

# **A REVIEW OF STRUCTURES AND WRITTEN EXPRESSIONS**

## **JUST A FEW WORDS**

Here is something I want to share with every person who loves learning English. These pages contain very important information and some useful structures that we often forget.

However, we can brush up on them sporadically so that we may express our ideas in English as clearly as possible. If necessary, you may do this by checking brief grammar definitions and analyzing some standard structures with some examples. In fact, it is also advisable for you to produce your own sentences every time you do this review.

Finally, I think that it is of paramount importance that English learners get used to reviewing expressions and structures like the ones I am including here. What I intend to do with this elementary paper is to encourage you to have that useful habit.

*Always enjoy learning English*

*Germán Maldonado Neyra  
CEID/UNJBG – Tacna - May, 2008*

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## PROBLEMS WITH CLAUSES

### CLAUSES:

*A clause is a group of related words containing a subject and a verb.*

#### Words We Use to Talk about Clauses

This handout categorizes clauses into **independent** and **dependent** clauses. This simply means that some clauses can stand by themselves, as separate sentences, and some can't. Another term for dependent clause is **subordinate clause**: this means that the clause is subordinate to another element (the independent clause) and depends on that other element for its meaning.

As an independent clause..... "She is older than her brother"

As a dependent clause ..... "Because she is older than her brother, ..."

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*"Because she is older than her brother, she tells him what to do."*

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*"Since she is older than her brother, she tells him what to do."*

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British grammarians will classify clauses using the terms defining and non-defining.

Defining clauses: "I hate women **who talk a lot.**"

"The book **we're reading at school** is about Peru."

Non-defining clauses: "Carlos, **who lives next door**, is Mary's boyfriend."

**Relative clauses** are dependent clauses introduced by a **Relative Pronoun** (that, which, whichever, who, whoever, whom, whomever, whose, and of which).

*Giuseppe said that the plantar wart, **which had been bothering him for years**, had to be removed.*

Some relative clauses will refer to more than a single word in the preceding text; they can modify an entire clause or even a series of clauses.

*Charlie didn't get the job in administration, which really surprised his friends.  
Charlie didn't get the job in administration, and he didn't even apply for the Dean's position,  
which really surprised his friends.*

A relative clause that refers to or modifies entire clauses in this manner is called a **sentential clause**. Sometimes the "which" of a sentential clause will get tucked into the clause as the determiner of a noun:

*Charlie might very well take a job as headmaster, in which case the school might as well close down.*

## Independent Clauses

**Independent Clauses** could stand by themselves as discrete sentences, except that when they do stand by themselves, separated from other clauses, they're normally referred to simply as sentences, not clauses. The ability to recognize a clause and to know when a clause is capable of acting as an independent unit is essential to correct writing and is especially helpful in avoiding **sentence fragments** and **run-on sentences**.

A **run-on sentence** is a **sentence** in which two or more independent **clauses** are joined without **punctuation** or **conjunctions**. It is not, as is commonly thought, simply a very long sentence; a properly punctuated sentence can be correctly extended almost indefinitely. Some modern authors have used run-on sentences knowingly for effect, but they are considered punctuation errors. For example:

*It is nearly half past five we cannot reach town before dark.*

Needless to say, it is important to learn how to combine independent clauses into larger units of thought. In the following sentence, for example,

*Bob didn't mean to do it, but he did it anyway.*

Clauses are combined in three different ways: coordination, subordination, and by means of a semicolon.

**Coordination** involves joining independent clauses with one of the coordinating conjunctions: *and, but, or, nor, for, yet*, and sometimes\* *so*. Clauses thus connected are usually nicely balanced in length and import.

*Ramonita thought about joining the church choir, but she never talked to her friends about it.*

**Subordination** involves turning one of the clauses into a subordinate element (one that cannot stand on its own. When the clause begins with a subordinating word, it is no longer an independent clause; it is called a dependent or subordinate clause because it depends on something else (the independent clause) for its meaning. There are other ways of combining ideas — by turning independent clauses into various kinds of modifying **phrases**.

*Although Ramonita often thought about joining the choir, she never talked to her friends about it.*

*Ramonita never talked to her friends about joining the choir, because she was afraid they would make fun of her.*

*Yasmin is Ramonita's sister. Yasmin told Ramonita to join the choir no matter what her friends said.*

*Joining these with the use of a relative clause:*

*Yasmin, [who is] Ramonita's sister, told Ramonita to join the choir. . . .*

**Semicolons** can connect two independent clauses with or without the help of a **conjunctive adverb (transitional expression)**. Semicolons should be used sparingly and only when the two independent clauses involved are closely related and nicely balanced in terms of length and import.

*Ramonita has such a beautiful voice; many couples have asked her to sing at their wedding.*

*Ramonita's voice has a clear, angelic quality; furthermore, she clearly enjoys using it.*

**Dependent Clauses** cannot stand by themselves and make good sense. They must be combined with an independent clause so that they become part of a sentence that can stand by itself. Unlike independent clauses, which simply are what they are, dependent clauses are said to perform various functions within a sentence. They act either in the capacity of some kind of noun or as some kind of modifier. There are three basic kinds of dependent clauses, categorized according to their function in the sentence. Remember that a dependent clause always contains a subject and a verb, but it cannot stand by itself.

**Adverb clauses** provide information about what is going on in the main (independent) clause: where, when, or why.

*"When the movie is over, we'll go downtown."* or

*"John wanted to write a book because he had so much to say about the subject."*

**Adjective clauses** work like multi-word adjectives.

*"The bridge that collapsed in the winter storm will cost millions to replace."*

A special kind of adjective clause begins with a **relative adverb** (*where, when, and why*) but nonetheless functions as adjectivally.

**Noun clauses** can do anything that nouns can do.

*"What he knows is no concern of mine." .....As a subject.*

*"Do you know what he knows?" .....As objects.*

*"What can you tell me about what he has done this year*

 <p><b>Noun Clause as Subject</b></p>	<p><i>What they did with the treasure</i> remains a mystery.</p> <p><i>Whatever you want for dessert</i> is fine with me.</p> <p><i>That you should feel this way about her</i> came as a great surprise to us.</p>
 <p><b>Noun Clause as Object</b></p>	<p>Juan finally revealed <i>what he had done with the money</i>.</p> <p>Her husband spent <i>whatever she had saved over the years</i>.</p> <p>I don't know <i>what I should do next</i>.</p>
 <p><b>Noun Clause as Object of Preposition</b></p>	<p>In fact, he wrote a book about <i>what he had done over the years</i>.</p> <p>We are interested in <i>what he does for a living</i>.</p>
 <p><b>Noun Clause as Predicate Nominative</b></p>	<p>The trouble was <i>that they had never been there before</i>.</p> <p>The biggest disappointment of last season was <i>that the women's team didn't make it to the final four</i>.</p>
 <p><b>Adjective Clause</b></p>	<p>My brother, <i>who now teaches math in a small college</i>, never liked math in high school.</p> <p>The dealership <i>that sold more cars</i> ended up actually losing money.</p> <p>The Federated Bank, <i>which was founded nearly two centuries ago</i>, folded during the state's economic crisis.</p>

	<p>The team had fallen behind by ten points <i>before they were able to figure out the opponent's defense.</i></p> <p><i>Since he started working nights,</i> he doesn't see much of his kids.</p> <p><i>While Josie sat inside watching television,</i> Gladys shoveled the driveway.</p>
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### Combinations of Clauses

Pay special attention to the variety of sentence types: simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences. These are defined by their essential ingredients, the clauses that make them up.

### Elliptical Clauses

**Elliptical Clauses** are grammatically incomplete in the sense that they are missing either the relative pronoun (dependent word) that normally introduces such a clause or something from the predicate in the second part of a comparison. The missing parts of the elliptical clause can be guessed from the context and most readers are not aware that anything is missing. In fact, elliptical clauses are regarded as both useful and correct, even in formal prose, because they are often elegant, efficient means of expression. (The omitted words are noted in brackets below).

*Coach Espinoza knew [that] this team would be the best [that] she had coached in recent years.*

*Though [they were] sometimes nervous on the court, her recruits proved to be hard workers.*

*Sometimes the veterans knew the recruits could play better than they [could play].*

**Problem 1: Positions of Relative clauses**

<b>Subject Position</b>				
<b>Subject</b>		<b>Verb</b>	<b>Object</b>	
	<b>Clause</b>			
People	who talk loudly	bother	me.	
Dogs	that bark during the night	drive	me	crazy.
Other expressions with verbs you can use are:				
...make me angry				
...make me furious				
...make me wild				

<b>Object Position</b>			
<b>Subject</b>	<b>Verb</b>	<b>Object</b>	
			<b>Clause</b>
I	don't like	people	who talk loudly.
I	can't stand	dogs	that bark loudly
I	Like	people	who are sociable.
I	like	a person	that is honest.

<b>Initial Position</b>	
<b>Clause</b>	<b>Simple sentence</b>
When people arrive late for appointments,	I get very angry.
When you were at primary school,	who was your favorite teacher?
When you're invited to someone's house,	you usually take a gift.
If you go out to a restaurant with friends,	you usually share the bill.
To be successful in business,	you have to be tough.
For a film to be successful,	it should have a good plot.
For any product to be a success,	it should be useful.

<b>Initial Position: Adverbial clauses of time</b>		
<b>Clause</b>		<b>Simple sentence</b>
<b>Adverb</b>		
Before	Western couples get married,	they usually go out together a lot.
After	the wedding ceremony finishes,	there is usually a reception.
When	a bride marries in a church,	She often wears a white dress.

