about what they need for graduation.
9. Toward the end of their education, they may not have chosen the required courses.
10. There may not be much that they can do about it and they will not be able to graduate on time.

Prepositional Phrases: Uses

Prepositional phrases have the same uses as adjectives and adverbs: they answer questions like *which one(s)*, *what kind of*, *how*, *how often*, *when*, *where*, *why*, *to what extent*.

Because prepositional phrases are units, the noun or pronoun object can not be the subject of a verb.



In example 277, the verb form is *was* because it agrees with the noun *reason*, which is singular. Example 278 is not correct: the verb agrees with the wrong noun; the noun *accidents* is part of the prepositional phrase *for the accidents*.

(278) ✗ The *reason* for the accidents were not clear.

Exercise

Underline the prepositional phrases and identify each one as an adjective-equivalent (**adj.**) or an adverb-equivalent (**adv.**).

- On Monday morning, Alexis arrived in class late.
- _____ 2. It was his first class of the day.
- _____ 3. He walked into class, but said nothing.
- _____ 4. Going to the nearest desk, he sat down.
- _____ 5. He tried not to interrupt the activity of the class.
- _____ 6. After he put his books under his desk, he opened his notebook in front of him.
- _____ 7. In American classrooms, a late student does not say anything when arriving.
- _____ 8. A student next to him can quickly tell him what has happened.
- _____ 9. After class, he can get more complete information about what he missed.

**ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS:
SPECIAL PROBLEMS**

1. *Actual* and *actually*

These words do not mean *now*, *at this time*, *at the present time*; they mean *real*, *true*, *really*, *truly*.

(279) Do not think only of the purchase price of the car. The *actual* cost also includes maintenance, insurance, and fuel.

(280) The car may only cost \$3,000, but you may actually have to pay twice that amount when you include upkeep and insurance.

2. *In time* and *on time*

On time means *at the indicated moment*.

(281) The plane left *on time*—exactly at 9:30, as the schedule indicated.

In time means *before the indicated moment*.

(282) Fortunately, we had gotten to the airport *in time*. The heavy traffic had delayed us, but we did not miss our flight.

Frequently, *in time* is used to mean that there was enough time to do something before an indicated time.

(283) We got to the airport *in time* to pick up our tickets before our scheduled departure.

3. In compound adjectives consisting of a number and a countable noun, notice the differences in form of the number and the following countable noun.

(284) The book cost ten dollars.

(285) It was a ten-dollar book.

When we want to use a compound adjective (example 285) instead of a number followed by the plural form of the countable noun (example 284), the form changes: a number, a hyphen, and a singular form of the noun (see Chapter 7, page 277).

4. *Downtown* and *(at) home*

The adverb *downtown* does not appear with a preposition.

(286) They had to commute downtown to work.

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The following phrases do not occur: *at downtown, in downtown, to downtown.*

To answer where, use *at home* or *home*. To answer where to, use *home* (not *to home*).

(287) He was *(at) home* when I called him.

(288) He went *home* because he was sick.

(289) He went *to home* because he was sick.

5. Measurement with and without *per*

The preposition *per* is used for statements of measurement and distribution.

(290) They traveled 500 miles *per* day.

(291) It cost \$5.00 *per* pound.

The same type of statement can be made without *per*, but with a determiner in front of the noun.

(292) They traveled 500 miles *each* day.

(293) It cost \$5.00 *a* pound.

Exercise

If the sentence is correct, write **OK**. If it is incorrect, write **X** and correct it.

- _____ 1. He lived in Ottawa before; **actually** he is living in Miami.
- _____ 2. I arrived on campus on time to have breakfast before my 9:00 class.
- _____ 3. After buying a fifty-five-dollar book, he had just enough money to get home.
- _____ 4. Did you go shopping to downtown?
- _____ 5. No one ever expected gold to be \$750 an ounce.

Chapter 5

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5 **Combining Sentences**

SIMPLE SENTENCES

Some sentences in English have only one clause. These are called **simple sentences**. For example, the first two sentences in this paragraph are simple sentences.

A clause that can stand alone as a complete and correct sentence is called an **independent clause**. We can write it with a capital letter at the beginning and a period, question mark, or exclamation point at the end.

Exercise

There are 10 simple sentences in the passage. Indicate them with beginning capital letters and appropriate end punctuation.

a university is a group of colleges many universities have a college of arts and sciences and a college of engineering colleges sometimes have other names two examples are a graduate school and a school of medicine universities are usually large

the size of a school is important to a student some students prefer large schools others prefer small schools which do you prefer each student must answer this important question

COMPOUND SENTENCES

A **compound sentence** contains two or more independent clauses. Each of the clauses could be a separate, simple sentence; the writer or speaker has brought the clauses together because the ideas are connected or related in some way.

- (1) We observe many national holidays, and we celebrate a few religious ones, too.

Example 1 has two thoughts about holidays. We could put them into separate sentences, with a period after *holidays* and a capital letter at the beginning of the next sentence.

The ideas in a compound sentence are equal in importance; we know this because each one is expressed as an independent clause. (If the speaker or writer wants to indicate that one idea is more important than another, he will use a **complex sentence**. See Chapter 5, page 210.) When two ideas or clauses are equal in importance, they are called **coordinate**.

Compound Sentences: Form

A compound sentence has three features:

1. Two or more independent clauses
2. A coordinate conjunction (for example, *and* or *but*) or a semicolon between the independent clauses
3. A comma after each clause, except before a semicolon or at the end of the sentence (where there is a period).
 - (2) Independence Day is a national holiday, but Easter is a religious holiday.
 - (3) Independence Day is a national holiday; Easter is a religious holiday; New Year's Day is neither national nor religious.

Example 2 has two independent clauses. They are connected with the coordinate conjunction *but*; there is a comma after the first clause. Example 3 is also a compound sentence. It has three independent clauses connected with semicolons; there are no commas in this sentence. (See also Chapter 7, page 279.)

Exercise

Punctuate the following sentences. Use a comma or semi-

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colon in each compound sentence. Do not add punctuation to simple sentences.

1. In the U.S., we celebrate religious and national holidays but there are more national ones.
2. The biggest religious holiday is Christmas (December 25) the biggest national one is Independence Day (July 4).
3. Most holidays have typical celebrations or observations.
4. We have a large feast on Thanksgiving (in November) and we remember the dead on Memorial Day (in May).
5. We celebrate New Year's with a party on December 31 and we often spend January 1 resting.
6. Independence Day is a day for picnics and other outdoor activities.
7. Some holidays are always on a particular day of the week the others change days.
8. For example, Labor Day is the first Monday in September and Thanksgiving is the fourth Thursday in November.
9. We celebrate Labor Day on a three-day weekend and Thanksgiving Day gives some people a four-day weekend.
10. Some holidays are celebrated all over the country but some are observed only regionally.

B2 **Compound Sentences: Coordinate Conjunctions**

Ideas are brought together in a compound sentence because they are related. There are four different relationships that coordinate conjunctions in compound sentences signal to the reader or hearer.

| Meanings | Coordinate conjunction |
|-------------|---|
| 1. addition | <i>and</i> <i>not only . . . but</i> <i>also</i> <i>. . . too</i> |
| 2. choice | <i>or</i> <i>either . . . or</i> <i>nor</i> <i>neither . . . nor</i> |

Combining Sentences

| Meanings | Coordinate conjunction |
|----------------------------------|--|
| 3. contrast | <i>but</i> <i>yet</i> |
| 4. cause-and-effect or result | <i>for</i> (cause) <i>so</i> (effect or result) |

In order to make the message clear, the speaker or writer will use the coordinate conjunction which shows his idea clearly.

(4) Today is a holiday, *and* we are in school.

(5) Today is a holiday, *but* we are in school.

Examples 4 and 5 are correct in grammar and punctuation. However, it is more difficult to understand the speaker's point in example 4 because it is hard to see the connection between the two ideas expressed. Because holidays are not school days, the connection between the two ideas is clearly expressed with *but*, not with *and*.

Note: The coordinate conjunctions *not only*, *neither*, and *nor* are negatives. Since they appear at the beginning of a clause, that clause must have a rearranged word order (see Chapter 6, page 254).

(6) *Not only* is there a parade this afternoon, but there is also a fireworks display tonight.

(7) *Neither* have the armies stopped their fighting, *nor* have they agreed to discuss a cease-fire.

Note: The coordinate conjunctions *so* and *for* must come after the ideas that they explain.

(8) X For it was snowing, there was no parade.

(9) There was no parade, *for* it was snowing.

Exercise

Make compound sentences. Use the coordinate conjunctions that show the relationships clearly, and use correct punctuation. Use **and**, **or**, **but**, or **so**.

1. We tried to make plane reservations for our vacation. It was too late. *We tried to make plane reservations for our vacation, but it was too late.*
2. We could not get plane reservations. We discussed traveling by car.

3. It would be less comfortable to travel by car. We would not be able to spend as much time at our destination.
4. We could change our minds and decide to take our vacation in July. We could postpone it until later in the year.
5. We discussed it all day Sunday. We could not come to a final decision.

Exercise

Make compound sentences, using the coordinate conjunctions that show relationships clearly. Use **not only . . . but also**, **either . . . or**, **yet**, or **for**.

1. Each person will bring something. ^{for} It would be too expensive for one person to provide refreshments for everyone.
2. David will make his famous popcorn. He will bring soft drinks.
3. Many people volunteered to bring food. Not many offered to bring drinks.
4. Some will have to change their minds. We will not have enough to drink.
5. We will have too much to eat. We will have too little to drink.

133 Compound Sentences: Ellipsis

Sometimes there is information that is repeated in a compound sentence.

- (10) My classmates went to the parade, and I went to the parade.

Because we feel that there is unnecessary repetition of information in example 10, we restate the sentence.

- (11) My classmates and I went to the parade.

This process is called **ellipsis**. Ellipsis is the shortening of a sentence by the elimination of repeated information. When ellipsis is done correctly, the sentence is shorter, but the full meaning is still clear. Thus a reader or listener could expand the sentence and reconstruct the longer one.

- (12) The result must be equal to or greater than 90%.

Example 12 is a shortened sentence. Because the ellipsis was done correctly, we can expand the sentence.

- (13) The result must be equal to 90%, or it must be greater than 90%.

In addition to the type of ellipsis shown in example 12, there is another type of ellipsis, shown in example 14. (See Chapter 5, page 198.)

- (14) My classmates went to the parade, and I did, too.

Compound Structures

One important use of shortening is to make a simple sentence from a compound sentence.

- (15) compound sentence
It was cold, and it was very windy.
- (16) simple sentence after removing repeated information
It was cold and very windy.

When ellipsis results in a simple sentence, the sentence will have a **compound structure**; that is, there will be a list of two or more items. The compound structure can be the subject, the verb, the predicate, objects, prepositional phrases, or any other structure.

- (17) compound subject
My classmates and I went to the parade.
- (18) compound predicate
After the parade, *we went to a restaurant and ate lunch.*
- (19) compound verb
We waited and talked until the end of the parade.
- (20) compound direct object
We met *Annette and her sister* at the restaurant.
- (21) compound prepositional phrases
We discussed going *to the movies or to a restaurant.*

Coordinate Conjunctions

Compound structures consist of (1) lists of two or more items, (2) coordinate conjunctions, and (3) sometimes commas.

1. Each list has items of equal importance (which is why the structure is considered compound).
2. A coordinate conjunction joins the items in a list or joins two items, as in example 22.

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(22) I needed a raincoat *or* an umbrella.

Some coordinate conjunctions appear in pairs, as in example 23.

(23) I needed *either* a raincoat *or* an umbrella.

The coordinate conjunctions that are used in compound structures are: *and/or*, (*both . . .*) *and*, *not only . . . but also*, (*either . . .*) *or*, (*neither . . .*) *nor*, *but*, and *yet*. When the list has more than two items, we have only one conjunction, which is between the last two items.

(24) I took gloves, a hat, *and* a muffler.

Note: It is possible to have several conjunctions in a list, but it is unusual.

(25) I wore gloves and a hat and a muffler.

Example 25 would be used when a person wants to stress that he wore many things: the repeated *and* makes the list seem very long.

3. When the compound structure is a list of three or more items, it is called a **series**. A series is made up of a coordinate conjunction between the last two items and commas between the other items (see Chapter 7, page 282).

(26) I wore gloves, a hat, *and* a muffler.

You can also write the series without a comma before the coordinate conjunction.

(27) I wore gloves, a hat *and* a muffler.

Both examples are correct. Choose one style or the other, but be consistent.

Note: Example 28 is not correct.

(28) ✗ We went to a restaurant, and ate lunch.

The list is not a series, since it has only two items. Therefore, the use of a comma is incorrect.

Note: There is no comma after the items in a series.

(29) ✗ I wore gloves, a hat, and a muffler, when I went out this morning.

Example 29 is incorrect; the comma is not used after the series of three items.

Exercise

These sentences have been shortened by ellipsis. Expand them, reconstructing the longer compound sentences. Use correct punctuation in the compound sentences.

1. They wanted to go there early, but I did not.
They wanted to go there early, but I did not want to go there early.
2. They wanted to go there early and stay for the whole parade.
3. I had a slight cold and did not want it to get worse.
4. I was going to a party that evening, and Kay was, too.
5. We would go downtown early, but stay only two hours.

Exercise

Use ellipsis to shorten these compound sentences. Write simple sentences with compound structures. Use correct punctuation.

1. The fireworks were supposed to start at dusk, and they were supposed to last for an hour. *The fireworks were supposed to start at dusk and last for one hour.*
2. We knew that it would be crowded, and we knew that we would have to be there early if we wanted good seats.
3. David drove to my house, and Teresa drove to my house.
4. I drove my car, and I took them to the university.
5. People met at the faculty parking lot, they met near the gymnasium, or they met next to the bookstore.
6. They talked for a little while, and then they formed car pools to get to the fireworks.
7. We saved money, and we saved a little time.
8. We drove fewer cars, and we spent less money for gasoline.
9. We drove a few cars, but we spent a lot of time searching for parking places.
10. Our trip to the fireworks was cheaper than it might have been, and it was more pleasant than if we each had gone alone.

- _____ 3. Andre knew that Thanksgiving is in November and that Memorial Day is in May.
- _____ 4. We had to learn the major holidays, their dates, and how they are celebrated for our test.
- _____ 5. We had to learn the major holidays, their dates, and their celebrations for our test.
- _____ 6. We had to learn what the major holidays are, when they occur, and how they are celebrated for our test.
- _____ 7. Typically, we eat breakfast in the morning, having lunch around noon, and dinner at six.
- _____ 8. The evening meal is called either “dinner” or “supper.”

Compound Subjects and Subject-Verb Agreement

When a sentence has a compound subject, it is especially important to check the subject-verb agreement. For example, when two or more items are joined with *and*, or *not only . . . but*, the subject is plural, and so is the verb.

- (33) Not only my books but also my calculator *were* found in the auditorium.
- (34) Clarice and Diane *are* not going to the parade.

Note: Sometimes *and* connects several parts of one idea. In this case, the verb is singular because the meaning of the subject is singular.

- (35) The analysis and evaluation of reports of UFOs *is* very difficult.

In example 35, there is one process which includes both analysis and evaluation.

When the coordinate conjunction expresses a choice (*or* or *nor*), the last item is the one to use to determine subject-verb agreement.

- (36) My *roommates are* going to drive to the parade.
- (37) My roommates or *Frank is* going to drive to the parade.
- (38) My roommates, Frank, or *I am* going to drive to the parade.

Some people feel that such sentences sound strange. They use another type of ellipsis to avoid such sentences, keeping the information separated in different clauses (see Chapter 5, page 198).

Exercise

Circle the correct verb form.

1. You, I, or both of us together am/are going to have to fix this dent.
2. When Frank lent us his car, he said that you and I was/were responsible for it.
3. Either you or Paul has/have damaged the car, because I have not driven it.
4. Both you and Paul is/are careful drivers; nevertheless, the car needs repairing.
5. Neither you nor Paul admits/admit damaging the car.

130 Compound Sentences: Ellipsis in the Second Clause

Ellipsis can be used to shorten a compound sentence by removing repeated information from the second clause.

- (39) compound sentence with repeated information
My classmates went to the parade, and I went to the parade.
- (40) compound sentence without repeated information
My classmates went to the parade, and I did, too.
- (41) compound sentence without repeated information
My classmates went to the parade, and so did I.

Although the sentence has been shortened, it is still a compound sentence. Therefore, it has a comma after the first independent clause.

This type of ellipsis is used when we present a comparison, a contrast, or a choice between two actions or situations. For instance, in examples 40 and 41, we are presenting the similarity between my classmates' action and mine. In this type of sentence, the first clause is not affected. It is the second clause that is shortened by ellipsis.

Note: When the second clause is shortened with *so*, the auxiliary comes before the subject. Compare examples 40 and 41 (see Chapter 5, page 202).

There are three important pieces of information in the second part of these sentences:

1. A coordinate conjunction that presents the meaning between the clauses;
2. An indication of which person(s), place(s), thing(s), or idea(s) are involved;
3. An indication of whether the second action or situation is like or unlike the first one.

The coordinate conjunctions in shortened compound sentences signal three meanings:

| Meanings | Coordinate Conjunctions |
|-------------------------------|--|
| 1. Comparison: similarity | <i>and</i> <i>neither . . . nor</i> <i>nor</i> |
| 2. Contrast: dissimilarity | <i>but</i> <i>yet</i> |
| 3. Choice | <i>or</i> <i>either . . . or</i> |

The second and third pieces of information are expressed in a short clause called a **tag statement**. A tag statement has a subject plus an auxiliary verb or a form of the verb *be*; if it is negative, it also has *not* or *n't*. A tag statement is formed like this:

$$\text{Subject(S)} \quad + \quad \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{Vaux} \\ \text{be} \end{array} \right] \quad + \quad \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{not} \\ \text{n't} \end{array} \right]$$

(or *there*)

(42) We thought there was a fire, but there wasn't.

A tag statement is a short version of a complete statement sentence; it is part of the sentence pattern. We look at the complete statement sentence in order to decide how to form the correct tag statement.

The subject in a tag statement is a noun or a noun-equivalent.

(43) Our class went to the parade, but *David* did not.

(44) Our class went to the parade, and *theirs* did too.

Sometimes a tag statement is a short form of a statement with the expletive *there* (see Chapter 6, page 267). In this case, the expletive *there* is used in the subject position.

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- (45) We did not think that there would be any snow,
but there was.

The verb form in a tag statement is one of the following: *is, am, are, was, were, have, has, had, do, does, did, will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, or might*.

To form sentences with tag statements, follow the steps below.

1. If the verb has 2 or more words, divide the sentence after the first word in the verb phrase.

(46) I'm going to the party, and you are too.

2. If the verb has only one word and if the word is a form of the verb *be*, divide the sentence after the verb.

(47) Marie is a good student, but Fran isn't.

3. If the verb has only one word, and the word is not a form of the verb *be*, divide the sentence after the subject and look at the tense of the verb and the meaning of the subject.

- a. If the verb is in the past tense, add the auxiliary *did* after the subject.

(48) They told me to go, and I did.

- b. If the subject is *he, she, it*, or an equivalent, add the auxiliary *does* after the subject.

(49) Tom thinks he works hard, but he *doesn't*.

- c. In all other cases, add the auxiliary *do* after the subject.

(50) Tom thinks the work is hard, and I do too.

If the statement is negative, *not* or *n't* will follow the verb form.

(51) They've skied but we haven't.

(52a) I had a good time, and Marie had a good time too.

Does Step 1 apply to 52a? No, it does not; the verb does not have 2 or more words. Does Step 2 apply? No, it does not; the one-word verb is not a form of the verb *be*. Does Step 3a apply? Yes, it does; the verb is in the past tense.

(52b) I had a good time, and Marie *did* too.

The second clause may also have other words to make the comparison, contrast, or choice clear.

- (53) He cannot do it for you today, but he can tomorrow.

Example 53 has the adverb *tomorrow* so that the contrast between the situations in the two clauses is clear.

Exercise

Put in appropriate coordinate conjunctions to show the relationship between the two clauses.

1. Some banks are open on Saturday mornings, but mine is not.
2. Some banks are open late on Friday evenings, _____ mine is too.
3. We need some money. _____ you can cash a check today, _____ I can tomorrow.
4. Samantha has not decided whether to open a checking account, _____ has Edgar.
5. Samantha does not have a checking account, _____ I do.

Exercise

Complete the tag statements.

1. Paul began studying English last year, but I didn't.
2. I have studied English for three years, and Jose _____ too.
3. I am not in Jose's class, but Paul _____.
4. Paul knows English fairly well, and Jose _____ also.
5. I would not expect a student to be in an intermediate-level class after one year of study, yet Paul _____.
6. Either Jose does not study very much, or Paul _____.
7. Jose practiced English when he visited Toronto, and we _____ too.
8. There are many opportunities to practice it there, but there _____ at home.
9. I do not speak it very comfortably, but they _____.
10. Paul and Jose will study in the United States, and I _____ too.

Compound Sentences: Comparison With Ellipsis

When the sentence expresses a comparison, the comparison may be shown two ways: (1) the coordinate conjunction *and*; and (2) an emphasizing word in the second clause.

(54) I had a good time, *and* Marie did *too*.

The emphasizing words reinforce the fact that the two situations are similar. Another use of these words is to emphasize information in the second clause. This is done with inverted word order (*and so did Marie*). Emphasizing words and their uses are shown in the following chart and are illustrated in examples 55, 56, 57, and 58.

| | Usual Word Order | Inverted Word Order |
|------------------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| Affirmative clauses | <i>too, also</i> | <i>so</i> |
| Negative clauses | <i>either</i> | <i>neither</i> |

(55) affirmative clauses; usual word order: *too* or *also* comes at the end of the clause

I had a good time, and Marie did *too*.

(56) affirmative clauses; inverted word order: *so* comes at the beginning of the clause

I had a good time, and *so did Marie*.

Note: With inverted word order, subject (S) comes at the end of the sentence (see Chapter 6, page 257).

(57) negative clauses; usual word order: *either* comes at the end of the clause

Phil did not have a good time, and Alice didn't *either*.

Note: The negative meaning *either* is different in meaning and placement from the choice *either*.

(58) negative clauses; inverted word order: *neither* comes at the beginning of the clause

Phil did not have a good time, and *neither did Alice*.

The inverted word order emphasizes the meaning of negation (see Chapter 6, page 255).

Note: When the negative word *neither* is used in a comparison, the verb after it is affirmative. Example 58 has *did* (instead of *didn't*, as in example 57).

Exercise

Combine the independent clauses to make a compound sentence. Use **and** and the emphasizing word given, and use ellipsis in the second clause. Also use correct punctuation.

1. This exercise is about ellipsis. The next one is about ellipsis. *too*
2. This exercise will take only a few minutes. The next one will take only a few minutes. *so*
3. I do not mind doing exercises. Marsha does not mind doing exercises. *neither*
4. I do not mind doing exercises. Marsha does not mind doing exercises. *either*
5. I can finish quickly. Marsha can finish quickly. *too*

Exercise

Combine the independent clauses to make a compound sentence. Compare or contrast the two actions or situations, using **and** or **but**. Use ellipsis in the second clause. Use negative and emphasizing words where necessary.

