

Comparatives and superlatives

The basic form of an adjective or adverb is called the *positive* form. Many adjectives and adverbs in this form are familiar to most people. Here are some examples:

ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
fast	fast
grateful	gratefully
hard	hard
quick	quickly
slow	slowly

To change most adjectives to adverbs, an **-ly** suffix is added. A few words, such as **fast** and **hard**, are exceptions; no change is made to create an adverb.

When an adjective that ends in the suffix **-ful** is changed to an adverb, **-ly** is added just as with other adverbs. Therefore, the adverb will be spelled with a double **el**: **careful/carefully**, **truthful/truthfully**.

Many adjectives end in **-y**. When they become adverbs, the **-y** is changed to **-i** and then the adverbial suffix is added. For example:

ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
busy	busily
happy	happily

Several adjectives end in **-ly** and look like adverbs. Those few that can be used as adverbs do not change or add a suffix; the adjectival form is used as the adverb.

ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
early	early
friendly	—
homely	—
stately	—

Positive forms of adjectives and adverbs can be used with a common expression composed of **as** and **as**.

She is **as** pretty **as** her mother.

Tom runs **as** fast **as** the best sprinter in our school.

I am not **as** fluent in French **as** Amy.

This kind of statement is not a comparison. Instead, it expresses equality between the two persons or objects mentioned in the sentence. If the sentence is negated, it expresses the lack of equality between the two subjects.

Comparatives

To make real comparisons between people and things, adjectives and adverbs must be expressed in their comparative form. Most adjectives add the suffix **-er**. If the adjective already ends in **-e**, only **-r** is added. If the adjective ends in **-y**, the **-y** changes to **-i** and a suffix is added. The comparative adverb does not add a suffix. Instead, it is preceded by **more**.

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE ADJECTIVE	COMPARATIVE ADVERB
full	fuller	more fully
quick	quicker	more quickly
sweet	sweeter	more sweetly
tame	tamer	more tamely
busy	busier	more busily

Here are a few exceptions that do not conform to this pattern:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE ADJECTIVE	COMPARATIVE ADVERB
early	earlier	earlier
fast	faster	faster
hard	harder	harder

If a positive adjective ends in a vowel followed by a single consonant and consists of one syllable, the same consonant is added to the adjective before the comparative ending is applied. For example:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE ADJECTIVE	COMPARATIVE ADVERB
big	bigger	—
flat	flatter	more flatly
thin	thinner	more thinly

EXERCISE

11.1

In the blanks provided, write the comparative adjective and adverb of the positive adjective in parentheses. Not all adjectives will have an adverbial form.

- (wise) _____
- (stately) _____
- (hungry) _____
- (fat) _____
- (tall) _____

- 6. (tense) _____
- 7. (old) _____
- 8. (young) _____
- 9. (bold) _____
- 10. (angry) _____
- 11. (gentle) _____
- 12. (faint) _____
- 13. (strong) _____
- 14. (weak) _____
- 15. (fast) _____

Words of more than one syllable, particularly words of Latin origin, form both the comparative adjective and adverb with **more**.

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE ADJECTIVE	COMPARATIVE ADVERB
special	more special	more specially
interesting	more interesting	more interestingly
historical	more historical	more historically

The antonym of **more** is **less**. It is possible to use **less** to make a comparison that means the compared person or thing has a smaller amount of the quality expressed by the adjective. For example:

- That is **realistic**.
- That is **less realistic** than your first suggestion.
- He behaves **less realistically**.

EXERCISE

11.2

In the blanks provided, write the comparative adjective and adverb of the positive adjective in parentheses.

- 1. (boring) _____
- 2. (flexible) _____
- 3. (busy) _____
- 4. (smart) _____
- 5. (different) _____
- 6. (confident) _____

7. (intelligent) _____
8. (accurate) _____
9. (hilarious) _____
10. (sincere) _____
11. (careless) _____
12. (regretful) _____
13. (wise) _____
14. (strange) _____
15. (reluctant) _____

A few positive adjectives form their comparative adjectives and adverbs in an irregular way. For example:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE ADJECTIVE	COMPARATIVE ADVERB
bad	worse	worse
far	further	further
good	better	better
little	less	less
many	more	more
much	more	more

The word **far** means *distant* or *advanced in time or degree*; it also means *located in a remote place*. The comparative forms of the latter are regular: **farther** (adjective) and **farther** (adverb).

The adjective **well** can mean *healthy*. When it does, its comparative forms are **better** (adjective) and **better** (adverb.)

A comparative adjective or adverb is used with **than** to draw a comparison between two people or things. The part of the sentence that follows **than** usually has a verb or phrase that is understood and not spoken or written.

He is taller **than** his brother./He is taller than his brother **is**.

She speaks more fluently **than** the others in the class./She speaks more fluently than the others in the class **speak**.

When the comparison is made with a pronoun, the objective form of the pronoun can be used if **than** is used as a preposition. Caution is necessary, because the meaning is different when **than** is used as a conjunction. For example:

USE	COMPARISON	MEANING
Preposition	She likes me more than him .	She likes me more than she likes him.
Conjunction	She likes me more than he .	She likes me more than he likes me.

Write the necessary form of the adjective in parentheses in the blank provided. For example:

(tall) John is taller than the other boys.

1. (large) My neighbor's garden is very _____.
2. (good) I hope you will earn a _____ grade than last week.
3. (far) We walked _____ than any of the other hikers.
4. (likable) I find that Marie is more _____ than her sister.
5. (bad) His grammar is as _____ as mine.
6. (well) I hope you feel _____ soon.
7. (many) Mr. Jones has _____ books than the school library.
8. (little) We have _____ time to finish this project than we had on the last one.
9. (ridiculous) That hat looks _____ on you than the red one.
10. (bad) Her party was much _____ than Jim's.

Native English speakers often use the comparative adjective form where an adverb is needed. This is done in casual or colloquial speech. For example:

When he saw her, his heart beat **quicker**.

I can't keep up. Walk **slower**.

After a glass of wine, Jim began to act **sillier**.

Superlatives

The superlative form of an adjective or adverb describes a person or thing with the highest quality of the meaning of the adjective or adverb: *no one or nothing is superior*. Forming the superlative of adjectives follows the rules for comparatives only adding **-(e)st** in place of **-er**. To form the superlative of most adverbs, **most** is placed in front of the adverb. Take note that the superlative adjective or adverb can be preceded by **the**.

POSITIVE	SUPERLATIVE ADJECTIVE	SUPERLATIVE ADVERB
slow	(the) slowest	(the) most slowly
quick	(the) quickest	(the) most quickly
happy	(the) happiest	(the) most happily
fast	(the) fastest	(the) fastest

With polysyllabic words, primarily of a Latin origin, **most** is used to form all superlatives.

POSITIVE	SUPERLATIVE ADJECTIVE	SUPERLATIVE ADVERB
independent	(the) most independent	(the) most independently
tasteful	(the) most tasteful	(the) most tastefully
difficult	(the) most difficult	(the) most difficultly

A few positive adjectives form their superlative adjectives and adverbs in an irregular way. For example:

POSITIVE	SUPERLATIVE ADJECTIVE	SUPERLATIVE ADVERB
bad	(the) worst	(the) worse
far	(the) furthest	(the) furthest
good	(the) best	(the) best
little	(the) least	(the) least
many	(the) most	(the) most
much	(the) most	(the) most

The word **the** is sometimes optional when using a superlative as a predicate nominative. The meaning of the sentence is not changed whether it is included or omitted. For example:

This novel is **the best**./This novel is **best**.

Is his daughter **the thinnest**?/Is his daughter **thinnest**?

The same rule applies to adverbs.

Mary runs **the fastest**./Mary runs **fastest**.

But superlative adjectives that modify a noun directly must be accompanied by **the** or some other determiner. For example:

The tallest boy isn't **the best** basketball player.

His youngest children are very polite.

Give me **your finest** chocolates.

It is possible to use **least** to make a superlative that means the person or thing in question has the smallest amount of the quality expressed by the adjective. For example:

He is **the least** talented boy in the play.

His performance was **the least** impressive.

EXERCISE

11.4

Using the adjective provided, write a sentence in the specified form. For example:

(thin/comparative) My hair is thinner now than a year ago.

- (bad/comparative) _____
- (rapid/superlative adverb) _____
- (tiny/superlative) _____
- (rich/superlative) _____
- (young/positive) _____

6. (new/superlative) _____
7. (fragrant/superlative) _____
8. (delicious/comparative) _____
9. (cozy/comparative with *less*) _____
10. (difficult/superlative with *least*) _____
11. (simple/positive) _____
12. (old/superlative) _____
13. (good/superlative) _____
14. (far/comparative) _____
15. (beautiful/superlative adverb) _____
16. (ugly/comparative) _____
17. (warm/superlative) _____
18. (cold/superlative) _____
19. (wealthy/superlative with *least*) _____
20. (quick/superlative adverb) _____

Pronoun varieties

12

Personal pronouns

The personal pronouns are described as *first person*, *second person*, and *third person* pronouns. Some are singular in form, and others are plural. For example:

	SINGULAR PRONOUNS	PLURAL PRONOUNS
first person	I	we
second person	you	you
third person	he, she, it	they
	one	

The first person pronouns refer to the speaker or, if plural, speakers: ***I feel well today. We are learning English.*** The second person pronouns refer to the person or persons to whom one is speaking: ***Are you new here, madam? Are you new here, ladies?***

The third person pronouns play an enormous role in English. Besides **he**, **she**, and **it**, there are numerous others that will be discussed in this chapter. The third person pronouns refer to someone or something that is the topic of conversation without actually naming that person or thing after the first mention. For example:

That's John Brown. **He** is my new neighbor.

Do you know that woman? **She** lives in the apartment next to mine.

Did you lose this wallet? My wife said she found **it** on the sidewalk.

Those boys lied to the teacher. **One** should never lie to anyone.

One is a third person pronoun that is intentionally vague. It does not refer to anyone in particular. It stands for *anyone* or *any person in general*.

One needs to stay alert. (*People in general need to stay alert.*)

One is replaced by the second person **you** in more casual speech, but the meaning is still *anyone* or *any person in general*.

You need to stay alert.

All personal pronouns have more than one form, depending on the pronoun's role in a sentence. Let's look at those forms.

SUBJECTIVE CASE	OBJECTIVE CASE	POSSESSIVE	REFLEXIVE
I	me	my, mine	myself
you (s.)	you	your, yours	yourself
he	him	his, his	himself
she	her	her, hers	herself
it	it	its, its	itself
we	us	our, ours	ourselves
you (pl.)	you	you, yours	yourselves
they	them	their, theirs	themselves
one	one	one's	oneself

These forms have the same function for all the pronouns. Let's look at some examples with the pronoun **he**:

Subject of sentence	He lives on Elm Street.
Direct object	Do you know him ?
Object of preposition	I had a long talk with him .
Indirect object	She gave him a large, red apple.
Possessive determiner	This is his new car.
Possessive pronoun	His is the one parked near the corner.
Reflexive	John cut himself on a piece of broken glass.

As shown here, the possessive has two forms. The determiner is used like an adjective and modifies a noun: **his new car**. The possessive pronoun replaces the example noun **car**: **His** is the one parked near the corner.

EXERCISE

12.1

Write sentences using the pronoun in parentheses and the forms specified. For example:

(I)

Subject of sentence: I bought a blue dress.