<b>Initial Position: Shortening adverbial clauses</b>	
<b>Clause</b>	<b>Simple sentence</b>
Before I worked here,	I studied English.
<b>Shortened Clause</b>	<b>Simple sentence</b>
Before working here,	I studied English.
<b>Clause</b>	<b>Simple sentence</b>
After I left school,	I went to Lima.
<b>Shortened Clause</b>	<b>Simple sentence</b>
After leaving school,	I went to Lima.
<b>Clause</b>	<b>Simple sentence</b>
While I was living in Lima,	I tried to get a job.
<b>Shortened Clause</b>	<b>Simple sentence</b>
While living in Lima,	I tried to get a job.
<b>Clause</b>	<b>Simple sentence</b>
Since I've lived here,	I've made a lot of friends.
<b>Shortened Clause</b>	<b>Simple sentence</b>
Since living here,	I've made a lot of friends.
<b>Clause</b>	<b>Simple sentence</b>
Although it had damaged,	the machine was still operational
<b>Shortened Clause</b>	<b>Simple sentence</b>
Although damaged,	the machine was still operational.
<b>Clause</b>	<b>Simple sentence</b>
Although he was nervous,	he gave a wonderful speech.
<b>Shortened Clause</b>	<b>Simple sentence</b>
Although nervous,	he gave a wonderful speech.

Remember that when the subject of the main clause and the subject of the adverb clause are the same person or thing, the adverb clause can be shortened. We have three reduced adverb clauses: With present participle, with a past participle and with an adjective.

Initial Position: Adverbial phrases		
Phrase		Simple sentence
<b>Adverb</b>		
During	the week,	I used to study.
After	two years,	I finally got a job.
Before	1998,	he wrote his biography.

#### Defining and non-defining clauses

Final Position	
Simple sentence	Clause
I get very angry	when people arrive late for appointments,
I don't like it	when people are reliable.
I love it	when someone is easygoing.
I like it	when a person is punctual.
It bothers me	when people blow smoke in my face.
I can't stand it	when people chew gum while they're talking.
Who was your best friend	when you started secondary school?
We met	while we were working in a restaurant in the summer holidays.
<b>Other expressions:</b>	
It annoys me ....	
It infuriates me....	
It makes me crazy....	
It really gets on my nerves....	

Final Position: Clauses of time	
Simple sentence	Clause
March 17 <sup>th</sup> is the day	<i>when the Irish remember St. Patrick,</i>
The Twenty-eighth of July is the day	when the Peruvians celebrate their independence.
Other expressions are:	
the month when...	
the night when...	
a day when...	
a time of year when...	
a time when...	
a season when...	

## PROBLEMS WITH ADJECTIVES

### Problem 1: Order of Adjectives

	Adjectives								Noun
	Opinion Adjective	Fact Adjectives							
		Physical description				origin	material	Usage type	
size	age	shape	color						
Cusco is a	beautiful					Peruvian		tourist	city
Detroit is an			old			American		industrial	city.
It's a	charming					Italian		summer	resort
It's a	beautiful		old			German		touring	car

Examples:

1. It's an expensive antique silver mirror.
2. Four gorgeous long-stemmed red silk roses. (Shape: long-stemmed)
3. Her short black hair.
4. Our big old English sheepdog.
5. Those dilapidated little hunting cabin.
6. Several enormous young American basketball players.
7. Some delicious Thai food.

### Problem 2: Premodifiers with Degrees of Adjectives

Both adverbs and adjectives in their comparative and superlative forms can be accompanied by premodifiers, single words and phrases, that intensify the degree.

- We were a lot more careful this time.
- He works a lot less carefully than the other jeweler in town.
- We like his work so much better.
- You'll get your watch back all the faster.

The same process can be used to downplay the degree:

- The weather this week has been somewhat better.
- He approaches his schoolwork a little less industriously than his brother does.

And sometimes a set phrase, usually an informal noun phrase, is used for this purpose:

- He arrived a whole lot sooner than we expected.
- That's a heck of a lot better.

If the intensifier *very* accompanies the superlative, a determiner is also required:

- She is wearing her very finest outfit for the interview.
- They're doing the very best they can.

Occasionally, the comparative or superlative form appears with a determiner and the thing being modified is understood:

- Of all the wines produced in Connecticut, I like this one the most.
- The quicker you finish this project, the better.
- Of the two brothers, he is by far the faster.

### **Problem with Less and Fewer**

When making a comparison between quantities we often have to make a choice between the words *fewer* and *less*. Generally, when we're talking about countable things, we use the word *fewer*; when we're talking about measurable quantities that we cannot count, we use the word *less*.

"She had fewer chores, but she also had less energy."

We do, however, definitely use *less* when referring to statistical or numerical expressions:

- It's less than twenty miles to Dallas.
- We spent less than forty dollars on our trip.

In these situations, it's possible to regard the quantities as *sums* of countable measures

## PROBLEMS WITH QUANTIFIERS

### Problem 1: Quantifiers with countable nouns

	Quantifier	Countable Noun		
There are	too many	tourists.		
	a few	hostels.		
	(very) few	Restaurants		
	not many	Beaches		
	plenty of	parks.		
	a lot of	shops.		
	lots of	Students		
	a number of	choices.		
	(not) enough	hotels.		
	hardly any	pencils.		
	No	Restrictions		
<b>Other expressions are:</b>				
	a rush of .....	a plethora of.....	a score of...	a host of....

### Problem 2: Quantifiers with uncountable nouns

	Quantifier	Countable Noun
There is	too much	rain.
	a little	pollution.
	(very) little	poverty.
	not much	traffic.
	plenty of	sightseeing.
	a lot of	crime.
	lots of	Homework
	(not) enough	industry.
	Hardly any	water.
	No	Employment.

## PROBLEMS WITH PAST PARTICLES

### Problem 1: Past participles with prepositions

Past participle	Prepositions
Amazed Excited Surprised	at / by
Bored	by / with
Fascinated Worried	By
Interested	In
Pleased	at / with

Examples:

- We were **amazed at** all the circus animals.
- We were **amused by** the clowns.
- We were **annoyed by** the elephants.
- We were **bored by the** ringmaster.
- We were **confused by** the noise.
- We were **disappointed by** the motorcycle daredevils.
- We were **disappointed in** their performance.
- We were **embarrassed by** my brother.
- We were **exhausted from** all the excitement.
- We were **excited by** the lion-tamer.
- We were **excited about** the high-wire act, too.
- We were **frightened by** the lions.
- We were **introduced to** the ringmaster.
- We were **interested in** the tent.
- We were **irritated by** the heat.
- We were **opposed to** leaving early.
- We were **satisfied with** the circus.
- We were **shocked at** the level of noise under the big tent.
- We were **surprised by** the fans' response.
- We were **surprised at** their indifference.
- We were **tired of** all the lights after a while.
- We were **worried about** the traffic leaving the parking lot.

## PROBLEMS WITH REQUESTS

**Request 1:** Indirect requests with statements

	<b>that</b>	<b>Statement</b>
Could you tell her	that	Tony is having a party?

**Request 2:** Indirect requests with imperatives

	<b>(not) to</b>	<b>Verb word</b>
Would you ask her	to	call me at five?
Can you tell Peter	not to	be late again?

**Request 3:** Indirect requests with yes/no questions

	<b>if</b>	<b>Yes/no question</b>
Can you ask Rose	if	she is free on Tuesday?
Do you know	if	he has a cell phone?
Please ask him	if	he will be there.

**Request 4:** Indirect requests with *WH-* questions

	<b>WH-word</b>	<b>Question</b>
Can you ask Rose	where	she is going?
Do you know	when	the party starts?
Please ask him	what	we should bring.

**Request 5:** Requests with *if-clauses*

	<b>If – clause</b>
<b>Would</b> it be OK	If I <b>came</b> late tomorrow ?
<b>Would</b> you mind	If I <b>didn't come</b> ?
I wonder	If you'd <b>mind lending</b> me your calculator?

## PROBLEMS WITH subject/verb INVERSIONS

### Type of Inversion 1: Negative Introductions

<b>Negative Introduction</b>	<b>Inversion</b>	
Nowhere	had Susan seen	a more beautifully decorated room.

Examples:

1. Never do I sleep when I have an exam.
2. Never have I seen such a stupid person.
3. Never in her life had she experienced this exhilarating emotion.
4. Rarely does a movie make you feel so warm and so uneasy at the same time.
5. Seldom have I seen him looking so miserable.
6. Little did she realize how she had hurt my feelings.
7. Seldom does Tom mean what he says.
8. Seldom do I go to the movies. (do – auxiliary verb used with the simple present)
9. Seldom did she visit her parents. (did – auxiliary verb used with the simple past)

<b>Negative Introduction</b>		<b>Inversion</b>	
<b>Preposition</b>	<b>NO</b>		
At	no time	did I say	I would accept late homework

Examples:

1. At no time did they actually break the rules.
2. Under no circumstances are passengers permitted to open the door.
3. In no way could I help you with your homework.
4. On no account will they be allowed to smoke here.

5. In no case would I accept your offer.
6. In neither case will I be able to do it.

Negative Introduction		Inversion	
NO	Object		
No	a single word	did they say	about our agreement.

Negative Introduction		Inversion	
NOT	UNTIL		
No	until August	will I have	a vacation.

### Type of Inversion 2 : Introductions with Only

Inversions with ONLY			
Introduction			
Only	Prepositional phrase	Inversion	
Only	after a three-hour delay	did their flight leave.	

Other expressions are: Only by... Only in.... Only with

Examples:

1. Only by studying hard will you pass this course.
2. Only at night can I study.

Inversions with ONLY			
Introduction			
Only	a time expression	Inversion	
Only	then	was I	able to speak to him.

