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英文動詞研究

龍志霍著

THE FERRY-BOAT

A STUDY OF THE ENGLISH VERB

by

C. H. LUNG



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## 致 讀 者

爲着某些讀者底便利；作者對本書作以下的說明。

渡船雖也可作高三或大一一底教本，但主要地是爲幫助讀了許多年英文，但因爲本身底和環境上的某些原因沒有讀好的學生底自修而寫的。牠是一本文法，但又不是文法，牠底特點如下：

1. 渡船專論動詞。根據作者底一點淺短的教學經驗，動詞是學習英文的最大難關。這關不渡過，英文學不好。動詞以外的一些問題，只要讀者在讀本書時肯求「甚解」，找先生和朋友們的指引，都比較簡單，都是不難順利解決的。

2. 渡船不是形式的文法。形式的文法底最大缺點是忽略了語句底實質，把應當歸類，比較的詞句割離，孤立。渡船廢除了形式，自始至終注重實質，注重比較。

3. 渡船底最重要部份是練習。文法的了解必須和實用聯繫，要從讀，寫，和講中間去把握，空理論是沒有用的。渡船底練習約佔正文篇幅底四分之一。讀者能不能從渡船得着甚麼，不完全在於懂不懂得說理的部分，而在於是不是用心做練習。倘使讀者能夠自己另外閱讀書報，找講和寫的機會，效果當然更大了。

4. 渡船注重學習方法。本書底導言，插語和結語都是談英文學習方法的；各章中也時常提到方法問題。作者底意思是希望讀者能夠在讀本書時漸漸地把握學習方法。這一點比某一部份的熟練還重要。

下面再談本書的分章和讀法。

1 渡船共分七章：第一，二，三章講動詞底時(tenses)，第四章講懸揣語氣(subjunctive mood)，第五章講無定動詞(infinitive)，第六章講分詞(participle)，第七章講動名詞(gerund)。第一章之前有導言(prologue)，說明讀本書所應有的方法上的準備。第四，五章之間有插語(interlude)，說明變動詞學習方法上的要領；第七章之後有結語(epilogue)說明讀完本書後應當如何進一步學習。

2. 導言最好是耐心地讀；以不跳過牠為好。

3. 各章中凡是講方法的地方請特別注意。

4 有必要時，一個練習不妨做兩次或三次。答案在「渡船練習答案」單行本中，凡是成段或成對話形式的練習，依照答案改正錯誤以後，最好是把牠們當作精讀的材料，這自然看讀者底英文程度去決定，太淺的就不必讀了。若是不做練習，只拿答案來看，那是要不得的。

5. 結語也最好是耐心地讀。

文法只是一隻渡船，過了河，渡船就不要了，這本書也只是一隻渡船而已。作者希望讀者毫無顧惜地拋掉牠的日子來得很快。

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Practice is nine-tenth—*Emerson*

It is practice alone that brings the powers  
of the mind as well as those of the body to their  
perfection—*Locke*

## PREFACE

It is probably not an over-statement that the result of the teaching of English in our schools has not been very encouraging. The causes of this are various. But the facts seem to establish that in very few schools has methodology been given due attention and that the old grammar-translation method still prevails. As a result, the well-meaning teachers of English in senior middle schools have many complaints against their colleagues in junior middle schools; and many of those in colleges, in turn, find that every fall the newly matriculated students, the overwhelming majority of whom have very few good habits in writing and speaking English, have to be so taught that they may be able, in the course of one or two years time, to follow recitations conducted in English and to read English text-books and references with comparative ease. This is an almost impossible task.

A change of method, however, is much more easily discussed than accomplished; since it necessarily involves the question of a strong teaching staff. Indeed, this question is nation-wide. No private person can solve it.

But, while this question remains, we are confronted with a situation that claims our immediate attention. Every year our middle schools turn out tens of thousands of graduates, whose knowledge of English is on the average far inferior to what is expected of them; what are we going to do about it?

For some years past, the author has every once in a

while found spare time to teach English, as a private tutor in the majority of cases. Most of his students are those who are ready to leave middle schools or are freshmen or sophomores at colleges. At the start, the author had no idea of the task to which he was committing himself; for he soon found out that the work before him was much more difficult than he had expected. After a certain period of trial and error, however, he worked out for himself a teaching plan, which was later found to answer his purpose.

Fully aware of the narrowness and scantiness of his experience, the author has nevertheless become convinced that the first thing to do with these students is to help them to acquire a clear notion of the nature of English verbs and to implant in them good habits in using them by appropriate exercises in writing as well as in speaking. This does not mean, of course, that verbs should be studied at the expense of other things that ought also to be mastered. Nevertheless, it is not only because the verb is the life of the sentence, but also because our mother tongue knows so little of different verb forms that English verbs and verbals, when placed before Chinese students, demand the most unsparring lucidity of explanation and the most frequent drills in order to create permanent and instinctively correct habits. Other essential points of grammar can easily be made clear and the students can easily become accustomed to their uses as they go along, on the condition that the teacher knows perfectly well how much English his students actually command.

In following such a plan of teaching, no grammar book is suitable as a text though a great many such books can be profitably consulted. The reasons are these: First, their treatment of verbs is not exhaustive enough to answer the

purpose, and very little effort is made in them to compare the various forms. Secondly, no grammar book, because of the very fact of its being a grammar book, is ever free from a certain degree of rigidity and dryness; this often kills the interests of the students. Thirdly, in most grammar books, definitions and rules and paradigms occupy prominent positions, which are liable to convey to the students a wrong notion of what grammar is and how grammar is to be studied. Fourthly, handicaped by a ready-made grammar book, the teacher will find it very difficult, if not impossible, to co-ordinate grammar with reading, which is very important.

These reasons compelled the author to fall back upon his own resources, and in so doing, his teaching plan gradually took concrete form. With necessary alterations and additions and omissions, this method is here presented to the public as a book.

This book, however, is not a comprehensive treatise on the verb. In it, neither the kinds of verbs, nor the kinds of objects, nor the agreement of the subject and the verb is dealt with. The passive voice and the imperative mood are only slightly touched upon. This is because the student who has studied English for some five or six years is expected to have acquired some knowledge of these rudiments of grammar.

The theme in hand, therefore, consists of three parts: the tenses, the subjunctive mood, and the verbals.

But this book is not grammar in the strict sense of the word.

Formalities are dispensed with: The time-honoured logical order of treatment of the various topics is purposely

disregarded. Inflection tables are withdrawn to obscure positions in the appendices in order to impress upon the reader that they have the value only of reference. Rules are not given as hard and fast, but are presented to the readers only as concepts to help generalization and understanding, and are included only when the readers are prepared for them. Nothing is mentioned about the sequence of tenses and the potential and the obligative mood; for it seems advisable to avoid, if possible, loading the text with unnecessary nomenclature.

The usual logical order of things gives place to a method of comparison, which is persistently pursued with the view of bringing into relief the delicate and overlapping shades of meaning of the various forms of verbs and verbals, which are rather puzzling to the unaccustomed Chinese mind.

The substance of the present work is composed of exercises, which are given in sufficient amount to provide necessary material for drills. They are, with very few exceptions, made up either of dialogues or of paragraphs, which, it is hoped, will bring out the exact meaning of the verbs more clearly and which may prove more interesting to the students than disconnected sentences.

This book follows the line of descriptive and explanatory grammar. It is meant to be, not theoretical, but practical.

The subjective and the objective complements, which have much to do with certain tense forms and certain uses of the participle, claim a little more of our attention than they used to invite. Such explanations, however, are outside the scope of the present book. In order that what is badly needed may not be unduly omitted, these explanations are

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placed in App. E.

The author might be excused for indulging himself in rather long talks both at the beginning and at the end of the discourse; for he entertains the hope that the students who have this book will learn not only how to use verbs and verbals properly, but also to appreciate, as they proceed with their study, the correct method of approach to the study of the English language, and that they may utilize the method as they continue to pursue their study after they are through with this book.

Some students of English think that grammar is rubbish, which is designed solely for idiots. Some, on the contrary, study it at the expense of reading, writing, and speaking so that it becomes to them a jail meant for life-long imprisonment. The author wishes that he could prove by this book that both these attitudes are wrong, and that grammar is no more nor less than a ferry-boat, which is indispensable for crossing the river, but which the passengers need no longer trouble themselves about as soon as they disembark on the opposite bank. Such is the present book, a ferry-boat, pure and simple. Grammar is studied in order that it may be forgotten some day when it has become second nature through drill. So is the present book, to be studied in order that some day it may be thrown away without regret, and that, the sooner the better.

As to the form of presentation, this book is written throughout in simple English in the form of a monologue. This is done because the author enjoys in it the facility of speaking freely to his readers. It is hoped that the

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on their part, will find such an intimate form of presentation less fatiguing than an ordinary grammar book.