Direct object: She wanted to photograph me.

1. (I)

SUBJECT OF SENTENCE _____

DIRECT OBJECT _____

OBJECT OF PREPOSITION _____

2. (you s.)

DIRECT OBJECT _____

OBJECT OF PREPOSITION _____

INDIRECT OBJECT _____

3. (she)

OBJECT OF PREPOSITION _____

INDIRECT OBJECT _____

POSSESSIVE DETERMINER _____

4. (we)

INDIRECT OBJECT _____

POSSESSIVE DETERMINER _____

POSSESSIVE PRONOUN _____

5. (they)

POSSESSIVE DETERMINER _____

POSSESSIVE PRONOUN _____

REFLEXIVE _____

EXERCISE

12.2

Write original sentences using the nouns or pronouns provided in parentheses as subjects. Include the corresponding reflexive pronoun in each sentence. For example:

(he) He injured himself in a fall.

1. (I) _____

2. (you s.) _____

3. (she) _____

4. (it) _____

5. (we) _____

6. (you pl.) _____

7. (they) _____

8. (my sister) _____

9. (one) _____

10. (our neighbors) _____

Third person pronouns play an enormous role in English, because they are replacements for nouns. Just imagine how many nouns there are in English. Language loses its awkward sound

when a pronoun is used in place of a noun that would otherwise have to be repeated many times. Compare the following two groups of sentences.

The train pulled into the station. **The train** was late again, and **the train** would not be able to make up for the lost time.

The train pulled into the station. **It** was late again, and **it** would not be able to make up for the lost time.

If a noun is singular, it has to be replaced by a singular pronoun, and that pronoun must reflect the gender of the noun: **he** (*masculine*), **she** (*feminine*), and **it** (*neuter*). If a noun is plural, it has to be replaced by the plural pronoun **they**. Naturally, how the noun is used (*subject, object, possessive*) determines which form of the pronoun is used.

EXERCISE

12.3

Replace the underlined noun or noun phrase with the correct pronoun.

1. The men knew they had to work harder.

2. I came across a large carton of books.

3. We spoke with Ms. Carlson about that yesterday.

4. Maria's mother is in the hospital.

5. Can you understand the lyrics to this song?

6. Our landlady raised our rent again.

7. I think I saw your son at soccer practice today.

8. I bought her car for a pretty good price.

9. Can you describe the thieves for me?

10. She borrowed the books from Mr. Kelly.

Replace each underlined phrase with the correct possessive pronoun.

1. Do you have his notebook?

2. The boys don't have their tools with them.

3. Its new nest is hidden behind those bushes.

4. Have you seen our new SUV?

5. I think I found your briefcase in the basement.

6. Is my credit card in that drawer?

7. I really like her blouse a lot better than my blouse.

8. Someone took their garden equipment from the shed.

9. The police said that our version of the accident made more sense.

10. Did you really lose your keys again?

Singular or plural verbs

When possessive pronouns are used as the subject of a sentence, the appropriate verb form—singular or plural—also must be used. If the possessive pronoun replaces a singular subject, a singular verb form is used. If it replaces a plural subject, a plural verb form is correct. For example:

My brother was in the army for two years. (*brother = singular noun*)

Mine was in the army for two years.

My brothers were in the army for two years. (*brothers = plural noun*)

Mine were in the army for two years.

The verb that accompanies the noun subject and the possessive pronoun subject are singular and plural, respectively. Possessive pronouns can accompany either a singular or a plural verb, depending on the number of the noun they replace.

EXERCISE

12.5

Write two original sentences using the possessive pronoun given in parentheses. Use a singular verb with one and a plural verb with the other. For example:

(mine)

Mine is in my bedroom.

Mine are probably still downstairs.

1. (yours)

2. (his)

3. (hers)

4. (ours)

5. (theirs)

Other pronoun forms

There are other third person pronoun forms as well. Among them are the *indefinite pronouns*. Some of the most common are as follows:

REPLACES A SINGULAR NOUN	REPLACES A PLURAL NOUN	REPLACES SINGULAR OR PLURAL NOUNS
anybody/anyone	both	all
anything	few	any
each	several	most

REPLACES A SINGULAR NOUN	REPLACES A PLURAL NOUN	REPLACES SINGULAR OR PLURAL NOUNS
either		none
everybody/everyone		some
everything		
neither		
nobody/no one		
nothing		
one		
somebody/someone		
something		

Here are some example sentences:

Singular verb

Everybody **knows** not to tease a wild animal.

The two boys play the piano. Neither **has** much talent.

Something **is** wrong with our car.

Plural verb

The two girls sing well. Both **have** lovely voices.

Many tourists visit the castle. Few **understand** how long it took to build.

They are excellent basketball players. Several **come** from abroad.

Singular or plural verb

Your treasure is in that box. All **has** been kept safe for you. (*all of it = singular*)

The books are stored on the third floor. All **need** binding repair. (*all of them = plural*)

There is plenty of cake left. Most **is** for you. (*most of it = singular*)

About 20 teenagers came to our house. Most **are** good friends of mine. (*most of them = plural*)

I found an old manuscript. Some **seems** to be written in French. (*some of it = singular*)

We saw many squirrels in the park. Some **were** quite friendly. (*some of them = plural*)

Demonstrative, interrogative, and reciprocal pronouns are easy to use. The demonstrative pronouns are **this** and **that** to modify singular nouns and **these** and **those** to modify plural nouns.

MODIFIED NOUN	DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN
This book is quite old.	This is quite old.
That man is my grandfather.	That is my grandfather.
These shirts are wrinkled.	These are wrinkled.
Those cars were made in Europe.	Those were made in Europe.

The interrogative pronouns *pose questions*. They are **who**, **whom**, **whose**, **what**, and **which**.

Who is that fellow? With **whom** did he speak?

He doesn't have a car. **Whose** is he driving?

What was done about the problem?

The three skirts are very nice. **Which** do you really want?

There are only two forms of reciprocal pronouns: **each other** and **one another**. They can be used interchangeably. For example:

We have known **each other** for many years. We have known **one another** for many years.
They bought **each other** gifts. They bought **one another** gifts.

EXERCISE
12.6

Complete each line with any appropriate phrase using the pronouns provided.

1. Several children were on the playground. Each _____.
2. The two pups slept together. Neither _____.
3. _____ each other _____.
4. Whom _____?
5. That vase is quite valuable, but this _____.
6. There were nine watches in that case. Several _____.
7. There's a lot of pizza left. Most _____.
8. I read the paragraph over and over, but nothing _____.
9. _____ one another _____.
10. The order of steel arrived today, and all _____.

Quantifiers

There are numerous pronouns and phrases called *quantifiers* that describe an amount or quantity of something. Some replace plural nouns, such as **many**, **a few**, **few**, **several**, and **a couple**.

REPLACED PLURAL NOUN	PRONOUN QUANTIFIER
men	Many work in the city.
problems	Few have ever been solved by a committee.
jokes	A couple are really terribly funny.

Other pronoun quantifiers replace collective nouns or nouns that are considered to be a single unit. Some of these quantifiers are **a bit**, **a good deal**, **a little**, **little**, and **much**.

COLLECTIVE NOUN	PRONOUN QUANTIFIER
smoke	A little is blowing into their tent.
money	A good deal is meant to be yours someday.
cake	Only a bit was left on the plate.

Several pronoun quantifiers replace either plural or collective nouns; these quantifiers include **all**, **a lot**, **lots**, **enough**, **most**, **none**, **plenty**, and **some**.

PLURAL OR COLLECTIVE NOUN	PRONOUN QUANTIFIER
trees	All have to be chopped down for the highway.
sugar	All is needed for the pies.
people	Not enough have voted yet.
milk	Is enough left for the cats?
tourists	Some are from Asia.
soup	Some was spilled on the kitchen floor.

EXERCISE

12.7

Complete each sentence using the pronouns provided in any appropriate phrase.

1. Those suits cost \$200, but lots _____.
2. There are so many rabbits here. Several _____.
3. The students studied diligently, but few _____.
4. We spent a great deal of time on the project. Much _____.
5. We needed coal as fuel, and finally enough _____.
6. There isn't enough heat. Most _____.
7. I explained my position to the members, but none _____.
8. The stew was for our dinner. Some _____.
9. All the players are angry with their poor performance. Plenty _____.
10. The students in the audience cheer. A few _____.

Determiners and adverbs of degree

Most often *determiners* are described as specific parts of speech, such as **definite articles, indefinite articles, ordinal numbers, possessives**, and so on. These parts of speech can *modify* nouns or pronouns, but they do so in a unique way: determiners give the word they modify quantity, location, and significance.

If the determiner is a definite article, it specifies the modified word as a known entity—the topic of conversation. If the determiner is an indefinite article, it generalizes the modified word. For example:

the toy (a specific toy): The toy on the floor seems to be broken.

a toy (toys in general): A toy might be a good gift for little Bobby.

the suit (a specific suit): The suit he is wearing looks expensive.

a suit (suits in general): A suit made of wool may be too warm for this climate.

Refer to Chapter 1 for more details about the differences between definite and indefinite articles.

Demonstratives

Demonstratives describe *which one* when modifying a noun or suggest the noun's location as near or far. For example:

Which one?

which: Which book do you want? They all seem interesting.

Located near

this: This house belongs to our family doctor.

these: These men are employed in the airline industry.

Located far

that: That woman across the street is Professor Lang.

those: Those airplanes in the distance look like bombers.

Articles as determiners specify or generalize, and demonstratives as determiners locate. Usually placed after articles or demonstratives, adjectives describe the *attributes* of a noun. Here are some examples:

The **funny** clowns made the children laugh.

A **silk** scarf might be a **good** gift for Aunt Helen.

Will they be able to help this **wounded** man?

That **tall** building over there is a **new** hotel.

These **young** men are stronger than those **old** men.

In the blank provided, write an adjective that describes the attributes of the noun. For example:

This old book is quite valuable.

1. The _____ meeting will be on Friday.
2. Those _____ women belong to the same club.
3. Which _____ blouse do you like?
4. I need a _____ blanket.
5. Have you met these _____ students yet?
6. I really want to dance with that _____ girl over there.
7. Do you have a _____ pair of shoes in brown?
8. Yesterday I received this _____ letter in the mail.
9. Those _____ gloves don't belong to me.
10. Which _____ coat is warmer?

Possessives

The possessive determiners are **my, your, his, her, its, our, their, one's**, and **whose**. Their function is simple: they identify ownership. They can be combined with adjectives that describe the attributes of the modified noun. For example:

- My **new** car already has a scratch on it.
- Did your **recent** accident leave you injured?
- Our **finest** wines are kept under lock and key.
- One's **angry** voice is a signal that one is not being rational.
- Whose **ragged** pants and shirt are these?

Ordinal numbers and quantifiers

When an ordinal number modifies a noun, it merely describes a quantity or amount. An accompanying adjective describes the attributes of the noun.

- One** boy is worried about his future.
- One **lonely** boy is worried about his future.
- Three** dancers are hoping for the job.
- Three **talented** dancers are hoping for the job.
- I need **nine** laborers for the project.
- I need nine **strong and healthy** laborers for the project.

Quantifiers also describe quantities and amounts. Here are some of the most common:

a couple of	(a) few
a great deal of	(a) little
a lot of	many
all	much
any	no
both	several
each	some
every	

Quantifiers describe the number of the modified noun; accompanying adjectives describe the attributes.