1. An inch is a measure of length. A pound is a measure of weight. *an inch is a measure of length but a pound is not*
2. An ounce is less than a kilo. A pound is less than a kilo.
3. A liter of gasoline is not cheap. A gallon of gasoline is not cheap.
4. A month is a measure of revolution of a heavenly body. A year is a measure of revolution of a heavenly body.
5. A quart of milk costs less than a dollar. A gallon of milk costs more than a dollar.
6. The metric system does not take long to learn. The English system takes long to learn.
7. They do not need to learn the English system. We need to learn the English system.
8. John has not studied the metric system. He will study the metric system.

9. I have been encouraging John to study. Albert has been encouraging him to study.

Compound Sentences with Semicolons: Form

When two clauses are connected with a semicolon, the writer is indicating that the two ideas are closely related. However, it may not be clear to the reader how they are related, because the meaning relationship is not explicitly stated.

- (59) Thanksgiving Day is near the end of November; there are many parades then.

Example 59 is correct in grammar and punctuation. It would be clearer if the reader knew the meaning relationship between the two parts. Examples 60 and 61 show two possibilities.

- (60) Thanksgiving Day is near the end of November; nevertheless, there are many parades then. (In spite of the cold weather, there are parades.)
(61) Thanksgiving Day is near the end of November; therefore, there are many parades then. (There are many parades, because Christmas is not far away.)

In compound sentences with semicolons, we can show the relationship between ideas with **sentence connectors** or **transitions**. These words and phrases provide a connection between ideas.

Transitions can appear at the beginning, middle, or end of a clause. The strongest and clearest place is at the beginning, because it is logical to put the transition word between the two ideas that are connected. So *nevertheless* and *therefore* appear before the second clause in examples 60 and 61. When transitions are used within clauses, they are separated with one or two commas (see Chapter 7, page 288).

- (62) Thanksgiving Day is near the end of November; there are, *therefore*, many parades then.

Note: When short sentence connectors occur at the beginning or end of a clause, they often appear without commas.

- (63) We met at Fred's house; *then* we drove downtown.

Note: A transition can also be used after a period at the beginning of the next sentence. Although it connects the ideas in two sentences, grammatically the sentences are separate.

- (64) Thanksgiving Day is near the end of November. *Nevertheless*, there are many parades then.

Exercise

The following compound sentences are missing punctuation. The ideas are connected with transitions (the transitions are underlined). Punctuate the sentences, using semicolons and commas.

1. National and religious holidays are serious in other words they are not mainly for fun. *National and religious holidays are serious, in other words they are not mainly for fun*
2. Some other holidays are meant for fun we celebrate them therefore with parties.
3. New Year's Eve (December 31) is mostly for adults on the other hand Halloween (October 31) is for children.
4. Some holidays are designed for specific members of the family we can name Mother's Day and Father's Day in particular .
5. Some people think that these holidays are for the family on the contrary I think they are primarily for business.
6. They are designed to increase purchases for example Father's Day makes people go out and shop in June.
7. June is not an active business month as a matter of fact it is six months away from the most active month for purchases.
8. We all know the reasons for such holidays nevertheless we observe them.
9. They provide reminders for us specifically they remind us to show our love.
10. As a result the business community is happy we are happy too.

B9 Compound Sentences with Semicolons: Meaning Connections

| Meanings | Sentence connectors |
|-------------|---|
| 1. Addition | <i>also, besides, furthermore, in addition, moreover, too</i> |

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| Meanings | Sentence connectors |
|------------------------------|--|
| 2. Choice | <i>at the same time, else, on the other hand, otherwise</i> |
| 3. Comparison | <i>in the same way, likewise, similarly</i> |
| 4. Contrast | <i>however, in contrast, notwithstanding, on the other hand</i> |
| 5. Correction | <i>instead, on the contrary, rather</i> |
| 6. Dismissal | <i>anyhow, at any rate, in any case, nevertheless, regardless, still</i> |
| 7. Effect or Result | <i>accordingly, as a result, consequently, hence, in that case, therefore, thus</i> |
| 8. Emphasis or Reinforcement | <i>actually, as a matter of fact, indeed, in fact</i> |
| 9. Example | <i>for example, e.g., for instance, in particular, specifically</i> |
| 10. Manner or Means | <i>in that way, thus</i> |
| 11. Place | <i>farther, further, nearby</i> |
| 12. Purpose or Reason | <i>in order to</i> |
| 13. Restatement or Summary | <i>in other words, namely, that is, i.e.</i> |
| 14. Time or Sequence | <i>after a while, afterward(s), before, earlier, first (second, third, etc.), later, meanwhile, next, previously, then</i> |

Note: The abbreviations *e.g.* (= for example) and *i.e.* (= *that is*) are from Latin. They are used in formal writing.

Exercise

Make compound sentences, using semicolons. Show the meaning connections clearly. Use **therefore**, **for example**, **regardless**, or **meanwhile** in each sentence.

1. We were washing the car. They were mowing the lawn.
2. It started to snow. We decided to stay until the end of the football game.
3. Baseball is a very popular sport in the U.S. In some cities, 50,000 people attend each game.
4. The New Year's Eve party lasted until 6:00 a.m. We decided to stay in bed all day the next day.
5. Some holidays are very popular with children, because they become the center of attention. On Halloween they dress up in costumes.

Exercise

Keep the sentences grammatically separate, but show meaning relationships clearly. Use the sentence connectors **in other words**, **on the contrary**, **in that way**, or **on the other hand**.

1. My friends and I decided to watch the championship game together. We could visit and not miss the most important game of the season.
2. We could stay home to watch the game comfortably on television. We could go out to the stadium to catch the excitement.
3. We decided to stay home. We chose comfort over excitement.
4. We did not have as much fun. We did not have cold feet and hands.
5. The home team didn't have a good day. They lost 50-0.

Compound Sentences: Common Mistakes

1. One common mistake in writing compound sentences is a **comma splice**. A comma splice occurs when the writer joins two independent clauses with only a comma. (See Chapter 7, page 279.)

(65) There was a big parade, we had a good time.

2. Another common mistake in writing compound sentences is a **run-on sentence** or a **fused sentence**. A run-on sentence occurs when the writer does not see that a sentence is made of two ideas of equal importance; the sentence is written as if it had only one independent clause.

(66) There was a big parade we had a good time.

3. There are three ways to show the connection between ideas of equal importance. Use one of these ways to correct a comma splice or a run-on sentence.

(67) comma plus coordinate conjunction (Chapter 5, page 189)

There was a big parade, *so* we had a good time.

(68) semicolon (Chapter 5, page 189)

There was a big parade; we had a good time.

(69) separate sentences (Chapter 5, page 189)

There was a big parade. *We* had a good time.

Exercise

If the sentence is correct, write **OK**. If the sentence is not correct, identify the mistake: a comma splice (**cs**) or a run-on sentence (**r**).

- _____ 1. Americans use first names a lot sometimes this surprises learners of English.
- _____ 2. Although first names are used a lot, this does not mean that Americans are friendlier than other people.
- _____ 3. They might not know each other well, perhaps they have just met.
- _____ 4. The use of a person's last name shows respect the person is older or more important than the speaker.
- _____ 5. But the use of the last name also shows that there is a lot of distance between the people.
- _____ 6. On the other hand, using first names seems to show that the people are not far apart.
- _____ 7. Therefore, they can meet as equals, they can work together.
- _____ 8. We must choose either respect and distance or equality it is sometimes a hard choice.

1311 Proportional Statements

Proportional statements are often used as proverbs in English. They are used in order to state an idea that is felt to be a basic truth. For instance, if one person mentions that there are very many people at a party, another person can respond with example 70. Or in a discussion about the building of a bridge, someone comments on the completion of the project; example 71 would be appropriate.

(70) The more, the merrier.

(71) The sooner, the better.

Proportional statements are made of two parts. Each part uses a comparative adjective, adverb, or quantifier; there is a comma between the parts. The meaning relationship is that one part increases or decreases in proportion to the increase or decrease of the other. Example 71 is a reduced version of example 72.

- (72) The sooner this bridge is finished, the better it will be for the economy of the region.

Exercise

Match the proportional statements with the situations. Make an appropriate comment or reaction.

- a. The sooner, the better.
 - b. The darker the color, the sweeter the fruit.
 - c. The more you pay, the more you get.
 - d. The bigger they are, the harder they fall.
 - e. The more, the merrier.
1. Tom: I'm very disappointed with this shirt, even though I got it on sale.
Claire: When you buy something cheap, you have to remember this: _____ c _____.
 2. Alberta: It's hard to choose good produce at the store.
Andy: Just remember: _____.
 3. Ann: Let's get this job finished. I'm getting bored and tired.
Sue: Yes, let's finish. _____.
 4. Philip: Ask them to ride with us. _____.
Alan: How many people can you get in your car?
 5. _____ . When a worker loses his job, a few people know it; but when a president loses his job, the whole country feels it.

COMPLEX SENTENCES

Complex Sentences: Form

Some sentences in English have two types of clauses; these sentences are called **complex sentences**. A complex sentence is a combination of an independent clause and a dependent clause. It is not possible to separate the clauses into different sentences, because a dependent clause can not stand alone as a sentence and must always be connected to an independent clause.

- (73) compound sentence: 2 independent clauses with
, but
She was tired, but she walked up to the third floor.
- (74) complex sentence: independent clause and
dependent clause

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She walked up to the third floor although she was tired.

- (75) compound sentence: 2 independent clauses with a semicolon

He arrived after 7:00; therefore, we did not have enough time to eat dinner.

- (76) complex sentence: dependent clause and independent clause

Because he arrived after 7:00, we did not have enough time to eat dinner.

Unlike the clauses in a compound sentence, the two clauses in a complex sentence are not equal in importance. Dependent clauses are also called **subordinate clauses**.

The verb tense in the independent clause may influence the verb tense in the dependent or subordinate clause (see Chapter 5, page 228).

Exercise

These sentences have two clause patterns. Some of the sentences have two clauses of equal importance; write **compound**. Write **complex** for the remaining sentences which have one independent clause and one dependent clause.

- _____ 1. The numbering of floors in a building may seem strange to you at first, but it is not hard.
- _____ 2. The ground floor is the floor that you enter directly from the street.
- _____ 3. The ground floor is also called the first floor; the floor above the ground floor is the second floor.
- _____ 4. The basement is the floor which is under the ground floor.
- _____ 5. When you take an elevator three floors up, you are on the fourth floor.
- _____ 6. In many other countries, the ground floor is not the first floor; in this country it is.
- _____ 7. In those countries, people will arrive on the third floor when they take an elevator three floors up.
- _____ 8. You should remember that all floors above ground have numbers.

- _____ 9. Sometimes we do not use the number 13, so that the numbering is not always consecutive.
- _____ 10. Because some people consider the number 13 unlucky, the floors in some tall buildings go from 12 to 14.

Complex Sentences: Uses of the Dependent Clause

A dependent or subordinate clause takes one of the parts in the pattern of the independent clause. The dependent clause can be a noun-equivalent (Chapter 2, page 57), an adverb-equivalent (Chapter 4, page 155), or an adjective-equivalent (Chapter 4, page 162).

1. A **noun clause** answers the questions *who(m)* or *what*.

(77) $\begin{array}{ccc} \text{S} & \text{V} & \text{DO} \\ \hline \text{Mary} & \text{knows} & \text{the answer.} \end{array}$

(78) $\begin{array}{ccc} \text{S} & \text{V} & \text{DO} \\ \hline \text{Mary} & \text{knows} & \text{that a meter is longer than a yard.} \end{array}$

What does Mary know? She knows the answer; she knows that a meter is longer than a yard.

2. An **adverb clause** answers questions like *how*, *how long*, *how often*, *when*, *where*, *why*, or *to what extent*.

(79) $\begin{array}{ccc} \text{S} & \text{V} & \text{Adv.} & \text{Adv. clause} \\ \hline \text{They} & \text{arrived} & \text{late} & \text{because the weather was bad.} \end{array}$

Why did they arrive late? They arrived late because the weather was bad.

Note: When an adverb clause appears in front of the independent clause, there is a comma after the dependent clause (see Chapter 7, page 285).

(80) Because the weather was bad, they arrived, late.

3. An **adjective clause** answers the questions *which one(s)* or *what kind(s)*.

(81) $\begin{array}{ccc} \text{S} & \text{V} & \text{DO} & \text{Adj. clause} \\ \hline \text{He} & \text{bought} & \text{a typewriter} & \text{which was guaranteed.} \end{array}$

Which typewriter did he buy? He bought one *which was guaranteed*.

Note: An adjective clause comes after the noun (*typewriter* in example 81) that it describes.

Exercise

Underline each dependent clause and identify its use. Put in a comma if it is required.

adj: adjective clause

adv: adverb clause

noun: noun clause

1. People who come from other countries may not know that in the U.S. there is a different idea about being on time.
2. If they arrive late they might not realize that they're being judged.
3. On the other hand, Americans may not realize that they are too early when they use their idea of being on time.
4. Is your culture's idea of being on time different from the one that is used in the United States?
5. Do not be surprised if you receive an invitation with a beginning time and an ending time.
6. If you arrive about thirty minutes after the beginning time, that is all right.
7. And it is all right if you leave about 45 minutes after the time which is given as the ending time.

83 Complex Sentences: Form of the Subordinate Clause

A statement can be used as the subordinate clause in a complex sentence. The subordinate clause is connected to the independent clause with a **subordinate conjunction**. This type of conjunction appears at the beginning of the subordinate clause.

Except for the subordinate conjunction, there is no other grammar signal of a subordinate clause: word order is not changed.

(82) A meter is about 39 inches long.

(83) He figured out that a meter is about 39 inches long.

In example 83, the subordinate conjunction is *that*, and the subordinate clause follows it.

Note: There are two choices for the form of a noun clause with the subordinate conjunction *that*. One choice is shown in example 83: *that*, expressed in writing and in speech. The other choice is shown in example 84: *that* is not used.

(84) He figured out a meter is about 39 inches long.

The following chart shows four relationships and some examples of the subordinate conjunctions that signal them.

| Meanings | Adverb subordinate conjunctions |
|----------------------|--|
| 1. Cause | <i>as, because, provided (that), since, unless, whereas</i> |
| 2. Contrast | <i>although, even if, even though, though</i> |
| 3. Purpose or Reason | <i>in order that, so (that)</i> |
| 4. Time or Sequence | <i>after, as, as soon as, before, each/every time (that), once, until, while</i> |

Note: Do not use two conjunctions in one sentence to show the same relationship.

(85) X Although it was expensive, but we bought it.

Adverb clauses appear before or after the other parts of the independent clause. For instance, in examples 86 and 87, the adverb clause is *after he found the number of inches in a meter*.

(86) After he found the number of inches in a meter, he finished the problem.

(87) He finished the problem after he found the number of inches in a meter.

Although both arrangements are correct, you can see that each one emphasizes different information in the sentence (see Chapter 6, page 272).

Exercise

Combine the clauses into a complex sentence. Use a subordinate conjunction **although, because, before, so that**.

1. It was very sunny. It was quite cold.
2. It was cold and rainy. We decided to stay inside all day.
3. We packed our bags Thursday night. We could leave early Friday morning.
4. Paul had studied English for two years. He went to Australia.
5. Paul had studied English for two years. He could read it very well.
6. Paul had studied English for two years. He could not speak it very well.
7. The winter ended in March. We had many bad snowstorms.
8. We had bought some wood. We could build fires in our fireplace.
9. We had bought some wood. We did not use our fireplace very often.
10. We had bought some wood. The price of wood went up.

Complex Sentences: Indirect Questions

When a question is in an independent clause, it is called a **direct question** (example 88); in a dependent clause, it is called an **indirect question** (example 89).

(88) Are you going?

(89) John wants to know if you are going.

Direct and indirect questions have different word orders and different punctuation.

A yes/no question in an independent clause has three distinctive signals (see Chapter 1, page 22):

1. Question word order (see Chapter 1, page 22.)
2. Rising intonation
3. A question mark as end punctuation

(90) Does Jack have a car?

A yes/no question in a dependent or subordinate clause does not have any of these signals. The one signal for the

indirect yes/no question is the subordinate conjunction *if* or *whether*.

(91) I must know *if* Jack has a car.

Less formal indirect questions have a second signal: the words *or not*. This phrase can be used with either of the subordinate conjunctions; but *whether* allows two possible word orders, while *if* allows only one.

(92) I must know whether or not Jack has a car.

(93) I must know whether Jack has a car or not.

(94) I must know if Jack has a car or not.

This form of yes/no indirect question presents the two choices for the answer: affirmative or negative.

Another choice question is shown in example 95.

(95) I must know if Mary has a car or a motorcycle.

This sentence comes from these sentences:

(96) I must know something. Does Mary have a car or a motorcycle?

Strictly speaking, the direct question is not a yes/no question: it calls for an information answer. However, the indirect question is formed as if it were a yes/no question.

A wh-question in an independent clause has three signals (see Chapter 1, page 19):

1. A question word or phrase at the beginning
2. Question word order
3. A question mark as end punctuation

(97) *What* kind of car *does* Jack have?

A wh-question in a dependent or subordinate clause has only one of these signals: a question word or phrase at the beginning.

(98) I must know *what* kind of car Jack has.

The end punctuation can be a period as in example 98 or a question mark as in example 99.

(99) Do you know what kind of car Jack has?

Note: A very common mistake is to use question word order in a subordinate clause.

(100) X I must know what kind of car does Jack have.

It is important to remember that the only signal of a question in a subordinate clause—an indirect question—is the introductory word, *if*, *whether*, or a wh-word.

Exercise

Make sentences that have indirect questions. Use appropriate end punctuation according to the purpose of the independent clause: a period after a statement and a question mark after a question.

1. Find out. Is a liter bigger than a quart?
Find out if a liter is bigger than a quart
2. Do you know? Is a liter bigger than a quart?
3. I would like to know this. Is a liter bigger or smaller than a quart?
4. Do you know this? Why has the class started late every day this week?
5. The police want to know this. Who telephoned them about the loud party?
6. They want to find out this information. What are the possibilities of an earthquake here?
7. It would be helpful for you to decide this. At what time of day do you prefer to study?
8. What difference does it make if I decide this? At what time of day do I prefer to study?
9. How can they find out this information? Whom did you speak to after the movie last night?
10. What are your thoughts about this? How can we improve the chances for peace? How can we decrease the occurrence of epidemics?

05 Complex Sentences: Wh- Subordinate Clauses

Uses

Including indirect questions, there are many dependent clauses that begin with wh-words. They are used as noun-equivalents, adjective-equivalents, and adverb-equivalents. Some clauses can be used as two or three different types of equivalents. For instance, examples 101, 102, and 103 have the same wh- subordinate clause.

(101) noun clause

I would like to know where John is living now.

(102) adjective clause

She went to the apartment where John is living now.

(103) adverb clause

We decided to meet where John is living now.

Form: The *wh*- signal

Indirect questions and other subordinate clauses beginning with *wh*-words all have only one grammatical signal: a *wh*-word or phrase at the beginning.

(104) adjective clause with *whose*

They were congratulating Mary Ann, whose essay had won the first prize.

(105) noun clause with *how*

They did not know how hard she had worked on it.

(106) adverb clause with *when*

When she heard the news, she was surprised and happy.

Question word order is not used in this form.

(107) X They did not know how hard had she worked on it.

6 Complex Sentences: Adjective Clauses

Form

In order to understand the meaning and form of an adjective clause, we can separate it from the independent clause and make it into an independent clause.

(108) complex sentence with adjective clause

They were congratulating Mary Ann, whose essay had won the first prize.

(109) two separate sentences

They were congratulating Mary Ann.
Her essay had won the first prize.

The sentences in example 109 can be combined because (1) they are related and (2) the relationship is shown by the words *Mary Ann* and *her*.

The process of combination involves substitution; a new word or phrase replaces a word or phrase in an independent clause. This replacing word is called a **relative pronoun**.

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The process of making a sentence with an adjective clause has three steps:

1. Substitute a relative pronoun.
2. Move the relative pronoun to the beginning of the clause, if it is not already there. You may move other words in the new *wh-* phrase too.
3. Put the adjective clause right after the noun that it describes.

Step 1: Substitute possessive *whose* for *her*.

(110a) They were congratulating Mary Ann.

whose

Her essay had won the first prize.

Step 2: No move is necessary (110b).

Step 3: Put new clause into independent clause.

(110c) They were congratulating Mary Ann, whose essay had won the first prize.

Step 1: Substitute *which* for *the topic*.

(111a) The topic was the one she liked.

which

We had advised her not to choose the topic.

Step 2: Move *which* to the beginning.

(111b) The topic was the one she liked.

which we had advised her not to choose

Step 3: Put new clause into independent clause.

(111c) The topic which we had advised her not to choose was the one she liked.

When the relative pronoun is part of a phrase, there are two possibilities: to move just the pronoun or to move the whole phrase.

Step 1: Substitute *which* for *the topic*.

(112a) The topic was the one she liked.

which

We had warned her about the topic.

Step 2: Move *which* to the beginning.

(112b) The topic was the one she liked.

which we had warned her about

Step 3: Put new clause into independent clause.

(112c) The topic which we had warned her about was the one she liked.

Step 2: Move entire phrase to the beginning.

(113b) The topic was the one she liked about which we had warned her

Step 3: Put new clause into independent clause.

(113c) The topic about which we had warned her was the one she liked.

Relative Pronouns

| | People | Places, things, and ideas | Either |
|------------|--------------|---------------------------------|-------------|
| Subject | <i>who</i> | <i>which</i> | <i>that</i> |
| Object | <i>whom</i> | <i>which</i> | <i>that</i> |
| Possessive | <i>whose</i> | <i>of which</i> <i>whose</i> | ---- |

Relative pronouns refer to people or to places, things, and ideas. *That* can substitute for any noun; however, the subordinate clause must be restrictive (see Chapter 5, page 224).

Whom and which can substitute for any object in a sentence. *That* can substitute for any object also, but it must be the first word in the dependent clause.

(114) The topic that we had warned her about was the one she liked.

(115) X The topic about that we had warned her was the one she liked.

If the relative pronoun is not the very first word in the clause, *that* cannot be used; another pronoun must be used, for instance, example 116.

(116) The topic about which we had warned her was the one she liked.

Sometimes it is possible to omit the relative pronoun in the dependent clause (see Chapter 5, page 225).

Whose is the possessive form for people. For other nouns, *of which* and *whose* are used.

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(117) He bought a car the color of which I hated.

(118) He bought a car whose color I hated.

Some very formal grammar rules say that only *of which* can be used for places, things, and ideas. However, in written and spoken English, we find *whose* used very commonly in less formal sentences.

In addition to the relative pronouns which substitute for nouns or noun-equivalents in a clause, there are relatives that substitute for adverbs or adverb-equivalents.

| Meanings | Relative Pronouns |
|----------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Manner or Degree | <i>how</i> |
| 2. Place | <i>where</i> |
| 3. Purpose or Reason | <i>why</i> |
| 4. Time | <i>when</i> |

Note: *What* can be used at the beginning of a noun clause, as in example 119.

(119) What he told you is probably true.

But *what* is not a relative pronoun: it cannot connect an adjective clause to an independent clause. Therefore, example 120 is incorrect.

(120) X We can believe all what he tells us.

The adjective clause requires a relative pronoun.

(121) We can believe all that he tells us.

Two problems in adjective clauses

1. *Who* or *whom* in a subordinate clause

Who/whom has two jobs in a complex sentence. It is sometimes difficult to decide whether to use *who* or *whom* in a subordinate clause. One job is to connect the dependent or subordinate clause to the independent clause. The other job is to fill a position in the dependent clause. *Who* is the subject form; use it to indicate the subject (S) in the clause. *Whom* is the object form; use it when the position is to indicate someone or something that is not the subject. The entire wh- clause fills a position in the independent

clause, but that position is unimportant in the choice of *who* or *whom*.