The Ferry Boat is intended primarily as a manual for self-study, as there are many students who are capable of teaching themselves. But it may also be used as a textbook by a freshman or a senior third year class. In the latter cases, it is best co-ordinated with carefully selected readings, especially in connection with Chapp. V, VI, and VII. The selections should fulfill two conditions: they should contain a large number of the verb forms being studied and very few of those not yet taken up. For example, the author would suggest John Aikin's *Two Robbers* to accompany sect. 22 and 23, and George Grey's *Kan-garoo Hunting* to accompany Chap. VI.

The author is deeply indebted to Professor Grace M. Boynton of Yenching University for her kind criticisms and encouraging comments, and to Professor Lu Hsiang of University of Nanking, who has very obligingly read the entire manuscript and has given the author many valuable suggestions. The author, of course, is solely responsible for the short-comings.

The Ferry Boat is a new attempt; the need for improvement is pressing. Opinions and suggestions concerning it will be received with gratitude. The author will be much obliged, in particular, to hear from the teachers who use it in the class-rooms.

G. H. Lung

Chengtu, May, 1948

## Prologue

### *At the Inquiry office of the Ferry-Boat*

Dear Reader:

You have obtained a copy of the Ferry-Boat and have come to my inquiry office. I am very much delighted that you have come. But I know very well that you are here only to make inquiries. You have not decided whether you are going to take the boat; for you do not know yet whether it is advisable to take it, do you? And on my part I have to make sure too whether it is necessary for you to do that. So, my dear reader, indulge me a little if what I am going to say appears to you at the first sight somewhat too long.

#### 1. Do You Read With Thorough Understanding?

Perhaps you have studied English for five or six years, or even longer. Do you like it? If not, do you know why? Do you understand your lessons thoroughly? Have you ever tried to do that? Do you suffer when you do not understand thoroughly? or simply helplessly let the lessons alone? Have you ever tried to commit to memory any lessons you have studied? If so, do you recite with understanding? Do the useful expressions in them come off your pen or slip off your tongue naturally when you need them? And in writing do you find that you make the same or similar mistakes over and over again without yourself knowing how to write better?

If you have none of the troubles enumerated above, bravo! my friend, I congratulate you upon your good luck. You do not need to take the Ferry-Boat. Go on with your study as usual. I am certain someday you will be able to master the language.

In case you *are* so troubled, please stay and listen to me carefully.

Thorough understanding—that is what you must strive for. I say “thorough”; I do not mean “more or less”. You can test the degree of your understanding in the following way: Take a paragraph from any book you have read and try your hand at translating it into really good Chinese. The degree of understanding is inversely proportional to the difficulties you feel in the act of translation. If you cannot render the paragraph into really good Chinese, it shows that you do not *understand* and it *thoroughly*.

To read without thorough understanding is like walking in a maze of which you have no cue. Every further step increases your confusion till you are hopelessly bewildered and forever lost. You may be able to recite some good poems or famous orations; but if you do not understand them, they are simply dead lumps in your head. Consequently, the useful expressions in them will not be handy for your own use when some occasion demands them. What is the use of memorizing anything if you cannot make proper use of what you have memorized? And if you make mistakes which you do not know how to avoid, it shows that you are not enlightened as to how English words are used and how English sentences are constructed. No wonder, then, you often write English that is really not English, but Chinese English!

“How shall I learn to read with thorough understanding?” you will ask, I am sure. Yes, that is what I want to tell you. But that cannot be told in a few words. My advice to you is to follow me to the Ferry-Boat.

But I know you may entertain doubt as to the advisability of following me. Does it pay to take the Ferry-Boat? That is still a question. We do not know each other; we have just met. You may be afraid I shall mislead you. This is only natural. I am not hurt in the least if you do think so. Moreover, the prove of the pudding is in the eating. You will not understand the usefulness of the Ferry-Boat till you are on it. Yet I have to clear up this doubt of yours, and to do so, I have to ask you to be patient and go on to the following section.

## 2. How Have You Been Studying Grammar?

How have you been studying grammar? This is now the question I want to put to you.

You may be a very diligent student. You may be able to recite all the rules and definitions in your grammar book. You may have committed to memory all the inflections. If you have done so, you are more wrong than right. Grammar is not a bundle of rules. It is no use to remember the rules only. Even if you could recite the whole book, it would not make your English much better.

But most probably you have not done so because very few students do that. Then, you may have simply read your grammar. You were satisfied when you felt that you understood it. No, this will not do either. It is not enough that you read grammar and that you understand it.

You have to drill. Now, do you learn mathematics by simply reading the book? Mathematics is not very difficult for a student to read and to understand. But to understand is no guarantee that you can use it. You have to do a great many exercises; you have to take the trouble to solve problems. In the same way, in order to use English, you have to drill. This means that you have to do all the exercises given in the grammar book. Besides, you have to read much; write much, speak much. Only by so doing can you form the habit of writing and speaking correctly.

Do not think grammar and reading are unrelated objects. No, a thousand "no." Grammar gives you the principles only. You must have a laboratory in which you can test these principles. And by repeated tests you get used to them. Reading is such a laboratory. Speaking and writing, to some extent, are also laboratory work. These four—grammar, reading, writing, speaking—must be well co-ordinated if you really want to master English.

Now, you may dismiss what I have said with a smile and say, "I have never studied grammar in such a foolish way as you suggest." This may be true. In that case, however, I rather think you have erred the other way. You must have unwisely neglected grammar. Your neglect of grammar may have come about thus:

You are clever; you are no book-worm. Because you are clever, you need not be hard-working in order to get a 80% mark for every course you take. The book-worms work hard all the time, but they know their lessons no better than, or not so well as, you do. You look down upon them. To you, they are fools. You do not care for rules and definitions in the grammar because these book-worms,

who recite them; do not write or speak better English than you do. Their English may be even worse. You have a certain sense of superiority. You think a person like you should do things in a different way. Instead of troubling yourself about the dead rules in grammar, you believe in this: learn to write by writing; learn to speak by speaking. I would not say you are entirely wrong. But think a moment. How much practice have you had? Are you quite sure that you write and speak good English? Or, are you afraid of speaking at all?

If you *are* different, that is all right. But do not try to *be* different. Anyway you do not write better English than Edgar Allen Poe, a most gifted American writer. But Poe says that one's grammar must be not only "pure, but above suspicion of impurity". Certainly Poe was not an idiot; he was not a book-worm. Yet he was particular about grammar. Think of that before you go on.

I do not put the whole blame on you for your neglect of grammar. The cause of this neglect is found in your environment. The people around you have a wrong notion of grammar. You do not believe in what they teach you. So far you are right. But grammar is not merely rules and definitions. You care little or nothing about grammar just because you think it is. You believe in science and scientific method, do you not? Well, let me tell you, grammar is a science, a scientific study of language. Have you ever thought so? Unfortunately, you have been unscientific, and you did not know it yourself.

Practice makes perfect—this is true. Nobody can write and speak good English without constant practice. But grammar teaches you how to write and speak correctly. If you do not know the correct ways, you will get into bad

habits. Such a practice will also make perfect. But the danger is that your English may be perfectly bad, not perfectly good.

The Ferry-Boat is grammar, for it tells you some of the correct ways of using the English language. It is not the grammar of rules and definitions. It is, in fact, a combination of grammar, reading, and exercises in writing, that is, a combination of scientific principles and laboratory work. I regret very much that I cannot give you oral drills in my Ferry-Boat. You will have to ask somebody who speaks good English to help you.

### 3. Rhetoric or Verbs?

My preliminary talk here is not yet finished. Dear reader, I have to ask you to be patient a second time. If you think what I have said so far is worth a hearing at all, then there is no hurry jumping aboard the Ferry-Boat. Let me continue my talk on the topic of "Rhetoric or verbs?".

Many students are neglectful of grammar. They see rhetoric, however, in an entirely different light. They love it. Their eyes light up when they speak of rhetoric. I do not know whether you are numbered with them. In any case, I merely want to say this: Most of you study rhetoric at a time when you are not well prepared for it.

What is the difference between grammar and rhetoric? They are both a scientific study of language. Their difference lies in this: while grammar deals with the correct and approved ways as against the incorrect and the disapproved, rhetoric treats of what is better, what is clearer, what is more forceful as against the bad, the obscure, the weak.

In other words, grammar teaches you how to write and speak without mistakes, whereas rhetoric helps you to do so with excellence and beauty. You can make out for yourself which of the two should be studied first. Do you think rhetoric will be of much use to you before you know what is correct and what is incorrect? You may have studied rhetoric some time ago. Ask yourself how much you have learned out of it. Do not be self-conceited, dear reader!

And in order to write and speak correctly, you have to be able to use verb forms correctly; for usually every English sentence must have a verb unless it is omitted. It is high time that you learn to deal with verbs.

Now, read the following sentences.