A couple of **interesting** facts about him are in this book.

All **wealthy** nations should help the less fortunate ones.

John knows a few **hilarious** jokes.

Some **primitive** tribes once lived in this region.

EXERCISE

13.2

Write an original sentence using the determiner in parentheses and including a descriptive adjective. For example:

(two) *I'd like two crisp apples, please.*

1. (his) _____
2. (no) _____
3. (their) _____
4. (six) _____
5. (any) _____
6. (a great deal of) _____
7. (little) _____
8. (many) _____
9. (her) _____
10. (few) _____
11. (a few) _____
12. (many a) _____
13. (each) _____
14. (a lot of) _____
15. (thirty) _____

Often, more than one determiner can be used at a time, as with **a couple of, a great deal of, a lot of, a few, and a little**. Besides the indefinite article, the definite article and possessives can be used together with **all, both, and no**. For example:

- The few** good friends he had were gone.
- All the** children were finally asleep.
- Both my** daughters have become ballerinas.
- I have **no more** money or time to give you.
- Her many** kind deeds were remembered after her death.

Such and **what** are also determiners that can function alone or with another determiner. **So** cannot function alone and must be combined with another determiner. For example:

- They won't tolerate **such** behavior.
- Have you ever experienced **such an** exciting day?
- What** happiness I feel today!
- What little** time is left in the day I want to spend with you.
- There is **so much** work to do!

EXERCISE

13.3

Write an original sentence using the two determiners provided in parentheses. For example:

(so much) John always has so much free time.

1. (such a) _____
2. (both my) _____
3. (a lot of) _____
4. (no more) _____
5. (many a) _____
6. (so little) _____
7. (all the) _____
8. (a few) _____
9. (the few) _____
10. (a little) _____

It has already been pointed out that ordinal numbers can function as determiners. However, when they are combined with articles and demonstratives, they become nouns instead. For example:

NUMBER AS DETERMINER

NUMBER AS NOUN

Two boys began to cry.

The two of them began to cry.

Nine men are needed for the team.

These nine will make good team members.

Circle the letter of the word or phrase that best completes each sentence.

1. James asked for _____ new bicycle for his birthday.
a. those b. a c. two d. one's
2. Do you know the girls? Those _____ look like sisters.
a. two b. their c. every d. both
3. _____ rich uncle came for a visit.
a. Our b. All c. More d. A few
4. _____ happy moment was shared in their family.
a. Some b. So much c. Much d. Many a
5. Do you know _____ players out on the field?
a. a little b. what little c. those d. two of
6. _____ great sadness our village endured today!
a. What b. A little c. So many d. The few
7. Someone tried to burglarize our _____ neighbor's house.
a. many b. new c. several d. that
8. There are _____ problems in the world.
a. a lot b. any c. so many d. great deal of
9. Where are _____ wild animals?
a. all the b. the one c. some of d. no
10. _____ a wonderful evening it was!
a. Much b. So c. Which d. What

Adverbs of degree

The function of adverbs is to modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. Some adverbs modify *the degree* of a verb's action, an adjective's description, or an adverb's description.

Here is a list of commonly used adverbs of degree. The *degrees of accomplishment* that they represent are described in the heading of each list of phrases.

Already achieved

completely

Recently achieved

just

Not yet achieved

almost

nearly

Strong degree of accomplishment

extremely

too

very/not very

Moderate degree of accomplishmentquite
rather**Mild degree of accomplishment**kind of
scarcely
somewhat
sort of

The adverbs **quite**, **rather**, **somewhat**, **too**, and **very/not very** modify adjectives and other adverbs rather than verbs. For example:

The pups are still **quite** small.
That's a **rather** skimpy dress you're wearing.
It's **somewhat** chilly in here.
He's **too** old for you.
You look **very** healthy.
I'm **not very** young anymore.

Adverbs of degree are most often placed before the verb, adjective, or adverb they modify. For example:

Verb: We **just** moved to Los Angeles.
Adjective: John has an **extremely** high fever.
Adverb: It was a **very** quickly moving storm.

In a complex verb, the adverb of degree appears before the main verb: **I don't quite understand. I have almost completed the project.**

The adverb **enough** means *an adequate amount or degree* and is placed *after* an adjective or adverb.

Is that coat large **enough** for you?
She spoke slowly **enough** for me to understand her.
That rope isn't strong **enough**.
The ambulance didn't arrive soon **enough**.

If you place **enough** before a noun, it means *a sufficient amount* and becomes a determiner rather than an adverb:

Do you have **enough** milk for the pancakes?

EXERCISE**13.5**

Write original sentences using the phrase provided in parentheses.

1. (not very long) _____
2. (tall enough) _____
3. (rather unusual) _____

4. (somewhat vague) _____
5. (almost forgot) _____
6. (extremely intelligent) _____
7. (almost finished) _____
8. (just arrived) _____
9. (kind of old) _____
10. (hardly ready) _____
11. (too heavy) _____
12. (completely exhausted) _____
13. (nearly injured) _____
14. (scarcely alive) _____
15. (sort of sad) _____

Gerunds, infinitives, and participles

14

Gerunds

A gerund is a *verbal*, meaning it comes from a verb and resembles a present participle because it ends in **-ing**. It expresses a state of being or an action, but it does not function as a verb, but rather is used like a noun. Here is a comparison of present participles and gerunds to illustrate how they are used differently.

PRESENT PARTICIPLE	GERUND
Why is water running in the bathtub?	Running is a good form of exercise.
Tom was singing in the shower.	I heard singing in the other room.
They are laughing at his jokes.	Her stomach hurt from laughing .

Since a gerund is used like a noun, it can function in a sentence like other nouns. In the preceding examples, the gerunds were used as the subject of the sentence, the direct object, and the object of a preposition, respectively. These same sentences can be expressed with other nouns:

Subject

Running is a good form of exercise.

Tennis is a good form of exercise.

Direct object

I heard **singing** in the other room.

I heard **music** in the other room.

Object of a preposition

Her stomach hurt from **laughing**.

Her stomach hurt from **the operation**.

Just like nouns, gerunds can be modified by determiners and adjectives. For example:

Your arguing has to stop.

This constant fighting is driving me mad.

I heard **quiet** sighing on the other side of the door.

Since a gerund expresses a state of being or an action like a verb, it can be accompanied by an object just as a verb can. Compare the following pairs of sentences:

Verb: He **makes** fun of the younger boy.

Gerund: **Making** fun of the younger boy was very cruel.

Verb: She **took** violin lessons.

Gerund: She hated **taking** violin lessons.

EXERCISE

14.1

Replace the noun or phrase shown in bold with an appropriate gerund. For example:

The sound of her voice made me very sad.

Her weeping made me very sad.

1. **The war** made life in our school unbearable.

2. I like **a leisurely stroll** through the park.

3. **Funny stories** always amused the children.

4. He tries to keep in shape with **a regular workout**.

5. The unruly boy needed **discipline and guidance**.

6. The twins put on a lot of weight from **a diet of sweets**.

7. **The team's poor performance** put the fans in a bad mood.

8. Did you hear **that strange noise**?

9. **Your poor attitude** won't help to solve your problems.

10. I suppose I'm guilty of **a weird sense of humor**.

Basing your answer on the statement provided, write an original sentence with the verb in bold expressed as a gerund. For example:

He **studied** the long text.

His studying of the long text helped him understand it better.

1. They constantly **bickered** about money.

2. I **returned** the books to the library.

3. Mom wasn't amused when Jim **broke** the vase.

4. The man **drank and ate** too much.

5. She **smiled**, but it didn't change her husband's anger.

Sometimes there is confusion about the use of a gerund or a present participle. Both can often be used in similar statements, but the meaning is different. Here is an example:

Jim's constant **complaining** about the food was annoying. (*complaining* = gerund)

Jim, constantly **complaining** about the food, was annoying. (*complaining* = present participle)

In the first sentence, it is *Jim's complaint about the food* that was annoying. In the second, *Jim himself* was annoying.

Notice that *Jim's* in the first example is a possessive. That is one clue that *complaining* is being used as a noun. Another clue is the modifier *constant*, which is used as an adjective. In the second sentence, *Jim* is the subject of the sentence and does not use the possessive. The phrase that follows tells about Jim; it is an adjectival phrase and modifies *Jim*. In that phrase, *constantly* is an adverb. It is the clue that *complaining* is not a noun but the present participle of the verb *complain*.

Here is another pair of sentences. Examine their parts carefully to determine why one sentence contains a gerund and the other a present participle.

We listened to the woman's frantic **screaming**.

We listened to the woman, frantically **screaming**.

In the first sentence, we listened to *the screaming*. In the second, we listened to *the frantically screaming woman*. The present participle *screaming* modifies *woman*.

Write two original sentences using the verb provided in parentheses. In one, use the verb as a gerund; in the other, use it as a present participle. The sentences do not have to be similar. For example:

(see)

Seeing the newborn pups brought a smile to her lips.

Mary, suddenly seeing her brother at the door, let out a scream of joy.

1. (hope)

2. (find)

3. (learn)

4. (help)

5. (attend)

Infinitives

Like gerunds, infinitives are verbals (derived from the infinitive form of verbs such as **to run**, **to have**, **to speak**, and so on) that are used as nouns and function quite easily as the subject of a sentence. For example:

To pretend you're something you're not is foolish.

To be on the basketball team was his fervent wish.

When infinitives are used as direct objects, care must be taken, because not all verbs can use an infinitive as their direct object. Here are some commonly used verbs that can have infinitives as direct objects:

agree	need
attempt	plan
decide	pretend
expect	promise
hope	want
learn	

Here are a few example sentences using these verbs:

Jack decided **to buy** a new car.
 No one needs **to know** about our plan.
 Jean will want **to speak** to you about this.

EXERCISE

14.4

*In the blank provided, write an infinitive or infinitive phrase using the verb in parentheses.
 For example:*

(buy) To buy a car now might be a bad idea.

- (marry) _____ won't bring you happiness.
- (travel) _____ would take too long.
- (speak) In Europe I learned _____.
- (love) That woman only pretended _____.
- (be) _____ is the only thing I ask of you.

After some verbs, both infinitives and gerunds can be used as direct objects. Some of these verbs are as follows:

begin	love
continue	remember
hate	start
like	try

For example:

I begin **to worry** about him. I begin **worrying** about him.
 Why do you hate **to practice**? Why do you hate **practicing**?
 John tried **to help** them. John tried **helping** them.

Using the pairs of verbs in parentheses, write original sentences using an infinitive as the direct object. Write a second sentence with a gerund as the direct object wherever possible. For example:

(begin/speak)

I began to speak more politely to her.

I began speaking more politely to her.

1. (love/read)

2. (learn/play)

3. (continue/drive)

4. (remember/pay)

5. (like/swim)

The antonyms **remember** and **forget** can have either an infinitive or a gerund as their direct object. However, the meaning of such sentences will be quite different. For example:

Did you remember **to feed** the dog? (*Did you feed the dog?*)

Did you remember **feeding** the dog? (*Did you remember that you fed the dog? Or have you forgotten?*)

She forgot **to take** the chicken out of the freezer. (*She left the chicken in the freezer.*)

She forgot **taking** the chicken out of the freezer. (*She doesn't remember that she took the chicken out of the freezer.*)

Passive voice infinitives can function as nouns like other infinitives. The passive voice consists of a conjugated form of **be** plus a past participle.