(122) *who* is subject (S)

I did not know \overbrace{who}^S \overbrace{was}^V there.

(123) *whom* is direct object (DO)

I did not know \overbrace{whom}^{DO} he \overbrace{saw}^V .

In examples 122 and 123, the subordinate clauses are direct objects (DO) of the verb *know*. However, within the noun clauses, *who* is the subject (S) of the verb *was*, and *whom* is the direct object (DO) of the verb *saw*.

In examples 124, 125, and 126, there is the same clause pattern in the subordinate clause: S V Adv. Therefore, *who*—the subjective case form—is used.

(124) noun clause subject (S) of *is*

$\overbrace{Who\ was\ there}^S$ \overbrace{is}^V important information.

(125) noun clause object

He asked us $\overbrace{who\ was\ there}^{DO}$.

(126) adjective clause

We spoke to the assistant director $\overbrace{who\ was\ there}^{Adj.\ clause}$.

It is unimportant whether the subordinate clause is a subject, an object, or an adjective; we do not use *whom* in any of the three examples.

Note: When you are determining whether to use *who* or *whom*, it is important to separate the use of the entire dependent clause from the use of *who/whom* inside the dependent clause. However, this can take some time. If you are rushed and do not have the time to think about the grammar structure of the sentence, you should use *who*; it is the form most often used even though it is sometimes grammatically incorrect.

2. Repeated information

Adjective clauses are also called **relative clauses**; they are formed with relative pronouns, which substitute for a word or phrase in the subordinate clause. The relative pronouns are the same as the wh- information question words.

In the process of forming an adjective clause, a word or phrase is removed, and a relative pronoun is substituted. Examples 127, 128, and 129 show this removal by substitution (see Chapter 5, pages 217-218).

Step 1: Substitute for possessive form.

whose

(127) ~~Her~~ essay had won the first prize.

Step 1: Substitute for time.

when

(128) She learned the results in the dormitory ~~last night~~.

Step 1: Substitute for place.

where

(129) She learned the results ~~in the dormitory~~ last night.

After the substitution in Step 1, the clauses have the following forms:

(127a) *whose* essay had won the first prize

(128a) she learned the results in the dormitory *when*

(129a) she learned the results *where* last night

Example 130 shows a complex sentence with the adjective clause in example 129a: Steps 2 and 3 have been completed.

(130) Mary Ann went to the dormitory, *where* she learned the results last night.

Example 131 is incorrect, because *where* has been added, but *in the dormitory* has not been removed.

(131) X Mary Ann went to the dormitory, *where* she learned the results in the dormitory last night.

Similarly, example 132 is incorrect: *that* was added, but *him* was not removed.

(132) He is the man *that* I know him.

(133) He is the man *that* I know.

The mistake is clear if we apply the following test:

1. Use a *wh*-word for the relative.
2. Change the subordinate clause into a question.

Step 1: Use *whom* (= *that*).

(134a) × He is the man *whom* I know him.

Step 2: Make a question.

(134b) × *Whom* do I know him?

Example 134b shows clearly that there is a repetition in the clause, while 135b shows that there is no repetition.

Step 1: Use *whom* (= *that*).

(135a) He is the man *whom* I know.

Step 2: Make a question.

(135b) *Whom* do I know?

Exercise

Write **who** or **whom** in each blank.

- whom 1. Paul Johnson is the man _____ you must see.
- _____ 2. Can you tell me _____ he is?
- _____ 3. Yes, he's right over there. He is the tall man with _____ those two women are talking.
- _____ 4. Yes, he's right over there. He is the tall man _____ is showing those two women the map.
- _____ 5. While you're here, be careful about _____ you see and _____ talks to you.
- _____ 6. Is _____ I see and _____ talks to me any of your business?
- _____ 7. Yes, it is. You should not talk to every person _____ you meet.
- _____ 8. I will see _____ I wish to see.

Exercise

If the complex sentence is correct, write **OK**. If it is not correct, write **X** and correct it.

- X 1. It was my first visit to New York, where many of my mother's relatives have been living there.

- _____ 2. Do you know anyone whose car we can borrow?
- _____ 3. Do you know anyone who his car we can borrow?
- _____ 4. Baseball has specific rules that everyone should know them.

Restrictive and Non-Restrictive Adjective Clauses

When an adjective clause is put into a sentence, it has one of two purposes:

1. to identify the noun that it follows
2. to provide more information about the noun, but not to identify it

(136) Yesterday afternoon I spoke to my father, who lives in Florida.

The adjective clause in example 136 provides information about the noun that it describes, but it does not serve the purpose of identification, because a person has only one father. Similarly, example 137 has an adjective clause which does not identify; it provides additional information about the country.

(137) In our discussion of big countries, someone mentioned Canada, which has an area of about 3,852,000 square miles.

These adjective clauses do not identify, because the identification is clearly done by the words *my father* and *Canada*.

On the other hand, some adjective clauses have the purpose of identification.

(138) Yesterday afternoon I spoke to a friend who lives in Florida.

(139) In our discussion of big countries, someone mentioned a country which has 3,852,000 square miles.

In these examples, the adjective clauses identify the friend and the country. This purpose is verified if the adjective clause is removed from the sentence.

(140) Yesterday afternoon I spoke to a friend.

Because of the lack of identification, we might ask, "Which

one did you talk to?" But this question would not occur as a response to example 141.

(141) Yesterday afternoon I spoke to my father.

The adjective clauses that identify are called **restrictive clauses**; the adjective clauses that do not identify are called **non-restrictive clauses**. Non-restrictive clauses are indicated by commas (see Chapter 7, page 285) as in examples 136 and 137. Examples 138 and 139, which do not have commas, contain restrictive clauses.

Sometimes a non-restrictive clause appears after a noun that need not be identified or distinguished because its name does this. For example, we would not use a restrictive clause after *the countries in North America* or *Mr. and Mrs. Johnson*. Other times, a non-restrictive clause appears after a noun that has been identified in an earlier statement or is identified because of the topic of the conversation.

(142) in a discussion of the earth

The moon, which revolves around the earth, is responsible for our eclipses of the sun.

(143) in a discussion of the solar system

The moon which revolves around the earth is responsible for our eclipses of the sun. The moons which revolve around Mars are not responsible for these eclipses.

In certain sequences, it is possible to omit the relative pronoun:

1. when the adjective clause is restrictive
2. when the relative pronoun appears alone at the beginning of the adjective clause
3. when the relative pronoun substitutes for an object in the subordinate clause

For instance, examples 144 and 145 show the two possibilities.

(144) The topic that we had warned her about was the one she liked.

(145) The topic we had warned her about was the one she liked.

The sentences have the same meaning; the one with the relative pronoun is more formal than the one without it.

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Example 146 is incorrect because the adjective clause is non-restrictive; the comma shows this clearly.

(146) ✗ He bought a new car, he paid for in cash, from my brother Sal.

(147) He bought a new car, which he paid for in cash, from my brother Sal.

Example 148 is incorrect because the relative pronoun does not appear at the very beginning of the adjective clause.

(148) ✗ That is not the man to I gave the tickets.

(149) That is not the man to whom I gave the tickets.

Example 150 is incorrect because *who* does not substitute for an object; it substitutes for the subject of *earns*.

(150) ✗ He is a man earns a lot of money.

(151) He is a man who earns a lot of money.

Exercise

Put in commas where they are needed.

Our school newspaper had printed part of a speech by the President of the University who wants to develop our athletic program. Two students who were against this development wrote a letter to the editor of the newspaper. The editor who agreed with them was unsure what to do. He did not want to offend the man who headed the school. On the other hand, he felt an obligation to the students who attended the school. It took him a long time to resolve this conflict which had come about very quickly.

Exercise

Where possible, cross out relative pronouns.

1. Traveling is an experience ~~that~~ I can recommend to you.
2. On our vacation, we went to several countries where people speak English.
3. It is good to practice with people who speak English as their native language.
4. I was glad to meet people that I could talk to.
5. I spoke to people with whom I could use only English.

Complex Sentences: Cause and Effect

1. *so* and *such*

The emphasizees *so* and *such* frequently require a subordinate clause to complete their meaning. For instance,

example 152 is not clear.

(152) That particular assignment was so difficult.

The adjective *difficult* is emphasized, but *so* means that the reader will know the result of the difficulty. The meaning is completed in example 153.

(153) That particular assignment was so difficult that only three of us could finish it.

The meaning relationship between the clauses is cause-and-effect or result. The independent clause presents a condition that causes or allows the result which is presented in the dependent clause.

The emphasizer *so* points out the adjective (example 153) or adverb (example 154) that is central to the relationship.

(154) They spoke so quickly that we could understand only about half of what they said.

The emphasizer *such* points out the noun that is central to the relationship (example 155).

(155) He told us such lies that we would never be able to trust him again.

2. *so that* and *in order that*

These conjunctions join two clauses in the same way that the emphasizers *so* and *such* do. The independent clause presents a condition, and the dependent clause presents an effect or result of that condition.

(156) They spoke slower so that we could follow the conversation.

(157) We asked questions in order that they would remember that we were there.

Exercise

Complete the statements of cause-and-effect or result. Use **so . . . that**, **such . . . that**, or **so that**.

1. It was such a hard test that we did not have time to finish.
2. We arrived early _____ we could begin on time.
3. We wrote _____ much _____ we almost ran out of space in the test book.
4. We had been _____ tense _____ we had not eaten breakfast.

5. After the test, we went to a movie _____ we could relax.

REPORTED SPEECH AND SEQUENCE OF TENSES

Reporting Speech

When we tell what someone has said or written, we often use a complex sentence.

(158) In his letter, David says that he found a roommate to share his apartment.

In example 158, the verb *says* indicates that there is a report of someone's words; the direct object is a noun-equivalent, the noun clause *that he found a roommate to share his apartment*. David's exact written words (his **direct speech**) were "I found a roommate to share my apartment." (Quotation marks show that the words are the exact words that David used. See Chapter 7, page 289.)

In a complex sentence of reported speech, there are three important parts:

1. A **reporting verb** in the independent clause indicates that the sentence is a report of someone's words. Some common reporting verbs are: *admit, (dis)agree, announce, answer, complain, deny, explain, promise, report, say, teach, tell, and write*.
2. Pronouns may have to be changed when direct speech is changed into reported speech. For example, when David writes his letter, he uses *I* and *my*; however, the reporting has *he* and *his*. In addition, adverbs may require changing. For example, in his letter David may write *here* or *today*, but the reporting may require *there* or *yesterday*.
3. Verb tenses may have to be shifted when direct speech is changed into indirect speech. This shift is sometimes called **sequence of tenses**.

Sequence of Tenses

If the verb of the independent clause is in the present tense, there is no shift of the tense in the subordinate clause. On the other hand, if that verb is in the past tense, there is a shift of tense in the subordinate clause, as follows:

Direct speech

Indirect speech after a past tense verb in the independent clause

| | | |
|-----------------|---|--------------|
| Present tense | → | Past tense |
| Present Perfect | → | Past Perfect |
| Past tense | → | Past Perfect |

The following examples show the application of sequence of tenses in reporting speech from this conversation:

David: "I found a roommate to share my apartment."

Helene: "You are lucky. I have been looking for one since January."

Present tense verb in the independent clause

- (159) In his letter, David *says* that he found a roommate to share his apartment.
- (160) In her letter, Helene *writes* that David is lucky; she has been looking for one since January.

Past tense verb in the independent clause

- (161) David *told* Helene that he had found a roommate.
- (162) Helene *said* that he was lucky; she had been looking for one since January.

In order to produce the correct sequence of tenses, we distinguish present tense verbs from past tense verbs; no other distinctions are important. Therefore, we make the following classification of the common ways of expressing future time:

| | | |
|--------------|-------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Present | will (do) | be going to (do) |
| Past | would (do) | { was } { were } going to (do) |
| Past Perfect | would have (done) | had been going to (do) |

- (163) direct speech
Helene said, "I will continue my search."
- (164) reported speech: present tense *will* shifted to past tense *would*
Helene said that she would continue her search.

Other modal auxiliary verbs are like *will*; they have similar tense forms:

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| | | |
|-------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| can (do) | may (do) | shall (do) |
| could (do) | might (do) | should (do) |
| could have (done) | might have (done) | should have (done) |

(165) direct speech

Mary Lu said to Helene, "I think I can help you. I met a new student who was going to look for a place to live."

(166) reported speech:

present tense shifted to past tense

think ———> *thought*

present tense shifted to past tense

can ———> *could*

past tense shifted to past perfect

met ———> *had met*

past tense shifted to past perfect

was going to ———> *had been going to*

Mary Lu said that she thought she could help Helene. She had met a new student who had been going to look for a place to live.

Statements of Unchanging Situations

There is a potential problem with some statements that are put into dependent clauses with shifted verb tenses. These are statements about situations that do not change; for example, the statement that "the earth is round" is a statement of an eternal truth. If such a statement has a verb shifted to the past perfect or past, there may be an unintended change in meaning also.

The past tense verb form is used to describe situations that were true at some past moment, but that may not be true at the present time (see Chapter 3, page 94). Thus a sentence like example 167 sounds strange to many speakers of English.

(167) X Yesterday, the young boy found out that the earth *was* round.

Sometimes the present tense is used in the subordinate clause.

(168) Yesterday, the young boy found out that the earth *is* round.

Exercise

Combine the two clauses.

1. Last week Diane and I decided to get married. Yesterday I wrote to my parents that . . .
2. The Johnsons have a party almost every week. Paula does not realize that . . .
3. The Johnsons are having a party on Tuesday. She did not know that . . .
4. Mrs. Johnson offers a drink only once. I saw that . . .
5. Americans do not think it's impolite to accept a drink the first time it's offered. I found out that . . .

Exercise

Complete the statements. Use information from this conversation.

Phyllis: I like your jacket.

Raymond: Thank you. It's new. I got it last week.

Phyllis: May I ask where you got it? I have been looking for a nice birthday gift for my brother.

1. When Phyllis says that she likes her jacket she is offering a typical American compliment.
2. Raymond answered that _____ and that _____.
3. Raymond's answer that _____ and that _____ is also typical.
4. Phyllis wanted to know where Raymond had bought the jacket because _____.

01 Reported Imperatives**Form**

Verbs such as *advise*, *ask* (= *request*), *demand*, *direct*, *forbid*, *insist*, *move* (= to make a formal motion in a meeting), *prefer*, *propose*, *recommend*, *request*, *require*, *suggest*, and *urge* are used when reporting imperatives.

(169) Rachel *insisted* that we finish the work before next month.

It is also possible to report imperatives by using words such as *necessary*, *important*, or *a good idea*.

(170) It is *important* that we do it.

(171) It is *a good idea* that he not be late.

Many imperatives have no expressed subject; they have **you-understood** (see Chapter 1, page 34). Other imperatives have an expressed subject.

(172) Be on time for the meeting.

(173) Alice, bring potato chips and dip.

When an imperative is put into subordinate clauses, it is necessary that the subject be expressed.

(174) He insists that *you* be on time for the meeting.

(175) They suggested that *Alice* bring potato chips and dip.

The verb form in a reported imperative is the simple form (sometimes called the **base form** or the **infinitive without to**) (See Chapter 1, page 32). For instance, the verbs in examples 172 and 173 are *be* and *bring*. When imperatives are reported, the same verb forms are used. The negative of the verb in a subordinate imperative is formed with *not*.

(176) It is important that sick people *not* go out in bad weather.

Meaning

The resulting complex sentence is a report; that is, it tells about a situation involving an imperative. However, when the verb in the main clause is in the present tense, the sentence may be an imperative. For instance, example 177 may be an imperative, and example 178 is a command.

(177) It is advisable that she remain in the hospital for another two or three days.

(178) I insist that you tell them the results of the experiments.

Consider the following two sentences, both of which are correct.

(179) It is important that Alice is here.

(180) It is important that Alice be here.

Example 179 is not an imperative; it is a report of information, as in example 181.

(181) Alice is here. That is important information for us to know because it affects our plans.

Example 180 is an imperative; it can be restated as in example 182.

- (182) Tell Alice that she must be here.
We need her in order to finish this job.

Note: Imperatives may be reported in question sentences, too.

- (183) Is it a good idea that they ask so many questions?

Exercise

Complete the statements.

1. We watched the game because Bill insisted that we watch it.
2. She will review the English verb tenses because it is necessary that _____.
3. We adjourned the meeting after Paul moved that _____.
4. They arrived late even though Professor Smith requested that _____.
5. If you think that we should postpone the discussion, propose that _____.
6. Yesterday the test _____ because the printed instructions said that it was important that the test be started at 9:00 a.m.
7. He was more polite because his parents insisted that _____.

D2 Reported Exclamations

Form

When an exclamation is reported, there is no change of word order. The only part of the clause to look at carefully is the verb: the verb tense may change. This is another example of the sequence of tenses (see Chapter 5, page 228).

(184a) actual words used: direct speech or writing in present tense

How sweet American food *is*!

(184b) present tense verb in the independent clause

He usually *notices* how sweet American food *is*.

(184c) past tense verb in the independent clause

Yesterday he *noticed* how sweet American food *was*.

(185a) actual words used: direct speech or writing in past tense

What an interesting meal that *was*!

(185b) present tense verb in the independent clause

When he thinks of his visit, he *remembers* what an interesting meal that *was*.

(185c) past tense verb in the independent clause

When he thought of his visit, he *remembered* what an interesting meal that *had been*.

Meaning

The resulting sentence is a report; that is, it is not an exclamation itself. It is a report of someone's exclamation; therefore, the end punctuation is a period, not an exclamation point.

Note: Exclamations may be reported in question sentences, too.

(186) Did he notice how sweet American food is?

Exercise

Complete the statements. Use the exclamations from this conversation.

Yvonne: What a good idea it was to study in the United States! We can practice our English every day.

Edward: Yes, I agree. How interesting it is to be able to think in another language!

1. Yvonne has realized what a good idea it was to study in the United States.
2. She wrote a letter to her parents and told them _____.
3. Edward is telling Yvonne _____.
4. He wrote to his brother, telling him _____.

E SENTENCE FRAGMENTS

When we consider independent and dependent clauses in sentences, we have four possibilities. In addition, there is a common sentence error: a **sentence fragment**. A sentence fragment is a dependent clause used as a sentence.

One Clause

A simple sentence has one clause; the clause is independent (see Chapter 1, page 3).

(187) A university is a group of colleges.

Sometimes a dependent clause is written like a sentence. This is a mistake: each correctly written sentence must have at least one independent clause.

(188) ✗ Because a dependent clause is not a sentence.

More Than One Clause

There are three types of sentences with more than one clause. A compound sentence has two or more independent clauses, but no dependent clauses (see Chapter 5, page 189).

(189) A university is a group of colleges; with several colleges, a university is large.

A complex sentence has one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. (Example 190 has one independent clause and two dependent clauses (the dependent clauses are in italics).

(190) *Although she was tired*, she walked up to the third floor *because she wanted the exercise*.

A compound-complex sentence has (1) two or more independent clauses and (2) one or more dependent clauses.

(191) She was tired, but she walked up to the third floor because she wanted the exercise.

Exercise

Identify the sentences.

- a. Compound sentence
- b. Complex sentence
- c. Compound-complex sentence
- d. Simple sentence
- ✗ Sentence fragment

- d 1. The idea of being on time varies from culture to culture.
- _____ 2. In the United States, a student is late if he arrives after the scheduled beginning of a class.
- _____ 3. Because we consider that a 9:00 class begins exactly at 9:00, a 9:10 arrival is late.

- _____ 4. If a student arrives within five or ten minutes before the appointed time.
- _____ 5. Anyone who has an appointment should arrive at least five or ten minutes before the appointed time.
- _____ 6. Although the person may not see you at the appointed time.
- _____ 7. People usually arrive at the appointed time for a lunch or dinner, but they arrive thirty minutes to one hour after the announced time for a party.
- _____ 8. Arriving one hour after a party begins is all right; on the other hand, arriving two hours after is considered impolite.

F **OTHER TYPES OF COMBINED SENTENCES**

F1 **Apposition**

Apposition is a way of combining ideas in order to identify or describe. (See Chapter 7, page 285.)

(192) We discussed the problem with Andrew Sanders, a lawyer.

Example 192 provides additional information about Andrew Sanders. This information does not appear as part of the same clause as the first seven words of the sentence. Apposition is like renaming: the person, place, thing, or idea is (1) named and (2) identified or described.

The naming and/or the identifying can be single words, phrases, or clauses. For instance, the appositive in example 193 is a clause, the information after *his suggestion*.

(193) We rejected his suggestion that we stop working at 5:00.

Appositives are either **restrictive appositives** or **non-restrictive appositives**. Non-restrictive appositives appear with commas, as do non-restrictive adjective clauses (see Chapter 5, page 224).

Exercise

Underline the appositives and put in commas where they are needed.

1. Dr. Thomas, our chemistry professor, announced a test for next Tuesday.

2. My cousin Bill had arrived, but my cousin Alice had not.
3. They carefully considered her proposal a dramatically new way to reroute traffic.
4. The most popular holiday in the U.S. in December is Christmas Day December 25.
5. New York the largest city in the United States is on the East Coast.

F2 Participles

Usually the *-ing* forms of verbs are used with the auxiliary verb *be* (see Chapter 3, page 98). However, *V-ing* can be used to combine ideas. It can be used as an adverb-equivalent (see Chapter 4, page 163), an adjective-equivalent (see Chapter 4, page 156) or a noun-equivalent (see Chapter 2, page 57).

When *-ing* verb forms are used without *be*, they do not indicate present or past tense (see Chapter 3, pages 91 and 94) or simple or progressive activity (see Chapter 3, pages 91 and 101). The only verb meaning is indicated by perfect (*having* + past participle) and non-perfect forms.

(194) Having done her homework, Beverly watched television.

(195) Doing her homework, Beverly watched television.

The perfect form indicates that one situation or action has taken place before another; in example 194, Beverly did her homework before she watched television. The non-perfect form indicates that the situation or action is taking place at the same time as another; in example 195, Beverly did her homework and watched television at the same time.

Because it is a verb form, a *V-ing* can appear in phrases with adjectives, adverbs, and nouns. For instance, in example 196, *buying* has a direct object (DO): *the coat*.

(196) The young man buying the coat is my brother-in-law.

In example 197, *studying* has an adverb: *hard*.

(197) Studying hard is not one of Paul's favorite activities.

The negative of *V-ing* is made with *not*.

(198) Not having done her homework, she decided to miss class.

Present Participles as Adverb-Equivalents

A present participle can function as an adverb-equivalent. For instance, example 199 has a participle.

(199) Feeling very hungry, he also bought some hamburgers.

The participle phrase *feeling very hungry* provides the information why. We can think of this construction as a shortened form of an adverbial clause.

(200) Because he was feeling very hungry, he also bought some hamburgers.

An introductory adverb present participle phrase is separated from the rest of the sentence in which it appears by a comma.

(201) X Feeling very hungry he also bought some hamburgers.

Exercise

Make the first sentence into a present participle phrase. Join it to the second sentence to show an adverb meaning. Use a comma.

1. She does not know the correct formula.
She hopes that the professor will call on someone else.
Not knowing the correct formula, she hopes that the professor will call on someone else
2. He converted inches into centimeters earlier.
Then he could finish the problem.
3. Annette wanted to try many different foods.
Annette ordered corn-on-the-cob.
4. Ivan was unaware that there are several ways to have corn.
Ivan did not order corn-on-the-cob.
5. Ivan decided to leave corn for the cows.
Ivan ordered spinach.