1. The student is now finding the book he has lost several days ago.
2. He must do it yesterday.
3. The window was opened by the nurse in the morning; it is now still opened.
4. I found the prisoner died.
5. Where have you gone? I have gone to a theatre.
6. I had gone to see him. He rose to meet me. I found he was writing a letter.
7. The detective had opened the door, went into the room, but was being surprised, because the room was empty and the murderer was gone.
8. Three days passed since he had left. He will reach home now.
9. You did not see the picture. You should like it if you have seen it.

10. He told me that he will not do it. But now I am having the surest proof that he had done it.
11. I do not knew that you did it. You should not do it. Anyhow you should have been telling me so. It is now being too late saving the situation.

Some verbs and verbals in these sentences are incorrect. Were you conscious of the mistakes when you read them? If you do find mistakes, can you give the correct verbs and verbals for the incorrect ones? Are you sure that in so doing, you are putting the sentences right? Or you are merely guessing at them! If you find yourself unable to correct these sentences, it shows you have serious troubles with the verb forms. It is only natural that you should be unable to make good sentences in writing, not to say in speaking.

Why is it that you do not know how to put these sentences right? Not because you are not clever, not because you have not been studious, but at bottom because your method of study is wrong. Are you of the opinion that someday you can write and speak good English by going on studying the language in the way you have been doing? Think over it after you have tried your hand at the sentences given above.

Forget your rhetoric for the time being. Come down to grammar, come down to the verb forms. Take the Ferry-Boat.

#### 4. Are You a Genius?

Are you a genius? I know you are a little troubled on hearing such a question put to you. Do not think I am making fun of you. I am entirely serious. Do not say, "I am no genius", but make up your mind to be a genius. "What do you mean?" you may ask. This is what I mean:

The Ferry-Boat is ready for you, when you are on it, I will help you through. But you must understand that nobody can help you if you do not try your best to help yourself. I say this because you may make light of the job you are going to undertake.

Certainly I shall always be with you in the Ferry-Boat. I shall be your guide. But do you think you are going to do what you would if I were to treat you to dinner? Do you think you will merely take all the food I am going to give you and do very little work yourself? If you think so, you are mistaken. I shall lead you through; that is what I am here for. But I can only show you the way how to behave yourself in the Ferry-Boat. You have to do the work yourself.

The Ferry-Boat is not a steam-boat, nor a motor-boat. It sails on oars and paddles. Nobody should, nor can, remain idle in it. There will be no chairs, nor stools, nor anything to sit on. You will have to stand firm. Have you a pair of strong legs? You will have to row. Are your arms fit for the job? The weather is always foul and wind contrary. Have you the perseverance to fight through? I have not the least idea of frightening you, only I am obliged to tell you, before you embark, what you ought to do on the boat. I want to make sure that you are duly prepared. It would be already bad enough if you should find yourself unequal to the task before you and should quit halfway. What misfortune would it be if you should drown yourself by upsetting the boat!

If you really want to be a passenger on the boat, you have to train yourself to be tough; you have to be determined to be tough. If you did not want to be so, nobody could help you through even if he so wished.

Genius is the capacity to take infinite pains. That capacity is not entirely born but can be acquired. Remember, to be able to take pains is the "secret" of success. My dear passenger, come on! Enjoy the fight! Be a genius!

## CHAPTER I

### THE ACTUAL AND THE TIMELESS PRESENTS

#### 11. Present Actions and Habitual Actions

11.1. Now you are in the Ferry-Boat. You will begin your work with the actual and timeless presents. You must have already learned them. But let us have a good start with the easier verb forms.

1. He *is speaking* very slowly.
2. He *speaks* very slowly.

The verb in the first sentence, *is speaking*, is in the present progressive form and expresses the actual present. It is used because he is actually speaking.

*Speaks* in the second sentence is said to be in the present indefinite form. In reality, it expresses habit, and so refers not only to the present but also to the past and the future. This is the same as to refer to no time at all. Therefore we say that *speaks*, or any present indefinite verb phrase, expresses the timeless present.

11.2. These sentences, rendered into Chinese, will be something like these:

1. 他(正)在很慢的說話。
2. 他說話說的很慢。

In Chinese, we do not distinguish the actual present from the timeless present by changes of verb forms. Rather we make such a distinction by the presence or absence of some words, which we may call adverbs. Such adverbs often used are, 在, 正在, 着, 了, etc. Let me make this perfectly

clear to you by more examples.

3. What are you doing? 你在幹甚麼?
4. I am reading today's paper. 我在看(讀)今天的報,
5. What do you do every morning? 你每早幹甚麼?
6. I read my English lessons every morning. 我每早讀英文功課。
7. He is coming. 他來了。
8. He often comes here. 他常到這兒來。

11.3. The expressions *now*, *at present*, etc. are often used with the present progressive, as they denote actually present time. On the other hand, such expressions as *often*, *always*, *everyday*, etc, which indicate no definite time, are often used with the present indefinite.

Pay attention to all the italicized words in the following.

1. A. What is he doing *now*? B. He is *now* writing a letter in the next room. A. Does he write letters *often*? B. Yes, he *often* does. A. Whom is he writing to *at present*? B. He is writing to his mother. A. *How often* does he write to her? B. He writes her *one letter a week*. A. Does he receive her letters *once a week* too? B. *not always*. But he writes to her *once a week* although he does not receive her letters *so often*.
2. It is raining outside. It *often* rains at this time of the year. It rains *too often*.
3. A. What does she do *every morning*? B. She goes out into the open *every morning* and takes exercises. A. Is she doing her exercise *now*. B. No, she is not doing her exercise *at this moment*. She is *now* reading her lessons aloud. Listen, she is reading a poem. She *always* reads clearly.

I think you have had no difficulties with these paragraphs. But simply to understand them will not do. You have to read them over and over again. This will help you to form good habits in using the verb forms concerned. For example, you certainly know that for third person singular present indefinite, you must add *s* or *es* to the verb, but you still often say, "He come here" or "Do he study?" To know grammar is one thing; to be able to use English correctly is another. Begin to form good habits through constant reading.

11.4. Now read the following dialogue.

- A. Hurry up! There is very little time left. 快點吧! 時候不早了。  
B. Just a moment, I am finishing my letter. 等一會, 我的信就要寫完了。

Do you notice that *am finishing*, a present progressive verb phrase, is here equivalent to 要寫完了 in Chinese, which is future? Why is this so? Because the Chinese and the English think in different ways. We regard 寫完 as a condition, and since the letter is still unfinished, 寫完 is therefore a future condition. But the English think of the action of finishing as a process. Therefore, as the action of finishing is still going on, the present progressive form is used. Many of you can never learn to use this progressive form because you have not grasped this English process-notion. It is important that you should learn to think of English in the English way.

Here are some more examples:

1. The crop does not need any more rain; it is ripening. (= 就要熟了)

2. It is time to start now; *day is dawning.* (= 快亮了)
3. Make haste! The time *is fast approaching.* (= 馬上  
到了)
4. The apples have been left here too long. They are  
*beginning to rot.* (= 快要壞了)
5. I can still do something though I *am getting old.*  
(= 老了)
6. Formerly we misunderstood him, but now we *are  
beginning to know his ways.* (= 漸漸明瞭)

老了 is not future, but the process-notion is still absent. 漸漸明瞭 denotes a process, but the English never say "are gradually knowing" because they do not conceive of knowing but of beginning as a process. The same is true with rotting and beginning. Similarly, *I am finding my book* is not English. You should say, "I am trying to find my book". Such expressions as *beginning to know, trying to find*, etc. are worth studying. I shall tell you more about such verbs as *find, know*, etc. under sect. 14 below

### Exercise I

Now I shall give you a written exercise. The answers to it will be found in the booklet *The Ferry-Boat Answers to Exercises*. After you have written your exercise, turn to the answers for comparison and correct your mistakes accordingly. In the act of correcting your own mistakes, you produce on yourself a deep impression of them. Thus you will have less chance of making the same or similar mistakes again. Do not look at the answers before you have finished your exercise.

- A. Fill each of the blanks with either the present progres-

## ACTUAL AND TIMELESS PRESENTS



sive or the present indefinite form of the verb given in parenthesis as you see fit.

1. Nobody—(take) this dangerous road in the evening. Lock, it—(get) dark. Listen, wind—(how) ; it—(rain) heavily too. You still—(think) of going home? Oh no, stay here to-night.

2. A. What you—(do)? B. I—(read). A. What you—(read)? B. I—(read) some magazines. A. You—(waste) too much time on magazines. B. That is not true. First, magazines not—(take) much of my time. Secondly, I not at all—(waste) my time. Everybody has to know what—(go) on in the world. At this very moment when we—(talk), the world—(change). I—(read) magazines because I do not want to be ignorant of the changes that—(go) on around me.