PASSIVE VOICE SENTENCE	PASSIVE INFINITIVE
He is being punished for his actions.	to be punished
It is being decided by a court.	to be decided
Mary is being given a second chance.	to be given

Perfect tense infinitives are derived from the present or past perfect tense and are used as nouns like other infinitives. Passive voice sentences can form perfect tense infinitives as well.

PERFECT TENSE SENTENCE	PERFECT TENSE INFINITIVE
She has found her little brother.	to have found
I had bought her a gift.	to have bought
He has been arrested for the crime.	to have been arrested
We had been searched by the police.	to have been searched

Here are some examples of passive infinitives and perfect tense infinitives used as nouns:

To be punished for something I didn't do is unfair.

To be called a liar was the greatest insult.

To have broken your promise to me is unforgiveable.

To have spent all your savings was a grave mistake.

To have been accused of a crime was the final humiliation.

To have been fired so suddenly came as a shock to me.

EXERCISE

14.6

Rewrite the sentence making the phrase in bold an infinitive. The sentence does not have to reflect the same meaning as the original. For example:

He **is being taken** out of the country.

To be taken out of the country was not what she wanted.

1. They **have been fined** for speeding.

2. I **have lived** in America.

3. Martin **has achieved** great success.

4. Laura **had been selected** to head the committee.

5. The men **are being fired** by the new manager.

Participles

Both present and past participles can function as modifiers. They can act as a single adjective or in an adjectival phrase. For example:

Running water is a luxury in this village.

The boy, **running in fear of his life**, bolted into the church.

The **broken** lamp is beyond repair.

His right leg, **painfully broken in a fall from the roof**, will require surgery.

A present participle used as an adjective is much like a replacement for a verb in a relative clause.

PRESENT PARTICIPLE	RELATIVE CLAUSE
running water	water, which is running
sleeping children	children, who are sleeping
flowering rosebushes	rosebushes, which are flowering

A past participle used as an adjective is much like a replacement for a relative clause with a passive voice verb.

PAST PARTICIPLE	PASSIVE RELATIVE CLAUSE
a broken window	a window, which has been broken
the wounded soldier	the soldier, who has been wounded
stolen money	money, which has been stolen

EXERCISE

14.7

Write four original sentences for each verb. Change the verb to a present participle and then a past participle, and use each as a single adjective and in an adjectival phrase. For example:

(break)

The sound of breaking glass scared us.

The window, breaking from the force of the wind, crashed to the floor.

A broken finger was the only injury she suffered.

The egg, broken open by the gentle pecking of the chick, soon revealed the newborn bird.

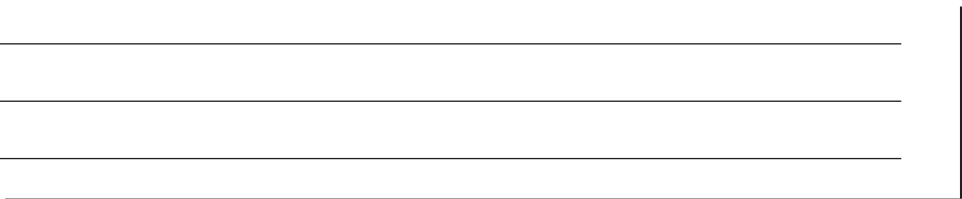
1. (return)

2. (punish)

3. (recruit)

4. (follow)

5. (insult)



Auxiliaries

Three of the most common auxiliaries are **have**, **shall**, and **will**. A conjugated form of **have** with an accompanying past participle is used to form the present and past perfect tenses, and **shall** and **will** are used with an accompanying infinitive to form the future and future perfect tenses. Here are some examples:

Present perfect: My brother **has** been working in Boston.

Past perfect: Ms. Ramirez **had** spent several hours at the mall.

Future: Shall we go into the living room?

Future perfect: They **will** have traveled more than a thousand miles by next week.

Many English speakers avoid using **shall**. This comes in part from its use in a contraction (*I shall = I'll*), which sounds and looks like a contraction formed with **will** (*I will = I'll*). **Shall** is most frequently used with the first person singular and plural pronouns (*I* and *we*) but is replaced by **will** in casual language.

I **shall** try to spend more time with you. I **will** try to spend more time with you.

We **shall** be traveling by train. We **will** be traveling by train.

In a question formed with **I** or **we** as the subject, the use of **shall** cannot be avoided if the question is to make sense. The use of **will** is also correct, but the meaning is quite different. For example:

Shall we go out to dinner tonight? (*A suggestion of what to do tonight*)

Will we go out to dinner tonight? (*A question about possible dinner plans for tonight*)

Shall I lend you my car for the day? (*A suggestion to lend you my car*)

Will I lend you my car for the day? (*A question about my plan to lend you my car*)

When negated with **not**, these auxiliaries can become contractions, as in the following instances:

have not = haven't

has not = hasn't

had not = hadn't

shall not = shan't

will not = won't

Rewrite each present tense sentence in the specified perfect and future tenses.

1. John is at work.

PRESENT PERFECT _____

PAST PERFECT _____

FUTURE _____

2. Do I visit you often?

PRESENT PERFECT _____

PAST PERFECT _____

FUTURE _____

3. He is speaking for two hours.

PRESENT PERFECT _____

PAST PERFECT _____

FUTURE _____

FUTURE PERFECT _____

4. The little boy breaks the vase.

PRESENT PERFECT _____

PAST PERFECT _____

FUTURE _____

FUTURE PERFECT _____

5. Does she help out in the kitchen?

PRESENT PERFECT _____

PAST PERFECT _____

FUTURE _____

Should and would

The auxiliaries **should** and **would** are the past tense forms of **shall** and **will** and are used very much as they are. That means that **should** is used with the first person singular and plural pronouns but is often replaced by **would**. One of their common uses is in *indirect discourse*. When

reporting what someone has said, the verb phrase in the quoted line includes **should** or **would**. For example:

Direct discourse: John says, “I will help Mary with the cleaning.”

Indirect discourse: John said that he **would** help Mary with the cleaning.

Direct discourse: John says, “You will have a good time there.”

Indirect discourse: John said that I **should/would** have a good time there.

Direct discourse: John says, “They will be driving through the Alps.”

Indirect discourse: John said that they **would** be driving through the Alps.

Should is often used to suggest an action. Any pronoun can be the subject of **should** in such sentences.

I **should** stay home and relax tonight.

You **shouldn't** watch so much television.

Perhaps he **should** wear a warmer coat.

In conditional sentences, in which a result will occur if certain conditions are met, both **should** and **would** are used, although there is a tendency to use **would** most often.

Condition

Result

If you saved more, you **would** have plenty of money for retirement.

If my brother were here, he **would** know what to advise me.

If we saw Uncle Henry, we **should/would** speak to him.

It is possible for the clause that expresses the result to precede the one that sets the condition.

You **would** have plenty of money for retirement if you saved more.

Should have and would have

Should have is used with an accompanying past participle to express *what outcome was preferred but did not occur*. For example:

You **should have** driven more carefully. (*The preferred outcome was having driven more carefully, but that did not occur.*)

I **should have** brought an umbrella. (*The preferred outcome of having an umbrella handy did not occur.*)

Would have is used with an accompanying past participle in conditional sentences to express an action in the past. For example:

The man **would have** felt better if he had taken his medicine.

If I had known you liked candy, I **would have** brought you some pralines.

In the blank provided, write the correct verb form: **should**, **would**, **should have**, or **would have**. If two answers are possible, provide both. For example:

He should have known better than to lie to Father.

1. If you were better prepared, you _____ pass the test.
2. _____ you go out in such a light jacket?
3. Michael and Laura _____ gone to New York by plane.
4. We _____ probably head for home soon.
5. Bill _____ carried the heavy box if he had been at home.
6. Someone _____ told me about this situation.
7. If Uncle Samuel had remembered his glasses, he _____ been able to read the signs.
8. I warned you about coming home late. You _____ been home by eleven.
9. _____ I open the blinds, or do you prefer to do it yourself?
10. If the storm had ended sooner, we _____ continued on the hike.
11. Why _____ I pay for this? I didn't order it.
12. She _____ worn her raincoat. Now she'll get soaked to the skin.
13. I _____ borrowed the money for her tuition.
14. Jane _____ made some sandwiches if she had been told about the picnic.
15. It's Mom's birthday. We _____ bought her a gift and a card.

Modals

The modal auxiliary verbs come in a variety of forms. Some include verbs that can be conjugated, and others consist of a single verb form that cannot be conjugated. In addition, not all modal auxiliaries can be used in all tenses. Here are some commonly used modal auxiliary verbs in their present and past tense forms.

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE
can	could
have got to, has got to	had got to
have to, has to	had to
may	might
must	—
—	had better
need, needs	needed
ought to	—

Modals such as these are accompanied by infinitives. As explained in Chapter 14, infinitives can be a single verb or a passive infinitive. Note that some modals consist of a phrase ending in **to**. That *particle word* is always part of the modal. The following are some examples:

ACTIVE VOICE SENTENCES	PASSIVE VOICE SENTENCES
He can hold his breath for a long time.	They needed to be located soon.
Why must you shout at me?	We have to be protected from him.
May I come in?	It has got to be decided today.
You had better feed that hungry dog.	Could our house be built over there?

A few modal auxiliaries have an alternative form:

MODAL AUXILIARY	ALTERNATIVE MODAL AUXILIARY
can	be able to
must	have to
shall/will	be going to
should	be supposed to

These alternative modals can replace the regular modals.

I can understand what you mean.	I am able to understand what you mean.
We must help our neighbors.	We have to help our neighbors.
He will buy a few gifts at the mall.	He is going to buy a few gifts at the mall.
She should rest more often.	She is supposed to rest more often.

The alternative modal auxiliaries come in handy when using tenses other than the present or past tense, because some modals are limited to certain tenses. The following examples show three modals and how their alternative form can be used in various tenses.

MODAL AUXILIARY	ALTERNATE MODAL AUXILIARY
Present: I can work harder.	I am able to work harder.
Past: I could work harder.	I was able to work harder.
Present perfect: —	I have been able to work harder.
Past perfect: —	I had been able to work harder.
Future: —	I shall be able to work harder.
Present: We must hurry.	We have to hurry.
Past: —	We had to hurry.
Present perfect: —	We have had to hurry.
Past perfect: —	We had had to hurry.
Future: —	We shall have to hurry.
Present: —	You are supposed to stay home.
Past: You should stay home.	You were supposed to stay home.
Present perfect: —	You have been supposed to stay home.
Past perfect: —	You had been supposed to stay home.
Future: —	You will be supposed to stay home.

When verb phrases become too complex and sound awkward, there is a tendency to use a simpler phrase. For example:

Complex: You had been supposed to stay home.

Simpler: You were supposed to stay home.

EXERCISE

15.3

Change the sentence provided by adding the modal auxiliaries shown in parentheses. Retain the tense of the original sentence. If the modal does not exist in the given tense, use its alternative form. For example:

James has spoken with her.

(must) James has had to speak with her.