Present Participles as Adjective-Equivalents

A present participle can function as an adjective-equivalent. For instance, example 202 has a participle phrase: *buying the coat* describes *man*.

(202) The young man *buying the coat* is my brother-in-law.

We can think of this construction as a shortened form of an adjective clause.

(203) The young man *who is buying the coat* is my brother-in-law.

As an adjective-equivalent, a present participle appears after the noun that it describes.

Exercise

Combine each pair of sentences. Make the first sentence into a participle phrase. Add the participle phrase to the second sentence to function as an adjective-equivalent.

1. The man is ordering a hot dog with sauerkraut and chili.
Look at that man.
Look at that man ordering a hot dog with sauerkraut and chili
2. Americans eat fried chicken with their hands.
Have you ever seen Americans?
3. The students are not studying English.
Do you know many students?
4. The party begins after 6:00 p.m.
A party is considered a cocktail party.
5. The tourists are standing near the Statue of Liberty.
You can see some tourists.

Present Participles as Noun-Equivalents

The *-ing* verb form that functions as a noun-equivalent is called a **gerund**. For instance, example 204 has a gerund as the subject (S) of the verb *is*.

(204) *Studying* is not one of Paul's favorite activities.

The subject of a gerund is expressed as a possessive form (see Chapter 2, page 72).

(205) Paul's studying hard surprised everyone.

(206) His studying hard surprised everyone.

Exercise

Combine each pair of sentences. Make the first sentence into a gerund phrase. Replace the underlined subject in the second sentence with the gerund phrase.

1. I opened a checking account.
That took about an hour.
Opening a checking account took about an hour
2. People travel to foreign countries.
It can be fun and educational.
3. Americans call the ground floor the first floor.
Some people are confused by that.
4. Anne arrived an hour late.
They considered it very impolite.
5. She had not telephoned us.
We were surprised about it.

Past Participles as Adjective-Equivalents

Usually the past participle forms of verbs are used with auxiliary verbs (*have, be, or get*). However, they can be used to combine ideas. They can be used as adverb-equivalents or as adjective-equivalents.

Because they are verbs, past participles can appear in phrases with adjectives, adverbs, and nouns. For instance, in example 207, *baked* has an adverbial prepositional phrase: *at home*.

(207) Bread baked at home is usually delicious.

The negative of a past participle or past participle phrase is made with *not*.

(208) Bread not baked at home may be old and stale.

As stated above, a past participle can function as an adjective-equivalent. For instance, example 209 has a past participle phrase: *made in bakeries* describes *bread*.

(209) Some bread made in bakeries is very sweet.

We can think of this construction as a shortened form of an adjective clause; we remove the subject and the verb form of *be*.

(210) Some bread that is made in bakeries is very sweet.

As an adjective-equivalent, a past participle appears after the noun that it describes.

Exercise

Combine each pair of sentences. Change the first sentence into a past participle phrase. Join it to the second sentence to function as an adjective-equivalent.

1. A man was seen near the house. The man left very quickly. *The man seen near the house left very quickly.*
2. The police were surprised at the lack of clues. The police could not investigate the crime easily.
3. A man was found dead in the living room. The man was quite old.
4. A man was left for dead upstairs. The man was somewhat younger than the other one.
5. Some silver was stolen that afternoon. The silver was found in a pawnshop.

F3 Infinitives

Often infinitives occur after other verb forms (see Chapter 3, page 112). However, infinitives—with and without the infinitive marker *to*—are used to combine ideas. They can be used as adverb-equivalents (see Chapter 4, page 163), adjective-equivalents (see Chapter 4, page 156), and noun-equivalents (see Chapter 2, page 57).

Infinitives do not indicate present or past tense (see Chapter 3, pages 91 and 94). They do indicate the meanings of perfect (*to have* + past participle) and non-perfect and the meanings of simple and progressive (*to be* and *V-ing*).

(211) Yesterday John told Elizabeth that she was lucky to have bought the jacket for only \$100.

(212) Yesterday John told Alice that she was lucky to buy the jacket for only \$150.

The perfect form indicates that one situation or action has taken place before another; in example 211, Elizabeth had bought the jacket before John spoke to her. The non-perfect form indicates that the situation or action takes place at the same time as another; in example 212, Alice bought the jacket yesterday, the day when John spoke to her.

(213) It was a good idea to be studying when the professor walked in.

- (214) It was a good idea to stand up when the professor walked in.

The progressive form indicates that the activity is in progress. In example 213, the studying had begun before the moment of the professor's arrival; it was going on at that moment. The simple form does not indicate an activity in progress. In example 214, the standing up began at the time of the professor's arrival.

Because an infinitive is a verb, it can appear in phrases with adjectives, adverbs, and nouns. For instance, the clause in example 215 has an infinitive with a noun direct object (DO) and an adverb prepositional phrase.

- V: Inf.
DO
Prep. phrase: Adv.
- (215) to buy the jacket for only \$150

The subject of an infinitive is in the object form (see Chapter 3, page 113). At the beginning of a sentence, the subject has *for* in front of it.

- (216) He asked her to buy the jacket.
 (217) For her to buy the jacket, she had to save for six months.

The negative of an infinitive is made with *not* before the infinitive marker *to*.

- (218) I decided not to buy the jacket.

Whenever possible, it is a good idea not to separate the *to* from the simple verb form. When they are separated, the result is called a **split infinitive**.

- (219) X I decided to not buy the jacket.

Infinitives as Adverb-Equivalents

An infinitive can function as an adverb-equivalent. For instance, example 220 has an infinitive phrase: *to convert kilos into pounds*. The infinitive phrase tells why or how.

- (220) To convert kilos into pounds, we multiply by 2.2.

We can make the meaning clearer by adding words.

- (221) In order to convert kilos into pounds, we multiply by 2.2.

An introductory adverb infinitive or infinitive phrase is separated from the rest of the sentence with a comma.

- (222) To convert kilos into pounds we multiply by 2.2.

As an adverb-equivalent, an infinitive can modify an adjective or other adverb. Example 223 has an infinitive phrase: *to buy the coat* gives the reason for her happiness.

- (223) She was happy to buy the coat.

When it is a modifier, an infinitive comes after the adjective or adverb that it modifies.

The emphaser *too* often requires the addition of information after the adjective or adverb that it emphasizes. For instance, example 224 is not clear.

- (224) × That particular assignment was too difficult.

The adjective *difficult* is an emphaser, but *too* means that there is a result from the difficulty. The meaning is completed in examples 225 and 226.

- (225) That particular assignment was *too* difficult for me to do myself.
(226) That particular assignment was *too* difficult to do.

The meaning relationship is cause-and-effect or result. The independent clause represents a condition that prevents the effect or result which is presented in the infinitive. The emphaser *too* points out the adjective (examples 225 and 226) or adverb (example 227) that is central to the relationship.

- (227) They spoke *too* quickly for us to understand them.

The meaning relationship can be restated, as in example 228.

- (228) They spoke quickly. Because of that, we could not understand them.

Similarly, the emphaser *enough* often requires additional information to make an idea clear.

- (229) × Her car is big *enough*.
(230) Her car is big *enough* for six people to ride in.

The meaning relationship is also cause-and-effect or result. The independent clause presents a condition that allows or causes the result which is presented in the infinitive. The emphaser *enough* points out the adjective (example 230), adverb (example 231), or noun (example 232) that is central to the relationship.

(231) You speak clearly *enough* for us to understand.

(232) He has *enough* money to buy a new car.

The meaning relationship can be restated, as in example 233.

(233) He has money. Because of that, he can buy a new car.

Exercise

Change the adverb clause into an infinitive phrase.

1. If we learn a foreign language, we learn a foreign culture.

To learn a foreign language, we learn a foreign culture.

2. If you study English, you must read about English-speaking countries.

3. If you buy something very expensive, pay with a check.

4. If you carry a lot of cash, you must be asking for trouble.

5. If you are considerate of people in the new culture, you must always be on time.

Exercise

Combine the sentences. Use **too** or **enough** and an infinitive.

1. This silk shirt is expensive. We can't buy it.

This silk shirt is too expensive for us to buy.

2. This cotton shirt is large. You could wear it.

3. When he goes shopping, Alan is impatient. He will not try on several garments.

4. When I go shopping, I am slow. I don't buy everything that I need.

5. I have patience. I can try on many garments.

Infinitives as Adjective-Equivalents

When an infinitive is used as an adjective-equivalent, it appears after the noun that it describes.

(234) These are the courses for you to take this semester.

The infinitive phrase *for you to take this semester* tells which courses.

Note: We might expect to have a direct object (DO) pronoun after some infinitives.

- (235) * These are the courses for you to take them this semester.

However, there is no DO after it; *the courses* is the direct object of the verb *to take*.

Infinitives as Noun-Equivalents

An infinitive or infinitive phrase can function as a noun-equivalent in a clause pattern.

- (236) To learn grammar rules is not difficult.

- (237) Our friends wanted us to bring some potato chips.

Example 236 has an infinitive phrase as the subject (S) of the verb *is*. Example 237 has an infinitive as the direct object (DO) of the verb *wanted*. The pronoun *us* is used to make clear who would bring the potato chips.

Exercise

Change the first sentence into an infinitive. Use the infinitive as a noun-equivalent in the second sentence. Add a pronoun where necessary.

- One should know a little about money changing.
It is a good idea *to know a little about money changing* when traveling abroad.
- She should try new foods. Do not force _____.
- She should try new foods. _____ would require a major change in her personality.
- Let's play cards tonight. He invited _____.
- I finish this exercise quickly. I hope _____.

F4 Dangling Modifiers

Often phrases with *-ing* or *-ed* participles, infinitives, and absolutes do not contain all the information that would be found in a complete clause pattern. Examples 238, 239, and 240 do not indicate who or what is doing the action, that is, the subject (S) of the verb.

- (238) studying for the English test

- (239) hit by a truck

- (240) to make a good impression

When these phrases are combined with independent clauses, we do not lack any information; the modifier appears next to the word, phrase, or clause that it describes.

For instance, example 241 is clear. We know who is studying, because the participle phrase appears next to *Marie*.

(241) Studying for the English test, Marie decided to go to the library.

On the other hand, example 242 is logically impossible.

(242) × Studying for the English test, the library was a good place for Mary to go.

This sentence says that the library was studying; the participle phrase appears next to the thing that it describes—*the library*.

Examples 243 and 244 are correct and logical, but they show different information.

(243) Hit by a car, Alexander's bicycle could not be used.

(244) Hit by a car, Alexander could not use his bicycle.

Example 243 says that a car hit the bicycle and damaged it. Example 244 says that a car hit Alexander and injured him so that he could not ride. Example 245 is not logically possible.

(245) × To make a good impression, a coat and tie should be worn.

Who or what is making a good impression? A coat and a tie?

Exercise

If the sentence is logical, write **OK**. If the sentence is not logical, write **X** and circle the noun that should appear side-by-side with the modifier.

1. To learn a foreign language, a sense of humor is needed by (every student).
- _____ 2. Living in another country, unusual customs may surprise you.
- _____ 3. Understanding cultural differences, you will be ready for strange events.
- _____ 4. Ready for these surprises, a person can adjust more easily to the new culture.
- _____ 5. Observed carefully, a person can deal with cultural differences in a reasonable way.

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6 **Rearrangement of Sentence Patterns**

INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals only with statements. It presents the ways that sentence patterns can be changed in order to give additional information or emphasize different parts of the sentence.

A NEGATION IN THE VERB

One of the most common rearrangements of the parts of a sentence is **negation**.

- (1) They arrived at the start of the game.
- (2) They *did not arrive* at the start of the game.
- (3) The room was empty.
- (4) The room *was not* empty.

In examples 2 and 4, the verb is negated; the subject stays the same.

AI Form of Negation in the Verb

The verb is usually negated with the word *not*. If the verb has two or more words, insert the word *not* after the first word of the verb.

- (5) affirmative statement

V (2 words)

first word

They *have* finished the exam.

- (6) negative statement: ADD *not*
 They have *not* finished the exam.
 (7) affirmative statement

V (4 words)

first word

He *should* have been finishing then.

- (8) negative statement: ADD *not*
 He should *not* have been finishing then.

If the verb has one word and if it is a form of *be*, insert the word *not* after the verb.

- (9) affirmative statement

v

be

She *is* in Chicago today.

- (10) negative statement: ADD *not*
 She is *not* in Chicago today.

If the verb has one word and that word is not a form of *be*, it is necessary to change the verb and add *did*, *does*, or *do* before inserting *not*.

- a. If the verb is in the past tense, add *did* and change the verb to the simple form (also called the **base form** or the **infinitive**).

affirmative statement

v

- (11) They *went* to school in Boston.

Step 1: ADD *did* and CHANGE *went* to *go*.

(11a) They *did go* to school in Boston.

Step 2: negative statement: ADD *not*

(11b) They *did not go* to school in Boston.

- b. If the subject is *he*, *she*, *it*, or an equivalent, add *does* and change the verb to the simple form.

affirmative statement

v

(12) She likes the cold winters.

Step 1: ADD *does* and CHANGE *likes* to *like*.

(12a) She *does like* the cold winters.

Step 2: negative statement: ADD *not*

(12b) She *does not* like the cold winters.

c. In all other cases, ADD *do*, but DO NOT CHANGE the form of the verb.

affirmative statement

v

(13) They prefer a smaller city.

Step 1: ADD *do*, but DO NOT CHANGE *prefer*.

(13a) They *do prefer* a smaller city.

Step 2: negative statement: ADD *not*

(13b) They *do not* prefer a smaller city.

Note: In British English it is common to negate the verb *have* the same way as *be*. Therefore, the sentence *I didn't have enough money for a new car* would be expressed as *I had not enough money for a new car*.

Full Forms and Contractions

When we negate a verb it is possible to use the **full form** of the word *not*, or the short form *n't* called the **contraction**. A contraction is a shortened form of the verb plus the word *not*.

(14) full form: have not finished
contraction: haven't finished

(15) full form: is not
contraction: isn't

(16) full form: does not like
contraction: doesn't like

Note: One contraction cannot be attached to another contraction.

(17) full form of *not* with full form of *is*
She *is not* in Chicago.

- (18) contraction of *not* with full form of *is*
She *isn't* in Chicago today.
- (19) contraction of *not* with contraction of *is*
✗ She *'sn't* in Chicago today.

In example 19, the contraction of *not* cannot be used, because the verb is already a contraction. The correct forms are shown in examples 18 and 20.

- (20) full form *not* with contraction *'s*
She's *not* in Chicago today.

Contractions occur very often in spoken English. They also occur in informal written English. Because they are so frequent, the learner of English as a second language should learn to understand and use them. However, it is important to remember that in formal written English, contractions are generally not appropriate. If the learner cannot decide whether to use contractions or full forms, he should use the full forms.

B **NEGATIVE ADVERBIALS OF FREQUENCY**

The most common method of negation is to add the word *not* to the sentence. However, there is another common method: to add a **negative adverbial of frequency**. Adverbials of frequency tell how often. Some of these adverbials are *never*, *seldom*, and *rarely* (see Chapter 4, page 168).

- (21) affirmative statement
They went to movies during the week.
- (22) negative statement: add *never*
They *never* went to movies during the week.
- (23) negative statement: add *seldom*
They *seldom* went to movies during the week.

When these adverbials of frequency occur in a sentence, the meaning of the sentence is negative. Structurally, however, a statement with *never* is like a statement with *always*; therefore, no adjustment is required when the negative meaning is added this way.

- (24) He never arrives on time.
- (25) He always arrives on time.

Exercise

Change the affirmative sentences to negative sentences, inserting *not*. Use full forms in sentences 1-5 and, if possible, contractions in sentences 6-10.

1. Marcia buys her clothes in small shops.
Marcia does not buy her clothes in small shops.
2. Many people are like her.
3. They might prefer the convenience of a shopping mall.
4. We like the large size of a department store.
5. Better service is provided in small shops.
6. Some shoppers have tried both big and small stores.
7. You have plenty of time to shop for shoes.
8. It's difficult to choose between two nice pairs.
9. I should be a sensible consumer.
10. Paul Rutledge is buying the first pair of jeans he sees.

Exercise

Change these affirmative sentences to the negative, adding *never*.

1. Alice shops at sales.
Alice never shops at sales.
2. She has saved a lot of money.
3. Good quality merchandise is cheap.
4. You can get something for free.
5. Last year, we had luck at sales on kitchen appliances.

Exercise

Change these sentences from the negative to the affirmative.

1. My wife and I do not like to gamble.
My wife and I like to gamble.
2. We have never bet on horse races.
3. She wouldn't think of playing bingo.
4. And I can not play cards very well.
5. Last Thanksgiving, we did not go to Las Vegas.
6. As a matter of fact, we rarely go away for a winter vacation.
7. We didn't have good luck.
8. She never had good luck.
9. She did not beat the one-arm bandits.
10. In addition, I did not win at cards all weekend long.

Negation at the Beginning of a Sentence

The speaker or writer can start a sentence with a negative word or phrase if he wants to emphasize the negation in the sentence. This rearrangement involves two parts of the sentence: the negation and the verb. The negative part of the sentence is moved from its usual place and put at the beginning. Then the verb is changed to the question word order (see Chapter 1, page 14).

(26) usual arrangement

S V

He was not on time once.

(27) negation rearrangement

Not once was he on time.

(28) usual arrangement

S V

We rarely go to movies during the week.

(29) negation rearrangement

Rarely do we go to movies during the week.

(30) usual arrangement

S V DO

He could solve only two problems correctly.

(31) negation rearrangement

Only two problems could he solve correctly.

The negation rearrangement is also used in a clause introduced with *neither* or *nor*.

(32) We have not done such a thing, *nor would* we consider it.

However, this rearrangement is not used when the negation is in the subject.

(33) Not one person knew the answer to the question.

Exercise

Rearrange each sentence so that the negative word appears at the beginning.

1. She never even thinks of doing such things.

Never does she even think of doing such things.

2. Many Americans rarely eat spicy food.
3. They can be fooled only once in a while.
4. I rarely ate any.

USE OF THE NEGATION REARRANGEMENT

This rearrangement of the usual order of parts of a sentence is used to emphasize the negation. As with exclamations (see Chapter 1, page 38) it is not used often since having too many of these sentences together decreases their strength. Because the feeling of a negation rearrangement is similar to the feeling of exclamatory sentences, examples 34 and 35 could be written with exclamation points at their ends.

(34) Not once was he on time!

(35) Only two problems could he solve correctly!

Exercise

Respond to these sentences very emphatically in the negative, using the instructions given.

1. Is it true that you saw some of the questions before the test day?

Not one question did I see.

Response about yourself: change *some* to *not one*.

2. Does your roommate usually do his share of the cleaning in the apartment?

Response about your roommate: begin with a negative adverbial.

3. They never discussed their work in my class. What about in your class?

Response about them: move the negative.

4. I would say that all of the participants were happy about the results.

Response about the participants: change *I* to *Only Mario and Sheila*.

D INDEFINITES

In Chapter 6, page 249, we looked at negation of the verb. We saw that it is usually done with the word *not* or a contraction. We also saw negation using a negative adverbial of frequency.

Negation in a sentence can also occur in the subject (S), the indirect object (IO), the direct object (DO), or an adverbial (adv.)

Chapter 6

(36) $\overbrace{\text{Not one person}}^{\text{S}}$ $\overbrace{\text{finished}}^{\text{V}}$ $\overbrace{\text{the test.}}^{\text{DO}}$

(37) $\overbrace{\text{The teacher}}^{\text{S}}$ $\overbrace{\text{gave}}^{\text{V}}$ $\overbrace{\text{no one}}^{\text{IO}}$ $\overbrace{\text{a passing grade.}}^{\text{DO}}$

(38) $\overbrace{\text{They}}^{\text{S}}$ $\overbrace{\text{have noticed}}^{\text{V}}$ $\overbrace{\text{nothing}}^{\text{DO}}$ in the food.

(39) $\overbrace{\text{He}}^{\text{S}}$ $\overbrace{\text{could find}}^{\text{V}}$ $\overbrace{\text{an honest man}}^{\text{DO}}$ $\overbrace{\text{in no country.}}^{\text{Adv.}}$

Typically, the negative nouns or noun-equivalents and adverbials have the word *not* or *no*.

There are also common negative pronouns and adverbials. They are called **indefinites** because they do not refer to specific people, objects, or places. Each indefinite has three forms: a negative, an affirmative, and a non-assertive.

| Affirmative | Non-assertive | Negative |
|-------------|---------------|----------------|
| some | any | no |
| someone | anyone | no one none |
| somebody | anybody | nobody |
| something | anything | nothing |
| somewhere | anywhere | nowhere |
| someplace | anyplace | no place |
| sometime | anytime | no time |
| some more | anymore | no more |

An indefinite alone can indicate the negation in a sentence; examples 37 and 38 show the negative forms *no one* and *nothing*. Examples 40 and 41 show the corresponding affirmative sentences.

(40) The teacher gave *someone* a passing grade.

(41) They have noticed *something* in the food.

The non-assertive forms are used when there is a negative before the indefinite in the sentence.

(42) The teacher did *not* give *anyone* a passing grade.

(43) They have *not* noticed *anything* in the food.

Note: Remember that the non-assertive forms—with *any*—are used only when there is a negation earlier in the sentence. Notice the answers to the following question:

- (44) What did you see in the garden?
 I did not see anything.
 I saw nothing.
 Nothing.

It is not possible to give the one-word answer “Anything” because there is no negative in that short answer.

- (45) affirmative sentence

V
IO
DO
S
V
IO
DO
 Ask me a question, and I will tell you a lie.

- (46) negative sentence

Ask me *no* question, and I will tell you *no* lie.

Note: Grammatically correct sentences have only one negative word in each clause.

- (47) X The teacher did *not* give *no one* a passing grade.
 (48) X The teacher did *not* give *no one no* passing grade.

Exercise

If the sentence is correct, write **OK**. If it is incorrect, write **X** and correct it.

- OK 1. Paul gave not one cent to charity last year.
 _____ 2. He didn't give nothing?
 _____ 3. When I was younger, my family never went nowhere on vacation.
 _____ 4. Anyone did not answer the question.
 _____ 5. (It was a school holiday. Who did you see in the classroom?)
 Anybody.

E **SUBJECT-VERB INVERSION**

The subject and verb of a sentence may be inverted to show a connection with a preceding statement and/or to focus the reader's or hearer's attention on the information in the subject.

There is a special case of rearrangement when (1) the verb indicates a position or motion and (2) the tense is the sim-

ple present or the simple past. Under these two conditions, there is an inversion of the subject and the verb.

(49) basic arrangement

$\underbrace{\quad S \quad}_{} \quad \underbrace{V \quad}_{\text{Adv.}}$
 The bus is here.

(50) inversion rearrangement

$\underbrace{\text{Adv.} \quad}_{\text{V}} \quad \underbrace{S \quad}_{} \quad$
 Here is the bus.

Many times when we invert the subject and the verb the resulting sentence sounds literary or poetic, as in example 52. Therefore you should be careful when you use this type of rearrangement.