3. A. Where you—(go)? B. I—(go) to school. A. Why you—(go) to school at this moment? B. It is an evening school. A. You—(go) there every evening? B. Not every evening. I—(go) there three times a week. A. What you—(study) in the school? B. English. A. Your teacher—(teach) well? B. Yes, he—(teach) very well. A. You—(do) exercises? B. Yes, we—(do) a great deal. A. You—(make) mistakes? B. Of course, but not many. I always—(read) my own exercises and so I seldom—(make) the same mistakes again. My teacher says my English—(improve). My school-mates now—(make) progress too. Progress—(mean) happiness.

B. Translate the following dialogues into English. Try to get your verbs right. You need not use any other verb forms than the present progressive and the present indefinite.

1. A. 那個屋子裏誰坐在桌子面前? B. 劉先生 在那裏。▲

聽在那幹甚麼? B. 他在那學習英文。A. 誰在教他英文呢? B. 我底弟兄在教他。A. 他一個星期有幾次功課呢? B. 一星期四次。他星期二、三、五、六。到這裏來。我底弟兄教的好。他學的快。

2. A. 他在那裏做甚麼? B. 他在修理收音機(radio)。A. 收音機常常壞(is wrong)麼? B. 是的。收音機常常壞。A. 收音機(when)壞了。他便修理。

3. A. 你在做甚麼? B. 我沒有做甚麼。我只是(only)在等他。A. 看。他來了。(Here indicates the present progressive)。B. 是的。他來了;他在跑。A. 我想(I think)他帶來了(progressive)好消息給你。B. 無疑的。他一(whenever)來。他總是(always)帶些(some)好消息給我。

4. A. 你的姊妹在做甚麼? B. 她在看小說。A. 她每天看小說麼? B. 她差不多每天看小說。她每逢(whenever)在家。便看小說。

5. A. 太陽從西邊(in the west)出來麼? B. 不。太陽從東邊出來。A. 看。太陽出來了(progressive)。B. 實在說來(To speak the truth)。太陽既不(neither)出來。也不(nor)沒落;地球繞着(around)太陽轉(revolve)。

C. Make sentences with the following expressions: getting dry, getting ready, getting difficult, drawing near, beginning, finishing, beginning to be talked about, trying to remember, trying to cheat.

Have you done the foregoing exercise as I told you to do? Did you turn to the *Answers* before you finished your work at the exercise? If you have simply looked at the answers, then you defeat your own purpose of studying this book.

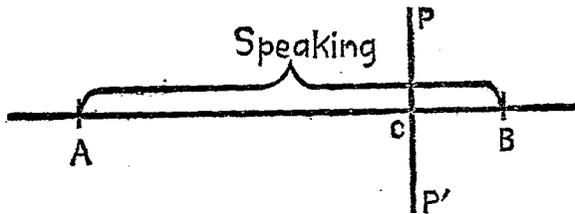
Do not make little of the exercise. You ought to know that you will have many difficulties to face as you go on. If you do not try your best to master the use of the easier verb forms now, you are bound to suffer later on. There will certainly come a time when you will find yourself unable to surmount the obstacles that will confront you.

But I hope these words of mine are superfluous and you have done earnest work. Then I would suggest that you turn the corrected exercise into readings. If you do this you are less likely to repeat the mistakes you may have made.

## 12. Some Figures and Rules

**12.1**—Theoretically, the present is non-existent. You know geometry. Geometry says that a line has no width and a plane has no thickness. To transfer this theory from space to time, the present becomes nothing but an imaginary line or plane that divides up the past and the future. Logically, it follows that only those events that extend into both the past and the future can be regarded as present. The actual present and the timeless present both fulfill this condition. How they fulfill this condition in different ways may be represented by figures.

Fig 1 The Actual Present

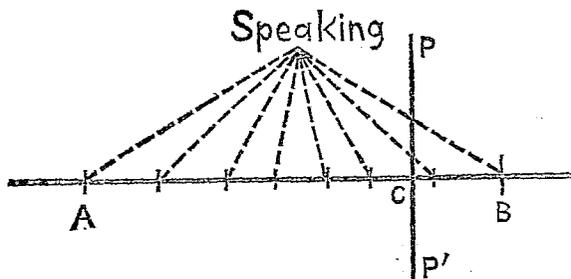


The horizontal line represents time. Line  $PP'$  is the present. To the left of  $PP'$  is the past; to the right, the future. The action of speaking begins at A, some point of

past time. B is a point of future time at which the action is assumed to end.  $EP$  intersects line  $AB$  at  $C$ . At  $C$ , the action is actually present. This figure is a graphical representation of the action of the verb in the sentence, "He is speaking very slowly."

12.2—Now, let us take up the timeless present:

Fig. 2 The Timeless Present



In this figure, the action of speaking is represented as different from that of fig. 1 in two respects:

First, it is not continuous, but repeated.

Secondly, it does not of necessity occur at point C.

But such an action is still present because of the fact that it extends into both the past and the future. Since we want only to point out that the action of speaking is habitual and we care nothing about the particular moments when it is going on, it is said to be of the timeless present. So, fig. 2 describes the action of the verb in the sentence, "He speaks very slowly."

12.3-- You are now ready for rules:

The present progressive is used to express an event that

is actually going on at the present time.

1. Who *is knocking* at the door?
2. He *is thinking* of his home.

12.4—The present indefinite is used to express an event that is repeated at the present. Such events may be divided into two categories.

A. Present habit:

1. I *read* good books only.
2. He always keeps his promises.

B. General truth or belief in it:

1. Time and tide *wait* for nobody.
2. The bird *flies*.
3. Classics *live* for all times, but best sellers for only a limited period.
4. The whole *consists* of the parts.

12.5—But the figures and the rules are simply something to help you out of difficulties you may have. Do not stretch too far the meaning of the figures nor spend too much time on the rules. Our purpose is to learn to use verb forms correctly, not to be absorbed in metaphysics.

Moreover, the figures and the rules have only a limited use. Let me show you this in some rather lengthy way.

12.6—Sometimes, an event expressed by the present progressive is not continuous in the strict sense of the word; but *is* continuous when that event is taken into account exclusive of other things that may interfere to break its continuity. Take for example the following sentence.

The professor is now making experiments on ultraviolet rays.

This sentence may mean that the professor is making experiments at the present time of speaking. But it usually means that the experiments began some days or even months ago and that they are not yet finished. In the latter case, the experiments are still continuous in themselves. Nobody would be so foolish as to ask if the professor does stop his meals and his rest at night on account of the experiments.

In the same way, we say, "He is writing a book", "The are building a factory", "We are looking forward to a time when China will be free and her people happy", "The war of resistance is going on; we are defending our father land". There are certainly lulls between battles in the war, but we simply neglect them.

12.7—On the other hand, repeated events may sometimes be continuous. We know the earth never stops going around the sun. It is a continuous action. To express such a truth, we say, "The earth revolves around the sun". Note the difference between this sentence and the following one: "At this very moment the earth is revolving around the sun."

12.8—Again, there is a difference between events of long and short durations.

1. He *lives* in the next street.
2. I *am staying* here for the summer.
3. She is ill and *is remaining* indoors.

*Lives* expresses an event of long duration, and so the event is regarded as a habit. But staying and remaining are events of short durations. I am ready to go away when summer ends, and she will cease to remain indoors when she is well again. This is why the present progressive forms, *am staying* and *is remaining*, are used.

**12.9**—Even what has been discussed in 11.3 is not always true. Such expressions as *now*, *at present*, etc. may be used to express a present habit as distinct from that of the past or the future.

1. Last year he taught in a school, but *now* he works in a factory.
2. Formerly he was not interested in literature, but *at present* he reads novels and poems.
3. *Now* you play all the time; someday you will regret.

**12.10**—The word *always* is often used with the present progressive to emphasize some persistent habit as if it were continuous.

1. He is *always* thinking, thinking. (=He never stops thinking.)
2. He is *always* boasting about his cleverness.
3. We are *always* getting pleasurable surprises from you.
4. Clever children are *always* wondering and wanting to know.
5. She is *always* remaining indoors.
6. He spends more than he *is earning*.

In the last sentence, there is no *always*. But *is earning* is used instead of *earns* for emphasis.

12.11--The present indefinite is often used instead of the present progressive when the speaker wants to emphasize the event itself rather than the actual presence of the event.

1. Now, I *return* you the book.
2. I *tell* you you had better look out. (Cf. I *am telling* a story.)
3. I *move* the meeting be adjourned.
4. There he *comes*. (Cf. He *is coming*.)
5. Why *do* you *come* so late?
6. He is speaking. He *speaks* a great deal but says nothing.
7. She is singing. She *sings* as if she had a cold.
8. We are working. We *work* today and will play tomorrow.
9. Now, I *conclude* with these words.
10. Why *stand* we here idle? (Patrick Henry)
11. The day is cold, and dark, and dreary;  
It *rains*, and the wind is never weary, (Henry W. Longfellow.)