1. My daughter learned a funny poem.

(can) _____

(be supposed to) _____

(have to) _____

2. Will you be home for supper?

(must) _____

(can) _____

(be going to) _____

3. Someone helps the man with his luggage.

(ought to) _____

(need to) _____

(have got to) _____

4. Jack trains for the marathon.

(must) _____

(be able to) _____

(be supposed to) _____

5. The officer stamped my passport.

(may) _____

(be supposed to) _____

(can) _____

Modals and past participles

Just like **should have** and **would have**, some modal auxiliary verbs can be combined with **have** and accompanied by a past participle. The use of this form of auxiliary changes the *nuance* of the sentence's meaning. For example:

He **could have** heard me. (*He had the ability to hear me. It was likely that he heard me.*)

He **may have** heard me. (*It is possible that he heard me.*)

He **might have** heard me. (*There was a slight possibility that he heard me, but he probably did not.*)

He **must have** heard me. (*I assume that he heard me.*)

He **ought to have** heard me. (*It's a pity that he did not hear me.*)

Here are a few more examples. Study them and determine what the nuance of meaning is in each.

Jack could have grilled a couple of steaks.

Jack may have grilled a couple of steaks.

Jack might have grilled a couple of steaks.

Jack must have grilled a couple of steaks.

Jack ought to have grilled a couple of steaks.

EXERCISE

15.4

Rewrite each sentence in the missing tenses, using alternative modal forms where necessary.

1. PRESENT Ms. Gupta needs to get some sleep.

PAST _____

PRESENT PERFECT _____

FUTURE _____

2. PRESENT _____

PAST No one could help the poor man.

PRESENT PERFECT _____

FUTURE _____

3. PRESENT _____

PAST _____

PRESENT PERFECT Jim has had to be hospitalized.

FUTURE _____

4. PRESENT _____

PAST _____

PRESENT PERFECT _____

FUTURE Martin will not be able to go with you.

5. PRESENT He has to take the train to Seattle.

PAST _____

PRESENT PERFECT _____

FUTURE _____

EXERCISE

15.5

Complete each sentence with any appropriate phrase. For example:

She could have attended the same university as Joe.

1. I must have _____.
2. The other girls may have _____.
3. Karen might have _____.
4. You ought to have _____.
5. Should you have _____?
6. My mother never would have _____.
7. _____ forgotten about the party tonight.
8. _____ lost my keys.
9. _____ put your money in the bank.
10. _____ misunderstood me.

Using *get*

The verb **get** is used in a large variety of ways, a fact that can cause confusion for many people learning English, because that variety gives the verb numerous meanings. **Get** is an irregular verb and is conjugated as follows:

Present tense: he gets/he is getting

Past tense: he got/he was getting

Present perfect: he has gotten/he has been getting

Future tense: he will get/he will be getting

Perhaps the most common meanings of **get** are *become* and *receive*. In this instance, *become* is synonymous with *turn* (as in *The leaves are turning red*) rather than with *prepare for a profession* (such as *become a doctor*). When it means *become*, **get** is an intransitive verb. When it means *receive*, it is a transitive verb and can be accompanied by direct objects. **Get** can be used as an intransitive or a transitive verb as its meaning changes. Here are some example sentences:

GET MEANING BECOME

GET MEANING RECEIVE

It **gets** dark early in the winter.

Did you **get** my letter?

It **got** so cold last night.

Tom **got** a gift from his girlfriend.

The sky is **getting** bright.

I can't **get** money out of this ATM.

Another two meanings of **get** are *arrive* and *earn*. The former is an intransitive verb, and the latter is a transitive verb. For example:

GET MEANING ARRIVE

GET MEANING EARN

Marie will **get** home tomorrow.

I will be **getting** \$11 an hour.

How do I **get** to State Street?

My cousin **got** a four-year scholarship.

She **got** to the station on foot.

You will **get** a reward for your heroism.

Rewrite each sentence in the tenses given.

1. PRESENT How do you get over that river?

PAST _____

PRESENT PERFECT _____

FUTURE _____

2. PRESENT _____

PAST The weather got very chilly again.

PRESENT PERFECT _____

FUTURE _____

3. PRESENT _____

PAST _____

PRESENT PERFECT She hasn't been getting all her pay.

FUTURE _____

4. PRESENT _____

PAST _____

PRESENT PERFECT _____

FUTURE We will get high marks for our science project.

Two more meanings of **get** are *have something done* and *take someone someplace*. For example:

GET MEANING HAVE SOMETHING DONE

I have to **get** my hair cut.

She **got** a beautiful dress made in Paris.

I'll **get** the car repaired tomorrow.

GET MEANING TAKE SOMEONE SOMEPLACE

I can **get** you to St. Louis by 10 p.m.

Jim **got** his girlfriend home on time.

We're **getting** you to the hospital right now.

Another pair of meanings comprises *understand* and *obtain or bring back*. For example:

GET MEANING UNDERSTAND

I didn't **get** his joke.

She **got** my meaning but didn't like it.

Don't you **get** it? They're angry with you.

GET MEANING OBTAIN/BRING BACK

Please **get** me the scissors from that drawer.

John **got** some groceries this morning.

Can you **get** my pills from the drugstore?

Two additional meanings are *have the opportunity* and *take transportation*. For example:

GET MEANING HAVE THE OPPORTUNITY

GET MEANING TAKE TRANSPORTATION

I hope I **get** to see the game on Friday.

We need to **get** the next bus.

Susan never **got** to take ballet lessons.

I **got** a flight to Memphis.

Tomorrow we **get** to go to the zoo.

If he had **gotten** the train, he'd be there by now.

EXERCISE

16.2

Based on the description provided, write two original sentences using **get** in any tense that is appropriate.

1. (have something done)

2. (take someone someplace)

3. (understand)

4. (obtain/bring back)

5. (have the opportunity)

6. (take transportation)

7. (receive)

8. (become)

9. (arrive)

10. (earn)

Passive voice

In colloquial language, the auxiliary **be** is sometimes replaced by **get** in a passive voice structure. **Get** is accompanied by a past participle, and the sentence's meaning resembles that of a passive voice sentence with the auxiliary **be**.

PASSIVE VOICE

The house **is** destroyed by a fire.
 The boy was **being** punished.
 The thief will **be** sentenced to 10 years.

PASSIVE VOICE WITH GET

The house **gets** destroyed by a fire.
 The boy was **getting** punished.
 The thief will **get** sentenced to 10 years.

As explained in Chapter 6, a passive voice structure can be introduced by other auxiliaries. The same occurs when **get** is part of that structure. For example:

He **wants** to **be** paid for his labors.
 He **wants** to **get** paid for his labors.

EXERCISE

16.3

*Rewrite each sentence by changing the auxiliary **be** to a comparable form of **get**.*

1. The car is being repaired by a new mechanic.

2. Was he promoted by Mr. Jackson?

3. You will be rewarded for your service to the community.

4. Ashley is kissed by Jim.

5. I have often been massaged for my sore back.

6. Does Mom like to be pampered on Mother's Day?

7. She never wanted to be elected governor.

8. The team will be trained by Coach Henderson.

9. Was the dog being maltreated?

10. Many citizens were being robbed in that neighborhood.

EXERCISE

16.4

Write an original passive voice sentence using **get** and the participle provided in parentheses. Use any tense that is appropriate. For example:

(punished) The boy will get punished for his bad behavior.

1. (built) _____

2. (fed) _____

3. (painted) _____

4. (inflated) _____

5. (driven) _____

EXERCISE

16.5

Circle the letter of the word or phrase that best completes each sentence.

1. It seems to _____ hotter every summer.

- a. get
- b. getting
- c. got
- d. has gotten

2. I don't get _____.

- a. some reasons
- b. that joke
- c. he is singing
- d. been punished

3. Why is he _____?
- a. got the messages from us
b. gets a little lazy
c. get it from us
d. getting so angry
4. We just couldn't get _____ in time.
- a. from the officer
b. for him
c. of city hall
d. to the train
5. I have been getting _____.
- a. a lot of postcards from them
b. school by ten o'clock
c. gone to the store
d. reward for my son
6. She has no idea how to get _____.
- a. to Newark Airport
b. bus station by two
c. broken by the child
d. it is funny
7. We need _____.
- a. to get him to the emergency room
b. getting a loan from the bank
c. get aboard the ship
d. have gotten better seats
8. It's not fair that he gets _____.
- a. write several letters
b. sending a fax or an e-mail
c. more pay than Marie
d. being so ill
9. I hope you _____.
- a. haven't gotten yet
b. get to visit the aquarium
c. to get a little more money
d. getting a good impression of us
10. The old horse was _____ by the driver.
- a. got fed once a day
b. getting beaten
c. gets to graze in the pasture
d. gotten lame and blind

Restrictive and nonrestrictive relative clauses

English relative clauses follow distinct patterns, some of which differ from the patterns in European languages. These are the relative pronouns used in relative clauses:

ANIMATE	INANIMATE
that	that
who	which
whom	
whose	whose, of which

The choice of using an animate or inanimate relative pronoun depends on the *antecedent* of the relative pronoun (the word to which the pronoun refers). If the antecedent is animate, it takes an animate relative pronoun; if it is inanimate, it takes an inanimate relative pronoun. For example:

My brother, **who** is serving in the army right now, wants to become a teacher.

My car, **which** is the latest Ford model, gets only average gas mileage.

When using a possessive relative pronoun with an inanimate antecedent, either **whose** or **of which** is correct.

The factory, **whose** employees may be laid off, was built more than 50 years ago.

The factory, the employees **of which** may be laid off, was built more than 50 years ago.

Combining sentences

It is possible to combine two sentences that share a common element—a noun or pronoun. One of those elements can be changed to a relative pronoun, and the two sentences can be written as one. The relative pronoun uses the same case (subjective, objective, or possessive) as the element that is changed. For example:

Two sentences: The manager usually comes in late. I met **the manager** in Los Angeles.

Combined sentence: The manager, **whom** I met in Los Angeles, usually comes in late.

Because **manager** is the direct object in the second of the two original sentences, the objective form **whom** is used as the relative pronoun in the combined sentence.

Prepositions

When a noun used as an indirect object is changed to a relative pronoun, the prepositions **to** or **for** usually introduce the relative pronoun. For example:

The girl is sad. I give **the girl** some candy.

The girl, **to whom** I give some candy, is sad.

The boy attends our school. We buy **the boy** school supplies.

The boy, **for whom** we buy school supplies, attends our school.

If a noun is the object of a preposition and is changed to a relative pronoun, the preposition will introduce the relative pronoun in the relative clause. For example:

The house is too small. My family is supposed to live in **the house**.

The house, **in which** my family is supposed to live, is too small.

EXERCISE

17.1

Combine each pair of sentences by making the word in bold the relative pronoun. Make the second sentence the relative clause. Use only a form of **who** or **which**, and set off the relative clause with commas. For example:

The men want to go on strike. **The men** used to get a good salary.

The men, who used to get a good salary, want to go on strike.

1. The boy is looking for his dog. **The boy** is one of my students.

2. Mr. Simmons moved here from Canada. **Mr. Simmons** has two daughters.

3. The woman is learning Spanish. Bob sent **the woman** several e-mails.

4. This room will serve as our family room. The dimensions of **the room** are 15 × 20 feet.

5. The new airport is located outside of town. **The new airport** has three terminals.

6. The head of the school became quite ill. We recently visited **the head of the school**.

7. Jack is a student at Harvard. **Jack's** parents are neighbors of mine.

8. Their children rarely argue. Tom bought **their children** computer games.

9. Professor Hall is getting on in years. Jenny spoke with **Professor Hall** yesterday.

10. The bed is brand-new. Their baby slept comfortably on **the bed**.

Restrictive relative clauses

Restrictive relative clauses *define* or *limit* their antecedent. In such clauses, the relative pronoun is most often **that** and can replace either animate or inanimate nouns. These clauses are *not* set off by commas. Here are some examples:

My sister **that works in Toledo** is a lawyer.