(51) basic arrangement

$\underbrace{\quad S \quad}_{\text{The most beautiful car I had ever seen}}$
 $\underbrace{V}_{\text{came}} \quad \underbrace{\text{Adv.}}_{\text{down the road}}$

(52) inversion rearrangement

$\underbrace{\text{Adv.}}_{\text{Down the road}} \quad \underbrace{V}_{\text{came}}$
 $\underbrace{\quad S \quad}_{\text{the most beautiful car I had ever seen}}$

This rearrangement does not involve question word order (Chapter 1, page 16) or the use of an expletive *there* (Chapter 6, page 266) or *it* (Chapter 6, page 269). There is a simple switching of positions of the subject and the verb.

In example 53, there is no rearrangement of subject and verb.

$\underbrace{S}_{\text{There}} \quad \underbrace{V}_{\text{it is}}$
 (53) There it is.

One of the results of this inversion (examples 50 and 52) is to focus attention on the important, new information in the subject (S). However, in example 53, the pronoun *it* does

not indicate anything important or new. Therefore, example 54 is not correct English.

(54) ~~There is it.~~

Exercise

Rearrange these sentences, if appropriate and possible. Put the adverbial or subject complement at the beginning of the sentence.

1. A tall stone gate stood at the end of the driveway.
at the end of the driveway stood a tall stone gate.
2. The somewhat smaller house was to its left.
3. The limousine turned into the driveway.
4. It came to the front steps.
5. Two impressive dogs came out of the car.
6. Their owner stopped near the tall rose bushes.
7. The driver walked into the house.

PASSIVE VOICE

Form of the Passive Voice Rearrangement

Another rearrangement of the parts of a sentence is called **passive voice**. In passive voice, a direct object (DO) or indirect object (IO) moves into the subject position, and the subject (S) moves out—either to the end of the sentence or it is eliminated entirely. (Verbs that occur in sentences with objects are called **transitive verbs**. See Chapter 1, page 5.)

Examples 55, 56, and 57 show the basic arrangement (called **active voice** because the subject specifies the doer of the action) and various passive voice rearrangements.

(55) active voice arrangement

| | | |
|--------|-----|-------|
| S | V | DO |
| Elaine | saw | Alex. |

(56) passive voice rearrangement: DO in subject position

Alex was seen by Elaine.

(57) active voice arrangement

Chapter 6

- S V IO DO
- Elaine gave Paul a new shirt.
- (58) passive voice rearrangement: IO in subject position
Paul was given a new shirt by Elaine.
- (59) passive voice rearrangement: DO in subject position
A new shirt was given to Paul by Elaine.
- (60) active voice arrangement

- S V DO OC
- The people elected Truman President in 1948.
- (61) passive voice rearrangement: DO in subject position
Truman was elected President by the people in 1948.

Note: The verb *have* can appear in the active voice, but it can not appear in the passive voice rearrangement when it means *to possess*.

- (62) active voice arrangement

S V DO

Bill had a book.

Subject and Object

Move the doer of the action(s) to the end of the sentence, adding the preposition *by*. If the S is a pronoun, change it to the object pronoun form.

- S V DO
- (63) Elaine might see Alex.
- (64a) _____ might see Alex by Elaine.

Move an object into the subject position. If it is a pronoun, change it to the subject form.

- (64b) Alex might see _____ by Elaine.

Change the verb to the passive voice form. (See Chapter 6 page 261.)

- (64c) Alex might be seen by Elaine.

Some active sentences have two possible subjects in the passive.

(65) $\begin{array}{cccc} \text{S} & \text{V} & \text{IO} & \text{DO} \\ \hline \text{She} & \text{gave} & \text{Paul} & \text{a new shirt.} \end{array}$

In this sentence both the direct object *a new shirt* and the indirect object *Paul* can be made the subjects of a passive sentence.

(66) DO as subject

A new shirt was given to Paul by her.

(67) IO as subject

Paul was given a new shirt by her.

Notice that when the DO is put into the subject position we added a preposition, *to*. This helps to make the meaning more clear. Other DO's take other prepositions.

(68) They bought her a book.

(69) A book was bought for her by them.

There is one more step that can be taken. Since one of the uses of the passive voice rearrangement is to avoid naming the doer of the action, it is possible to take out the prepositional phrase entirely. For example, with the passive voice we have the choice of either of the following two sentences:

(70) Paul was seen by Elaine.

(71) Paul was seen.

Verb

A passive voice verb has a form of the verb *be* and a past participle, the third principal part of the verb. To change an active verb into a passive one, follow these 5 steps:

1. Put the verb *be* in front of the main verb (the last verb form if the verb has several words).
2. Make the verb *be* agree in form with the main verb.
3. Change the main verb into its past participle form (if it is not already in that form).
4. If the new verb is negative, check to see if it has the correct form; if it does not, adjust it.
5. Check to see if the new subject of the clause and the new verb agree; if they do not, adjust the verb form.

The following chart shows how these steps work when they are applied to the following verbs: *might see*, *gave*,

Steps in changing an active verb to a passive verb

| ACTIVE VOICE | Elaine <i>might</i> see Alex. | She <i>gave</i> Paul a shirt. | His classmates <i>made</i> him very happy. | They <i>didn't give</i> him a book. | The new highway <i>is creating</i> traffic jams. |
|--|--|---|---|--|---|
| 1. Put <i>be</i> in front of main verb. | might <i>be</i> see | <i>be</i> gave | have <i>be</i> made | did not <i>be</i> give | <i>is be</i> creating |
| 2. Make <i>be</i> agree with form or tense of main verb. | might <i>be</i> see (see = simple form) | <i>was</i> gave <i>were</i> (gave = past tense) | have <i>been</i> made (made = past participle) | did not <i>was</i> give <i>were</i> (did give = past tense) | <i>is</i> being creating |
| 3. Change main verb to past participle. | might <i>be</i> <i>seen</i> | <i>was</i> given <i>were</i> | have <i>been</i> <i>made</i> (no change) | did not <i>was</i> given <i>were</i> | <i>is</i> being <i>created</i> |
| 4. Adjust negative verb. | | | | <i>was</i> not given <i>were</i> | |
| 5. Adjust subject-verb agreement. | might <i>be</i> seen | was given (because S = Paul) | has <i>been</i> made (because S = He) | was not given (because S = He) | <i>are</i> being caused (because S = Traffic jams) |
| PASSIVE VOICE | Alex <i>might be</i> seen. | Paul <i>was given</i> a shirt. | He <i>was made</i> very happy. | He <i>wasn't given</i> a book. | Traffic jams <i>are being created</i> . |

Rearrangement of Sentence Patterns

have made, did not give, and are causing. The active-voice verbs and the passive-voice verbs are in the same tense; the only difference is the added past participle.

Note: Informally, the passive voice can be expressed with *get* instead of *be*.

(72) She was killed in an automobile accident.

(73) She got killed in an automobile accident.

Exercise

Change these sentences to the passive voice, if possible. If the doer of the action is not important information, do not use a phrase with *by*.

1. People can buy clothes in shops or in department stores.
Clothes can be bought in shops or department stores.
2. Many people prefer department stores for convenience.
3. They can find a large selection of styles, sizes, and prices there.
4. In addition, the entire selection is in one place.
5. You do not need transportation from one place to another.
6. Louis has located a good men's shop.
7. It carries a good selection of styles and colors.
8. His friends are buying a lot of clothes there also.
9. Because of all of their purchases, the owner will earn a good income.

Exercise

Change these passive voice sentences to the active voice.

1. Cultural exchanges between countries are encouraged by many governments.
Many governments encourage cultural exchanges between countries.
2. Music from all around the world can be heard by the people in one country.
3. The best aspects of their country's art are being shown by the best performers.
4. In September, the paintings on loan from Japan were seen by over 75,000 people.
5. Popular music is appreciated by both professionals and amateurs.
6. Cultural exchanges have been arranged by large museums for a long time.
7. They can not be afforded by small museums.

8. Funding for international exchanges should be provided by national governments.
9. Such undertakings can be supported by tax revenues.

Uses of the Passive Voice Rearrangement

In the passive voice rearrangement of parts of a sentence, we can emphasize or de-emphasize some of the information. This arrangement allows us (1) to have a new subject in the sentence, (2) to avoid naming the doer of the action, or (3) to put new, important information last in the sentence.

1. To have a new subject in the sentence

The subject of a clause is what is discussed or commented on; it is the topic of thought. Often, the topic of the discussion is also the doer of the action in the sentence.

- (74) Marie went downtown to buy a gift for Paul.
She bought him a book on modern architecture.

Because we are talking about Marie and her activities, *Marie* and *she* are the subjects of the two sentences.

On the other hand, the topic of the discussion may be the receiver of the action or the receiver of benefits of the action.

- (75) Paul kept busy during the party.
He was given many gifts to open.

In these sentences, we are talking about Paul; therefore, *Paul* and *he* are the subjects. However, in the second sentence, Paul does not do any action: he is the receiver of the gifts.

2. To avoid naming the doer of the action

There are times when we do not want to say who did the action. Maybe we do not know; perhaps that is not important information; or it might be embarrassing to name the person. This rearrangement allows us to eliminate the phrase with *by* plus the doer of the action. There is a subject in the new sentence, so the sentence is grammatically complete.

- (76) The man was killed after midnight.

We may use example 76 if we do not know the killer, or if we do not wish to name him, or if the doer of the ac-

tion is not important information in this particular discussion.

(77) The satellite was put into orbit successfully after several delays.

3. To put new, important information last in the sentence

If we want to, we can create a feeling of suspense or surprise by putting the expected information last. If the new, important information is the name of the doer of the action, we can use the passive voice rearrangement to put that information last.

(78) A five-year-old child baked the birthday cake.

(79) The birthday cake was baked by a five-year-old child.

Examples 78 and 79 both describe the same action: there are the same doers of the action, and there is the same result. However, there is a difference in emphasis.

(80) What does the proverb “People who live in glass houses shouldn’t throw stones” mean?

A question like example 80 can be difficult to form and to understand. The very long subject (11 words) separates the two parts of the verb, the auxiliary *does* and the main verb *mean*. The passive voice rearrangement allows us to put the important information—the eleven-word subject—in the last position in the sentence. This rearrangement also means that the entire verb occurs together and is easier to remember and understand.

(81) What is meant by the proverb “People who live in glass houses shouldn’t throw stones”?

Exercise

For each pair of sentences, identify the reason for using the passive voice in the second sentence.

- a. to have a new subject in the sentence
 - b. to avoid naming the doer of the action
 - c. to put new, important information last in the sentence
1. a. When my car was in the parking lot, another car hit it.

- _____ a. When my car was in the parking lot, my car was hit.
2. a. Last night in the parking lot, a boat hit my car.
 _____ b. Last night in the parking lot, my car was hit by a boat.
3. a. We had not seen that movie; someone was showing it downtown.
 _____ b. We had not seen that movie; it was being shown downtown.
4. a. When we were cleaning up, I broke her 2,000-year-old vase.
 _____ b. When we were cleaning up, her 2,000-year-old vase was broken.
5. a. At the end of the play, we found out that Mrs. Forsham had left the baby.
 _____ b. At the end of the play, we found out that the baby had been left by Mrs. Forsham.

EXPLETIVE THERE

Any of the clause patterns discussed previously can be used to introduce new information in a discussion. In addition, **expletive there** can be used when the new information is the subject of the sentence.

S
V
Adv.

(82) People were near the ticket counter.

S
V
IO
DO

(83) Someone was giving them help with reservations.

Another way to say these sentences is shown in examples 84 and 85.

(84) *There* were people near the ticket counter.

(85) *There* was someone giving them help with reservations.

Form of the Rearrangement with the Expletive There

There are two steps in this rearrangement. The first step

is to move the subject (S) after any auxiliaries and the verb *be*. The second step is to add the expletive *there* in the subject position. The expletive *there* has no meaning; it is used only to fill the subject position in the sentence.

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \qquad \text{V} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

(86) People were near the ticket counter.
Step 1: Move S after auxiliaries and *be*.

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \qquad \text{be} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

(87a) _____ were *people* near the ticket counter.
Step 2: Add *there* in the subject position.
 (87b) *There* were people near the ticket counter.

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{V} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

(88) Someone had been giving them help with reservations.
Step 1: Move S after auxiliaries and *be*.

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{S} \qquad \text{Vaux} \qquad \text{be} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

(89a) _____ had been *someone* giving them help with reservations.
Step 2: Add *there* in the subject position.
 (89b) *There* had been someone giving them help with reservations.

This rearrangement can be difficult. One reason for the difficulty is the agreement between the verb and the subject. In example 87b, for instance, the verb is *were* because it must agree with the subject *people*, which is plural.

The second difficulty is that the expletive *there* is used as the subject when question word order is used. In question word order, a verb form appears before the subject in the clause pattern. Examples 90 and 91 show the yes/no questions that correspond to statements in examples 87b and 89b.

- (90) Were *there* people near the ticket counter?
- (91) Had *there* been someone giving them help with reservations?

And tag statements use *there* in the subject position.

- (92) Yes, there were.

Use of the Rearrangement with the Expletive *There*

Sentences with the expletive *there* are used to point out the existence of someone or something. This rearrangement allows the speaker or writer to focus attention on the subject (S). New, important information usually comes last in a sentence. If this information is the subject, this rearrangement means that the hearer or reader will find it at the end of the sentence. Important information is put last, and the subject position is filled with an expletive, a word with a grammar role but with no meaning.

Exercise

Change each sentence, using *there* to present the new information in the subject.

1. A parade was going by at the time.

There was a parade going by at the time.

2. Some drunk people were dancing in the street.
3. All evening, thunder had been sounding off and on.
4. Eye-witnesses are giving contradictory stories.
5. A lot of people are unsure about what happened.

Exercise

Change these sentences to yes/no questions.

1. There is a reason to doubt his word.

Is there a reason to doubt his word?

2. There were many people standing by the post office.
3. There had been no reliable eye-witnesses.
4. There might have been a distracting noise in the next block.
5. There are doubts in the minds of all of the officials.

Exercise

Add **has been** or **have been**.

1. There has been a little news about the accident.
2. There _____ an article in the local newspapers.
3. There _____ a few short news bulletins on television.

4. There _____ quite a lot of rumors.
 5. There _____ no confirmed report.

EXPLETIVE IT

Another rearrangement of the basic order in sentences allows us to put an important and complicated subject (S) at the end of the clause. For instance, examples 93 and 94 are both correct.

(93) $\overbrace{\text{That we finish before tomorrow}}^{\text{S}}$

$\underbrace{\text{is very important.}}_{\text{V SC}}$

(94) It is very important that we finish before tomorrow.

Example 93 has the basic arrangement: S V SC. Example 94 has the same three meaning units, but they are in a different order.

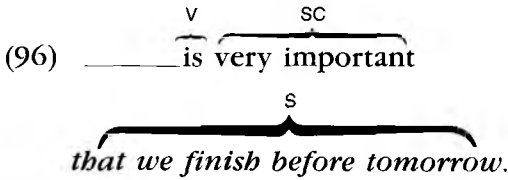
H1 Form of the Rearrangement with the Expletive It

The subject (S) is moved after the other parts of the sentence; and the empty *it* is put into the subject position:
it V SC S.

When the empty *it* is used in this rearrangement, it is sometimes called an **expletive**. An expletive is a word which has no meaning and is used to fill the subject position in a sentence.

(95) $\overbrace{\text{That we finish before tomorrow}}^{\text{S}} \text{ is } \underbrace{\text{very important.}}_{\text{V SC}}$

Move the S after the SC.



Put *it* in the subject position.

(97) *It* is very important that we finish before tomorrow.

No other changes or adjustments are needed.

Note: This rearrangement can be done only when the subject has a verb form.

(98) To finish today is important.

(99) It is important to finish today.

It can not be done if the subject is a noun (example 100); example 101 is not correct English.

(100) The date is very important.

(101) X It is very important the date.

Exercise

Rearrange the sentences to focus on important subjects.

1. To practice with native speakers is helpful in learning a foreign language. *it is helpful in learning a foreign language to practice with native speakers*
2. To listen to their ways of speaking is a big help.
3. Understanding them when they speak fast can be very difficult.
4. That they use contractions and slang has always been a problem for learners.
5. Later, not having had this practice may become a serious problem.

H2 Use of the Rearrangement with the Expletive It

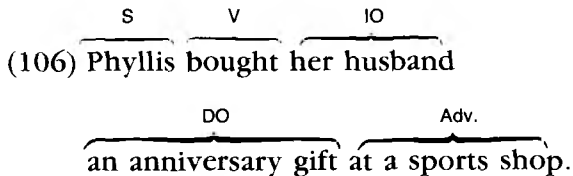
This rearrangement of sentence patterns is used to give special emphasis to the information included in the subject. The rearrangement allows us to hear or read the verb and the subject complement first, so that we can turn all of our attention to the difficult subject at the end of the sentence.

4. Was that you didn't get the job depressing?
5. That she had not been abroad came as a great surprise to us.

Expletive *It* for Identification, Emphasis, Contrast

The end of a clause can be the position for new, important information. The speaker or writer can rearrange the parts of a sentence in order to focus the hearer's or reader's attention on this information.

Example 106 is a statement with the basic arrangement.



It is possible to rearrange the parts of this clause to focus attention on the adverbial or on any of the nouns—the subject (S), the indirect object (IO), or the direct object (DO). The following examples show these rearrangements.

- (107) It was *at a sports shop* that Phyllis bought her husband an anniversary gift.
- (108) It was *Phyllis* who bought her husband an anniversary gift at a sports shop.
- (109) It was *for her husband* that Phyllis bought an anniversary gift at a sports shop.
- (110) It was *an anniversary gift* that Phyllis bought for her husband at a sports shop.

Notice that in examples 109 and 110, the word *for* has been added to indicate the person who receives the benefits of the action.

The rearrangement in example 111 is used for identification. It puts the important information at the end of the independent clause. In that way the information gets the reader's or hearer's attention. It is used to answer questions.

- (111) Who bought that new car?
 - (a) Benjamin.
 - (b) Benjamin bought it.
 - (c) *It was Benjamin who bought it.*

Rearrangement of Sentence Patterns

It is used for special emphasis or contrast.

(112) I didn't know that. I thought *it was Dave who was shopping around for a new car.*

It may have been Dave who was shopping around, but it was Benjamin who bought one.

Exercise

Using this rearrangement to focus on important nouns and adverbials, write the four sentences that come from:

Andreas bought five of his friends dinner yesterday for his birthday.

Refer to examples 107, 108, 109, and 110 if you need help.

1. *It was Andreas who bought five of his friends dinner for his birthday.*
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

Exercise

Some statements have been made that you know are not true. Use the rearrangement with *it* to focus attention on the correct information.

1. Chicago is the largest city in the United States.
It is New York City that is the largest city in the United States
2. The metric system is used in the United States.
3. 2:00 p.m. is the same as 1300 hours.
4. We find Hawaii east of the North American mainland.
5. A thermometer measures weight.

Chapter 7

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7 *Punctuation*

A **INTRODUCTION**

Punctuation helps the reader understand the organization of the writer's ideas. Therefore, writers should keep the following principles in mind:

1. Use punctuation only when there is a reason for it, and only when there is a specific rule for its use in a particular situation.
2. Do not use the pronunciation of a word, phrase, or sentence in order to determine where to put punctuation; pronunciation and punctuation do not always relate to each other.
3. It is usually better (less confusing to the reader) to use too little punctuation than to use too much.

The following composition shows some of the forms and uses of punctuation:

(1) George Washington

George Washington, the first President of the United States, is one of the most famous people in American history. In addition to serving as President

(from 1789 to 1797), he had been a soldier in the French and Indian War, commander of the army in the American Revolution, and chairman of the Constitutional Convention. He was known for his hard work and fairness; he is considered one of the best American presidents.

This respected leader's name and face appear very often in the United States. One of the fifty states is named for him. Schools have been named for him: Washington University in St. Louis, Mo., and Washington College in Chestertown, Md. The capital city of the country has his name. His birthday, which is in February, is observed as a major holiday. And his face is on the one-dollar bill and on the coin worth twenty-five cents. Is there someone like this in your country?

A PUNCTUATION USES

A1 Separating Units

Three of the units of a written message are paragraphs, sentences, and words. They are units of meaning. A writer puts them together to express his ideas. Punctuation helps the reader to see these separate units of meaning in a written message.

These units of meaning are signalled by indentation, capitalization, and end punctuation marks—periods, question marks, and exclamation points.

Paragraphs

A paragraph is usually indented. The composition about George Washington has two paragraphs. The indentation shows this clearly. The first sentence in the first paragraph is indented.

- (2) George Washington, the first President of the United States

There is also indentation before the first sentence in the second paragraph.

- (3) This respected leader's name and face appear

The indentation should be at least 5 letter spaces but not more than 10.

Sentences

Each sentence is signalled two ways. The first signal is a capital letter for the first word of the sentence (see Appendix A). The second signal is the mark at the end of each sentence. The end marks are the period, the question mark, and the exclamation point.

The exclamation point is not used often in compositions. It is used to show great excitement; this emotion does not usually occur in formal writing.

(4) "Give me liberty, or give me death!"

These are the famous words of Patrick Henry.

Note: A sentence cannot end with two periods. If the last word in a sentence already has a period, the sentence will not have two periods at the end. For example, *Md.* has a period because it is the abbreviation for *Maryland*; we would expect to add another period to signal the end of the sentence. However, we do not.

(5) Washington College is in Chestertown, Md.

Note: If we use a question mark or an exclamation point, we add the end mark after the period in the abbreviation.

(6) Have you ever been to Chestertown, Md.?

(7) Yes, and I met John Wilkins, Jr.!

Exercise

Rewrite this paragraph correctly, using capital letters, end marks, and indentation.

there are natural time periods which we recognize in our calendars the problem with creating calendars is that the three natural time periods do not begin at the same time the result of this inconvenience is a calendar with months of different lengths and a leap year every fourth year

A2 Joining Units

One of the main jobs of punctuation is to show that two or more words, phrases, or clauses are connected. The punctuation signals to the reader that the writer has brought ideas together and is showing that the ideas are logically related.

Independent Clauses

Two independent clauses can be joined to form a compound sentence. One way to join them is with the conjunctions *and*, *but*, or (*nor*), *so*, *yet*, or *for* (when it means *because*). When one of these conjunctions is used to form a compound sentence, there is a comma after the first clause.

- (8) Clarice applied for admission to Washington University, but she was not accepted.

There is no comma after the conjunction.

- (9) ✗ Clarice applied for admission to Washington University but, she was not accepted.

This rule applies only to independent clauses: it does not work with words, phrases, or dependent clauses.

- (10) ✗ She filled out the application form, and sent it back to the admissions office.

If the independent clauses have commas in them, the reader may be confused to see another comma that signals the joining of independent clauses with a conjunction, because there are so many commas signalling different meanings. In this case, a semicolon is used in place of a comma.

- (11) ✗ Robert had taken the TOEFL, the GRE, and another test, and he had done well on all of them.
 (12) Robert had taken the TOEFL, the GRE, and another test; and he had done well on all of them.

The second way to join independent clauses is with a semicolon, but without a conjunction.

- (13) He was known for his hard work and fairness; he is considered one of the best American presidents.

It is not correct to join two independent clauses with just a comma.

- (14) ✗ He was known for his hard work and fairness, he is considered one of the best American presidents.

This mistake is called a **comma splice**.

Exercise

Add any needed punctuation to the following sentences.

1. He wanted to take two courses in chemical engineering but he could not fit them into his schedule.
2. The lines at the bank were very long he did not have a lot of time to wait.
3. She wanted to open a checking account, cash some travelers checks, and change some money so she went to the bank very early.
4. However, she only had time to open the account and cash the checks.