Remember that it is usually used with the simple past.  
Other expressions are: Only later... Only if.... Only once.... Only then.... Only when..  
Only after

Examples:

1. Only later did I recognize him.
2. Only then did I know what I had got myself into.

Inversions with ONLY				
Introduction		First part		Second part
	Not only	Inversion		as well
	Not only	is Jane	Being sarcastic,	she's being ironic as well.

<b>Inversions with ONLY</b>					
<b>Introduction</b>		<b>First part</b>		<b>Second part</b>	
<b>Not only</b>		<b>Inversion</b>		<b>but</b>	<b>also</b>
Not only		has he played	well	but he has	also encouraged the team.

### **Type of Inversion 3 : Introductions about an event that quickly follows another**

<b>First part</b>			<b>Second part</b>		
<b>Hardly</b>	<b>Inversion</b>				
Hardly	had I got	into bed	when there was a knock at the door.		

It is usually used with the past perfect. Less used is Hardly ...before.  
Example: Hardly had I left before the trouble started.

<b>First part</b>			<b>Second part</b>	
<b>No sooner</b>	<b>Inversion</b>		<b>Than</b>	
No sooner	had I reached	the door	than	I realized it was locked.

It is usually used with the past perfect, but sometimes with the simple past.  
Example: No sooner did I reach the door than I realized it was locked.

<b>First part</b>			<b>Second part</b>	
<b>Scarcely</b> <b>Barely</b>	<b>Inversion</b>		<b>when</b>	
Scarcely	had I arrived	home	when	there was a knock on the door

It is usually used with the past perfect.

### **Type of Inversion 4 : Inversion with SO ...THAT**

<b>Introduction</b>		<b>Inversion</b>			
<b>SO</b>	<b>Adjective / Adverb</b>				
So	happy	was I		that I bought flowers for everybody in class.	
So	quickly	Did she leave		that we did not even realise was gone.	
So	rarely	does a comet appear		visible to the naked eye that when one does, it is considered a major event.	

Used with all verbs.

### Type of Inversion 5 : Introductions with SUCH

Introduction	Inversion		
<b>SUCH</b>		<b>That</b>	
Such	was the popularity of the film,	that	Streets were deserted whenever it was on.
Used with the verb to be and a noun, it means <b>so much</b> or <b>so great</b>			

### Type of Inversion 6 : Adverbial Introductions

Adverbial Introduction	Inversion
Into the room	ran the lady.
After A comes B, then	comes C, next comes D
Down	came the rain and washed the spider out.
First	comes love, then comes marriage.
<p>Inversion is optional. Notice that sometimes we have an adverb, like first and down and sometimes we have an adverb phrase like <i>into the room</i> or <i>after A</i>. These adverbs and adverb phrases usually show location or direction.</p> <p>This type of inversion usually only occurs with be-verbs, linking verbs and verbs that show direction or movement, like come, go, run, etc.</p>	

### Type of Inversion 7 : Introductions with –ed , past form

Introduction	Inversion	
Found in Cusco	is Machu Picchu,	the so-called lost city of Incas.
Lost among the books	was my passport.	
Located between Lima and Arequipa	is Ica.	
<p>Inversion is obligatory. Used with be-verbs.</p> <p>This type of inversion usually occurs with be-verbs, but sometimes with linking verbs.</p> <p>Notice that the phrase is the complement of the be-verb</p>		

### Type of Inversion 8 : Introduction and Comparatives with Inversion

Introduction	Comparative	Inversion
Cheetahs run faster	than	do antelopes
You speak Chinese better	than	do I
Jessica is more interested in Computer Science	than	is Peter.

Inversion is optional. Used with all verbs.

We normally only have inversion here if we are comparing subjects of the verb, not objects.

For example, in the following sentence, we are comparing objects, carrots and potatoes, not the subject I.:

*I like carrots more than **I do** potatoes.*

Now, in this sentence, we are comparing subjects, I and my friend Carl:

*I like carrots more than **does my friend Carl.***

### Type of Inversion 9 : Introduction with Comparatives

Introduction	Comparative	Inversion
Bigger than a horse		is an elephant.
More important than your passport		is your Green card.
No less impressive than the invention of the laser		was the development of the wheel

Inversion is obligatory. Used with be-verbs.

Notice that we can only use this form of inversion when the verb is a be-verb since in every case, the comparative is the complement of the be-verb.

Remember that less than is also a comparative.

### Type of Inversion 10 : Inversion with AS

Introduction	Comparative	Inversion
Megumi is from Japan,		as is Sato.
Raul wants to leave early today,		as does his brother
If thrown into the water, camels can swim,		as can cats.

Inversion is obligatory. Used with all verbs.

We can only use inversion if we are using as for comparisons.

### MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES

1. Never in all my life have I seen such a horrible thing.
2. Only in Paris do you find bars like this.
3. Only if these conditions are fulfilled can the application proceed to the next stage.

4. A little way up on the left hand-side is the Museum of Modern Art.
5. Rarely has a debate attracted so much media attention.
6. At no time did I give my consent to the plan.
7. Hardly had she spoken than she regretted it bitterly.
  
8. No sooner had we sat down at the table than the phone rang.
9. Scarcely had we sat down at the table, when the phone rang.
10. Hardly had we sat down at the table, when the phone rang.
  
11. Little did I know that this spelled the end of my career.
12. No sooner had she said it than she burst into tears.
13. On no account should the house be left unlocked.
  
14. Under no circumstances should you lend Paul any money.
15. Seldom had he seen such beauty.

## **PROBLEMS WITH EMPHASIS IN ENGLISH - SPECIAL FORMS**

There are a number of ways to add emphasis to your sentences in English. Use these forms to emphasize your statements when you are expressing your opinions, disagreeing, making strong suggestions, expressing annoyance, etc.

### **Use of the Passive**

The passive voice is used when focusing on the person or thing affected by an action. Generally, more emphasis is given to the beginning of a sentence. By using a passive sentence, we emphasize by showing what happens to something rather than who or what does something.

*"Reports are expected by the end of the week."*

In this example, attention is called to what is expected of students (reports).

### **Inversion**

Invert the word order by placing a prepositional phrase or other expression (at no time, suddenly into, little, seldom, never, etc.) at the beginning of the sentence followed by inverted word order.

*At no time did I say you couldn't come.*

*Hardly had I arrived when he started complaining.*

*Little did I understand what was happening.*

*Seldom have I felt so alone.*

### **Expressing Annoyance**

Use the continuous form modified by 'always', 'forever', etc. to express annoyance at another person's action. This form is considered an exception as it used to express a **routine** rather than an action occurring at a particular moment in time.

*Martha is always getting into trouble.*

*Peter is forever asking tricky questions.*

*George was always being reprimanded by his teachers.*

Note that this form is generally used with the present or past continuous (he is always doing, they were always doing).

### **Cleft Sentences: It**

Sentences introduced by 'It is' or 'It was' are often used to emphasize a specific subject or object. The introductory clause is then followed by a relative pronoun.

*It was I who received the promotion.*

*It is the awful weather that drives him crazy.*

### **Cleft Sentences: What**

Sentences introduced by a clause beginning with 'What' are also used to emphasize a specific subject or object. The clause introduced by 'What' is employed as the subject of the sentence as is followed by the verb 'to be'.

*What we need is a good long shower.*

*What he thinks isn't necessarily true.*

## Exceptional Use of 'Do' or 'Did'

You have probably learned that the auxiliary verbs 'do' and 'did' are not used in positive sentences - for example: *He went to the store.* NOT *He did go to the store.* However, in order to emphasize something we feel strongly these auxiliary verbs can be used as an exception to the rule.

*No that's not true. John did speak to Mary.*

*I do believe that you should think twice about this situation.*

Note this form is often used to express something contrary to what another person believes.

## PROBLEMS WITH ADVERBS

### Kinds of Adverbs

#### Adverbs of Manner

She moved slowly and spoke quietly.

#### Adverbs of Place

She has lived on the island all her life.

She still lives there now.

#### Adverbs of Frequency

She takes the boat to the mainland every day.

She often goes by herself.

#### Adverbs of Time

She tries to get back before dark.

It's starting to get dark now.

She finished her tea first.

She left early.

#### Adverbs of Purpose

She drives her boat slowly to avoid hitting the rocks.

She shops in several stores to get the best buys.

## Positions of Adverbs

One of the hallmarks of adverbs is their ability to move around in a sentence. Adverbs of manner are particularly flexible in this regard.

- Solemnly the minister addressed her congregation.
- The minister solemnly addressed her congregation.
- The minister addressed her congregation solemnly.

The following adverbs of frequency appear in various points in these sentences:

- Before the main verb: I never get up before nine o'clock.
- Between the auxiliary verb and the main verb: I have rarely written to my brother without a good reason.
- Before the verb *used to*: I always used to see him at his summer home.

Indefinite adverbs of time can appear either before the verb or between the auxiliary and the main verb:

- He finally showed up for batting practice.
- She has recently retired.

## Order of Adverbs

There is a basic order in which adverbs will appear when there is more than one. It is similar to **Order of Adjectives**, but it is even more flexible.

ORDER OF ADVERBS					
Verb	Manner	Place	Frequency	Time	Purpose
Beth swims	enthusiastically	in the pool	every morning	before dawn	to keep in shape.
Dad walks	impatiently	into town	every afternoon	before supper	to get a newspaper.
Tashonda naps		in her room	every morning	before lunch.	