The antecedent **My sister** is defined as working in Toledo. The sentence implies that I have another sister that works elsewhere. For example:

And my sister **that works in Denver** is a homemaker.

Here is another example:

The books **that I bought yesterday** were on sale.

The antecedent **The books** is defined by when I bought them—**yesterday**. The sentence implies that I bought other books at another time. For example:

And the books **that I bought this afternoon** were full price.

The relative pronoun **that** is universal, meaning it can be used with any antecedent in restrictive relative clauses. But **who**, **whom**, **whose**, and **which** can also be used in restrictive clauses. However, care must be taken to ensure that the relative clause really defines and limits the antecedent. Here are some examples:

The elderly man **that** I met at your party paid me a call yesterday.

The elderly man **whom** I met at your party paid me a call yesterday.

The animals **that** are housed in the Jungle Building do not like cold weather.

The animals **which** are housed in the Jungle Building do not like cold weather.

The little boy **that** threw the rock ran around the corner of that house.

The little boy **who** threw the rock ran around the corner of that house.

Rewrite each sentence by changing the relative pronoun **that** to **who**, **whom**, or **which**.

1. The film that is playing right now is very suspenseful.

2. His children that live in Chicago reside on the same street.

3. The teacher that I saw in the park is Ms. Garcia.

4. Is the woman that bought your house from Ireland?

5. The flowers that I bought for Jane are already wilting.

Earlier in this chapter, it was stated that a preposition should precede a relative pronoun in a relative clause. This is not the case if that clause is restrictive. In restrictive relative clauses, the preposition becomes the last element in the clause. For example:

The actor **that** I spoke **of** is right over there.

That is the man **that** I drove to Phoenix **with**.

You cannot say or write “**with that** I drove to Phoenix.”

There is a simple rule that says a preposition should not end a sentence. If you were to follow that rule all the time, you would sometimes find yourself making awkward and odd-sounding statements. Even the legendary prime minister of Great Britain, Winston Churchill, found that rule lacking. When an editor rewrote a sentence in one of Churchill’s papers to avoid ending a sentence with a preposition, Churchill supposedly wrote in reply, “This is the sort of bloody nonsense up with which I will not put.”

The point is that a preposition can and often must end a sentence as illustrated earlier. Here are a few more examples where a preposition is at the end of a sentence:

That’s the uncle that I told you **about**.

Is that the café that we ate **in**?

Where is the pillow that the cat was sitting **on**?

When a restrictive relative clause uses the relative pronoun **that** as a direct object, indirect object, or object of a preposition, *the relative pronoun can be omitted*.

Direct object: The hat I bought in Paris was crushed in my suitcase. (*The hat that I bought . . .*)

Indirect object: The woman I gave the money to was most grateful. (*The woman that I gave . . .*)

Object of preposition: The waiter she complained about had spilled water on her. (*The waiter that she complained . . .*)

Compose sentences with restrictive relative clauses using **that**. The relative pronoun of the clause should conform to the description provided in parentheses. If the relative pronoun is in the objective case, write the sentence a second time, omitting the relative pronoun **that**. For example:

(subject) That is the student that lives in the new dormitory.

(direct object) Did you meet the lawyer that Mr. Brown hired?

Did you meet the lawyer Mr. Brown hired?

1. (subject) _____

2. (direct object) _____

3. (indirect object) _____

4. (object of preposition) _____

5. (subject) _____

6. (direct object) _____

7. (indirect object) _____

8. (object of preposition) _____

9. (direct object) _____

10. (object of preposition) _____

Nonrestrictive relative clauses

Nonrestrictive relative clauses do not define or limit the antecedent. They provide *additional, parenthetical information*. Such clauses are always set off with commas, and prepositions precede the relative pronoun, particularly in formal style. These are the kind of relative clauses that were

written in Exercise 17-1. Let's look at a few more examples of nonrestrictive relative clauses and how they differ in meaning from restrictive clauses.

Restrictive: The boy **that** threw a rock at my window is hiding over there.

Nonrestrictive: The boy, **who** threw a rock at my window, is hiding over there.

In the sentence with the restrictive relative clause, the speaker is identifying the boy. Apparently, the boy threw the rock at the window relatively recently. But in the sentence with the nonrestrictive relative clause, the speaker is pointing out where the boy is hiding and is adding the information that the boy threw a rock at his or her window. That could have happened a long time ago rather than recently.

Here is another example:

Restrictive: The ladder **that** broke is lying next to the garage.

Nonrestrictive: The ladder, **which** broke, is lying next to the garage.

In the sentence with the restrictive relative clause, someone apparently has more than one ladder, and one of them broke. But in the sentence with the nonrestrictive relative clause, the speaker is describing where the ladder is and adding the complaint that it broke.

It is often the speaker's or writer's prerogative to determine whether the meaning desired is restrictive or nonrestrictive. To determine whether the restrictive meaning is desired, ask, "Which one?"

Which ladder? The ladder that broke.

Which sister? The sister that lives in Toledo.

Which woman? The woman I gave the money to.

Which pillow? The pillow the cat was sitting on.

EXERCISE

17.4

Write two sentences for each phrase, using it first with a restrictive relative clause and then with a nonrestrictive one. Describe how the restrictive clause defines or limits its antecedent. For example:

(the new student)

The new student that lives on the third floor comes from India.

Other new students live on other floors.

The new student, who lives on the third floor, comes from India.

1. (our relatives) _____

2. (the landlord) _____

3. (three buildings) _____

4. (the contracts) _____

5. (my friend) _____

6. (the map) _____

7. (the best film) _____

8. (the country) _____

9. (the essay) _____

10. (the handsomest actor) _____

Coordinating and subordinating conjunctions

18

Coordinating conjunctions connect two independent clauses as one sentence. It is usual to separate the two clauses by a comma, but if the clauses are brief, the comma is sometimes omitted. The comma can also be omitted if the subject of the second clause is understood, because it is identical to the subject in the first clause. However, there are exceptions: **for** and **nor**. These conjunctions require a subject in both clauses.

The coordinating conjunctions are **and**, **but**, **for**, **nor**, **or**, **so**, and **yet**. The following are some examples of how these conjunctions are used.

And

The rain and frequent sunshine made the farmers happy, **and** the landscape responded with greenery and color. (*A subject in each independent clause*)

The farmers made their way into the fields **and** began the task of readying the soil for planting. (*Identical subject understood*)

But

One of the twins was certain that city life was for him, **but** the other quickly fled to a quiet village. (*A subject in each independent clause*)

The sisters loved to shop together **but** never saw each other at social gatherings. (*Identical subject understood*)

For

Young John rebelled against all authority, **for** his father had taught him that authority had its cruel side.

Nor

She never suggested she would marry him, **nor** did he give the impression that he was falling in love with her. (*A subject in each independent clause*)

Here, the verb in the second clause precedes the subject: **nor** did he give the impression that he was falling in love with her.

Or

Either you are taking money from the vault, **or** there is an invisible creature that has the combination. (*A subject in each independent clause*)

She either is a child prodigy **or** had musical training in another life. (*Identical subject understood*)

So

Aunt Vera is a wary driver, **so** it is no wonder that she avoids congested roads. (*A subject in each independent clause*)

Tom has a lot of problems with math **so** he spends many hours studying for exams. (*Identical subject understood*)

Yet

My son plays Bach with a master's touch, **yet** his favorite type of music is rap. (*A subject in each independent clause*)

The understudy practiced her lines at every free moment **yet** forgot nearly everything when she was finally onstage. (*Identical subject understood*)

EXERCISE

18.1

Complete each sentence with any appropriate clause. If a comma is not provided before a conjunction, assume that the subject in the second clause is understood and identical to the one in the first clause.

1. Jenny spent years in southern Texas, and _____.
2. We enjoyed our vacation in France, but _____.
3. _____, for the constant storms left the sea rough and dangerous.
4. Professor Hart neither berated his students nor _____.
5. Do you have vacation plans for the summer yet, or _____.
6. Mr. Willis hated driving his big car, so _____.
7. _____, yet I remember nothing that happened before the accident.
8. Someone will have to pay for the damage and _____.
9. _____ but lies around all day monitoring her Facebook page.
10. Jim hated parties and begging girls to dance with him, for _____.
11. My parents never told me about the birds and the bees, nor _____.
12. Maria is going to go to a private college or _____.
13. _____ so spends a lot of his time lifting weights.
14. Barbara made a long list of the guests she wanted to invite yet _____.
15. Ms. Hayes travels from city to city and _____.

The conjunctions **but** and **for** are also commonly used as prepositions. As a preposition, **but** means *except*. For example:

Everyone **but** Alex was invited to her party.

As a preposition, **for** means *as a benefit to* or *in favor of*. For example:

I have a special gift **for** my daughter.

Circle the letter of the word or phrase that best completes each sentence.

1. You are either going out of your mind, _____ you have no idea how serious this is.
a. for b. or c. so d. and
2. Mr. Carson has an apartment in the city _____ lives with his mother in the suburbs.
a. but b. for c. nor d. or
3. Doris avoids her former husband, for _____.
a. was always afraid of his moods c. spent all their money on gambling
b. began drinking heavily d. he has a mean streak in him
4. _____, yet you continue to waste your time playing golf.
a. Either you don't like going to work c. She is very interested in athletics
b. You are such a talented programmer d. They will join you on the green
5. _____, nor do I have any patience with your behavior.
a. She does not understand you c. You are behaving badly again
b. I do not have the ability to control you d. He will never come back to us
6. Mr. Garcia made an illegal turn left and _____.
a. was issued a citation c. no one saw the accident
b. a policeman pulled him over d. he realized he had made a mistake
7. It was hard for Laura to exaggerate the truth, _____.
a. and Tom was willing to lie to her c. for her parents had taught her not to lie
b. but was comfortable with the story d. or she tried not to lie to them
8. The man was badly injured _____ continued to struggle to get to safety.
a. so b. nor c. or d. yet
9. He fears large dogs, _____ it's understandable that he has no pets.
a. so b. nor c. or d. yet
10. You are neither a member of this family _____ a welcome guest.
a. so b. nor c. or d. yet

Subordinating conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions introduce a dependent clause (one that *depends* on the accompanying independent clause to complete its meaning). If the subordinating clause precedes the independent clause, it is separated from the independent clause by a comma. If it follows the independent clause, a comma is not used.

The list of subordinating conjunctions is long. Here are some of the common ones:

after	once
although	since
as	that
as if	though
as though	till
because	unless

before	until
even though	when
if	whenever
in order that	where
now that	while

Compare the use or omission of a comma in the following pairs of sentences.

After Daniel bought everyone dinner, he discovered that he had only \$6 left.
She spoke to me **as if** I didn't have a brain in my head.

Because you have shown such bravery, the mayor wishes to present you with a medal.
I spend time at Pearl Harbor **whenever** I visit Honolulu.