Pay special attention to examples 6, 7, and 8. *Is speaking*, *is singing*, and *are working* are of the actual present. But *speaks*, *sings*, and *works* are used in the sentences following because it is the length of the speech, the quality of the singing, and the contrast to tomorrow's doings rather than the actual presence of the actions that engages the attention of the speaker.

12.12--The present indefinite is sometimes used to describe some past event. Such a present form is called

the "historic present". You can find it explained in many grammar books. But the "historic present" will not be of much use to you, at least for the present. To attempt to use it will do you more harm than good. You need not trouble yourself about it now. And if you do know it I would advise you to forget it. For, while the historic present is beautiful in the hand of an experienced writer, it would look ugly if you should try it now.

### 13. The Passive Voice

13.1—So far I have given you only the active voice. (The formation of the tenses and the voices will be found in App. A and B. Refer to them if you need to.) Read the following examples and acquaint yourself with the passive forms and their meaning.

- 1a. Chinese people speak Chinese.
- b. Chinese *is spoken* by Chinese people.
- 2a. His friends often give him presents.
- b. He *is* often *given* presents by his friends.
- c. Presents *are* often *given* him by his friends.
- 3a. John is repairing the radio.
- b. The radio *is being repaired* by John.
- 4a. My brother is teaching Mr. Liu English.
- b. Mr. Liu *is being taught* English by my brother.
- c. English *is being taught* Mr. Liu by my brother.

13.2—Read the following carefully; try to understand thoroughly.

1. A. *Is English taught* in every school in China? B. No, it *is not taught* in every school. It *is taught* in

middle schools and in colleges, but not in primary schools.

2. A. What is going on there? B. A house *is being built* there. A. Who is building it? B. The municipal government. It is now building two hospitals. A bigger plan *is being prepared* for a great number of houses to accomodate the poor. The municipal government does a great deal of useful work.
3. The world war is going on. At this very moment when we are talking, many people *are being killed*.
4. A. Where is your luggage? B. It *is now being examined* by the customs officers.
5. A. *Is* the word *written* this way? B. No, it *is not written* that way. It *is written* thus.
6. A. Is your paper ready? B. Not yet. It *is still being written*. But now I am finishing it.
7. The wind is against us; the game *is still being played* down at our end.

**13.3**—The present progressive passive form is somewhat clumsy. That is why it is not very frequently used. Sometimes an intransitive verb is substituted to allow of the active voice. Other phrases may also be used instead. Thus:

1. A house *is being built* over there. (*Build* is transitive.)  
A house *is building* over there. (*Build* is intransitive.)
2. A bigger plan *is being prepared*.  
A bigger plan *is under preparation*.
3. Drums *are beating*.
4. The bridge *is under construction*.
5. The patient *is under treatment*.

6. The building *is now in course of construction*.
7. The book *is in printing*.

13.4—Generally the passive voice is weaker than the active. Do not weaken the force of your speech by using the passive voice improperly. Say, "I often see him". Do not say, "He is often seen by me" without very good reason. Say, "My brother is preparing his lessons", but not, "Lessons are being prepared by my brother".

13.5—On the other hand, the passive voice is very often used when the agent of the action is unknown or understood. Many of you do not have the habit of using the passive voice in such cases. Consequently, the only resort is the word *they*, which has no antecedent of its own. This practice has often been condemned. Learn to use the passive voice in the way as is shown below.

1. Bad: They admit nobody.  
Good: Nobody *is admitted*.
2. Bad: They are examining my luggage.  
Good: My luggage *is being examined*.
3. Bad: They teach English in Chinese schools.  
Good: English *is taught* in Chinese schools.
4. Bad: Do they write the word this way?  
Good: *Is the word written* this way?
5. Bad: They are arguing the question.  
Good: The question *is being argued*.

13.6—This *they* sometimes, though quite rarely, appears in the writings of some good writers, but it receives very little favour of writers and grammarians nowadays. For us Chinese, it is better to play safe. Do use the passive

voice always. You will lose nothing by so doing.

13.7--In careless speech, however, this use of *they* is very frequent. For example:

1. In England *they* often give their Russian friends tea with lemon and call it "Russian tea".
2. *They* don't say "good--bye" but "bye--bye" to children.
3. *They* fine you on the spot for travelling without ticket.
4. *They* don't sell tickets today; *they* are treating the wounded soldiers.

13.8--The choice of the voices is a question not of grammar but of rhetoric. I do not propose to go further on this topic. The thing for you to do now is this: Read much, and in speaking and writing, try to imitate, but not to create.

### Exercise II

Replace each dash with the proper form of the verb indicated.

1. Nature not only—(create) but also—(destroy). When there is a storm, cereals often —(damage) and houses often—(blow) down. Sometimes, greater damages—(do) by earthquakes. Buildings —(shake) down and people —(kill) by fallen roofs.
2. The prisoners —(treat) badly. They not —(allow) to leave their cells. They not—(permit) even to take a walk in the court. Moreover, they—(give) two meals a day only. Every one of them is always hungry. Many of them now—

(suffer) from malaria and dysentery.

3. Science—(work) wonders these days. It—(discover) the secrets of nature. It—(confer) on us great powers over nature. Unfortunately, it has not given us much power over ourselves. The knowledge of science now—(utilize) by the fascist states to carry on their war of aggression.

4. Breakfast—(serve) at seven. The morning paper—(deliver) to the house punctually at half past six. So, the lodgers always—(read) the morning paper when they—(take) breakfast.

5. The matter in hand now—(tax) the wisdom of the directors. The various plans carefully—(consider). The board is forced by circumstances to take an early decision.

6. A. These desks are not fit to use. B. I know. Better ones now—(make). A. Who—(make) them? B. The carpenters who—(work) there under the shed.

7. A. What are the questions that now—(study)? B. A great many: economic, technical, and what not. Indeed, these questions not—(study): they—(argue).

#### 14. Verbs Having no Progressive Forms

14.1—There are a number of verbs that have no present progressive forms. Read the following sentences. Try to understand the meaning of every verb in them.

1. Do you *see* what I *mean*?
2. Now, I *doubt* it.
3. He *considers* this a very important question.
4. This sugar *tastes* very sweet.
5. I have but one lamp by which my feet are guided,

- and that *is* the lamp of experience. (Patrick Henry)
6. My judgment *approves* the measure (the declaration of independence), and my whole heart *is* in it. All that I *have*, and all that I *am*, and all that I *hope* in this life, I *am* now ready here to stake upon it; ... (Daniel Webster)

Do you see that all the verbs here express what is actually present? This is the reason why they have no present progressive forms. They can be used to express both the actual and the timeless presents. For example, in "He does not mean harm", *does mean* is of the actual present, while in "what does this word mean?", *does mean* expresses the timeless present.

14.2—Many verbs that represent a state rather than an action belong to this group. They may be classified into the following categories.

A. Result of some other activity: see (result of looking), hear (result of listening), find (result of looking for or examining), remember (result of recollecting), believe, doubt, admit, etc.

B. State of relatively long duration: be, have, need, dare, interest, exist, possess, seem, appear, belong, taste, smell, exhibit, transpire, signify, last, constitute, represent, show, center, give, weigh, etc.

C. State of mind: mean, say, doubt, want, desire, love, dare, find, hope, feel, forget, remember, think, consider, regret, understand, see, know, like, dislike, believe, accept, approve, trust, admit, care, deny, value, despise, realize, hate, fear, etc.

Neither the classification nor the list of verbs given here

is in any way exhaustive. You can see, too, that some of the verbs appear in more than one category. Indeed, they are only hints and helps to study. Do not be so silly as to try to memorize them. The only way to learn their use is constant practice in reading, speaking, and writing.

14.3—Two points need some further explanation:

To understand the meaning of the verbs in the first category, read the following:

1. He *is looking at* it; so he *sees* it.
2. I *am listening* to him; so I *hear* him.
3. I *am trying* to find it. (— I am looking for it, but have not found it.)
4. I *find* him asleep.
5. I have thoroughly examined the matter; I *find* his terms are unacceptable.

Note the Chinese meaning of the verbs:

look = 看	see = 看見, 看得
listen = 聽	hear = 聽見, 聽得
look for = 找	find = 找到, 發現
examine = 研究	find = 認為

14.4—A number of the verbs in the list are sometimes used in the present progressive with a different meaning. Make out such difference in each pair of sentences given below with the help of the Chinese translation following.

1. He *thinks* he is right. 他以為他對。

- He is thinking of his past. 他在想他的過去。
2. I consider this a question of life and death, 我認為還是生死問題。  
I am considering the various aspects of the question. 我在考慮這問題的各方面。
3. The doctor feels cold. 大夫覺得冷。  
The doctor is feeling his pulse. 大夫在看他底脈。
4. Do you see the ship there? 你看見那裏那隻船嗎?  
Are you seeing many friends today? 你今天在拜會許多朋友嗎?
5. They have nothing to do now. 現在他們沒有事情做。  
They are having their supper now. 他們現在正吃晚飯。
6. Sugar tastes sweet. 糖味甜。  
He is tasting the meat. 他在嘗嘗肉味。
7. This shows he is honest. 這就證明他誠實。  
He is showing us how to read poems aloud. 他在指示我們怎樣朗誦詩。
8. This book gives much food for thought. 這本書供給許多思及底材料。  
He is giving a lecture. 他在演講。
9. This pen writes smoothly. 這枝筆寫來順手。  
He is writing a play. 他在寫一個戲劇。
10. The window looks south. 這窗子朝南。  
What are you looking at. 你在看甚麼?