In actual practice, of course, it would be highly unusual to have a string of adverbial modifiers beyond two or three (at the most). Because the placement of adverbs is so flexible, one or two of the modifiers would probably move to the beginning of the sentence: "Every afternoon before supper, Dad impatiently walks into town to get a newspaper." When that happens, the introductory adverbial modifiers are usually set off with a comma.

## Predeterminers

The **predeterminers** occur prior to other determiners (as you would probably guess from their name). This class of words includes multipliers (*double, twice, four/five times . . .*); fractional expressions (*one-third, three-quarters, etc.*); the words *both, half, and all*; and intensifiers such as *quite, rather, and such*.

The *multipliers* precede plural count and mass nouns and occur with singular count nouns denoting number or amount:

- This van holds three times *the* passengers as that sports car.
- My wife is making double *my* / twice *my* salary.
- This time we added five times *the* amount of water.

In *fractional expressions*, we have a similar construction, but here it can be replaced with "of" construction.

- Charlie finished in one-fourth [of] *the* time his brother took.
- Two-fifths of the respondents reported that half *the* medication was sufficient.

The *intensifiers* occur in this construction primarily in casual speech and writing and are more common in British English than they are in American English. The intensifier "what" is often found in stylistic fragments: "We visited my brother in his dorm room. What a mess!"

- This room is rather a mess, isn't it?
- The ticket-holders made quite a fuss when they couldn't get in.
- What an idiot he turned out to be.
- Our vacation was such a grand experience.

*Half, both, and all* can occur with singular and plural **count nouns**; *half* and *all* can occur with **mass nouns**. There are also "of constructions" with these words ("all [of] the grain," "half [of] his salary"); the "of construction" is *required* with personal pronouns ("both of them," "all of it").

## PROBLEMS WITH CONJUNCTIONS

### Coordinating Conjunctions

The simple, little conjunctions are called **coordinating conjunctions**.

Coordinating Conjunctions						
and	but	or	yet	for	nor	so

(It may help you remember these conjunctions by recalling that they all have fewer than four letters. Also, remember the acronym **FANBOYS**: For-And-Nor-But-Or-Yet-So. Be careful of the words *then* and *now*; neither is a coordinating conjunction, so what we say about coordinating conjunctions' roles in a sentence and punctuation does not apply to those two words.)

When a coordinating conjunction connects two **independent clauses**, it is often (but not always) accompanied by a comma:

- Carlos wants to play for Alianza Lima, but he has had trouble meeting the academic requirements.

When the two independent clauses connected by a coordinating conjunction are nicely balanced or brief, many writers will omit the comma:

- Ulysses has a great jump shot but he isn't quick on his feet.

The comma is always correct when used to separate two independent clauses connected by a coordinating conjunction.

A comma is also correct when *and* is used to attach the last item of a serial list, although many writers (especially in newspapers) will omit that final comma:

- Ulysses spent his summer studying basic math, writing, and reading comprehension.

When a coordinating conjunction is used to connect all the elements in a series, a comma is not used:

- Presbyterians and Methodists and Baptists are the prevalent Protestant congregations in Oklahoma.

A comma is also used with *but* when expressing a contrast:

- This is a useful rule, but difficult to remember.

In most of their other roles as joiners (other than joining independent clauses, that is), coordinating conjunctions can join two sentence elements without the help of a comma.

- Hemingway and Fitzgerald are among the American expatriates of the between-the-wars era.
- Hemingway was renowned for his clear style and his insights into American notions of male identity.
- It is hard to say whether Hemingway or Fitzgerald is the more interesting cultural icon of his day.
- Although Hemingway is sometimes disparaged for his unpleasant portrayal of women and for his glorification of *machismo*, we nonetheless find some sympathetic, even heroic, female figures in his novels and short stories.

Among the coordinating conjunctions, the most common, of course, are *and*, *but*, and *or*. It might be helpful to explore the uses of these three little words. The examples below by no means exhaust the possible meanings of these conjunctions.

## AND

- a. To suggest that one idea is chronologically sequential to another: "Tashonda sent in her applications and waited by the phone for a response."
- b. To suggest that one idea is the result of another: "Willie heard the weather report and promptly boarded up his house."
- c. To suggest that one idea is in contrast to another (frequently replaced by *but* in this usage): "Juanita is brilliant and Shalimar has a pleasant personality."
- d. To suggest an element of surprise (sometimes replaced by *yet* in this usage): "Hartford is a rich city and suffers from many symptoms of urban blight."

- e. To suggest that one clause is dependent upon another, conditionally (usually the first clause is an imperative): "Use your credit cards frequently and you'll soon find yourself deep in debt."
- f. To suggest a kind of "comment" on the first clause: "Charlie became addicted to gambling — and that surprised no one who knew him."

## **BUT**

- a. To suggest a contrast that is unexpected in light of the first clause: "Joey lost a fortune in the stock market, but he still seems able to live quite comfortably."
- b. To suggest in an affirmative sense what the first part of the sentence implied in a negative way (sometimes replaced by *on the contrary*): "The club never invested foolishly, but used the services of a sage investment counselor."
- c. To connect two ideas with the meaning of "with the exception of" (and then the second word takes over as subject): "Everybody but Goldenbreath is trying out for the team."

## **OR**

- a. To suggest that only one possibility can be realized, excluding one or the other: "You can study hard for this exam or you can fail."
- b. To suggest the inclusive combination of alternatives: "We can broil chicken on the grill tonight, or we can just eat leftovers."
- c. To suggest a refinement of the first clause: "Smith College is the premier all-women's college in the country, or so it seems to most Smith College alumnae."
- d. To suggest a restatement or "correction" of the first part of the sentence: "There are no rattlesnakes in this canyon, or so our guide tells us."
- e. To suggest a negative condition: "The New Hampshire state motto is the rather grim "Live free or die."
- f. To suggest a negative alternative without the use of an imperative: "They must approve his political style or they wouldn't keep electing him mayor."

## **The Others . . . .**

The conjunction **NOR** is not extinct, but it is not used nearly as often as the other conjunctions, so it might feel a bit odd when *nor* does come up in conversation or writing. Its most common use is as the little brother in the correlative pair, *neither-nor*:

- He is neither sane nor brilliant.

- That is neither what I said nor what I meant.

It can be used with other negative expressions:

- That is not what I meant to say, nor should you interpret my statement as an admission of guilt.

It is possible to use *nor* without a preceding negative element, but it is unusual and, to an extent, rather stuffy:

- George's handshake is as good as any written contract, nor has he ever proven untrustworthy.

The word **YET** functions sometimes as an adverb and has several meanings: in addition ("yet another cause of trouble" or "a simple yet noble woman"), even ("yet more expensive"), still ("he is yet a novice"), eventually ("they may yet win"), and so soon as now ("he's not here yet"). It also functions as a coordinating conjunction meaning something like "nevertheless" or "but." The word *yet* seems to carry an element of distinctiveness that *but* can seldom register.

- John plays basketball well, yet his favorite sport is badminton.
- The visitors complained loudly about the heat, yet they continued to play golf every day.

In sentences such as the second one, above, the pronoun subject of the second clause ("they," in this case) is often left out. When that happens, the comma preceding the conjunction might also disappear: "The visitors complained loudly yet continued to play golf every day."

*Yet* is sometimes combined with other conjunctions, *but* or *and*. It would not be unusual to see and yet in sentences like the ones above. This usage is acceptable.

The word **FOR** is most often used as a preposition, of course, but it does serve, on rare occasions, as a coordinating conjunction. Some people regard the conjunction for as rather highfalutin and literary, and it does tend to add a bit of weightiness to the text. Beginning a sentence with the conjunction "for" is probably not a good idea, except when you're singing "For he's a jolly good fellow." "For" has serious sequential implications and in its use the order of thoughts is more important than it is, say, with *because* or *since*. Its function is to introduce the reason for the preceding clause:

- John thought he had a good chance to get the job, for his father was on the company's board of trustees.
- Most of the visitors were happy just sitting around in the shade, for it had been a long, dusty journey on the train.

Be careful of the conjunction **SO**. Sometimes it can connect two independent clauses along with a comma, but sometimes it can't. For instance, in this sentence,

- Soto is not the only Olympic athlete in his family, so are his brother, sister, and his Uncle Chet.

where the word *so* means "as well" or "in addition," most careful writers would use a semicolon between the two independent clauses. In the following sentence, where *so* is acting like a minor-league "therefore," the conjunction and the comma are adequate to the task:

- Soto has always been nervous in large gatherings, so it is no surprise that he avoids crowds of his adoring fans.

Sometimes, at the beginning of a sentence, *so* will act as a kind of summing up device or transition, and when it does, it is often set off from the rest of the sentence with a comma:

- So, the sheriff peremptorily removed the child from the custody of his parents.

## Subordinating Conjunctions

A **Subordinating Conjunction** (sometimes called a dependent word or subordinator) comes at the beginning of a **Subordinate (or Dependent) Clause** and establishes the relationship between the dependent clause and the rest of the sentence. It also turns the clause into something that depends on the rest of the sentence for its meaning.

- He took to the stage as though he had been preparing for this moment all his life.
- Because he loved acting, he refused to give up his dream of being in the movies.
- Unless we act now, all is lost.

Notice that some of the subordinating conjunctions in the table below — after, before, since — are also prepositions, but as subordinators they are being used to introduce a clause and to subordinate the following clause to the independent element in the sentence.