Correct the punctuation mistakes in these sentences.

5. She could do her banking tomorrow after lunch or, she could do it this morning.
6. At first it was hard to think in terms of dollars and cents, she had to force herself not to convert every price into *yen*.
7. At registration he chose his courses then he paid his tuition and other fees.
8. He could take two mathematics courses, or take one mathematics course and a physics laboratory on Monday afternoons.

Sentence and Following Explanation, Example, List, or Quotation

A statement is sometimes followed by related information to make the statement clearer or to give the reader more information. If the statement is a grammatically complete sentence, the writer can put a period after it, and the sentence will be correct. However, when the writer has decided to provide more information to clarify the preceding statement, a colon can be used to show this relationship. This information can be an explanation.

- (15) Washington was asked to be the President: he was respected for his leadership qualities.

The information can be an example.

- (16) His name appears on the map: Washington state is in the northwest part of the country.

The information can be a list.

- (17) Schools have been named for him: Washington University in St. Louis, Missouri, and Washington College in Chestertown, Maryland.

The information is often a quotation.

- (18) We should remember Patrick Henry's words today:
 "Give me liberty or give me death!"

The information after the colon can be in any form: a single letter, a word, a phrase, a sentence, a paragraph, several paragraphs, etc. However, it is important to remember that the statement before the colon must be a complete sentence. Example 19 is not correct, because the colon does not join a complete sentence with the list that comes after the colon: *We compared* is not a grammatically complete sentence.

- (19) X We compared: the portrait of Washington, his picture on the one-dollar bill, and his profile on the quarter.

The writer can use phrases like *the following* or *as follows* in addition to the colon in order to emphasize the connection between ideas.

- (20) Washington's picture appears on the following money: the one-dollar bill and the quarter.

Exercise

Complete the following sentences in any logical way. Decide whether example 15, 16, 17, or 18 shows how to punctuate the sentence, and write the number of the example. Then punctuate the sentence.

- 18 1. The following quotation from (name of a book or person) tells us how to live properly (be sure the short quotation is in quotation marks).
- _____ 2. _____ is the most interesting place I have ever visited (give a reason).
- _____ 3. The food in my country is very different from food here. One big difference is the spices we use (list 2 or 3 that are not used very much here).
- _____ 4. Money here is different from money in my country (state one difference).
- _____ 5. One word can describe the weather here today (write the word).

Sentence and Tag Question or Answer

One way of asking a question is by connecting a statement and a short question that asks if the statement is true. This short question is **tagged** onto the statement. Use a comma to join the statement and the tag question. (See Chapter 1, page 29.)

- (21) Abraham Lincoln's profile appears on the penny,
doesn't it?

Use a comma to connect *yes* or *no* with a short answer.

- (22) Yes, it does.

Exercise

Complete the sentences and tag questions, and the short answers. Then add punctuation that is needed.

- Roosevelt's profile is on the dime isn't it?
Yes it is.
- We made a lot of adjustments when we arrived in this country _____ Yes _____
- An informal style of English is not usually appropriate in compositions _____
No _____
- One kilo (kg. or kilogram) equals 2.2 pounds _____
Yes _____
- My classmates have found the American system of weights and measures difficult _____
No _____

Items in a Series

A **series** is a list of 3 or more items. The items can be words, phrases, or clauses (but all the items in one series must be the same kind; see Chapter 5, page 196 on parallelism. Join items in a series with commas.

- (23) George Washington was a soldier, a commander,
and a president.

It is possible to eliminate the comma before the conjunction *and*. This is the writer's choice; there is no difference in meaning, although a writer may prefer one usage or the other. Just remember to be consistent: either always use the

comma in this position or never use it. Both examples 23 and 24 are correct.

- (24) George Washington was a soldier, a commander and a President.

Note: This rule about items in a series works only when there are 3 or more items in the list; it does not apply if the list has only 2 items.

- (25) He was a soldier and a commander.
 (26) X He was a soldier, and a commander.

If the items in the series already have commas, use semicolons to make the relationships clear. In example 27, how many places did my friends visit?

- (27) X My friends visited Washington, D.C., San Francisco, California, and New York City, New York.

Three of the places have commas in their names, so it is hard to know what the commas are signalling. Therefore, semicolons are used in order to make the sentences easier to understand. In example 28, it is clear that my friends visited three places.

- (28) My friends visited Washington, D.C.; San Francisco, California; and New York City, New York.

Note: Do not put a comma after the last item in a series.

- (29) X They visited Dallas, Houston, and San Antonio, on their vacation.

There are two other ways of joining the items in a series. One of these has commas but no conjunctions; the other has conjunctions but no commas. These two ways are correct, but they are very unusual. Therefore, they should not be used often.

- (30) Washington was a soldier, a commander, a president.
 (31) Washington was a soldier and a commander and a president.

Sometimes, for emphasis or clarity, a writer decides to number the items in a list of 2 or more items. If the list is written as part of a sentence, the numbers are put in parentheses.

- (32) George Washington served in three important periods of American history: (1) from 1752 to 1759,

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as a soldier; (2) from 1775 to 1781, as Commander in Chief of the U.S. army; and (3) from 1789 to 1797, as President of the United States.

If the list is written like a list—vertically, not in a sentence—a period is put after each number.

- (33) George Washington served in three important periods of American history:
1. From 1752 to 1759, as a soldier
 2. From 1775 to 1781, as Commander in Chief of the U.S. Army
 3. From 1789 to 1797, as President of the United States.

Note that there is no punctuation after each item in the list: the vertical arrangement makes it clear to the reader what the items of the list are.

Note: When we write items in a vertical list, we do not use a slash mark, closing parentheses, or a small circle after the number.

- (34) X 1/ From 1752 to 1759, as a soldier
(35) X 1) From 1752 to 1759, as a soldier
(36) X 1° From 1752 to 1759, as a soldier

Exercise

Complete the following sentences. Fill in words and/or numbers to make logical statements. Decide which of the preceding examples shows how to punctuate the sentence, and write the number of the example. Then punctuate the sentence.

- 23 1. My three favorite classes in school have been history, math and geography.
- _____ 2. A visitor to my country should see (name 2 places) _____ and _____.
- _____ 3. The largest cities in my country are _____ and _____.
- _____ 4. I think that the following three dates are the most important for world affairs in this century:
_____ 1 _____ 2 _____ and 3 _____.

- _____ 5. Blank space is a way to give the reader information about the _____ and _____ in a written message.

4.3 Putting Extra Information Into Clauses

Sometimes extra words, phrases, or clauses are put into a clause to provide more information. This information helps the readers because it clarifies an idea or because it shows how one idea is related to another. However, this material is not necessary: (1) the readers do not need it in order to understand the idea expressed in the clause, and (2) the material is not part of the grammatical structure of the clause.

Non-restrictive Information

Non-restrictive information can be added to a clause. The information can be an appositive, a noun clause, an adjective clause, or an adverb clause (see Chapter 5, page 224 and page 236 on restrictive and non-restrictive information). If this extra information is before or after the clause, use one comma to set it off from the clause.

- (37) They celebrate Washington's Birthday, which is in February.

If this extra material is put into the middle of the clause, use one comma before it and one comma after it.

- (38) His birthday, which is in February, is observed as a major holiday.

Exercise

Complete the sentences, and then add punctuation if necessary.

1. My native country Malawi is located in Africa.
2. The course which I find most interesting is _____.
3. In my country, the happiest holiday which is _____ occurs on _____.
4. _____ is a famous person in my country who should be known all over the world.

5. More people should study _____
because it is a field in which the world needs more
knowledgeable people.

Explanations or Additions

Very short explanations or other added information can be added to a clause. Parentheses or dashes are used to indicate this added information.

Use a pair of parentheses to set off information that is not very important to the discussion or ideas.

- (39) In addition to serving as President (from 1789 to 1797), he was a soldier in the French and Indian War, Commander of the Army in the American Revolution, and Chairman of the Constitutional Convention.

The discussion is about Washington's service to his country. Therefore, the dates of his Presidency are additional information to help the reader who may not know when Washington lived or when he was President.

Use one or two dashes to set off very short information if the reader's attention should be drawn to it. While parentheses signal that the inserted information is not important, dashes tell the reader to be sure to notice the information. Example 40 has dates which are not signalled as important; the parentheses indicate the lack of great importance.

- (40) He served as a soldier for a time in the French and Indian War (from 1756 to 1763).

Example 41 has dashes to indicate that the dates are important in the discussion.

- (41) That period—from 1756 to 1763—was critical in both American and European history.

Exercise

The underlined information has been inserted into the sentences. Decide whether example 40 or 41 shows how to set off each insertion. Write the number and then punctuate the insertion.

Newcomers to the United States are often confused by American paper money because all the bills are the same

size. The one-dollar bill is as big as the five-dollar bill, the ten-dollar bill, the twenty-dollar bill, etc.

There is a two-dollar bill, but it is not used very much.

It is very important for the new arrival to learn to look at the numbers which appear frequently on each bill 15 times on the one-dollar bill, for example. Although a one-dollar bill may look like a ten-dollar bill they are the same size and although the number 1 may be mistaken for the number 10, the words one and ten look quite different.

Phrases of Contrast

Sometimes a contrast between two ideas is expressed by a phrase added to an independent clause. The contrasting phrase is not part of the grammatical pattern of the clause where it appears. Often the phrase is introduced with *not* or *but (not)*. This contrasting phrase is set off from the clause by one or two commas.

- (42) Some people have studied finance, *but* have little training in statistics.
- (43) Many people in the United States want national, not local, gun control laws.

Exercise

Add any needed commas in the following sentences.

1. Some American money is the same size, but not all.
2. The paper money not the coins can be confusing.
3. All American coins but not the penny are silver-colored.
4. This store will accept travelers checks but not personal checks.
5. Alice learned Spanish more slowly but more thoroughly than Edward.

One of the sentences has no commas in it. Which one? Why not?

Transitions and Sentence Modifiers

A **transition** is a word or a phrase that shows a logical connection between the idea in one independent clause and the idea in another independent clause. It is like a bridge between the two ideas. Use one or two commas to set off a transition in a clause. In example 44, the transition is *however*; it is inserted in the middle of a clause and is set off by two commas.

- (44) General Braddock's campaign against the French and Indians was disastrous. Washington, *however*, was not blamed for its failure.

Use one comma if the transition is at the beginning or end of a clause.

- (45) Washington was married in 1759. *For this reason*, he resigned from the army and became a farmer in Virginia.

A **sentence modifier** is also set off from the rest of the sentence with a comma.

- (46) *To tell the truth*, I do not know very much about history.

Exercise

Complete each sentence with one of the following transitions: **after a while**, **anyhow**, **however**, **in addition**, or **therefore**. Then punctuate the sentences.

1. It was snowing very hard yesterday afternoon. therefore, the airport was closed.
2. They studied very hard for the TOEFL. They bought special books for practice; _____ they took a special review class.
3. She let the dough rise. _____ she put the loaves in the oven for an hour.
4. I thought that we would not get home that night. We ran out of gasoline in the middle of nowhere. There was _____ an open gasoline station not too far away.
5. Pedro had not studied for the SAT; he got a very good score _____.

14 INDICATING SPECIAL STATUS OF WORDS

In a sentence or a paragraph, some word or words may have unusual uses or may be used with unusual meanings. If the writer uses something in a special way, he should tell readers so that they can completely understand his ideas. The special status of words is indicated by quotation marks or underlining.

Unusual Words or Meanings

A writer can show that he is using words in an unusual way by putting quotation marks before and after them. The quotation marks signal that the use of the words is unusual.

- (47) Because of his service to the nation, George Washington has been called "*the father of our country.*"

The five-word phrase in example 47 is unusual because the word *father* is not used in its usual way.

- (48) The sports announcer said that the score was 4 to "zip."

An announcement of this score might have the usual word *nothing* or *zero*.

Exercise

Complete the sentences, and add any needed punctuation.

1. The informal word for *gymnasium* is "gym".
2. The word *flunk* means _____.
3. American slang is hard to understand. For example, I did not know that *neat* also meant _____.

Direct Quotations

A **direct quotation** is a report of the exact words said or written by someone other than the writer. A writer must indicate when he uses someone else's words. He does this with quotation marks. In addition, he should indicate whose words they are.

- (49) At the end of his presidency, George Washington warned against "*permanent alliances*" with other countries.

The phrase "*permanent alliances*" is the exact phrase that Washington used.

The direct quotation may be of any length. It may be short, as in example 49, or it may be much longer.

- (50) In the Declaration of Independence, the states put forth the following principles: "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness."

The 35 words in this direct quotation are exactly as they appear in the Declaration of Independence; the quotation marks tell the reader that this is an exact report of someone's words.

Exercise

Complete the sentences, and add any needed punctuation.

1. In English, we often use the following proverb: "People who live in glass houses should not throw stones."¹
2. A well-known proverb in (name of language) is _____.
3. In the United Nations Charter, the members state their intention to practice tolerance and live together in peace with one another as good neighbors. (The underlined words are the exact words in the Charter.)
4. _____, a famous person from my country, should be remembered for his/her idea that _____.

Foreign Words

If a writer uses foreign words, their special status is signalled by underlining. It is sometimes difficult to know when to underline. Many foreign words are borrowed and used in English; some of them are still considered foreign, while others are accepted as English. (If the writer is not sure whether a word is English, he should consult an English dictionary.)

- (51) In a book, a play often begins with a list of the dramatis personae.

In a printed book italics are used instead of underlining.

(52) The *dramatis personae* are the characters in the play.

Exercise

Complete the following sentences, and add any needed punctuation.

1. In my language, the way to say "thank you" is Shou Xie. (Use English letters.)
2. A visitor to my country should know how to say (use English letters) ; this means .
3. Languages borrow words from other languages: (use English letters) is a foreign word we use in my language.
4. I have seen the word in English, but I think that it is a foreign word borrowed and used in English.

Emphasized Words

A writer uses underlining (italics in a printed book) to show that certain words are especially important.

(53) A direct quotation shows the exact words used by someone besides the writer.

In example 53, the word *exact* is especially important: the writer has emphasized its importance with underlining. The underlining says to the reader, "Look at this word: it is very important."

Underlining should not be used very often in formal writing: a large number of emphasized words decreases its effect.

Exercise

Punctuate the sentences to show the word or words that should be emphasized to help the reader understand the message.

1. He was not careful in his writing. Although the rule said to put the hyphen after a letter or number, he usually put it under the letter or number.

2. The Washington Monument might be 168 meters high, but I do believe that it is 168,000 meters high.

Titles of Books, Stories, and Movies

Books and Other Separate Works

Underline the title of a book or any other printed material that appears separately and is not part of another, larger work.

(54) He had read The Biography of George Washington, Gentleman Farmer , but he did not find it very interesting.

(55) The Washington Post had quite a few advertisements for the Washington's Birthday sales.

The Biography of George Washington, Gentleman Farmer is the name of a book, and The Washington Post is the name of a newspaper.

Stories and Other Included Works

Use quotation marks to set off the titles of any work that does not appear separately, that is, included in another, larger work.

(56) George Washington's "First Inaugural Address in the City of New York, April 30, 1789" is included in the book Inaugural Addresses of the Presidents of the United States .

Washington's first inaugural address is one part of the book; it does not appear separately.

Movies, Television Shows

Use quotation marks to signal the name of a movie, a radio show, or a television program.

(57) "The Untouchables" was a popular television program in the United States in the 1950s.

Exercise

Complete the following sentences. Find the example (54, 55, 56, or 57) that shows how to punctuate each sentence, and write the number of the example. Then punctuate the sentences.

- _____ 1. The biggest newspaper in my country is _____
_____.
- _____ 2. My two favorite books in English are _____
and _____.
- _____ 3. _____ is a famous writ-
er from my country. Two of his/her best-known
works are _____
and _____.
- _____ 4. For relaxation, I usually read _____ (specific name)
or watch _____ (specific name) on television.
- _____ 5. The name of this book is _____.
- _____ 6. If a person wants to understand my country bet-
ter, he should read _____ (specific name).
- _____ 7. The two movies I have enjoyed the most are
_____ and _____.

A5 **Separating Parts of a Sentence or Phrase**

Several ideas may be brought together in a phrase, a clause, or a sentence. However, it may be difficult for the reader to see the different parts of the writer's message. Therefore, punctuation can be useful in making the message clearer by visually separating parts of the message. The punctuation marks of separation are periods, commas, colons, semi-colons, and slashes.

Dates

Dates can be written in formal and informal ways. The formal way is to use the name of the month, the number of the day, and the four digits of the year. Use a comma to separate the number of the day from the number of the year.

(58) George Washington was born on February 22,
1732.

When there is a full date—the month, the day, and the year—use a comma to separate the year from the word that follows it in the sentence.

(59) George Washington was born on February 22,
1732, in Virginia.

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The informal way to write a date is fast and easy; it uses all numbers and slashes.

(60) She was born on 8/12/61.

The first number is the month; the second number is the day; the third number is the last 2 digits of the year.

Note: Remember that in the U.S. the month comes before the day. August 12, 1961, is not 12/8/61; 12/8/61 is December 8, 1961. In compositions, it is better to use the formal way because (1) there is less chance for confusing the month and the day and (2) it is more appropriate.

Exercise

Complete the following sentences, and add any needed punctuation.

1. Convert to the formal way:
 - a. United States Independence Day July 4
7/4/76
 - b. First manned orbital flight
(U.S.S.R.) 4/12/61 _____
 - c. End of World War I 11/11/18 _____
2. Convert to the informal way:
 - a. Greatest aviation disaster:
582 people died March 27, 1977 _____
 - b. Beginning of the United Nations
October 24, 1945 _____
 - c. Official independence of
Zimbabwe April 18, 1980 _____
3. The following sentence is not correct in English: \times *He was born on 23/5/68.* What is the mistake? What did the writer probably mean to write? _____

Places

Use a comma to separate the parts of the name of a place. A city name should be separated from a state name.

(61) Washington, D.C., is larger than Washington, Pa.

Also, a city name and a state name should be separated from a country name.

(62) Paris, France, is larger than Paris, Texas, U.S.A.

In a sentence with a city name and a state name, the state name should have a comma after it.

(63) Paris, Texas, is not a large city.

Note: Do not put a comma between the number and the street name in an address.

(64) The President of the U.S. lives at 1600, Pennsylvania Avenue.

(65) The President of the U.S. lives at 1600 Pennsylvania Avenue.

Note: Do not put a comma between the state abbreviation and the ZIP code in an address.

(66) The mailing address of the university is Arlington, TX, 76019.

(67) The mailing address of the university is Arlington, TX 76019.

Exercise

Complete the following sentences. Decide which example or examples (61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66 or 67) show how to punctuate each sentence, and write the number or numbers. Then punctuate the sentence.

- _____ 1. My school is in _____.
- _____ 2. Life in _____ (city and country of my birth) is different from life in _____ (country where I am living now) _____.
- _____ 3. The address where I live is _____.

Numbers

Use a period—called a **decimal point** or a **point**—to separate the decimal digits from the whole numbers.

(68) The Washington Monument is about 555 feet tall, that is, about 168.164 meters.

Note: Many writing systems use a comma in this case. Be careful not to do this in English.

(69) The monument is 168,164 meters tall.

Use a period to separate dollars from cents in a sum of money.

(70) That biography of Washington costs \$25.95.

Do not use a comma in this case.

(71) ✗ That biography costs \$25,95.

Use commas to separate and to group the digits in a number that is greater than 999. Start at the decimal point; count to the left; put a comma after each group of 3 digits.

(72) 999.95
 7,999.95
 51,043,972

Note: Some writing systems use a point in this case. Be careful not to do this in English.

(73) ✗ Washington, D.C., has about 700.000 people.

Note: Some writing systems use a space rather than a comma to group digits. Be careful not to do this in American English.

(74) ✗ Washington, D.C., has about 700 000 people.

Note: Do not use a comma to separate the digits in a year.

(75) ✗ Washington died in 1,799.

(76) Washington died in 1799.

Note: Do not use a comma to separate the digits in an address.

(77) ✗ They lived at 1,880 Columbia Road.

(78) They lived at 1880 Columbia Road.

Note: Do not use a comma to separate the digits in a ZIP code.

(79) ✗ Washington, D.C. 20,009

(80) Washington, D.C. 20009

Exercise

Complete the following sentences; use numerals, not words. Find the example or examples that show how to punctuate each sentence, and write the number or numbers. Then punctuate the sentences.

72 1. The distance by air from Washington, D.C., to Miami is 923 miles; that is 485 kilometers.

- (Multiply by 1.6093.)
- _____ 2. Absolute Zero is about -273 degrees Celsius (Centigrade). It is _____ degrees Fahrenheit. (Multiply by $9/5$, and add 32.)
- _____ 3. The Sears Tower in Chicago has 110 stories and is 443 meters tall (443 meters = _____ feet). (Multiply by 3.2808.)
- _____ 4. This handbook cost \$ _____. That is equal to _____ in my country; the exchange rate is _____ for \$1.00 U.S.
- _____ 5. My address in this country is the following:
 _____ (number and street)
 _____ (city, state, and ZIP code)

Time

Use a colon to separate the hours from the minutes in time.

(81) Their plane arrived at 7:35 p.m.

Exercise

Complete the following chart and add needed punctuation. When it is noon in New York City, on May 31, tell the time and date in the following cities:

| | Time | Date |
|-------------------------------|-------|--------|
| 1. Caracas (half hour later) | 2:30 | May 31 |
| 2. Jakarta (12½ hours later) | _____ | _____ |
| 3. Kinshasa (6 hours later) | _____ | _____ |
| 4. Adelaide (14½ hours later) | _____ | _____ |
| 5. Dallas (one hour earlier) | _____ | _____ |
| 6. Tokyo (14 hours later) | _____ | _____ |

Direct Quotations and Reporting Verbs

When a person's exact words are written down, there is frequently an indication of the person who used the words. This indication usually includes a **reporting verb** such as *say*, *ask*, or *reply*. A comma separates the direct quotation from the **reporting verb**. (See also Chapter 7, pages 281 and 289.)

(82) Patrick Henry shouted, "Give me liberty or give me death!"

(83) She answered, "I have never been to Chester-town."

If there is an exclamation point or a question mark to separate the direct quotation from the reporting verb, no comma is used.

(84) "Give me liberty or give me death!" shouted Patrick Henry.

Exercise

Add needed punctuation to the following sentences.

1. President Franklin Delano Roosevelt said , "The only thing we have to fear is fear itself."
2. "The only thing we have to fear is fear itself" is a famous quotation from President Roosevelt.
3. "The only thing we have to fear is fear itself" declared Franklin D. Roosevelt at the beginning of his presidency, in 1933.

Introductory Information Before an Independent Clause

Often a word, a phrase, or a dependent clause comes before an independent clause. Of course, this introductory material is related to the independent clause, but it is not part of the grammar of the clause. If the introductory material is not part of the grammar pattern of the independent clause following it, a comma is used for separation.

The introductory material may be an entire dependent clause.

(85) *After Washington left the Presidency*, he returned to his estate of Mt. Vernon.

It may be a phrase with a verb form, that is, a phrase showing an action or state.

(86) *After leaving the Presidency*, Washington returned to Virginia.

It may be a word or phrase that serves as an appositive (see Chapter 6, page 236).

(87) *Chairman of the Constitutional Convention*, Washington was a popular choice for the presidency.

It may be a word or phrase that serves as an adverb, that is, one telling *when, where, how, why*, etc.

- (88) *After the Revolutionary War*, Washington retired from public life.