## Exercise III

## A. Translate the following dialogues into English:

1. A. 聽着。 B. 是的。我在聽。 A. 你聽見嗎? B. 我甚麼也聽不見。  
A. 甚麼也不聽見? 呵, 你沒有聽嗎; 你在想別的事情(something else)嗎。  
B. 不(yes), 我是在聽呀, 但是我沒有聽見任何東西。我以為完全(at all)沒有聲音。

2. A. 現在你知道怎樣用( how to use )現在進行形式(the present progressive form)了嗎? B. 我就(just)知道一點兒(a little); 我還在學呢。 A. 你以為你現在比較歡喜英文了嗎? B. 是的,我現在比較歡喜英文了。我漸漸熟習於(get acquainted with) 一些動詞習語了。 A. 你還感覺得 (find) 英文難學(difficult to learn)嗎? B. 是的,我覺得英文難學,但是我現在知道怎樣學英文了。

3. A. 你在幹甚麼? B. 我在看 (look to see) 試驗管 (test-tube) 裏是甚麼東西 (what it is)。 A. 你看得清楚嗎? B. 是的,我看得清楚。 A. 沉澱(precipitate) 是甚麼顏色? B. 好像是 (seem) 褐黃色。 A. 好, (now), 把代表這反應(reaction)的(use an adjective clause) 方程式寫出來。 B. 是的,我信相我知道這反應是甚麼。

B. Cross out the verb phrases that are incorrect:

1. I am now  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{finding} \\ \text{trying to find} \end{array} \right\}$  my lost book.
2. This book  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{tells} \\ \text{is telling} \end{array} \right\}$  us many interesting things.
3. He  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{has} \\ \text{is having} \end{array} \right\}$  a talk with the engineer now.
4. He  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{says} \\ \text{is saying} \end{array} \right\}$  in his book that man is not very much different from other animals.
5. Everybody is carefully  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{hearing} \\ \text{listening to} \end{array} \right\}$  him.
6. A blind man does not  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{see} \\ \text{look at} \end{array} \right\}$  things.
7. A Do you  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{recollect?} \\ \text{remember?} \end{array} \right\}$  B. I am  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{recollecting.} \\ \text{remembering.} \end{array} \right\}$
8. What  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{do you think} \\ \text{are you thinking} \end{array} \right\}$  he  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{thinks} \\ \text{is thinking} \end{array} \right\}$  about?
9. I  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{have} \\ \text{am having} \end{array} \right\}$  many things to write about, but  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{have} \\ \text{am having} \end{array} \right\}$  no time to do it.

10. Do you find            ) the exercise difficult?  
Are you finding)
11. Do you see            )  
Are you seeing) my meaning?
12. Do you consider        )  
Are you considering) him a rascal?
13. This book now (belongs        )  
(is belonging) to me.
14. Formally he was an atheist; now he {believes        }  
{is believing} in  
Buddhism.
15. Look) here. What (does) the letter (say)?  
See ) (is ) (saying)?
16. It (transpires        )  
(is transpiring) that he is a traitor.
17. They {play            }  
{are playing} bridge now; they {love  
{are loving} the game.
18. He {only pretends        }  
{is only pretending} to read the book. I am sure  
he {does) not {understand    }  
{is } {understanding} what it {says.  
{is saying}.
19. This report {gives        }  
{is giving} me a rather good picture of  
the whole situation.
20. Now they {admit        }  
{are admitting} their mistakes.
21. The rose {smells        }  
(is smelling) very wonderfully.
22. How much {does it weigh?  
{is it weighing?

### 15. Some Auxiliaries

15.1—Many auxiliaries are used with the present

indefinite and the present progressive forms. It is well that you learn, in passing, their proper uses too. For the present I will give you only the following six.

- A. *Can*, used to express ability, permission, or inference.
- B. *May*, used to express permission or inference.
- C. *Must*, used to express necessity (sometimes volition) or inference.
- D. *Ought to*, used to express necessity or inference.
- E. *Should*, used to express necessity or inference.
- F. *Have to*, used to express necessity.

Note 1: *Ought to* and *have to* are not regarded as auxiliaries by many grammarians. But it is good to study them together with the other auxiliaries of similar meaning.

2: *May* used in the subjunctive mood will be discussed under 45.9.

Of course the above explanations do not tell you much. Glancing them over is all that is required at present. As you go on, refer to them when necessary. Do not try to recite. To do so is an act of folly.

15.2--*Can*, used to express ability is easy for us Chinese to master.

- 1. *Can* he do it? (=Is he able to do it?) Yes he *can*.
- 2. *Can* you come tomorrow? I am afraid I *can't*.

But sometimes *can* involves a certain degree of imper-

fitness. It is quite all right to ask, "Can you be there?" But "Can you speak English?" is a rather impolite question. Only those who are senior to the person spoken to may use it. "Do you speak English?" is the common expression. For, the English do not in this respect care for the ability to speak but the habit of speaking. So do not inquire of a person, "Can you play volley-ball?" or "Can you sing?" Use *do you* in all such cases.

15.3—Used to express permission, *can* and *may* are usually interchangeable.

1.  $\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{Can} \\ \textit{May} \end{array} \right\} \text{ I go now? (=Am I permitted?)}$
2.  $\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{Can} \\ \textit{May} \end{array} \right\} \text{ I call on you at eight tomorrow morning?}$
3. You  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{can} \\ \textit{may} \end{array} \right\} \text{ write your letter here.}$
4. Yes, you  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{can} \\ \textit{may} \end{array} \right\} \text{ look at your book.}$

15.4—But where strict observation is meant as in the case of regulations, commands, and the like, *may* and not *can* must be used.

1. Passengers *may* not (not *cannot*) raise the curtain during the flight.
2. You *may* come Saturday morning for further instructions.

15.5—*Should*, *ought to*, *have to*, and *must* are similar when they express duty or necessity. Among them, however, there are differences of degree. *Should* and *ought to* are weaker, *have to* is stronger, *must* is the most emphatic.

- 1a. You (*should* ) do it. 你應當做。  
       (*ought to* ) do it. 你應當做。
- b. You *have to* do it. 你必須做。
- c. You *must* do it. 你必須做或你非做不可。
- 2a. Considerations other than military (*should* ) guide  
       (*ought to* ) our generals too.
- b. Considerations other than military *have to* guide our  
       generals too.
- c. Considerations other than military *must* guide our  
       generals too.

The negative forms of *must* and *have to* mean differently. "you must not go" means "I want you to stay," but "You don't have to go" means "It is not necessary for you to go".

15.6—*May*, *can*, *should*, *ought to*, and *must* are used in the sense of inference, with differences of strength. *May* and *can* express only a possibility; *should* and *ought to*, a logical conclusion from some premise; and *must*, a certainty. *May* is used in affirming; *can* is used in negating and in questions.

- 1a. He *may* be rich. 他也許有錢。
- b. *Can* he be rich? 他能 有錢麼?  
       How *can* he be rich? 他怎麼能有錢?
- c. He *cannot* be rich. 他不會有錢。
- d. He (*should* ) be rich; for he lives in a fine villa,  
       (*ought to* ) 他應該有錢; 因為他住的是漂亮的別墅。
- e. He *must* be rich. 他一定有錢。
- 2a. They *may* be holding a meeting at present.

- b. *Can* they be holding a meeting?  
 c. They *cannot* be holding a meeting.  
 d. They <sup>(*should*)</sup> <sub>(*ought to*)</sub> be holding a meeting; this is Friday morning.  
 e. They *must* be holding a meeting.

*May* is so weak in inference that its affirmative and negative forms mean almost the same thing. In a sentence like "He may or may not be coming" *may not* may be left out without altering its sense. Compare "He may not be rich" with 1c and e.

15.7—*Must*, in the sense of necessity, is sometimes used to express, not the belief of the speaker, but the volition or habit on the part of the subject of the sentence.

1. What have I to say? They simply *must* play mah-jong! 我有甚麼可說的呢? 他們就是要打麻將。
2. It can't be helped; he *must* do that. 沒辦法; 他一定要那麼幹。

#### Exercise IV

Fill each of the blanks with the appropriate form of the verb indicated, inserting an auxiliary verb where a pair of parentheses precedes the blank.