## Common Subordinating Conjunctions

After	if	though
although	if only	till
as	in order that	unless
as if	now that	until
as long as	once	when
as though	rather than	whenever
because	since	where
before	so that	whereas
even if	than	wherever
even though	that	while

## The Case of *Like* and *As*

Strictly speaking, the word *like* is a preposition, not a conjunction. It can, therefore, be used to introduce a prepositional phrase ("My brother is tall like my father"), but it should not be used to introduce a clause ("My brother can't play the piano ~~like~~ as he did before the accident" or "It looks ~~like~~ as if basketball is quickly overtaking baseball as America's national sport."). To introduce a clause, it's a good idea to use *as*, *as though*, or *as if*, instead.

- ~~Like~~ As I told you earlier, the lecture has been postponed.
- It looks ~~like~~ as if it's going to snow this afternoon.
- Johnson kept looking out the window ~~like~~ as though he had someone waiting for him.

In formal, academic text, it's a good idea to reserve the use of *like* for situations in which similarities are being pointed out:

- This community college is like a two-year liberal arts college.

However, when you are listing things that have similarities, *such as* is probably more suitable:

- The college has several highly regarded neighbors, ~~like~~ such as the Mark Twain House, St. Francis Hospital, the Connecticut Historical Society, and the UConn Law School.

## Omitting *That*

The word *that* is used as a conjunction to connect a subordinate clause to a preceding verb. In this construction *that* is sometimes called the "expletive *that*." Indeed, the word is often omitted to good effect, but the very fact of easy omission causes some editors to take out the red pen and strike out the conjunction *that* wherever it appears. In the following sentences, we can happily omit the *that* (or keep it, depending on how the sentence sounds to us):

- Isabel knew [that] she was about to be fired.
- She definitely felt [that] her fellow employees hadn't supported her.
- I hope [that] she doesn't blame me.

Sometimes omitting the *that* creates a break in the flow of a sentence, a break that can be adequately bridged with the use of a comma:

- The problem is, ~~that~~ production in her department has dropped.
- Remember, ~~that~~ we didn't have these problems before she started working here.

As a general rule, if the sentence feels just as good without the *that*, if no ambiguity results from its omission, if the sentence is more efficient or elegant without it, then we can safely omit the *that*. Theodore Bernstein lists three conditions in which we should maintain the conjunction *that*:

- When a time element intervenes between the verb and the clause: "The boss said yesterday that production in this department was down fifty percent." (Notice the position of "yesterday.")
- When the verb of the clause is long delayed: "Our annual report revealed that some losses sustained by this department in the third quarter of last year were worse than previously thought." (Notice the distance between the subject "losses" and its verb, "were.")
- When a second *that* can clear up who said or did what: "The CEO said that Isabel's department was slacking off and that production dropped precipitously in the fourth quarter." (Did the CEO say that production dropped or was the drop a result of what he said about Isabel's department? The second *that* makes the sentence clear.)

Authority for this section: *Dos, Don'ts & Maybes of English Usage* by Theodore Bernstein. Gramercy Books: New York. 1999. p. 217..

### Beginning a Sentence with *Because*

Somehow, the notion that one should not begin a sentence with the subordinating conjunction *because* retains a mysterious grip on people's sense of writing proprieties. This might come about because a sentence that begins with *because* could well end up a fragment if one is not careful to follow up the "because clause" with an independent clause.

- Because e-mail now plays such a huge role in our communications industry.

When the "because clause" is properly subordinated to another idea (regardless of the position of the clause in the sentence), there is absolutely nothing wrong with it:

- Because e-mail now plays such a huge role in our communications industry, the postal service would very much like to see it taxed in some manner.

### Correlative Conjunctions

Some conjunctions combine with other words to form what are called **correlative conjunctions**. They always travel in pairs, joining various sentence elements that should be treated as grammatically equal.

- She led the team not only in statistics but also by virtue of her enthusiasm.
- Polonius said, "Neither a borrower nor a lender be."
- Whether you win this race or lose it doesn't matter as long as you do your best.

Correlative conjunctions sometimes create problems in parallel form. Here is a brief list of common correlative conjunctions.

both . . . . and	Neither . . . . nor
not only . . . . but also	whether . . . . or
not . . . . but	as . . . . as
either . . . . or	

## Conjunctive Adverbs

The **conjunctive adverbs** such as *however, moreover, nevertheless, consequently, as a result* are used to create complex relationships between ideas.

## PROBLEMS WITH COHERENCE

### TRANSITIONS BETWEEN IDEAS

Providing transitions between ideas is largely a matter of attitude. You must never assume that your readers know what you know. In fact, it's a good idea to assume not only that your readers need all the information that you have and need to know how you arrived at the point you're at, but also that they are not quite as quick as you are. You might be able to leap from one side of the stream to the other; believe that your readers need some stepping stones and be sure to place them in readily accessible and visible spots.

There are four basic mechanical considerations in providing transitions between ideas: using transitional expressions, repeating key words and phrases, using pronoun reference, and using parallel form.

### USING TRANSITIONAL TAGS

Transitional tags run the gamut from the most simple — the little conjunctions: *and, but, nor, for, yet, or*, (and sometimes) *so* — to more complex signals that ideas are somehow connected — the conjunctive adverbs and transitional expressions such as *however, moreover, nevertheless, on the other hand*.

The use of the little conjunctions — especially *and* and *but* — comes naturally for most writers. However, the question whether one can begin a sentence with a small conjunction often arises. Isn't the conjunction at the beginning of the sentence a sign that the sentence should have been connected to the prior sentence? Well, sometimes, yes. But often the initial conjunction calls attention to the sentence in an effective way, and that's just what you want. Over-used, beginning a sentence with a conjunction can be distracting, but the device can add a refreshing dash to a sentence and speed the narrative flow of your text. Restrictions against beginning a sentence with *and* or *but* are based on shaky grammatical

foundations; some of the most influential writers in the language have been happily ignoring such restrictions for centuries.\*

Here is a chart of the transitional devices accompanied with a simplified definition of function (note that some devices appear with more than one definition):

<b>Addition</b>	again, also, and, and then, besides, equally important, finally, first, further, furthermore, in addition, in the first place, last, moreover, next, second, still, too
<b>comparison</b>	also, in the same way, likewise, similarly
<b>concession</b>	granted, naturally, of course
<b>Contrast</b>	although, and yet, at the same time, but at the same time, despite that, even so, even though, for all that, however, in contrast, in spite of, instead, nevertheless, notwithstanding, on the contrary, on the other hand, otherwise, regardless, still, though, yet
<b>Emphasis</b>	certainly, indeed, in fact, of course
<b>example or illustration</b>	after all, as an illustration, even, for example, for instance, in conclusion, indeed, in fact, in other words, in short, it is true, of course, namely, specifically, that is, to illustrate, thus, truly
<b>Summary</b>	all in all, altogether, as has been said, finally, in brief, in conclusion, in other words, in particular, in short, in simpler terms, in summary, on the whole, that is, therefore, to put it differently, to summarize
<b>time sequence</b>	after a while, afterward, again, also, and then, as long as, at last, at length, at that time, before, besides, earlier, eventually, finally, formerly, further, furthermore, in addition, in the first place, in the past, last, lately, meanwhile, moreover, next, now, presently, second, shortly, simultaneously, since, so far, soon, still, subsequently, then, thereafter, too, until, until now, when

Do not interlard your text with transitional expressions merely because you know these devices connect ideas. They must appear, naturally, where they belong, or they'll stick like a fishbone in your reader's craw. (For that same reason, there is no point in trying to *memorize* this vast list.) On the other hand, if you can read your entire essay and discover none of these transitional devices, then you must wonder what, if anything, *is* holding your

ideas together. Practice by inserting a tentative *however*, *nevertheless*, *consequently*. Reread the essay later to see if these words provide the glue you needed at those points.

### **Repetition of Key Words and Phrases**

The ability to connect ideas by means of repetition of key words and phrases sometimes meets a natural resistance based on the fear of being repetitive. We've been trained to loathe redundancy. Now we must learn that catching a word or phrase that's important to a reader's comprehension of a piece and replaying that word or phrase creates a musical motif in that reader's head. Unless it is overworked and obtrusive, repetition lends itself to a sense of coherence (or at least to the illusion of coherence). Remember Lincoln's advice:

You can fool some of the people all of the time, and all of the people some of the time, but you cannot fool all of the people all of the time.

In fact, you can't forget Lincoln's advice, because it has become part of the music of our language.

Remember to use this device to link paragraphs as well as sentences.

### **Pronoun Reference**

Pronouns quite naturally connect ideas because pronouns almost always refer the reader to something earlier in the text. I cannot say "This is true because . . ." without causing the reader to consider what "this" could mean. Thus, the pronoun causes the reader to sum up, quickly and subconsciously, what was said before (what *this* is) before going on to the *because* part of my reasoning.

We should hardly need to add, however, that it must always be perfectly clear what a pronoun refers to. If my reader cannot instantly know what *this* is, then my sentence is ambiguous and misleading. Also, do not rely on unclear pronoun references to avoid responsibility: "They say that . . ."

### **Parallelism**

Music in prose is often the result of parallelism, the deliberate repetition of larger structures of phrases, even clauses and whole sentences.

## PROBLEMS WITH CONDITIONALS

### The Factual versus the Unreal or Hypothetical

In expressing a conditional situation, we must be able to distinguish between what is a factual statement and what is a hypothetical statement. (Other terms for hypothetical could be unreal, imagined, wished for, only possible, etc.) For instance, if we say

- "The dog is always happy when Dad stays home,"

that's a simple statement of present habitual fact. A general truth is expressed in the same way:

- "If the sun shines all day, it gets hot."

Statements of habitual fact can also be made in the past:

- "If we ate out at all, it was always in a cheap restaurant."

And conditional or hypothetical statements can be made about the future:

- "I will give you a call, if I fly to Phoenix tomorrow.