When the introductory material is an adverb word or phrase, the writer has a choice: to use a comma for separation or not. If the adverb is short and simple, a comma is not especially helpful, because the reader does not need that extra help in reading the sentence.

- (89) *After the Revolutionary War* Washington retired from public life.

If the adverb is long or complicated, a comma is useful, because it helps the reader to see the two parts of the sentence—the introductory material and the main clause.

- (90) Because of insufficient support from the Congress and the large number of inexperienced and badly equipped soldiers, Washington had to avoid large battles with the British.

(There is a general principle that it is better to use too little punctuation than to use too much. However, a writer should remember that in the case of introductory adverbial information, a comma for separation is always correct.)

Note: Example 91 begins with a dependent clause, but there is no comma to separate it from the independent clause following it.

- (91) That the soldiers were suffering at Valley Forge was not a secret.

There is no comma of separation because the dependent clause is part of the grammar pattern of the independent clause: the clause *that the soldiers were suffering at Valley Forge* is the grammatical subject of the verb *was*. The comma of separation can be used only when the introductory information is not a part of the grammar pattern of the independent clause following it.

Exercise

Find the example (85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, or 91) that shows how to punctuate the sentence. Then add any needed punctuation.

- _____ 1. A very important test the GRE sometimes makes people nervous.
- _____ 2. On Tuesday they are going to have their mid-term examination in computer science.
- _____ 3. When the plane landed the first thing we had to do was go through immigration.
- _____ 4. After the long flight of almost ten hours and the terribly hot and humid weather we were ready for a long sleep.
- _____ 5. I wrote a rough draft; before recopying it I checked the spelling very carefully.
- _____ 6. Satisfied with her grade on the report she began to work on her next physics project.
- 7. The following sentence has incorrect punctuation. What is the mistake?
*That she arrived late, is generally known.*_____

Information Following an Independent Clause

Often a word, phrase, or dependent clause comes after an independent clause. Sometimes this material has the following two characteristics:

- 1. It has no function in the grammar pattern of the independent clause.
- 2. It is not very closely related to the idea or ideas in the independent clause. The relationship is general, and often the material can be put in several places in the sentence.

In this case, use a comma to separate the independent clause from the information following it.

The information following it may be an entire dependent clause.

(92) He did not visit Mt. Vernon very often, because the war was not going well.

The information following it may be a phrase.

(93) he returned to Mt. Vernon, tired but satisfied with his job.

The information following it may be a word.

- (94) Did Martha Washington spend some time in Valley Forge, too?

Note: Do not use a comma to separate an independent clause from a dependent clause if they are very closely related in meaning or if the dependent clause is part of the grammar pattern of the independent clause.

- (95) ✗ Washington announced, that he wanted to retire after serving as President for two terms.

Example 95 is incorrect. There is a dependent clause: *that he wanted to retire after serving as President for two terms*. This dependent clause functions like a noun; it is the direct object in the main clause. Therefore, there should not be any comma of separation in the sentence.

- (96) Washington announced that he wanted to retire after serving as President for two terms.

Exercise

Find the example (92, 93, 94, or 96) that shows how to punctuate the sentence. Then add any needed punctuation.

- _____ 1. They returned to their dormitory, having completed the long registration process.
- _____ 2. I did not finish registering yesterday, and I did not get all the courses I wanted either.
- _____ 3. She was generally satisfied with her schedule although she had not gotten all the courses she wanted.
4. The following sentence is incorrect. Explain the mistake. Which example shows the mistake?
Many people think, that the United Nations is an important organization which performs important duties.

Preventing Misreading

Use a comma of separation to prevent misreading. A comma can help the reader to separate two ideas that could be confused.

- (97) ✗ With Martha Custis Washington settled at Mt. Vernon.

The reader could be confused. Is this sentence about one person—Martha Custis Washington—or about two people

—Martha Custis and George Washington? To help the reader avoid this confusion, the writer should use a comma.

(98) With Martha Custis, Washington settled at Mt. Vernon.

Note: The comma to prevent misreading should not be used often; it is a better idea to rewrite the sentence to avoid the possibility of confusion. Moreover, this comma should be used only when the possibility of confusion is obvious: when two interpretations exist. It should not be used in general to make a sentence clear.

Exercise

Add commas of separation to the following sentences, so that the readers will be able to understand the ideas more easily.

1. Because he injured his eye, glasses would be helpful.
2. Just before the plane came down the runway lights went on.
3. In baseball bats are not all the same size.
4. Inside the book was more interesting than the dull cover had led me to expect.
5. As a complement to psychology statistics is a good choice for a course to take.

Names of People, Last Name First

In English, the usual order for a person's full name is first name (given name), middle name, and last name (surname, family name). However there are times when a person's name is written in another order: last name, first name, and middle name. This order is often found on application forms, class rolls, and bibliographies. When this second arrangement is used, a comma separates the last name from the first and second names.

(99) Washington, Martha Custis
Roosevelt, Franklin Delano
Martha Custis Washington
Franklin Delano Roosevelt

Note: There is no comma between the first name and the middle name.

Note: It is very important for students to use the comma correctly when they write their names, especially if their names are very different from English names.

Showing A Choice

A quick and easy way to show a choice is with a slash. The writer uses the slash to separate the possibilities. For example, in example 100, the choice is between the word *and* and the word *or*:

(100) The students had to read Washington's first inaugural address *and/or* his farewell address.

The *and/or* means that there are three possibilities. Each student had to do one of the following reading assignments:

1. Washington's first inaugural address
2. Washington's farewell address
3. both of Washington's addresses

Showing Something Has Been Removed

Punctuation can tell the reader that a particular word, sentence, or paragraph is a shortened version.

Contractions indicate shortened words. They are formed by joining words and removing letters. An apostrophe shows the location of the omitted letter(s).

(101) He's not studying English this year.

(102) He isn't studying English this year.

Note: A few contractions have irregular spellings.

| | |
|----------------|-------|
| cannot/can not | can't |
| will not | won't |

Abbreviations are shortened names. Use a period after initials in a name and after other abbreviations.

(103) Dwight D. Eisenhower's home in Gettysburg, Pa., was not very far from Washington, D.C.

In a direct quotation, 3 periods are used to show that a word or words have been omitted in the middle of a sentence or paragraph. This is called **ellipsis**.

(104) The previous sample composition has the claim that "George Washington . . . is one of the most famous people in American history."

Exercise

Add apostrophes and periods where they are necessary.

1. Professor Jameson made an unusual statement: "Although studying cant guarantee a good grade, Im sure that it wont hurt your grade."
2. In Chapter 7, the fifth principle says, "Use punctuation only when there is a specific rule for its use."
3. John F. Kennedys family comes from Boston, Massachusetts.
4. In his book, *Follow the Lemmings*, Peter Cross says that lemmings, "are the most interesting creatures on earth."

Appendix

Appendix

Spelling

Some Common Transitive Two-Word Verbs

Verb + Verb Combinations

Irregular Verbs

Indirect Objects in Sentence Patterns

Comparative and Superlative Irregular Forms

Some Adjectives and their Prepositions

SPELLING

These six spelling rules should be used when the grammar in a sentence requires a special form of a word, for example, the past tense of a regular verb, the plural of a noun, or the comparative form of an adverb.

Some of the rules are complex: they require several steps. However, these rules are not difficult, if the questions are answered in a step-by-step procedure. Answer each question with a *yes* or a *no*. If there is a *no* answer, the rule does not apply; otherwise, the rule does apply. Also, there are charts which show how to use the step-by-step procedure.

After the rules there are some exercises. These exercises have some common words and some unusual ones. The rules can be used even if a particular word is not known. Then, if the student wants to, he or she can find the word in a dictionary.

Some of the spelling rules refer to vowel and consonant letters. The vowel letters are: *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, and *u*. The other 21 letters are consonant letters. However, for these six spelling rules, *w*, *x*, and *y* should not be considered as consonant letters.

Spelling Rule #1: Doubling the Final Consonant

Use this rule to form:

1. The past tense of a verb: V + *ed*
 - (1) *plan* + *ed* = *planned*
2. The past participle of a verb: V + *ed*
 - (2) *prefer* + *ed* = *preferred*

3. The present participle of a verb: V + *ing*
(3) *sit* + *ing* = *sitting*
4. The comparative form of an adjective: Adj. + *er*
(4) *big* + *er* = *bigger*
5. The superlative form of an adjective: Adj. + *est*
(5) *red* + *est* = *reddest*

Double the final consonant when all three questions have *yes* answers:

1. Does the simple form of the verb or the positive form of the adjective or adverb end with only one consonant letter?
2. Is there only one vowel letter before the one final consonant?
3. Is the stress (or accent) on that one vowel?

(Following are some words in which the accent does not fall on the last syllable, and the final consonant is not doubled: *alter* — *altered*, *altering*; *listen* — *listened*, *listening*; *solicit* — *solicited*, *soliciting*.)

Note: Consider *qu* as one consonant, not as a consonant and a vowel.

(6) *equip* + *ed* = *equipped*

Note: Instead of double *c*, write *ck*.

(7) *picnic* + *ed* = *picnicked*

The following chart shows how the three questions and their answers lead to correct spelling.

| Question | <i>want</i> + <i>ed</i> | <i>wait</i> + <i>ing</i> | <i>narrow</i> + <i>er</i> | <i>prefer</i> + <i>ed</i> | <i>big</i> + <i>est</i> |
|----------|-------------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1 | NO: 2 consonant letters | YES: | YES: | YES: | YES: |
| | <i>want</i> + <i>ed</i> | <i>wait</i> + <i>ing</i> | <i>narrow</i> + <i>er</i> | <i>prefer</i> + <i>ed</i> | <i>big</i> + <i>est</i> |
| 2 | | NO: 2 vowel letters | YES: | YES: | YES: |
| | | <i>wait</i> + <i>ing</i> | <i>narrow</i> + <i>er</i> | <i>prefer</i> + <i>ed</i> | <i>big</i> + <i>est</i> |
| 3 | | | NO: stress on another vowel | YES: | YES: |
| | | | <i>nārr</i> ow + <i>er</i> | <i>prefēr</i> + <i>ed</i> | <i>bīg</i> + <i>est</i> |

| | | | | | |
|----------|-----------|------------|-------------|-------------|-----------|
| Question | want + ed | wait + ing | narrow + er | prefer + ed | big + est |
| | NO | NO | NO | DOUBLED | DOUBLED |
| | doubled | doubled | doubled | LETTER | LETTER |
| | letter | letter | letter | | |
| | wanted | waiting | narrower | preferred | biggest |

Exercise

Write the past tense or past participle forms.

1. answer + ed = _____
2. tow + ed = _____
3. sin + ed = _____
4. extend + ed = _____
5. unseat + ed = _____
6. defer + ed = _____
7. acquit + ed = _____
8. open + ed = _____
9. skid + ed = _____
10. tax + ed = _____

Write the simple forms.

11. occurred = _____ + ed
12. trekked = _____ + ed
13. called = _____ + ed
14. abutted = _____ + ed
15. mimicked = _____ + ed

Exercise

Write the present participle forms.

1. play + ing = _____
2. conceal + ing = _____
3. nag + ing = _____
4. enter + ing = _____
5. stab + ing = _____
6. prefer + ing = _____
7. sign + ing = _____
8. span + ing = _____
9. stow + ing = _____
10. bud + ing = _____

Write the simple forms.

11. missing = _____ + ing
12. whetting = _____ + ing

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13. dimming = _____ + ing
14. rigging = _____ + ing
15. canning = _____ + ing

Exercise

Write the comparative and superlative forms.

1. new + er = _____
2. trim + er = _____
3. glad + er = _____
4. fast + er = _____
5. flat + er = _____
6. narrow + est = _____
7. broad + est = _____
8. thin + est = _____
9. quiet + est = _____
10. wicked + est = _____

Write the positive forms.

11. thicker = _____ + er
12. tallest = _____ + er
13. sadder = _____ + er
14. fullest = _____ + est
15. hotter = _____ + est

Spelling Rule #2: Cancelling the Final e

Use this rule to form:

1. The past tense of a verb: V + *ed*
(8) use + ed = used
2. The past participle of a verb: V + *ed*
(9) exclude + ed = excluded
3. The present participle of a verb: V + *ing*
(10) arrange + ing = arranging
4. The comparative form of an adjective: Adj. + *er*
(11) pale + er = paler
5. The superlative form of an adjective: Adj. + *est*
(12) sure + est = surest

Cancel the final *e* on the simple form of a verb or on the positive form of an adjective or adverb.

(13) use + ed = used = used

Note: Do not cancel the second *e* of a double *e* when adding *ing*.

(14) agree + ing = agreeing

Note: Do not cancel the *e* in *be*.

(15) be + ing = being

Note: An *ie* in the simple form becomes *y* before *ing*.

(16) lie + ing = lying

Exercise

Write the past tense or past participle forms.

1. name + ed = named
2. eliminate + ed = _____
3. clothe + ed = _____
4. defame + ed = _____
5. lie + ed = _____
6. universalize + ed = _____
7. precede + ed = _____
8. stare + ed = _____
9. place + ed = _____
10. eye + ed = _____

Write the simple forms.

11. abused = abuse + ed
12. loped = _____ + ed
13. imbibed = _____ + ed
14. freed = _____ + ed
15. axed = _____ + ed

Exercise

Write the present participle forms.

1. seize + ing = seizing
2. inoculate + ing = _____
3. sense + ing = _____
4. tune + ing = _____

Appendix A

5. see + ing = _____
6. die + ing = _____
7. dye + ing = _____
8. obscure + ing = _____
9. raze + ing = _____
10. be + ing = _____

Write the simple forms.

11. exuding = exude + ing
12. vying = _____ + ing
13. coping = _____ + ing
14. lapsing = _____ + ing
15. proving = _____ + ing

Exercise

Write the comparative or superlative form.

1. large + er = larger, largest
2. brave + er = _____
3. wide + est = _____
4. simple + est = _____
5. polite + est = _____

Write the positive forms.

1. freer = free + er
2. rarest = _____ + er
3. truer = _____ + er
4. gravest = _____ + er
5. bluest = _____ + er

43 **Spelling Rule #3: Changing Final y to i**

Use this rule to form:

1. The past tense of a verb: V + *ed*
(17) try + ed = *tried*
2. The past participle of a verb: V + *ed*
(18) deny + ed = *denied*
3. The comparative form of an adjective:
Adj. + *er*
(19) happy + er = *happier*

4. The superlative form of an adjective:

Adj. + *est*

(20) sorry + est = *sorryest*

5. The plural of a noun: N + s

(21) country + s = *countries*

6. The third person singular of a present tense verb:

V + s

(22) deny + s = *denies*

Change the final *y* to *i* when the answer to this question is *yes*: Is the letter in front of the final *y* a consonant letter?

Note: When *s* is added to make a noun plural or a verb form, (1) the final *y* changes to *i*, and (2) *e* is added before the *s*.

(23) country + s = *country + e + s*

The following chart shows how the question and its answer lead to correct spelling.

| | | | | |
|----------|----------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|---|
| | <i>delay + ed</i> | <i>friendly + est</i> | <i>try + ed</i> | <i>try + s</i> |
| Question | NO: a is a vowel letter | YES: | YES: | YES: |
| | <i>delay + ed</i> | <i>friendly + est</i> | <i>try + ed</i> | <i>try + s</i> |
| | NO CHANGE | CHANGE y to <i>i</i> | CHANGE y to <i>i</i> | CHANGE y to <i>i</i> ADD <i>e</i> before <i>s</i> |
| | <i>delayed</i> | <i>friendliest</i> | <i>tried</i> | <i>tries</i> |

Exercise

Write the past tense or past participle forms.

1. relay + ed = *relayed*
2. rely + ed = _____
3. ready + ed = _____
4. deploy + ed = _____
5. supply + ed = _____
6. buoy + ed = _____
7. scurry + ed = _____
8. toy + ed = _____

- 9. defray + ed = _____
- 10. hurry + ed = _____

Write the simple forms.

- 11. pried = _____ + ed
- 12. married = _____ + ed
- 13. decried = _____ + ed
- 14. scurried = _____ + ed
- 15. defied = _____ + ed

Exercise

Write the comparative and superlative forms.

- 1. lazy + er = lazier laziest
- 2. silly + er = _____
- 3. dopey + er = _____
- 4. costly + er = _____
- 5. shy + er = _____
- 6. happy + est = _____
- 7. grey + est = _____
- 8. funny + est = _____
- 9. nosy + est = _____
- 10. noisy + est = _____

Write the simple forms.

- 11. sorrier = sorry + er
- 12. snappiest = _____ + est
- 13. steelier = _____ + er
- 14. angriest = _____ + est
- 15. friendlier = _____ + er

Exercise

Write the plural forms of the nouns.

- 1. mystery + s = mysteries
- 2. day + s = _____
- 3. galaxy + s = _____
- 4. spy + s = _____
- 5. baby + s = _____
- 6. toy + s = _____
- 7. body + s = _____

8. flurry + s = _____
 9. key + s = _____
 10. county + s = _____

Write the singular forms.

11. guppies = guppy + s
 12. buoys = _____ + s
 13. slurries = _____ + s
 14. treys = _____ + s
 15. calories = _____ + s

Exercise

Write the third person singular present tense forms.

1. play + s = plays
 2. parry + s = _____
 3. deny + s = _____
 4. obey + s = _____
 5. defy + s = _____
 6. rely + s = _____
 7. rally + s = _____
 8. deploy + s = _____
 9. buy + s = _____
 10. say + s = _____

Write the simple forms.

11. buoys = buoy + s
 12. assays = _____ + s
 13. tallies = _____ + s
 14. annoys = _____ + s
 15. spies = _____ + s

A4 Spelling Rule #4: Adding es after h, s, x, or z

Use this rule to form:

1. The third person singular of a present tense verb:
 V + s
 (24) watch + s = watches
 2. The plural of a noun: N + s
 (25) pass + s = passes

Appendix A

Add *es* if the answer to the question is *yes*:
Is the last SOUND of the simple or singular form

[s] as in *miss*?

[z] as in *maze*?

[š] as in *rush*?

[ž] as in *garage*?

[č] as in *watch*?

[ĵ] as in *judge*?

The following chart shows how the question and its answer lead to correct spelling.

| | <i>pass</i> + s | <i>match</i> + s | <i>epoch</i> + s |
|----------|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Question | YES: [s] as in <i>miss</i> | YES: [č] as in <i>match</i> | NO: [k] as in <i>back</i> |
| | ADD <i>es</i> <i>passes</i> | ADD <i>es</i> <i>matches</i> | DO NOT ADD <i>es</i> <i>epochs</i> |

Exercise

Write the third person singular.

1. *mash* + s = *mashes*
2. *curse* + s = _____
3. *match* + s = _____
4. *stomach* + s = _____
5. *nudge* + s = _____
6. *ax* + s = _____
7. *axe* + s = _____
8. *miss* + s = _____
9. *amaze* + s = _____
10. *box* + s = _____

Write the simple forms.

11. *aches* = *ache* + s
12. *fazes* = _____ + s
13. *hedges* = _____ + s
14. *fixes* = _____ + s
15. *buzzes* = _____ + s

Exercise

Write the plural noun forms.

1. match + s = _____
2. dish + s = _____
3. gauge + s = _____
4. outrage + s = _____
5. boss + s = _____
6. monarch + s = _____
7. hose + s = _____
8. ketch + s = _____
9. tax + s = _____
10. mirage + s = _____

Write the singular nouns.

11. choices = choice + s
12. addages = _____ + s
13. guesses = _____ + s
14. crazes = _____ + s
15. witches = _____ + s

Spelling Rule #5: Adding *es* after *o*

Use this rule to form:

1. The third person singular of a present tense verb:
V + s

(26) go + s = goes

Note: There is an exception to this rule.

(27) solo + s = solos

2. The plural of a noun: N + s

(28) potato + s = potatoes

Add *es* if the simple form of the verb ends in *o*.

Some nouns ending in *o* form the plural by adding *s*, some by adding *es*, and some have two possibilities. If you are not sure of the correct spelling of the plural, check a dictionary.

| Singular | Plural in <i>s</i> | Plural in <i>es</i> |
|----------|--------------------|---------------------|
| buffalo | buffalos | buffaloes |
| cargo | cargos | cargoes |

Appendix A

| Singular | Plural in s | Plural in es |
|----------|-------------|--------------|
| echo | | echoes |
| hero | | heroes |
| piano | pianos | |
| potato | | potatoes |
| solo | solos | |
| tomato | | tomatoes |
| tobacco | tobaccos | |
| veto | | vetoes |

Add s if the word is an abbreviation:

| | |
|--------------|--------|
| kilo(gram) | kilos |
| photo(graph) | photos |

Add s if the word has a vowel letter before the o:

| | |
|--------|---------|
| zoo | zoos |
| studio | studios |

Add s if the word is a proper noun:

| | |
|----------|-----------|
| Eskimo | Eskimos |
| Filipino | Filipinos |

Exercise

Write the third person singular.

1. go + s = goes
2. buffalo + s = _____
3. do + s = _____
4. solo + s = _____
5. echo + s = _____

Exercise

Write the correct plural forms.

1. potato + s = potatoes
2. piano + s = _____
3. kangaroo + s = _____
4. kilo + s = _____
5. hero + s = _____

Write the correct singular forms.

6. cargos = cargo + s
7. tomatoes = _____ + s

8. Eskimos = _____ + s
 9. cargoes = _____ + s
 10. zoos = _____ + s

Spelling Rule #6: Changing *f* to *v* and adding *es*

Use this rule to form:

1. The plural of a noun: N + s

(29) wife + s = *wives*

Some English nouns end in *f* or *fe* in the singular. The plural is formed in the regular way (by adding *s*) or with the ending *ves*. A few words allow both possibilities. If you are not sure of the correct spelling of the plural, check a dictionary.

| Singular | Plural in <i>s</i> | Plural in <i>ves</i> |
|--------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| belief | beliefs | |
| chief | chiefs | |
| handkerchief | handkerchiefs | |
| hoof | hoofs | hooves |
| knife | | knives |
| leaf | | leaves |
| life | | lives |
| loaf | | loaves |
| proof | proofs | |
| roof | roofs | |
| safe | safes | |
| scarf | scarfs | scarves |
| self | | selves |
| shelf | | shelves |
| thief | | thieves |
| wife | | wives |

Exercise

Write the correct plural forms.

1. roof + s = _____
 2. loaf + s = _____
 3. wife + s = _____
 4. handkerchief + s = _____
 5. knife + s = _____

Write the correct singular forms.

6. scarfs = _____ + s
7. scarves = _____ + s
8. lives = _____ + s
9. chiefs = _____ + s
10. selves = _____ + s

17 **Capitalization**

Use a capital letter in the following situations:

1. Capitalize the first letter of every sentence.
(30) *Capitalization can help a reader.*
2. Capitalize the first letter of every word in a proper noun. (the name of a person or a place, for example)
(31) *George Washington was the first president of the United States.*
3. In the title of a book or a film, capitalize the first word and all other important words (not articles, short conjunctions, short prepositions, for example).
(32) *War and Peace*
(33) *For Whom the Bell Tolls*
(34) *A Bell for Adano*
4. Capitalize the first letter of a direct quotation.
(35) Patrick Henry said, "Give me liberty or give me death!"
5. Capitalize the first letter of each item in a list when the list is (1) numbered and (2) arranged vertically (like the five items in this list).
(36)
 1. Publication schedule
 2. Sales overview
 3. Upcoming conferences
 4. Staff additions
 5. Job descriptions

Exercise

Capitalize where necessary.