1. You—(see) those boys there? They—(be) in school uniforms. They( )—(be) pupils of some school. But they—(play) here in the morning. They( )—(be) at school; they( )—(study) now. Their teachers( )—(be) negligent of their duty. They ( ) — (keep) these pupils at school. I not—(mean) that pupils( )not—(play). They

( )—(play) after the school — (be) over. Indeed, pupils ( )—(teach) to play well. But they ( ) not —(leave) to make free of their time in such a way. <sup>4</sup>

2. According to the school regulaton, nobody ( )—(talk) after 9:30. Still many of my school-mates often —(talk) in bed. To keep quiet—(be) easy; everybody ( ) —(do) that. But they simply ( )—(talk). They —(know) very well that the proctor ( ) —(come) at any moment and that, they( )—(catch) and—(punish). Yet, it — seem) to me that punishment—(mean) nothing to them. Nobody—(be) ashamed when he—(punish). Sometimes they even—(make) fun of the proctor. Something ( )—(be) wrong with the school authorities.

3. I ( ) not—(stay) here longer. I ( )—(go) now. You ( )—(do) your work here, or —(go) back. But you ( )—(be) here this evening. Everything ( ) —(be) ready by eight o'clock. You do understand what I —(mean), don't you? We( )—(make) haste; anything( ) —(happen).

4. A. What they( )—(do) now? B. I don't know, but they ( )—(play) tennis. A. Playing tennis in such cold weather, it( )—(be)? B. Oh, they —(play) it all the year round.

### The Imperative Mood

The imperative mood is the simplest and the easiest of all the moods of the English verbs. I am certain you know how to use it. Some points, however, ought to be observed here.

16.1<sup>9</sup>—The retention of *you*—If the command is abrupt, *you* is always omitted. Otherwise, *you* is sometimes retained.

especially when separate commands are given to more than one person.

1. Get out of here! (abrupt)
2. You go to the door and see who it is.
3. You take this to the headquarters; you stay here with me; you attend to the telegram. (separate commands)

**16.2**—The use of *be*—The root form of *be* is used instead of *are* and *is* with the second and the third persons to give commands.

1. Go to the ant, thou sluggard; consider her ways and *be* wise. (Old Testament)
2. We may die; die colonists; die slaves; die, it may be, ignominiously, and on the scaffold. *Be* it so; *be* it so. (Webster)
3. Don't preach too much to your pupils or abound in good talks in the abstract. Lie in wait rather for the practical opportunities, *be* prompt to seize those as they pass, and thus at one operation get your pupils both to think, to feel, and to do .... (William James)
4. In the world's broad field of battle,  
In the bivouac of life,  
*Be* not like dumb, driven cattle!  
*Be* a hero in the strife! (Longfellow)

With the third person, *be* has the same force as *let* used together with *be*.

5. *Be* it so = let it be so.

6. Be it understood = let it be understood.

**16.3—Suffice it**—This expression is equal to *let it suffice*.

1. *Suffice it* to say that we have rid ourselves of a nuisance.
2. *Let it suffice* to inform him (the reader), that in our passage from thence to the East Indies, we were driven by a violent storm to the northwest of Van Diemen's island. (Jonathan Swift)

**16.4—Say**—This word, in the sense of estimate, has lost its force as a word of command. Its function is rather to introduce a noun (or a noun equivalent) which is in apposition with the noun going before. Example: Lend me some money, *say* a hundred dollars.

**16.5—Suppose**—This word is often used imperatively and is equal to *let us suppose (that)*. But *suppose we* is equivalent to *let us* and somewhat weaker.

1. *Suppose* he will refuse.
2. Now, *suppose* you can do it. There remains still this question: How much time will it take?
3. *Suppose we* stand a little aside.
4. *Suppose we* arrange it this way.

Note: The *be* in 2, **16.2** and *suffice it* in 1, **16.3**, are treated in many grammar books as of the subjunctive mood. But you had better take them as of the imperative mood. This saves much trouble and helps you better.

16.6—Some times, a present indefinite passive is used to give commands:

1. The class *is dismissed*.
2. The meeting *is ajourned*.
3. You *are discharged*.

16.7—There are cases where the subject *you* (or *we*) and some auxiliary verb are omitted after *why*, which is exclamatory or interrogative rather than imperative. For example:

1. *Why dream and wait* for him longer! (Longfellow)
2. If the war must go on, *why put* off the declaration of independence? (Webster)

“Why dream and wait” means “Why do you dream and wait”; “Why put off” is equal to “Why should we put off.” Here, *dream*, *wait* and *put* are not verbs in the imperative mood.

### 17. Participles Used as Predicate Adjectives

The predicate adjective is one kind of subjective complement. If you are not well acquainted with it, you had better read App. E from the first word to the last before you set to work with the following sections.

17.1—Below are given two sentences, both containing the participle *pleasing*:

1. She *is pleasing* the audience with beautiful songs.
2. Her voice is certainly *pleasing* to the audience.

Do you find that *pleasing* performs different functions in these two sentences? In the first sentence, *is pleasing*

*is* present progressive, audience being its object; it tells of the actual present. In the second sentence, *pleasing* does not form a verb phrase with *is*; it stands apart from the latter. The insertion of *to* between it and *the audience* shows that the latter is not its object. It tells rather of the quality of her voice; so it is a predicate adjective.

17.2—Compare the following two sentences:

1. This book is *very good*.
2. Her voice is *certainly pleasing*.

Can you see that *good* and *pleasing* are used much in the same way? They stand in similar relations to the verbs *is* and the subjects. They both tell something about the subjects.

17.3—Both of them can be made attributive:

1. This is a *good book*.
2. She has a *pleasing voice*.

17.4—Here are more examples:

1. She *is amusing* her children with toys.  
Her deportment is *amusing*. (cf. She has an *amusing* deportment.)
2. The host and the hostess *are entertaining* their guests.  
The host and the hostess are both *entertaining*. (cf. They are very *entertaining* host and hostess.)
3. The teacher *is misleading* the students.  
This sentence *is misleading*. (cf. This is a *misleading* sentence.)

- 4 The work is tiring me out.  
The work is exceedingly *tiring*. (cf: This is an exceedingly *tiring* work.)

17.5—Study further the following pairs of sentences and see what you can discover.

- 1a. He is facing the door.  
b. He remains facing the door.  
2a. His writing is wanting in clearness.  
b. His writing seems wanting in clearness.  
3a. He is composing a song.  
b. He seems to be composing a song.  
4a. The situation is improving.  
b. The situation appears to be improving.

In sentences 1 and 2, the substitution of *remains* and *seems* for *is* does not change the meaning of the participles *facing* and *wanting*. These participles, in either *a* or *b*, tell the state of the respective subjects rather than describe the continuation of some events. They are predicate adjectives.

In 3 and 4, on the other hand, the substitution of *seems* and *appears* for *is* calls for the insertion of *to be* between them and the participles *composing* and *improving*. Why? Because *is composing* and *is improving* are present progressive forms, which have to be preserved in the infinitives.

It is permissible to say, "His writing seems to be wanting in clearness"; but "He seems composing a song" is poor English, as *composing* is not a predicate adjective.

17.6—*He is sleeping* means *he is asleep*; *I am sitting down* means *I am seated*. But *is sleeping* and *am sitting* may also be regarded as present progressive; they are intermediate forms.

17.7—Many present participles, through repeated use, has come to be regarded as pure adjectives. They are very often used as predicate adjectives.

1. This story is very *interesting*.
2. The weather is *appalling*.
3. The old man is still *living*.
4. Many useful things are always *wanting* here.

17.8—So much for present participles. Let us now see how past participles are used as predicate adjectives.

1. This desk is *made* of wood.
2. The work is *done*.
3. You are *mistaken*.

If the verbs here were in the passive voice, then they would express the timeless present. In fact they do not. They express the actual present. The past participles are predicate adjectives. They work in conjunction with the verb *to be* to explain the present state of the subjects. In case you are still not very clear about it, compare the following sentences with the foregoing.

- 1a. In that factory, hundreds of tanks *are made* every month. 那工廠裏，每月製造幾百輛坦克車。
- 2a. Such things *are often done* here. 這兒常做這樣的事。
- 3a. I *am often mistaken* for my younger brother. 他們常誤認我是我兄弟。

Here, *are made*, *are done*, *am mistaken* are present indefinite passive, expressing repeated events.

If a continuous event is meant, the present progressive

passive must be used. Compare the following with 1, 1a, 2, and 2a.

- 1b. The desks are being made.
- 2b. The work is being done.

17.9—The past participle of an intransitive verb expresses a state of completion. That of a transitive verb expresses, in addition to such a state, a passive meaning. Acquaint yourself with the use of the past participles as given below:

1. The flower is *faded*.
2. You should get *rid* of that bad habit.
3. The teacher seems *disposed* to give me free access to his books.
4. This book is *intended* primarily for self-study.
5. That student is *interested* in mathematics and physics.
6. The door is *closed*.
7. The guests are *gone*.
8. Their sons and daughters are all *spoiled*.
9. He is *bent* on promotion.
10. Say nothing more; I am *determined*.
11. In this sentence, the subject is *understood*.
12. A great deal of talent is *lost* to the world for the want of a little courage. (Sidney Smith)

17.10—Do not think that the preposition *by* always tells the passive voice. In the following two sentences, *known* is a predicate adjective.