(In the future, we could combine the base form of the verb ("give," in this case) with other modal verbs: *may*, *might*, *could*.)

## HYPOTHETICAL STATEMENTS

When we express the hypothetical in English in the present tense, we end up using the past tense in an interesting way.

- If you liked tennis, we could go play on the new courts.

(Instead of *could*, we could have used *would* or *might* in that sentence.) The speaker of that sentence is not talking about something in the past tense, even though he uses the past tense "liked." The speaker implies, in fact, that you don't like to play tennis (in the present), so there's no point, now, in going to the new tennis courts.

When we use the hypothetical in this conditional mode, we accommodate our need to speculate on how things could have been different, how we wish things were different, how we imagine that things could be different in the future, etc. In order to express the unreal, the hypothetical, the speculative, or imagined (all those being the same in this case), English has adopted an interesting habit of moving time one step backward. Two verbs are involved: one in the clause stating the condition (the "if" clause) and one in the result clause. Watch how the verbs change.

If the hypothetical result is in **the future**, we put the verb in the condition clause one step back — into the present:

- If the Bulls win the game tomorrow, they will be champs again.

For **present unreal** events, we put the verb in the condition clause one step back — into the past:

- If the Bulls won another championship, Roberto would drive into Chicago for the celebration.
- I wish I had tickets.
- If they were available anywhere, I would pay any price for them.
- If he were a good friend, he would buy them for me.

Note that wishing is always an unreal condition. Note, too, that the verb *to be* uses the form *were* in an unreal condition. More about this in a moment.

For **past unreal** events — things that didn't happen, but we can imagine — we put the verb in the condition clause a further step back — into the past perfect:

- If the Pacers had won, Aunt Glad would have been rich.
- If she had bet that much money on the Bulls, she and Uncle Chester could have retired.
- I wish I had lived in Los Angeles when the Lakers had Magic Johnson.
- If I had known you were coming, I would have baked a cake.

In this last sentence, note the conditional clause in the past perfect (had known) and the result clause that uses the conditional modal + have + the past participle of the main verb (would have baked).

Some writers seem to think that the subjunctive mood is disappearing from English, but that's probably not true. We use the subjunctive all the time to accommodate this human urge to express possibility, the hypothetical, the imagined. Frequently, conditional expressions require that we use *were* where we would otherwise have used another form of *to be*. The switch to *were* is not the only manifestation of the subjunctive in expressing the conditional, but it is the most common.

- If my brother were my boss, I wouldn't have a job today.
- If I were to lose my job, I wouldn't be able to pay my bills. [Notice how this is more uncertain, more "iffey," than "If I lose my job, I won't be able to pay my bills."]
- If I were eight feet tall, I'd be one heck of a basketball player. [The subjunctive is sometimes to express purely imaginary situation.]
- If I should grow to be eight feet tall, I'd be a great basketball player. [This statement seems even more imaginary and unlikely.]

### **Using *Would* and *Could***

When expressing the unreal, the result clauses need *would*, *could* or *will*. The condition clauses do not use those verbs; the condition clauses, instead, use verbs moved one step back in time from the result .

### **Future Conditionals versus Hypothetical Conditionals**

When we want to predict something conditional about the future (what we think might happen), we can use the present tense in the *if* clause and *will* or *be going* + the base form of the verb in the result clause.

- If Jeffrey grows any taller, the basketball coach is going to recruit him for the team.
- If he doesn't grow more, the coach will ignore him.

On the other hand, the hypothetical conditional allows us to express quite unlikely situations or situations that are downright impossible.

- If I boxed against Evander Holyfield, he would kill me.
- If my dad had been seven feet tall instead of less than six feet tall, he would have been a great athlete.

## Other Forms of Conditional Statements

The conditional can also be signaled by means of a subject-verb inversion. This inversion replaces the word "if"; it is inappropriate to use both the word "if" and the subject-verb inversion in the same sentence.

- Were Judita a better student, she would have a better relationship with her instructors.
- Had Judita studied harder last fall, she would not have to take so many courses this spring.

## Various Tenses in the Conditional

The following tables divide the uses of the conditional into three types, according to the time expressed in the *if clause*: (1) true in the present or future or possibly true in the future; (2) untrue or contrary to fact in the present; or (3) untrue or contrary to fact in the past. Notice the one step backward in time in the condition clause.

True in the Present	
<i>If clause</i>	<i>Independent clause</i>
True as habit or fact	
<i>If + subject + present tense</i>	<i>subject + present tense</i>
If Judita works hard,	she gets good grades.
True as one-time future event	
<i>If + subject + present tense</i>	<i>subject + future tense</i>
If Judita hands in her paper early tomorrow,	she'll probably get an A.
Possibly true in the future	
<i>If + subject + present tense</i>	<i>subject + modal + base form</i>
If Judita hands in her paper early tomorrow,	she may/might/could/should get an A.

Untrue in the Present	
<i>If clause</i>	<i>Independent clause</i>

<i>If + subject + past tense</i>	<i>subject + would/could/might + simple form of verb</i>
If Judita worked this hard in all her courses,	she would/could/might get on the Dean's List.
<i>If + subject + to be verb</i>	<i>subject + would/could/might + simple form of verb</i>
If Judita were president of her class,	she could work to reform the grading policy.

<b>Untrue in the Past</b>	
<b>If clause</b>	<b>Independent clause</b>
<i>If + subject + past perfect tense</i>	<i>subject + modal + have + past participle</i>
If Judita had worked this hard in all her courses,	she would not have failed this semester.

## PROBLEMS WITH GERUNDS AND INFINITIVES

**1**

Gerunds and infinitives can both function as the **subject** of a sentence:

**Playing basketball** takes up too much of her time.

**To play basketball for UConn** is her favorite fantasy.

**2**

It is not impossible for an infinitive to appear at the beginning of a sentence as the subject, but it is more common for an infinitive to appear as a **Subject Complement**:

**Subject Complement:**

Her favorite fantasy is **to play basketball for UConn**.

Her favorite fantasy is **playing basketball for UConn**.

### 3 Both of these verbal forms can further identify a noun when they play the role of **Noun Complement and Appositive:**

- a. Her desire **to play basketball for UConn** became an obsession.
- b. I could never understand her desire **to play basketball for UConn**.
- c. Her one burning desire in life, **playing basketball for UConn**, seemed a goal within reach.

The infinitive is often a complement used to help define an abstract noun. Here is a very partial list of abstract nouns, enough to suggest their nature. Try following these adjectives with an infinitive phrase (their desire to play in the championship game, a motivation to pass all their courses, her permission to stay up late, a gentle reminder to do your work) to see how the phrase modifies and focuses the noun.

advice	Opportunity	refusal
appeal	order	reminder
command	permission	request
decision	plan	requirement
desire	possibility	suggestion
fact	preparation	tendency
instruction	proposal	wish
motivation	recommendation	

### 4

Infinitive phrases often follow certain adjectives. When this happens, the infinitive is said to play the role of **Adjective Complement**. (This is not a noun function, but we will include it here nonetheless.)

- a. She was hesitant **to tell the coach of her plan**.
- b. She was reluctant **to tell her parents**, also.
- c. But she would not have been content **to play high school ball forever**.

Here is a list of adjectives that you will often find in such constructions.

Ahead	determined	lucky
amazed	disappointed	pleased
anxious	eager	proud
apt	eligible	ready

ashamed	fortunate	reluctant
bound	glad	sad
careful	happy	shocked
certain	hesitant	sorry
content	liable	surprised
delighted	likely	upset

## 5

Although we do not find many infinitives in this next category, it is not uncommon to find gerunds taking on the role of **Object of a Preposition**:

- She wrote a newspaper article about **dealing with college recruiters**.
- She thanked her coach for **helping her** to deal with the pressure.

Two prepositions, *except* and *but*, will sometimes take an infinitive.

- The committee had no choice except **to elect** Frogbellow chairperson.
- What is left for us but **to pack up** our belongings and leave?

## 6

And, finally, both gerunds and infinitives can act as a **Direct Object**:

Here, however, all kinds of decisions have to be made, and some of these decisions will seem quite arbitrary. The next section is about making the choice between gerund and infinitive forms as direct object.

Verbs that take other verb forms as objects are called *catenatives* (from a word that means *to link*, as in a chain). Catenatives can be found at the head of a series of linked constructions, as in "We agreed to try to decide to stop eating between meals." Catenatives are also characterized by their tendency to describe mental processes and resolutions.

Although it is seldom a serious problem for native English speakers, deciding whether to use a gerund or an infinitive after a verb can be perplexing among students for whom English is a second language. Why do we decide to run, but we would never decide running? On the other hand, we might avoid running, but we would not avoid to run. And finally, we might like running and would also like to run. It is clear that some verbs take gerunds, some verbs take infinitives, and some verbs take either. The following tables of verbs should help you understand the various options that regulate our choice of infinitive or gerund.

Some students may find it convenient to have a list of verbs that take infinitives, verbs that take gerunds, verbs that take either—without the lists being broken into verb categories as they are below.

We also make available a chart of 81 verbs that take gerunds and infinitives along with pop-up examples of their usage.

The verbs in the table below will be followed by an infinitive. We decided to leave. He manages, somehow, to win. It is threatening to rain. Notice that many, but not all, of these verbs suggest a potential event.

Some of the verbs in the following table may be followed by a gerund if they are describing an "actual, vivid or fulfilled action" (Frodesen). We love running. They began farming the land.