Unless you start coming to work on time, you will soon be without a job.
John started dinner **while** his wife was putting the baby to bed.

EXERCISE
18.3

Complete each sentence with any appropriate phrase.

1. While _____, I went out to the garage to wash the car.
2. If _____, you're going to get a ticket for speeding.
3. Tears welled up in my eyes whenever _____.
4. Before I bought a new suit, _____.
5. Although _____, she can run as fast as the tallest girl.
6. Now that _____, you have my permission to drive the car alone.
7. _____ unless you start doing some serious studying.
8. Until I met Maria, _____.
9. As I told you in my recent letter, _____.
10. Although _____, I will try to pay my rent on time.

The conjunction *as*

As is sometimes confused with **like**, but the two words are used differently. **As** is a subordinating conjunction and introduces a dependent clause. **Like** is a preposition and introduces a prepositional phrase. Despite this difference, some people try to use **like** as a conjunction. For example:

Incorrect: **Like** my father always said, you have to be smart to stay smart.

Correct: **As** my father always said, you have to be smart to stay smart.

Incorrect: **Like** we did as children, we loved to play Monopoly.

Correct: **As** we did as children, we loved to play Monopoly.

Here are some examples in which **like** is used correctly as a preposition:

Everyone says my daughter looks **like** me.

My cake doesn't taste **like** your cake.

EXERCISE

18.4

Write three original sentences using **as** as a conjunction. Then write two original sentences using **like** as a preposition.

As

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

Like

4. _____
5. _____

The conjunction *that*

The conjunction **that** is used a bit differently from other subordinating conjunctions. It connects the verb in the introductory clause with the dependent clause. If the meaning of the sentence is not altered and the sentence does not sound awkward, **that** is often omitted but understood. For example:

My boss suggested **that** I take some time off to rest.

My boss suggested I take some time off to rest.

Did anyone tell him **that** his wife had won the lottery?

Did anyone tell him his wife had won the lottery?

No one knew **that** Ms. Olson had been promoted to vice president.

No one knew Ms. Olson had been promoted to vice president.

EXERCISE

18.5

Write five pairs of original sentences with the conjunction **that**. Include **that** in the first sentence and omit it in the second. For example:

John hoped that his wife would feel better soon.

John hoped his wife would feel better soon.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

The conjunction *because*

Some grammarians suggest that the conjunction **because** should not be used to introduce a sentence. However, many people ignore this idea, and it is used extensively by English speakers and writers. But care must be taken with long clauses, for there seems to be a tendency to leave the dependent clause as a *fragment*. For example:

Incorrect: **Because** technology and widespread communications have made life throughout the globe so comfortable. (*Lacking an independent clause*)

Correct: **Because** technology and widespread communications have made life throughout the globe so comfortable, some experts believe that human beings are losing their creative abilities.

Of course, **because** can begin the dependent clause that follows the independent clause. For example:

We have to change how we use fossil fuel **because** the world's oil will someday be used up.

EXERCISE

18.6

Write five original sentences with the subordinating conjunction **because**.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

Phrasal verbs

19

Phrasal verbs are verbs combined with adverbs and prepositions to make a completely new meaning from that of the original verb. For example, when the verb **put** is combined with **up** and **with**, the original meaning of **put** (*place*) is lost, and a new meaning is created (*endure*).

I cannot **put up with** your bad behavior. = I cannot **endure** your bad behavior.

Chapter 17 highlighted the phrasal verb **put up with** in a comment about how Winston Churchill mocked someone's attempt to avoid putting a preposition at the end of a sentence: "This is the sort of bloody nonsense up with which I will not put." Attempts to follow the rule that prepositions may not end a sentence will end in failure when it comes to phrasal verbs. That is because certain prepositions are used as *adverbs* (sometimes referred to as *particles*) when part of a phrasal verb. That is actually the use of **up** in the phrasal verb **put up with**. Churchill's sentence should have ended with the preposition **up**, which is used as an adverb: "This is the sort of bloody nonsense with which I will not put up."

Let's look at how other adverbs and prepositions further change the meaning of **put**.

put down

1. *ridicule or demean someone or something* = You always **put me down**.
Don't I do anything that pleases you?
2. *write* = **Put down** every word that is said in the meeting.

put down for

register someone to participate in an activity = Mary loves soccer. You can **put her down for** that.

put on

1. *pretend* = He's not really sick. He's just **putting on**.
2. *tease, joke* = Bill won the lottery? I don't believe it! You're **putting me on!**

The list of phrasal verbs is very long; therefore this chapter will deal only with some of the most common ones. Dictionaries with a complete list of phrasal verbs are readily available and can serve as useful resources.

The following sections show how other verbs change their meaning as phrasal verbs and how they are used.

Be

be on or be off

*an apparatus or machine is functioning (on) or has stopped functioning (off) = Is your computer **on**? I want to check my e-mails.*

Why **is** the TV **off**? I want to watch the news.

be in or be out

*available at home or at the office (in) or away from home or the office (out) = Will Dr. Smith **be in** today? I need to speak with him.*

You **were out** all night. Where were you?

be up to

1. *have the ability or strength to do something = I'm tired. **I'm** not **up to** one of Bob's parties tonight.*

2. *suspicious, having evil intentions = There's a man hiding in the shadows. I think **he's up to** no good.*

be onto

*having an important idea or clue for solving a problem = What a great invention! **You're** really **onto** something!*

Check

check in(to)

*record one's arrival = When I got to the hotel, I **checked in** at the reception desk. Then I **checked into** my room.*

check on

*investigate the status of someone or something = We need to **check on** our flight's departure time.*

check in on or check up on

*investigate the condition of someone or something = I went to **check in on** Ms. Brown to see whether she was feeling better. Jane **checks up on** her grandmother twice a week.*

Do

do over

*repeat = That paint job looks awful. You'll have to **do it over**.*

Figure

figure in(to)

*be included = The idea of children doesn't **figure in(to)** the couple's plans.*

figure out

*learn or understand = Did you finally **figure out** the answer to that question?*

EXERCISE

19.1

Rewrite each sentence in the missing tenses.

1. PRESENT Those boys are up to something dangerous.

PAST _____

PRESENT PERFECT _____

FUTURE _____

2. PRESENT _____

PAST We checked into our motel around sunset.

PRESENT PERFECT _____

FUTURE _____

3. PRESENT _____

PAST _____

PRESENT PERFECT I have done the entire assignment over again.

FUTURE _____

4. PRESENT _____

PAST _____

PRESENT PERFECT _____

FUTURE Will she figure out the solution?

5. PRESENT How do you put up with their bickering?

PAST _____

PRESENT PERFECT _____

FUTURE _____

EXERCISE

19.2

Fill in the blank with the word that best completes each sentence. Choose from the phrasal verbs previously illustrated. For example:

It's hard to put up with her crying.

- The dentist is _____ but will return tomorrow at eight.
- A trip to Orlando doesn't _____ into our vacation plans.
- I just can't _____ with his laziness and bad manners.
- I think you're really _____ the answer to this problem!

5. Go to the family room and _____ up on the children.
6. I plugged the radio in, but it's still _____.
7. This is so difficult. I'll never figure it _____.
8. It's embarrassing. Why do you _____ me down in front of people?
9. You can _____ into your room after 2 p.m.
10. The Joneses never seem to _____ in when I come by for a visit.

Many phrasal verbs that have an adverb (particle) in the phrase can put the adverb in two different positions: one before the object of the verb and the other after the object of the verb. For example:

Did you figure **out** the answer?

Did you figure the answer **out**?

The stenographer put **down** his testimony in shorthand.

The stenographer put his testimony **down** in shorthand.

If the object of the phrasal verb is a pronoun, the adverb follows the object.

Did you figure it **out**?

Following are some more phrasal verbs. Those that have an adverb that can stand in two positions around the object of the phrasal verb are identified by an asterisk (*).

Fill

fill in/out*

1. *mend a hole by adding matter* = The men **filled in** the pothole with asphalt.
2. *write in the blanks of a form* = Put the questionnaire on my desk after you have **filled it out**.

fill in for

replace or substitute for someone = Jim is sick, so I have to **fill in for** him today.

fill up*

make full = Go to the gas station and **fill up** the tank.

Give

give away*

1. *relinquish or donate* = The millionaire **gave away** most of his wealth to charity.
2. *reveal private facts about someone or something* = The gangster's girlfriend **gave him away**, and he was arrested at his office.

give up*

surrender an object or oneself = I can't **give up** the struggle for humans rights. The soldier raised his hands and **gave up**.

give up on

admit to failure in a relationship or at an activity = I knew you would finish the marathon. I never **gave up on** you.

give in (to)

yield (to someone or something) = I stayed on my diet and didn't **give in to** my craving for chocolate.

give out

wear out or begin to fall apart = That tire is very old and will **give out** before too long.

Go**go for**

find someone or something attractive = Bob is so good-looking. I could **go for** him.

go in for

enjoy or make an activity a favorite = Jim is athletic and **goes in for** every sport.

go off

1. *explode* = Careful! That bomb could **go off**!
2. *take place or happen* = Her surprise birthday party **went off** just as planned.

go into

1. *explain* = I don't want to **go into** why I'm quitting my job now. Someday I'll tell you.
2. *enter a profession or line of work* = My sister **went into** law.

go over

look carefully at something = I suggest we **go over** the architect's plans one more time.

go through with

complete or carry out a plan to its conclusion = I won't **go through with** it! I won't jump out of this plane!

go out with

date regularly = John has been **going out with** Lisa since March.

EXERCISE**19.3**

Write three original sentences with each phrasal verb. In the first sentence, place the adverb in front of the noun object; in the second sentence, place the adverb behind the noun object; and in the third sentence, change the noun object to a pronoun. For example:

(figure out)

I figured out the problem.

I figured the problem out.

I figured it out.

1. (fill in) _____

2. (fill out) _____

- 3. (fill up) _____

- 4. (give away) _____

- 5. (give up) _____

EXERCISE
19.4

Write an original sentence with each phrasal verb.

- 1. (fill in for) _____
- 2. (give up) _____
- 3. (give up on) _____
- 4. (give in to) _____
- 5. (give out) _____
- 6. (go for) _____
- 7. (go in for) _____
- 8. (go into) _____
- 9. (go through with) _____
- 10. (go out with) _____

Keep

keep on

continue = **Keep on** reading while I write something on the board.

keep up (with)

- 1. *prevent someone from sleeping* = We have to **keep him up** until the doctor comes.
- 2. *move at the same pace as someone else* = Slow down! I can't **keep up with** you!

keep out*

stop someone from entering a place = Please **keep** the dog **out**. His feet are dirty.

Let

let down*

1. *lower* = **Let down** the ladder so I can come up into the attic.
2. *disappoint* = I tried to make it here on time. I'm sorry I **let you down**.

let in on

share information or a scheme with someone = We're going to make a lot of money, and we're going to **let you in on** the deal.

let on

divulge information about someone or something = Don't **let on** to Doris that you know about her illness.

Make

make of

interpret someone or something = What do you **make of** Mary? She starts to cry over nothing.

make out*

see clearly = It's so foggy that I can't **make out** the coastline.

make up*

fabricate or lie about something = Why did you **make up** that story about me?

make up with

reconcile = Jack visited his wife last week and **made up with** her.

make up for

compensate for = You can't **make up for** such bad behavior.