1. the tallest building in the world is the sears tower; it has 110 stories and is 1,454 feet (443 meters) tall. it is in chicago, where there are several other skyscrapers.
2. the united nations moved to its current location in new york in 1951.
3. one of the most famous speeches in literature is in a play by shakespeare. hamlet begins his speech with the phrase "to be or not to be."
4. Have you ever read ernest hemingway's *the old man and the sea*?

AB Hyphenation

Use hyphenation in the following cases:

1. A compound number
 - (37) 47 forty-seven
 - (38) 147 one hundred forty-seven
2. Fractions
 - (39) 2/5 two-fifths
3. A word divided at the end of a line or writing
 - (40) im-
possible
 - (41) impos-
sible

Note: Be sure to put a hyphen next to the letter in front of it.

Note: Check a dictionary to determine where a word can be divided.

- (42) X impos-
ible

Exercise

Add hyphens where necessary.

1. The Secretariat Building of the United Nations has thirty nine stories.
2. The United Nations has more than one hundred twenty member nations.
3. Have you ever seen the Citicorp Building in New York?

**SOME COMMON TRANSITIVE
TWO-WORD VERBS**

The blank space indicates the position of a pronoun direct object (DO):

Separable

Inseparable

call ____ up

take after ____

He called *her* up.

She takes after *him*.

add ____ up

admit to ____

agree on ____

air ____ out

allow for ____

apply for ____

ask for ____

ask ____ out

attend to ____

back ____ out

back ____ up

haul ____ out

beat ____ out

become of ____

black ____ out

block ____ up

blow ____ down

blow ____ in

blow ____ out

blow ____ up

blurt ____ out

break ____ down

break ____ in

break in(to) ____

break ____ off

break ____ out

break ____ up

bring ____ about

bring ____ off

bring ____ on

bring ____ out

bring ____ up

brush ____ off

brush ____ out

build ____ up

bump into ____

burn ____ down

burn ____ up

buy ____ out

buy ____ up

call ____ back

call for ____

call ____ in

call ____ off

call on ____

call ____ out

call ____ up

care about ____

care for ____

carry ____ off

carry ____ on

carry ____ out

carry ____ over

cash ____ in

catch on to ____

check in(to) ____

check ____ out

check ____ over

cheer ____ on

cheer ____ up

chew ____ up

chop ____ down

chop ____ up

clean ____ off

clean ____ out

clean ____ up

clear ____ off

clear ____ out

clear ____ up

clog ____ up

close ____ down

close ____ out

close ____ up

cloud ____ up

come across ____

come by ____

come into ____

come over ____

come through ____

cool ____ off

count ____ in

count on ____

count ____ out

count ____ up

cross ____ off

cross ____ out

cut across ____

cut ____ down

cut ____ off

cut ____ up

deal with ____

depend (up) on ____

dip into ____

disagree with ____

dispose of ____

do ____ over

do without ____

draw ____ out

draw ____ up

dream about ____

dream of ____

dress ____ down

dress ____ up

drink ____ up

drive ____ back

drive ____ out

drop ____ off

dry ____ off

dust ____ off

dwell on ____

eat ____ up

fall for ____

feel like ____

fight ____ off

figure on ____

figure ____ out

fill ____ in

fill ____ out

fill ____ up

find ____ out

fix ____ up

follow ____ through

follow ____ up

get ____ across

get after ____

get around ____

get ____ back

get ____ in

get in(to) ____

get ____ off

get on ____

get ____ out

get ____ over

get over ____

get through ____

get ____ together

give ____ away

give ____ back

give ____ off

give ____ out

Some Common Transitive Two-Word Verbs

give _____ up
 go about _____
 go after _____
 go for _____
 go into _____
 go over _____
 go through _____
 go without _____
 grow on _____
 hand _____ down
 hand _____ in
 hand _____ out
 hand _____ over
 hang around _____
 hang onto _____
 hang _____ up
 have _____ on
 head for _____
 head into _____
 hear about _____
 hear from _____
 hear of _____
 help _____ out
 hold _____ back
 hold _____ in
 hold _____ off
 hold _____ out
 hold _____ up
 hunt _____ up
 insist (up)on _____
 jack _____ up
 keep at _____
 keep _____ down
 keep to _____
 keep _____ up
 knock _____ out
 laugh _____ off
 lay _____ aside
 lay _____ down
 lay _____ off
 lay off (of) _____
 lead _____ on
 leave _____ off
 leave _____ on
 leave _____ out
 let _____ down
 let _____ in
 let _____ off
 let _____ out
 light _____ up
 line _____ down
 live _____ down
 live off (of) _____
 live on _____
 live through _____

look after _____
 look at _____
 look for _____
 look into _____
 look _____ over
 look _____ up
 major in _____
 make _____ out
 make _____ over
 make _____ up
 mark _____ down
 mark _____ up
 meet with _____
 mix _____ up
 mop _____ up
 move _____ up
 open _____ up
 part with _____
 pass _____ out
 pass _____ up
 pay _____ back
 pay _____ off
 pay _____ out
 pick on _____
 pick _____ out
 pick _____ up
 plan on _____
 play _____ down
 play _____ up
 plow into _____
 plug _____ in
 plug _____ up
 point _____ out
 pull _____ down
 pull _____ in
 pull _____ out
 pull _____ over
 pull _____ through
 pull through _____
 pull _____ together
 pull _____ up
 push _____ down
 push _____ up
 put _____ across
 put _____ aside
 put _____ away
 put _____ down
 put _____ in
 put _____ off
 put _____ on
 put _____ out
 put _____ over
 put _____ together
 put _____ up
 quiet _____ down

read _____ through
 read through _____
 rinse _____ off
 rinse _____ out
 rip _____ off
 root for _____
 run _____ in
 rub _____ off
 rub _____ out
 rule _____ out
 run across _____
 run against _____
 run for _____
 run into _____
 run _____ off
 run over _____
 save _____ up
 see about _____
 see _____ off
 see to _____
 sell _____ off
 send for _____
 send _____ off
 set _____ off
 set _____ up
 settle on _____
 sew _____ up
 show _____ off
 shut _____ down
 shut _____ off
 shut _____ out
 shut _____ up
 side with _____
 single _____ out
 sleep on _____
 slow _____ down
 slow _____ up
 speak about _____
 speak for _____
 speed _____ up
 spell _____ out
 stand for _____
 stand _____ up
 stick to _____
 stir _____ up
 straighten _____ out
 straighten _____ up
 stumble across _____
 stumble into _____
 stumble on(to) _____
 stumble over _____
 subscribe to _____
 sum _____ up
 take after _____
 take _____ away
 take _____ back

Appendix B

take _____ down
take _____ in
take _____ off
take _____ out
take _____ over
take _____ up
talk about _____
talk _____ over
tear _____ down
tear _____ up
tell _____ apart
tell _____ off
tell on _____
think of _____
think _____ over
think _____ through
think _____ up
throw _____ away
throw _____ over
throw _____ up

thumb through _____
tie _____ up
tire _____ out
total _____ up
touch on _____
touch _____ up
try _____ on
try _____ out
tune _____ up
turn against _____
turn _____ around
turn _____ down
turn _____ in
turn into _____
turn _____ off
turn _____ on
turn _____ out
turn _____ over
turn _____ up

use _____ up

wait for _____
wait on _____
warm _____ up
wash _____ off
wash _____ out
wash _____ up
wear _____ out
wind _____ up
wipe _____ off
wipe _____ out
work on _____
work _____ out
write _____ down
write _____ in
write _____ off
write _____ out
write _____ up

VERB + VERB COMBINATIONS

- I. Verb + *to V*: We can *afford to buy it*.
 II. Verb + *V-ing*: I *admit feeling angry*.
 III. Verb + O + *to V*: The doctor *advised him to stop smoking*.
 IV. Verb + O + V: I *felt the boat rock*.

Note: Verb + *to V* has a different meaning from Verb + *V-ing*.

A dot indicates the possibility of a combination.

| Verb | I <i>to V</i> | II <i>V-ing</i> | III O + <i>to V</i> | IV O + V |
|------------|------------------|--------------------|------------------------|-------------|
| admit | | • | | |
| advise | | • | • | |
| afford | • | • | | |
| agree | • | | | |
| allow | | | • | |
| anticipate | | • | | |
| appear | • | | | |
| appoint | | | • | |
| appreciate | | • | | |
| arrange | • | | | |
| ask | • | | • | |
| attempt | • | • | | |
| avoid | | • | | |
| bear | • | • | | |
| beg | • | • | | |
| begin | • | • | | |
| bother | • | • | | |
| call on | | | • | |
| care | • | | | |
| cause | | | • | |
| challenge | | | • | |
| choose | • | | • | |
| come | • | | | |
| command | | | • | |
| compel | | | • | |
| consent | • | | | |
| consider | | • | | |
| continue | • | • | | |
| convince | | | • | |
| dare | • | | • | |

Appendix C

| Verb | I to V | II V-ing | III O + to V | IV O + V |
|-------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|
| decide | • | | | |
| delay | | • | | |
| demand | • | | | |
| deny | | • | | |
| deserve | • | • | | |
| desire | • | | | |
| determine | • | | | |
| detest | | • | | |
| dislike | • | • | | |
| dread | • | • | | |
| drive | | | • | |
| enable | | | • | |
| encourage | | | • | |
| endeavor | • | | | |
| enjoy | | • | | |
| escape | | • | | |
| expect | • | | • | |
| fail | • | | | |
| fear | • | • | | |
| feel | | | | • |
| finish | | • | | |
| forbid | | • | • | |
| force | | | • | |
| forget | • | • | | |
| get | • | • | • | |
| give up | | • | | |
| go | | • | | |
| happen | • | | | |
| have | | | | • |
| hate | • | • | • | |
| hear | | | | • |
| help | | | • | • |
| hesitate | • | • | | |
| hope | • | | | |
| imagine | | • | | |
| instruct | | | • | |
| intend | • | • | • | |
| invite | | | • | |
| keep (on) | | • | | |
| lead | | | • | |

Verb + Verb Combinations

| Verb | I <i>to V</i> | II <i>V-ing</i> | III <i>O + to V</i> | IV <i>O + V</i> |
|-----------|------------------|--------------------|------------------------|--------------------|
| learn | • | | | |
| let | | | | • |
| like | • | • | • | |
| listen to | | | | • |
| love | • | • | | |
| make | | | | • |
| manage | • | | | |
| mean | • | | • | |
| mind | | • | | |
| miss | | • | | |
| need | • | | • | |
| neglect | • | • | | |
| notice | | | | • |
| notify | | | • | |
| observe | | | | • |
| offer | • | | | |
| order | | | • | |
| permit | | • | • | |
| persuade | | | • | |
| plan | • | • | | |
| pledge | • | | | |
| postpone | | • | | |
| practice | | • | | |
| prefer | • | • | • | |
| prepare | • | | | |
| pretend | • | • | | |
| proceed | • | | | |
| promise | • | | | |
| propose | • | • | | |
| put off | | • | | |
| quit | | • | | |
| recall | | • | | |
| recommend | | • | | |
| refuse | • | | | |
| regret | • | • | | |
| remember | • | • | | |
| remind | | | • | |
| request | • | | • | |
| require | | | • | |
| resent | | • | | |

Appendix C

| Verb | I <i>to V</i> | II <i>V-ing</i> | III <i>O + to V</i> | IV <i>O + V</i> |
|-----------|------------------|--------------------|------------------------|--------------------|
| resist | | • | | |
| risk | | • | | |
| resume | | • | | |
| see | | | | • |
| seem | • | | | |
| select | | | • | |
| smell | | | | • |
| stand | • | • | | |
| start | • | • | | |
| stop | • | • | | |
| suggest | | • | | |
| swear | • | | | |
| teach | | | • | |
| tell | | | • | |
| tempt | | | • | |
| tend | • | | | |
| threaten | • | | | |
| trust | | | • | |
| try | • | • | | |
| urge | | | • | |
| volunteer | • | | | |
| want | • | | • | |
| warn | | | • | |
| watch | | | | • |
| wish | • | | • | |

IRREGULAR VERBS

| Present | Past | Past Participle |
|----------------|------------------|------------------------|
| arise | arose | arisen |
| awake | awoke | awoken/awakened |
| be | was/were | been |
| bear | bore | borne/born* |
| beat | beat | beaten |
| become | became | become |
| befall | befell | befallen |
| begin | began | begun |
| behold | beheld | beheld |
| bend | bent | bent |
| bereave | bereaved | bereaved/bereft* |
| bet | bet | bet |
| bid | bade/bid* | bidden/bid* |
| bind | bound | bound |
| bite | bit | bitten/bit |
| bleed | bled | bled |
| blow | blew | blown |
| break | broke | broken |
| breed | bred | bred |
| bring | brought | brought |
| broadcast | broadcast | broadcast |
| build | built | built |
| burn | burned/burnt B | burned/burnt B |
| burst | burst | burst |
| buy | bought | bought |
| cast | cast | cast |
| catch | catch | catch |
| chide | chided | chided |
| choose | chose | chosen |
| cling | clung | clung |
| clothe | clothed/clad | clothed/clad |
| come | came | come |
| cost | cost | cost |
| creep | crept | crept |
| cut | cut | cut |
| deal | dealt | dealt |
| dig | dug | dug |
| dive | dove/dived | dived |
| do | did | done |
| draw | drew | drawn |
| dream | dreamed/dreamt B | dreamed/dreamt B |
| drink | drank | drunk |
| drive | drove | driven |
| dwelt | dwelled/dwelt | dwelled/dwelt |

Appendix D

| Present | Past | Past Participle |
|----------------|------------------|------------------------|
| eat | ate | eaten |
| fall | fell | fallen |
| feed | fed | fed |
| feel | felt | felt |
| fight | fought | fought |
| find | found | found |
| flee | fled | fled |
| fling | flung | flung |
| fly | flew | flown |
| forbid | forbad(e)/forbid | forbidden/forbid |
| forecast | forecast | forecast |
| forget | forgot | forgotten/forgot B |
| forgive | forgave | forgiven |
| forsake | forsook | forsaken |
| freeze | froze | frozen |
| get | got | gotten/got B |
| gild | gilded/gilt | gilded/gilt |
| give | gave | given |
| go | went | gone |
| grind | ground | ground |
| grow | grew | grown |
| hang | hung | hung |
| have | had | had |
| hear | heard | heard |
| hide | hid | hidden |
| hit | hit | hit |
| hold | held | held |
| hurt | hurt | hurt |
| keep | kept | kept |
| kneel | kneeled/knelt | kneeled/knelt |
| knit | knit/knitted | knit/knitted |
| know | knew | known |
| lay | laid | laid |
| lead | led | led |
| lean | leaned/leant B | leaned/leant B |
| leap | leaped/leapt B | leaped/leapt B |
| learn | learned/learnt B | learned/learnt B |
| leave | left | left |
| lend | lent | lent |
| let | let | let |
| lie | lay | lain |
| light | lit/lighted | lit/lighted |
| lose | lost | lost |
| make | made | made |
| mean | meant | meant |
| meet | met | met |

| Present | Past | Past Participle |
|----------------|----------------|------------------------|
| mislaid | mislaid | mislaid |
| mislead | misled | misled |
| mistake | mistook | mistaken |
| misunderstand | misunderstood | misunderstood |
| mow | mowed | mowed/mown |
| outdo | outdid | outdone |
| overcome | overcame | overcome |
| overdo | overdid | overdone |
| overdraw | overdrew | overdrawn |
| overtake | overtook | overtaken |
| partake | partook | partaken |
| pay | paid | paid |
| prove | proved | proved/proven |
| put | put | put |
| read | read | read |
| rewind | rewound | rewound |
| rid | rid | rid |
| ride | rode | ridden |
| ring | rang | rung |
| rise | rose | risen |
| run | ran | run |
| say | said | said |
| see | saw | seen |
| seek | sought | sought |
| sell | sold | sold |
| send | sent | sent |
| set | set | set |
| sew | sewed | sewed/sewn |
| shake | shook | shaken |
| shave | shaved | shaved/shaven |
| shear | sheared/shore | sheared/shorn |
| shed | shed | shed |
| shine | shone | shone |
| shoot | shot | shot |
| show | showed | showed/shown |
| shred | shredded/shred | shredded/shred |
| shrink | shrank/shrunk | shrunk |
| shut | shut | shut |
| sing | sang | sung |
| sink | sank/sunk | sunk |
| sit | sat | sat |
| slay | slew | slain |
| sleep | slept | slept |
| slide | slid | slid/slidden |
| sling | slung | slung |
| slit | slit | slit |

Appendix D

| Present | Past | Past Participle |
|----------------|------------------|------------------------|
| smell | smelled/smelt B | smelled/smelt B |
| sow | sowed | sowed/sown |
| speak | spoke | spoken |
| speed | speeded/sped | speeded/sped |
| spell | spelled/spelt B | spelled/spelt B |
| spend | spent | spent |
| spill | spilled/spilt B | spilled/spilt B |
| spin | spun | spun |
| spit | spit/spat B | spit/spat B |
| split | split | split |
| spoil | spoiled/spoilt B | spoiled/spoilt B |
| spread | spread | spread |
| spring | sprang | sprung |
| stand | stood | stood |
| steal | stole | stolen |
| stick | stuck | stuck |
| sting | stung | stung |
| stink | stank/stunk | stunk |
| stride | strode | stridden |
| strike | struck | struck |
| strive | strived/strove | strived/striven |
| swear | swore | sworn |
| sweat | sweated/sweat | sweated/sweat |
| sweep | swept | swept |
| swell | swelled | swelled/swollen |
| swim | swam | swum |
| swing | swung | swung |
| take | took | taken |
| teach | taught | taught |
| tear | tore | torn |
| tell | told | told |
| think | thought | thought |
| thrive | thrived/throve | thrived/thriven |
| throw | threw | thrown |
| thrust | thrust | thrust |
| tread | trod | trod/trodden |
| unbend | unbent | unbent |
| unbind | unbound | unbound |
| undergo | underwent | undergone |
| understand | understood | understood |
| undertake | undertook | undertaken |
| undo | undid | undone |
| unwind | unwound | unwound |
| uphold | upheld | upheld |
| upset | upset | upset |

| Present | Past | Past Participle |
|----------------|-------------|------------------------|
| wake | waked/woke | waked/woke/woken |
| wear | wore | worn |
| weave | wove | woven |
| wed | wedded/wed | wedded/wed |
| weep | wept | wept |
| wet | wetted/wet | wetted/wet |
| win | won | won |
| wind | wound | wound |
| withdraw | withdrew | withdrawn |
| withhold | withheld | withheld |
| withstand | withstood | withstood |
| wring | wrung | wrung |
| write | wrote | written |

*different forms for different meanings

B = British form

INDIRECT OBJECTS IN SENTENCE PATTERNS

S V IO DO

I. I asked *him a question*.

S V DO to + IO

II. He admitted his mistake *to the teacher*.

S V DO IO

III. He answered the question *for everyone*.

| Verb | I | | II | III |
|-------------|----|----|----|-----|
| | IO | DO | to | for |
| admit | | | • | |
| announce | | | • | |
| answer | | | | • |
| ask | | • | | |
| bet | | • | | • |
| bring | | • | • | • |
| build | | • | | • |
| buy | | • | | • |
| call | | • | | • |
| cash | | | | • |
| change | | | | • |
| charge | | | • | • |
| choose | | • | | • |
| cost | | • | | |
| demonstrate | | | • | • |
| deny | | • | • | |
| design | | • | | • |
| describe | | | • | • |
| distribute | | | • | |
| do | | • | • | • |
| draw | | • | | • |
| explain | | | • | • |
| find | | • | | • |
| fix | | • | | • |
| get | | • | | • |
| give | | • | • | |
| guarantee | | • | • | • |
| hand | | • | • | |
| introduce | | | • | |

Indirect Objects in Sentence Patterns

| Verb | I | | II to | III for |
|-----------|----|----|----------|------------|
| | IO | DO | | |
| leave | | • | • | • |
| lend | | • | • | • |
| mail | | • | • | |
| make | | • | | • |
| mention | | | • | |
| offer | | • | • | |
| owe | | • | • | |
| pay | | • | • | |
| play | | • | | |
| prepare | | | | • |
| prescribe | | • | | • |
| promise | | • | • | |
| pronounce | | | | • |
| prove | | | • | |
| read | | • | • | |
| recommend | | | • | • |
| refund | | • | • | |
| refuse | | • | • | |
| repeat | | | • | • |
| report | | | • | |
| save | | • | | • |
| say | | | • | |
| sell | | • | • | |
| send | | • | • | |
| show | | • | • | |
| speak | | | • | |
| state | | | • | • |
| suggest | | | • | • |
| talk | | | • | |
| take | | • | • | |
| teach | | • | • | • |
| telephone | | | • | |
| tell | | • | • | |
| throw | | • | • | |
| wish | | • | • | • |
| write | | • | • | |

**COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE
IRREGULAR FORMS**

| Positive | Comparative | Superlative |
|----------|--------------------|----------------------|
| bad | worse | worst |
| far | farther further | farthest furthest |
| good | better | best |
| little | less | least |
| many | more | most |
| much | | |
| well | better | best |

Note: Example 1 below is incorrect because it has two indications of the comparative: the word *more* and the irregular form *better*.

- (1) × more better

Note: *Further* and *furthest* are used for distance and degree.

- (2) They walked two miles further than we did. (distance)
(3) At our next meeting, let's discuss this problem further. (degree)

Farther and *farthest* are used only for distance.

- (4) They walked two miles farther than we did.

Examples 2 and 4 have the same meaning.

Note: *Well* can be used as an adjective or an adverb. As an adjective, it describes people's health; it is the opposite of *ill* or *sick* (American English).

- (5) Mary has not been well since last Tuesday.

The adjective *good* is not used to describe health (except in very informal conversation).

As an adverb, *well* is the opposite of *badly* or *poorly*.

- (6) His car has been running very well since you gave it a tune-up.

SOME ADJECTIVES AND THEIR PREPOSITIONS

| | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| acceptable to | glad about, of |
| accustomed to | good at, to, for |
| afraid of, about | grateful for, to |
| amazed at | (un)happy about, with |
| angry about, at, with | harmful for, to |
| annoyed at, with | homesick for |
| anxious about | (dis)honest about, in, with |
| ashamed of | hungry for |
| aware of | identical to, with |
| bored by, with | ignorant about, of |
| busy with | independent of |
| capable of | interested in |
| careful about, of, with | jealous of |
| careless about, of, with | kind to |
| certain about, of | known for |
| comparable to | mad at |
| composed of | made from, of, with |
| concerned about | necessary for, to |
| confident about, of | parallel to |
| confused about | particular about |
| (un)conscious of | (im)patient with |
| (in)considerate about, of | perpendicular to |
| (dis)courteous to | pleased about, at |
| critical of | polite to |
| dedicated to | popular with |
| dependent on | positive about, of |
| different from, than, to | preferable to |
| disappointed about, at, in, with | prepared for |
| doubtful about, of | proud of |
| eager for | qualified for |
| easy on, with | ready for |
| eligible for | rich in |
| enthusiastic about | right about |
| envious of | rude to |
| equal to | sad about |
| essential to, for | safe from |
| excited about | (dis)satisfied about, with, |
| experienced in | by |
| expert at, in, with | sensitive about, to |
| familiar with | scared of |
| famous for | serious about |
| fond of | separate from |
| full of | sick with |

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