<b>Emotion</b>		
care	hate	love
desire	like	regret
hate	loathe	yearn
<b>Choice or Intent</b>		
agree	hope	prepare
choose	intend	propose
decide	need	refuse
decide	plan	want
expect	prefer	wish
<b>Initiation, Completion, Incompletion</b>		
begin	get	start
cease	hesitate	try
commence	manage	undertake
fail	neglect	
<b>Mental Process</b>		
forget	learn	remember
know how		
<b>Request and Promise</b>		

demand	promise	threaten
offer	swear	vow
<b>Intransitives</b>		
appear	seem	tend
happen		
<b>Miscellaneous</b>		
afford	claim	Pretend
arrange	continue	wait

The verbs in the next table will often be followed by an infinitive, but they will also be accompanied by a second object. We asked the intruders to leave quietly. They taught the children to swim. The teacher convinced his students to try harder.

The verbs with an asterisk can also follow the same pattern as the verbs in the table above (i.e., the second object is optional). We all wanted to go. They promised to be home early.

<b>Communication</b>		
advise	forbid	remind
ask*	invite	require
beg*	order	tell
challenge	permit	warn
command	persuade	urge
convince	promise*	
<b>Instruction</b>		
encourage	instruct	train
help	teach	
<b>Causing</b>		
allow	force	need*
cause	get	would like*
choose	hire	
<b>Miscellaneous</b>		
dare*	trust	want*
expect*	prepare*	

Gerunds accompany a form of the verb *to go* in many idiomatic expressions:

Let's go shopping. We went jogging yesterday. She goes bowling every Friday night.

The following verbs will be followed by a gerund. Did I mention reading that novel last summer? I recommend leaving while we can. I have quit smoking. These verbs tend to describe actual events.

### Initiation, Completion and Incompletion

anticipate	delay	quit
avoid	finish	risk
begin	get through	start
cease	give up	stop
complete	postpone	try

### Communication

admit	encourage	report
advise	mention	suggest
deny	recommend	urge
discuss		

### Continuing Action

continue	practice	keep
can't help	involve	keep on

### Emotion

appreciate	love	regret
dislike	mind	can't stand
enjoy	don't mind	resent
hate	miss	resist
like	prefer	tolerate

### Mental Process

anticipate	imagine	see
consider	recall	can't see
forget	remember	understand

The verbs in the following table can be followed by either an infinitive or a gerund, and there will be virtually no difference in the meaning of the two sentences. I like to play basketball in the park. I like playing basketball in the park.

attempt	like	regret
---------	------	--------

begin	love	can't stand
continue	neglect	stand
hate	prefer	start

The verbs in this next, very small table can be followed by either an infinitive or a gerund, but there will be a difference in meaning. I stopped smoking means something quite different, for instance, from I stopped to smoke. The infinitive form will usually describe a potential action.

forget	remember	stop
--------	----------	------

Finally, the verbs below will be followed by either a gerund or a simple verb and a second subject will be required. I saw the team losing its composure. I overheard my landlord discussing a rent increase. (I heard Bill sing/singing.) These verbs involve the senses.

#### Verbs Involving Senses

feel	look at	overhear
hear	notice	see
listen to	observe	watch

Verbs of perception — *hear, see, watch* — and a handful of other verbs — *help, let, and make* — will take what is called the **bare infinitive**, an infinitive without the particle "to." This is true of these verbs only in the active voice.

- We watched him clear the table.
- They heard the thief crash through the door.
- She made me do it.
- We helped her finish the homework.

#### Using Possessives with Gerunds

Do we say "I can't stand him singing in the shower," or do we say "I can't stand his singing in the shower"? Well, you have to decide what you find objectionable: is it *him*, the fact that *he* is singing in the shower, or is it the *singing* that is being done by him that you can't stand? Chances are, it's the latter, it's the singing that belongs to him that bugs you. So we would say, "I can't stand his singing in the shower."

On the other hand, do we say "I noticed your standing in the alley last night"? Probably not, because it's not the action that we noticed; it's the person. So we'd say and write, instead, "I noticed you standing in the alley last night." Usually, however, when a noun or pronoun precedes a gerund, that noun or pronoun takes a possessive form. This is especially true of formal, academic writing.

There are exceptions to this.

When the noun preceding the gerund is modified by other words, use the common form of that noun, not the possessive.

- Federico was pleased by Carlos's making the Dean's List for the first time.  
*but*
- Federico was pleased by Carlos, his oldest son, making the Dean's List for the first time.

When the noun preceding the gerund is plural, collective, or abstract, use the common form of that noun, not the possessive.

- a. Professor Villa was amazed by her students working as hard as they did.
- b. The class working collaboratively was somebody else's idea.
- c. It was a case of old age getting the better of them.

There are certain situations in which the possessive and the gerund create an awkward combination. This seems to be particularly true when indefinite pronouns are involved.

- d. I was shocked by somebody's making that remark.  
*This would be greatly improved by saying, instead . . .*
- e. I was shocked that somebody would make that remark.

This is also true when the "owner" of the gerund comes wrapped in a noun phrase:

I was thankful for the guy next door shoveling snow from my driveway.

## Verb Lists: Infinitives and Gerunds

**Verbs Followed by an Infinitive**  
She agreed to speak before the game.

agree	consent	have	offer	shoot
aim	continue	hesitate	ought	start
appear	dare	hope	plan	stop
arrange	decide	hurry	prefer	strive
ask	deserve	intend	prepare	swear
attempt	detest	leap	proceed	threaten
be able	dislike	leave	promise	try
beg	expect	like	propose	use
begin	fail	long	refuse	wait
care	forget	love	remember	want
choose	get	mean	say	wish
condescend	happen	neglect		

### Verbs Followed by an Object and an Infinitive

Everyone expected her to win.

advise	choose	have	love	remind
allow	command	hire	motivate	require
ask	dare	instruct	order	send
beg	direct	invite	pay	teach
bring	encourage	lead	permit	tell
build	expect	leave	persuade	urge
buy	forbid	let	prepare	want
challenge	force	like	promise	warn

**Note:** Some of these verbs are included in the list above and may be used without an object.

### Verbs Followed by a Gerund

They enjoyed working on the boat.

admit	delay	finish	permit	resist
advise	deny	forbid	postpone	resume
appreciate	detest	get through	practice	risk
avoid	dislike	have	quit	spend (time)
can't help	enjoy	imagine	recall	suggest
complete	escape	mind	report	tolerate
consider	excuse	miss	resent	waste (time)

### Verbs Followed by a Preposition and a Gerund

We concentrated on doing well.

admit	to	depend	on	plan	on
-------	----	--------	----	------	----

approve of	disapprove of	prevent (someone) from
argue about	discourage from	refrain from
believe in	dream about	succeed in
care about	feel like	talk about
complain about	forget about	think about
concentrate on	insist on	worry about
confess to	object to	

S	Verb Phrase	-ing form	
She	forgot about	canceling	her appointment
Remember that the following verbs phrases require an <i>-ing</i> form in the complement:			
	Approve of	do not mind	keep on
	Be better off	forget about	look forward to
	Can't help	get through	object to
	Count on	insist on	think about
	Think of	get used to	be used to
Avoid using an infinitive after the verbs phrases listed. Avoid using a verb word after <i>look forward to</i> and <i>object to</i> .			

#### EXAMPLES:

- She is considering not going
- He wanted to speak with Mr. Brown
- His mother forbids him to say out late on school nights or His mother forbids his staying out late on school nights
- I have been looking forward to meeting you
- We wouldn't mind waiting

#### Necessity, usually for repair or improvement

S	NEED	-ing form	
This paragraph	Needs	revising	
Avoid using an infinitive or a participle instead of an <i>-ing</i> form or			
S	NEED	to be	Past participle
This paragraph	Needs	to be	revised
Avoid using an <i>-ing</i> form instead of a past participle			

- His car needs fixing or His car needs to be fixed
- The rug needs cleaning before we move in or The rug needs to be cleaned before we move in

- The house needs painting, but we plan to wait until next summer to do it or The house needs to be painted, but we plan to wait until next summer to do it.
- Her watch needed repairing or Her watch needed to be repaired
- The hem of this dress needs mending before I wear it again or The hem of this dress needs to be mended before I wear it again.

## VARIOUS STRUCTURES AND USES

### Ability

S	KNOW	noun		
I	know	the answer		
Avoid using an infinitive after <i>know</i>				
S	KNOW	how	infinitive	
I	know	how	to answer	the question
Remember that <i>how</i> must be used with an infinitive.				

- If she knew how to drive, he would lend her his car.
- I don't know how to use the card catalog in the library.
- Until he came to the United States to study, he didn't know how to cook.
- Do you know how to type?
- You'll have to help her because she doesn't know how to do it.

### Past custom

S	used to	verb word		
He	used to	live	in the country	
Avoid using a form of <i>be</i> after the subject. Avoid using the incorrect form <i>use to</i> .				
S	BE	used to	-ing form	
He	Was	used to	living	in the country
Avoid using a form of <i>be</i> after <i>used to</i> . Avoid using a verb word instead of an <i>-ing</i> form. Avoid using the incorrect form <i>use to</i> .				

- I used to study at the University of Southern California before I transferred here or I was used to studying at the University of Southern California before I transferred here.
- We used to go to the movies quite frequently or We were used to going to the movies quite frequently.
- She used to get up early or She was used to getting up early.
- He used to drink too much or He was used to drinking too much.
- She used to speak in public or She was used to speaking in public.