Run

run out of

use the last of something = I can't finish the cake. I've **run out of** butter and sugar.

run out on

leave and abandon someone or something = For some reason, Mary **ran out on** her husband and left town.

run over*

1. *step or roll (as in a vehicle) on someone or something* = I think you just **ran over** a plastic bottle.
2. *go beyond a limit* = The president's speech will **run over** an hour.
3. *review or examine something* = We'll be happy to **run over** these documents with you.

run up*

1. *raise something* = They **run up** Old Glory **up** every morning at seven.
2. *to incur a debt* = You've **run up** quite a credit card bill.

run up against

encounter an obstacle = We **ran up against** the building commission, and work on the building had to stop.

EXERCISE

19.5

Rewrite each sentence by changing the position of the adverb in the phrasal verb. Then rewrite the sentence again by changing the noun object to a pronoun. For example:

She figures out the answer.

She figures the answer out.

She figures it out.

1. Try to keep the tourists out a little longer.

2. You let down the whole family with your actions.

3. It's hard to make the skyline out in this haze.

4. Who made up these lies about the mayor?

5. You just ran my foot over!

6. Let's run up the victory pennant as we come into the harbor.

EXERCISE

19.6

Write an original sentence using the phrasal verb in parentheses.

1. (keep up with) _____

2. (let in on) _____

3. (make of) _____

4. (run up against) _____

5. (keep on) _____

6. (let in on) _____
7. (make up with) _____
8. (run out of) _____
9. (make up for) _____
10. (let on) _____

Set

set against

cause someone to be another person's enemy or adversary = The cunning man **set** his business partners **against** one another.

set off*

cause something to explode = The crew **set off** an explosive to close the opening to the mine.

set off on

begin a journey = My father **set off on** a weekend fishing trip.

set out for

begin a journey with a specific destination = The group **set out for** a two-hour tour of the canyon.

set up*

erect something = Let's **set up** the tents along this stream.

Stand

stand by

give support in a time of difficulty = My parents **stood by** me during that difficult lawsuit.

stand for

1. *be the symbol for something* = The American flag **stands for** liberty and democracy.
2. *tolerate* = My father isn't going to **stand for** any more arguments.

stand in for

be a substitute for someone = When Tim got sick, Laura **stood in for** him.

stand up for

take a defensive position in favor of someone or something = Dr. King **stood up for** civil rights for everyone.

Take

take down*

write something on paper = **Take down** every word the witness says.

take in*

1. *decrease the size of a garment* = It's too loose. **Take** the waist **in** a little.
2. *give someone shelter* = We **took in** a homeless man for a week.
3. *fool or deceive someone* = Somehow they **took me in** with that phony scheme.

take off

depart rapidly = When they saw the police, they **took off** down the street.

Turn

turn in(to)*

1. *go to bed* = It's ten o'clock. I think I'll **turn in**.
2. *give someone to the authorities* = Our neighbors **turned** the thief **in**, and he was arrested.
3. *change into a different kind of person or thing* = Your son has **turned into** quite the gentleman.

turn up*

1. *increase the volume or output of something* = It's getting cold. Let's **turn** the heat **up**.
2. *happen to appear* = I hadn't seen my cousin in eight years, and today he suddenly **turned up**.

Walk

walk up to

approach = Tom **walked up to** the clerk and asked where the men's department was.

walk out on

abandon = For some reason, Mr. Barnes **walked out on** his wife and two children.

EXERCISE

19.7

Write three original sentences using each phrasal verb. In the first sentence, place the adverb before of the noun object; in the second sentence, place the adverb after the noun object; and in the third sentence, change the noun object to a pronoun. For example:

(figure out)

We have to figure our taxes out.

We have to figure out our taxes.

We have to figure them out.

1. (set off) _____

2. (set up) _____

3. (take in) _____

4. (take down) _____

5. (turn in) _____

6. (turn up) _____

EXERCISE

19.8

Write original sentences with the phrasal verbs in parentheses.

1. (set against) _____

2. (set out for) _____

3. (stand by) _____

4. (stand for) _____

5. (stand up for) _____

6. (take down) _____

7. (take off) _____

8. (turn in[to]) _____

9. (walk up to) _____

10. (walk out on) _____

It is important to remember that the words that make up a phrasal verb do not always give a clue to the meaning of the phrase. Sometimes even an ordinary verb and a preposition are identical to a phrasal verb. One such example is **come to**.

Ordinary verb and preposition: **Come to** the window and look at the parade.

Phrasal verb: When the man **comes to**, give him some water and let him rest. (*When the man awakens, . . .*)

The point is that care must be taken when using phrasal verbs. Consult a dictionary for accuracy, and remember that *practice makes perfect*.

This chapter provides a variety of opportunities to do some creative writing. You will write original sentences in various formats and complete missing lines from dialogues. Do not be afraid to experiment and apply new ideas that you have developed from your experience with the other chapters. Use any resources that will help you to write accurately.

EXERCISE

20.1

Write original sentences using the phrase provided in parentheses as described in each line. For example:

(my brother)

subject of the sentence: My brother used to work in a factory.

direct object: Professor Michaels would like to meet my brother.

(our new neighbors)

1. subject of the sentence

2. direct object

3. object of the preposition **with**

4. indirect object

5. subject of a future tense passive voice sentence

6. direct object in a subjunctive sentence

7. object of the preposition **for**

8. subject of a past tense passive voice sentence

9. object of the preposition **by** in a passive voice sentence

10. indirect object

EXERCISE

20·2

Write original sentences using the phrase provided in parentheses as described in each line.

(your daughter)

1. a possessive

2. in a comparison following **than**

3. indirect object

4. object of the preposition **because of**

5. antecedent of the relative pronoun **that**

6. antecedent of the relative pronoun **who**

7. direct object

8. subject of the verb **be supposed to**

9. object of the preposition **by** in a passive voice sentence

10. modified by a past participle

EXERCISE

20.3

Write original sentences using the phrase provided in parentheses as described in each line.

(a few mistakes)

1. subject

2. in a comparison following **than**

3. direct object

4. object of the preposition **because of**

5. antecedent of the relative pronoun **that**

6. antecedent of the relative pronoun **which**

7. in a subordinating clause beginning with **if**

8. subject of a present perfect tense sentence

9. object of the phrasal verb **go over**

10. modified by a present participle

EXERCISE

20.4

Write original sentences using the phrase provided in parentheses as described in each line.

(one of the students)

1. subject

2. in a comparison following **than**

3. indirect object

4. object of the preposition **from**

5. object in a subordinating clause

6. antecedent of the relative pronoun **whose**

7. direct object

8. subject of the verb **have to**

9. subject of a passive voice sentence

10. modified by a superlative adjective

EXERCISE

20.5

Write original sentences using the phrase provided in parentheses as described in each line.

(this suitcase)

1. object of the preposition **of**

2. in a comparison following **than**

3. object in a restrictive relative clause

4. object of the preposition **into**

5. antecedent of the relative pronoun **which**

6. subject of the verb phrase **would be**

7. direct object

8. subject of the verb phrase **should have**

9. subject of a passive voice sentence in the future tense

10. modified by a present participle

EXERCISE

20.6

Complete each sentence with any appropriate phrase that includes the vocabulary in parentheses. For example:

Tom is sleeping on the floor, but _____.

(sofa) Tom is sleeping on the floor, but the dog is sleeping on the sofa.

I found something in the attic that _____.

1. (belong) _____

2. (interesting) _____

3. (hidden) _____

4. (was stolen) _____

If _____, why do you continue to live here?

5. (put up with) _____

6. (impatient) _____

7. (be up to) _____

8. (go out with) _____

Tomorrow we're going to _____.

9. (mountains) _____

10. (rebuild) _____

11. (relatives) _____

12. (fill up) _____

His lawyer said that _____.

13. (should have) _____

14. (must have) _____

15. (accident) _____

16. (a heavy fine) _____

I would have come here sooner _____.

17. (know) _____

18. (get) _____

19. (let in on) _____

20. (be able to) _____

21. (than) _____

The little boy, _____, ran up to his father.

22. (crying) _____

23. (having heard) _____

24. (seeing) _____

25. (having found) _____

EXERCISE

20·7

In the blank provided, write a line of dialogue that fits the conversation. For example:

I'm going downtown.

Are you going by bus or subway?

I prefer to go by bus.

1. My son is finally getting good grades in school.

Maybe my son can help her.

2. Are there any good movies playing tonight?

They don't sound interesting, but I don't feel like staying home.

3. My parents' anniversary is next Saturday.

Are you planning on getting them a gift?

4. Do you like this green and white tie?

I think bow ties look funny.

5. Where did I put my wallet?

Impossible. I always put it on my dresser.

6. Does your daughter like living in Montreal?

She loves it but is having trouble with the French language.

7. I think you look wonderful in that dress.

Really? I think it's perfect for you.

8. Are you visiting our city for the first time?

Yes, and I don't know what to see first.

9. That looks like an expensive camera.

It must be a digital camera.

10. How much time will you be spending in Miami?

You're very lucky.

11. Is Bob going out with Ashley now?

But I saw Bob with Ashley at the mall.

12. Do you have a new cell number?

That's strange. Whenever I call, I just get your voice mail.

13. Maria likes your brother a lot.

Athletes are always so popular.

14. My cousin went skydiving last week.

They say it's quite safe.

15. This is third time it's rained this week.

But a little warm sunshine would be nice.

EXERCISE

20.8

Complete the lines of dialogue with any appropriate phrases.

1. Ms. Patel: It's good to see you again. _____?
2. Mr. Brooks: No, my wife is still in Europe. _____.
3. Ms. Patel: I didn't know that she speaks Spanish. _____.
4. Mr. Brooks: I'm anxious for her to come home. _____?
5. Ms. Patel: Yes, my son goes to Yale. _____.
6. Mr. Brooks: Next year our boy goes away to school. _____.
7. Ms. Patel: Yes, they grow up so fast. _____.
8. Mr. Brooks: That's true. _____?
9. Ms. Patel: We don't do much traveling anymore. _____.
10. Mr. Brooks: It was nice talking to you. _____.

EXERCISE

20.9

Complete the lines of dialogue with any appropriate phrases.

1. Tom: Is that Mary Larson over there? _____?
2. Bill: No, I think that's her cousin. _____.
3. Tom: He's really tall. _____?

4. Bill: If he does, I want him on my team. _____.
5. Tom: I'm not good at basketball. _____.
6. Bill: That's because you're so fast on your skates. _____.
7. Tom: Look. My sister's going into the drugstore. _____?
8. Bill: Girls are always buying cosmetics. _____.
9. Tom: She's already got a boyfriend. _____.
10. Bill: I'm only two years younger than she is. _____.

EXERCISE
20-10

Complete the lines of dialogue with any appropriate phrases.

1. Uncle Ben: So, you finally came to visit me. _____?
2. Jim: I haven't seen you since July. _____.
3. Uncle Ben: How is life as a college man? _____?
4. Jim: I study a lot. _____.
5. Uncle Ben: Young men need time to relax. _____.
6. Jim: I don't date much. _____.
7. Uncle Ben: Maybe you need to get a part-time job. _____?
8. Jim: I'm thinking about doing that. _____.
9. Uncle Ben: I could lend you my car for a while. _____.
10. Jim: But I couldn't afford the gas. _____.
11. Uncle Ben: Do you have time for some lunch? _____.
12. Jim: That sounds great. _____.