### PROCESS TO A CUSTOM AND A PRESENT CUSTOM

S	GET	used to	GERUND	
He	is getting	used to	living	in the country
Avoid using infinitive here.				
S	BE	used to	GERUND	
He	Is	used to	living	in the country

### Logical conclusions

S	must have	participle	past time
My friend	must have	called	last night
S	must be	-ing	present time
My friend	must be	calling	Now
S	must	verb word	repeated time
My friend	must	call	Often

Remember that an observation in the present may serve as the basis for a conclusion about something that happened in the past. For example, "here is a message on my desk." It may be concluded that "my friend must have called last night." Avoid using *should* or *can* instead of *must*. Avoid using a verb word instead of *have* and a participle when referring to a past occurrence.

- The streets are wet; it must have rained last night.
- The light is always out in her room at ten o' clock; she must go to bed early (every night).
- This pen won't write; it must have run out of ink (in the past).
- The line is busy; someone must be using the telephone (now).
- Bob is absent; he must be sick again (now).

### Advisability

S	had better	verb word	
You	had better	take	Chemistry 600 this semester
S	had better	not	verb word
You	had better	not	take
			Chemistry 600 this semester

Remember that although *had* is a past form, it refers to future time in this pattern. Avoid using an infinitive or a past form of a verb instead of a verb word. Avoid using *don't* instead of *not*.

- You had better hurry if you don't want to miss the bus.
- We had better make reservations so that we will be sure of getting a good table.
- We had better check the schedule.
- You had better not quit your job until you find another one.
- You had better not go alone.

### Question forms for invitations and customs

<b>Would you like</b>	<b>infinitive</b>	
Would you like	to watch	the news today?
Remember that <i>would like</i> means to want. It is used in a question form for an invitation. A specific date such as <i>today</i> is usually included. Avoid using <i>will</i> and <i>won't</i> instead of <i>would</i> . Avoid using <i>do</i> instead of <i>would</i> for invitations.		
<b>Do you like</b>	<b>infinitive</b>	
Do you like	to watch	the news every day?
Remember that <i>like</i> means to enjoy. It is used with <i>do</i> in a question form for asking about customs. A word or phrase indicating habitual action such as <i>every day</i> is usually included. Avoid using <i>would</i> instead of <i>do</i> for customs		

- Would you like to come to a party on Saturday at the International House?
- Would you like to go swimming with us tomorrow?
- Do you like to have tea every afternoon?
- Would you like to go to the movies this weekend?
- Would you like to have dinner with us tonight?

### Preference

<b>S</b>	<b>would rather</b>	<b>Verb word</b>			
I	would rather	Drive			
<b>S</b>	<b>would rather</b>	<b>Not</b>	<b>verb word</b>		
I	would rather	not	Drive		
Avoid using an infinitive or an <i>-ing</i> form instead of a verb word.					
<b>S</b>	<b>would rather</b>	<b>that</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>V (past)</b>	
I	would rather	that	you	Drove	
Avoid using a present verb or a verb word instead of a past verb. Avoid using <i>should</i> and a verb word instead of a past verb.					
<b>S</b>	<b>would rather</b>	<b>that</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>didn't</b>	<b>verb word</b>
I	would rather	that	you	didn't	Drive
Avoid using <i>don't</i> or <i>doesn't</i> instead of <i>didn't</i> .					

- I'd rather that you didn't do that.
- She told me that she'd rather not serve on the committee.

- If you don't mind, I'd rather not go.
- He said that he'd rather go to a small college instead of to a large university.
- We'd rather that you came tomorrow.

### Unfulfilled desires in the past

S	had hoped	that	S	would	verb word	
We	had hoped	that	she	would	change	her mind
Avoid using a verb word instead of <i>would</i> and a verb word. <b>Avoid using the incorrect pattern:</b>						
S	had hoped	object pronoun		-ing form		
We	had hoped	Her		changing		her mind

- He had hoped that he would graduate this semester, but he couldn't finish his thesis in time.
- We had hoped that he would stay longer.
- They had hoped that she would not find out about it.
- I had hoped that she would come to the party.
- His father had hoped that he would go into business with him.

### SUMMARY OF Conditions

If	S	V (present)		S	aux	Verb word		
If	we	find	her address	we	will	write		her
If	you	are working		I	can	wait		
If	you	see	Mary			give		my message
Avoid using a present verb instead of <i>will</i> and a verb word								
If	S	V (past)		S	would	verb word		
If	we	found	her address	we	would	write		her
					might			
Avoid using <i>would</i> and a verb word instead of a past verb.								
If	S	had	participle		S	would have could have		participle
If	we	had	found	her address	we	would have		written
					we	could have		written
								her
								her

- If you listen to the questions carefully, you will answer them easily or You will answer them easily if you listen to the questions carefully.
- If we had known that she had planned to arrive today, we could have met her at the bus station or We could have met her at the bus station if we had known that she had planned to arrive today.
- If you went to bed earlier, you wouldn't be so sleepy in the morning or You wouldn't be so sleepy in the morning if you went to bed earlier.

- If I had had more time, I would have checked my paper again or I would have checked my paper again if I had had more time.
- If we finish our work a little early today, we'll attend the lecture at the art museum or We'll attend the lecture at the art museum if we finish our work a little early today.

## Desires

S	WISH (present)	That	S	had could have would have	participle	
I	wish	that	you	had	called	yesterday
I	wish	that	you	could have	called	yesterday
I	wish	that	you	would have	called	yesterday
Remember that although the verb WISH is in present tense, this pattern refers to desires in the past.						
S	WISH (present)	that	S	V (past) could verb word would verb word		
I	wish	that	you	Called		every day
I	wish	that	you	could called		tomorrow
I	wish	that	you	would called		tomorrow
Remember that although the verb WISH is in present tense, this pattern refers to desires for customs and future events. Avoid using this pattern to express desires in the past. Avoid using <i>will</i> instead of <i>could</i> and <i>would</i> .						

- I wish that I had received this letter before the office closed for the day or I wish that I could have received this letter before the office closed for the day or I wish that I would have received this letter before the office closed for the day.
- We wish that you could change your mind about leaving tomorrow or We wish that you would change your mind about leaving tomorrow.
- Mary wishes that she had studied law instead of history when she was in college or Mary wishes that she could have studied law instead of history when she was in college or Mary wishes that she would have studied law instead of history when she was in college.
- I wish that I had meet your father last night or I wish that I could have met your father last night or I wish that I would have met your father last night.
- I wish that the snow would stop soon.

## Contrary-to-fact statements

If	S	were			
If	the party	were	on Friday, we could go		
Avoid changing <i>were</i> to agree with the subject in contrary-to-fact statements.					
S	WISH (present)	that	S	were	
I	wish	That	the party	were	on Friday
Avoid changing <i>were</i> to agree with the subject.					

- If I were you, I would not go.
- I wish that I were true.
- Bill wishes that she were more interested in his work.
- If it were not so far, we could go for the weekend.
- I wish that he were here.

## Subjunctives

S	V	That	S	verb word	
Mr. Johnson	prefers	that	she	speak	with him personally
Remember that the following verbs are used before <i>that</i> and the verb word clause:					
	<i>ask</i>		<i>prefer</i>		
	<i>demand</i>		<i>recommend</i>		
	<i>desire</i>		<i>require</i>		
	<i>insist</i>		<i>suggest</i>		
Avoid using a present or past verb instead of a verb word. Avoid using a modal before the verb word.					
Noun	that	S	verb word		
the recommendation	that	we	be	evaluated	was approved
Remember that the following nouns are used in this pattern:					
	<i>recommendation</i>				
	<i>requirement</i>				
	<i>suggestion</i>				
Avoid using a present or past verb instead of a verb word. Avoid using a modal before the verb word.					

- The doctor suggested that she not smoke.

- He complied with the requirement that all graduate students in education write a thesis.
- The foreign student advisor recommended that she study more English before enrolling at the university.
- The law requires that everyone have his car checked at least once year.
- She insisted that they give her a receipt.

### Impersonal expressions

<b>It is</b>	<b>adjective</b>	<b>infinitive</b>			
It is	important	to verify	the data		
or					
<b>It is</b>	<b>adjective</b>	<b>that</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>verb word</b>	
It is	important	that	the data	be	verified
Remember that the following adjectives are used in this pattern: <i>essential</i> <i>imperative</i> <i>important</i> <i>necessary</i>					
Avoid using a present verb instead of a verb word. Avoid using a modal before the verb word.					

- It is not necessary to take an entrance examination to be admitted to an American university or It is not necessary that you take an entrance examination to be admitted to an American university.
- It is imperative to be on time or It is imperative that you be on time.
- It is important to speak with Mr. Williams immediately or It is important that I speak with Mr. Williams immediately.
- It is imperative to sign your identification card or It is imperative that your signature appear on your identification card.
- It is essential to file all applications and transcripts no later than July 1 or It is essential to file all applications and transcripts be filed no later than July 1.

## CAUSATIVES

<b>S</b>	<b>HAVE</b>	<b>someone</b>	<b>verb word</b>		
My English teacher	had	us	give	oral reports	
Avoid using an infinitive or an <i>-ing</i> form instead of a verb word before a person in patterns of cause.					
<b>S</b>	<b>MAKE</b>	<b>someone</b>	<b>verb word</b>		
His mother	made	him	take	his medicine	
Avoid using an infinitive or an <i>-ing</i> form instead of a verb word before a person in patterns of cause.					
<b>S</b>		<b>HAVE</b>	<b>something</b>	<b>participle</b>	
I	want	to have	this book	renewed,	please
Avoid using a word or an infinitive instead of a participle before a thing in patterns of cause.					

- Tom had a tooth filled.
- She made the baby take a nap.
- Professor Baker had us write a paper instead of taking a final exam.
- Have you had your temperature taken yet?
- They had their lawyer change their will.