1. A man may usually be *known by* (=through) the books he reads as well as *by* the company he keeps.

(Samuel Smiles)

2. The scandal is *known to everybody*; you need not deny it.

Learn to say *known to everybody*, not *known by everybody*. Similarly, learn to say *satisfied with* instead of *satisfied by*, *possessed with* or *possessed of* instead of *possessed by*.

3. He is *satisfied with* simple life.
4. I am *satisfied with* his work.
5. He is *possessed with* a devil.
6. He is *possessed of* affluence.

Past participles are used more often than present participles as predicate adjectives. They are more important and more useful. A full treatment of their uses can be attempted only after you have learned the perfect form. More will be discussed in sect. 27.

#### Exercise V

A. Find out the participles; tell which of them are predicate adjectives and which are parts of verb phrases:

1. A. Do you read novels often? B. No, I don't. A. Aren't you interested in novels? B. Yes, I am. Many of the novels are interesting. But I have no time to read them these days. I am too busy.
2. A. Please close the window. B. The window is closed. A. But I feel a draught. B. Three window-panes are broken.
3. A. I am told he is dead. B. That's a rumour. He is still living. He lives just in the next street. A. Then he is wounded. B. Yes, he is wounded and is now being attended

by Dr. Lin.

4. A. How are you getting on with your work here? B. How am I getting on? Nobody heeds what I say; nobody cares what I do. The situation is disheartening. A. Oh, old boy, don't be disheartened. The beginning is always difficult. Hold on. Work hard and learn to wait.

5. A. Is the work finished yet? B. No, not yet, but they are finishing it. A. Is the work tiring to them? B. Not at all. They are rather charmed with it.

A. Where is the garden? B. It is situated on the hill-slope. You can see it from here. A. Oh yes, it is facing the river. B. Yes. Do you see the apple trees there? One fourth of that garden is planted with those trees.

7. I can gather much valuable information from these reports, though some details are lacking. At least the general outline of their scheme is revealed. Let's be ready,—be fully prepared for any emergency.

B. Note the different uses of *interested* and *interesting* in A, 1, and of *disheartened* and *disheartening* in A, 4. Make sentences with the following pair of participles to show such differences: annoying, annoyed; encouraging, encouraged; discouraging, discouraged; pleasing, pleased; astonishing, astonished; tiring, tired; satisfying, satisfied.

## CHAPTER II

### THE LINKING OF THE PAST WITH THE PRESENT

#### 21. The Past and the Present Indefinite

21.2—The past indefinite is used to express past event. These events may be 1), a single past event, 2), a past truth or belief, or 3), a past habit.

- 1a. \* He *made* a very good speech last night.
- b. The enemy *was* eventually *repulsed*.
- c. I *walked* a whole day and *had* a sound sleep at night.
- d. Several passengers *were killed* in the accident.
- 2a. Ptolemy *taught* that the sun *revolved* around the earth.
- b. In old times, the earth *was thought* to be flat and the sky spherical.
- c. At that time, every country *was ruled* over by a hereditary monarch.
- 3a. He often *played* tennis when he *was* at college.
- b. Formerly every Chinese pupil *was taught* the classics and *was required* to recite them.
- c. I never *missed* a tennis tournament for the last five years.

21.2—Verbs having no present progressive forms have no past progressive either, and the past indefinite is the only form permissible.

1. He *said* what he *meant*; he *meant* what he *said*.

2. The boy *was taken* for a dullard while in fact he *was* a genius.
3. There *was* a time when no living creatures *existed* on the earth.
4. He *knew* I *trusted* him.

**21.3**—When we want to emphasize a past habit or to contrast it with that of the present we employ the word *used* followed by an infinitive instead of a simple past indefinite.

1. I *used to stroll* far into the woods when I lived there
2. As he had not much to do then, he *used to visit* the public library only a few blocks away.
3. This is the rock he *used to sit* on to admire the sunset.
4. That student *used to be* diligent but has now turned lazy.
5. He *used to drop* in here, but recently we have not seen much of him.
6. Don't you remember that we *used to live* in the same room and *play* bridge together?
7. There *used to be* a market every other day.
8. We *used to make* new year calls on any day from the first to the fifteenth of the First Moon.

**21.4**—If you have mastered the present indefinite, then the past indefinite as is explained above will prove to be simple and easy. But a little further study is necessary.

Note the shift from the present to the past and *vice versa* in the following paragraph:

The private history of all self-educated man *shows* that they *were* not only honest but select in their reading, and that they *selected* their books with distinct reference

to the purposes for which they *used* them. Indeed, the reason why self-trained men so often *surpass* men who *are trained* by others in the effectiveness and success of their reading, *is* that they *know* for what they *read* and *study*, and *have* definite aims and wishes in all their dealings with books. (Noah Porter)

21.5—Pay good attention to the present indefinite in the following sentences; note the explanation at the end of each sentence.

1. I entered the room and this *is* what I saw (what the speaker is going to describe is regarded as present).
2. This is how the 1825 -27 Revolution came about (the speaker thinks that his explanation represents truth).
3. There was the Declaration of Independence; there was the Monroe Doctrine; there was the Open Door Policy; there were Wilson's Fourteen Points; there was the Atlantic Charter: —these five *mark* the stages of evolution of Americanism in World politics (statement of belief).
4. The emancipation of the serfs which followed, *is* generally *regarded* as a measure necessitated by the development of capitalism in Russia (statement of truth or belief).
5. Whether he did it right or wrong nobody *can tell* (now).
6. He walked straight before him like a man in a trance who *knows* neither where he is going nor what he is doing (general truth).
7. *Is* it possible that he could leave us without warning.

(questioning of a truth)?

8. That he should have said such things *is* beyond my expectation (actual present).
8. It *is* the City of London that financed Hitler's preparation for war (statement of belief).

**21.6**--The past indefinite often takes the place of the present indefinite in a noun clause when the verb that governs it is past, especially in informal and careless speech.

1. They said that you *were* clever. (*Are* is meant).
2. Who told you he *was* a crook?
3. I didn't know you *liked* this.
4. I thought you *didn't want* to come.
5. He just told me that he *could come* tonight.

**21.7**--In quoting other people's sayings, the present indefinite is used if the speaker believes in the general truth stated. If I believe you are clever, I say, "He told me you *are* clever" and if I say, "He just told me that he *can come* tonight," it means that I take his word for it.

See the difference of meaning between the present and the past indefinite in the following examples.

1. He told his students that honesty ( *is* ) the best policy. ( *was* )
2. Did he say that men ( *are* ) not very much different from other animals? ( *were* )
3. Were the pupils taught that the earth ( *moves* ) around the sun? ( *moved* )
4. Professor Wang said in his lecture that it ( *is* ) ( *was* ).

impossible to abolish war.

21.8—Many Chinese students often say "I don't know" where he ought to say "I didn't know." Learn to say the right thing in the following.

1. Wrong: I don't know that you are here.  
Right: I didn't know that you were here.
2. Wrong: I don't know that he is bankrupt.  
Right: I didn't know that he was bankrupt.
3. Wrong: I don't expect to meet you here.  
Right: I didn't expect to meet you here.

## 22. How to Speak of Past Events with the Present Tense

1. I *met* Mr. Wang in the street three days ago.

22.1—This sentence declares a past event; *met* is in the past indefinite form. But the English language does not always regard the past as merely past; it has another way of saying things past with a different meaning:

2. I *have met* Mr. Wang.

The event is still the same event, but, with this sentence, the speaker looks at the event from another angle. He does not want, nor regard it as necessary, to state the particular time of the meeting. He only desires to assert that at present his meeting with Mr. Wang is completed. Note the phrase *at present*; for the auxiliary *have* is present, and *have met* is in the present perfect form. The present perfect form is used because the speaker emphasizes the present state of completion of the event rather than the past event itself. The event is past, the state of

completion is present.

22.2—In order to understand the meaning of the present perfect you have to learn to distinguish its present form from its past implications. Help yourself to understand it by carefully reading the following examples.

1. A. *Have you met him?*  
B. Yes, I *have met* him.  
A. When *did you meet* him?  
B. I *met* him last Saturday.
2. A. *Has Elizabeth prepared* her lesson?  
B. Yes, she *has prepared* it.  
A. When *did she prepare* it?  
B. She *prepared* it last night.
3. A. *Has he found* the book?  
B. No, he *has not found* it.  
A. I *saw* him put it into the drawer this morning.  
B. But he *did not find* it there.

22.3—If you have carefully read the foregoing dialogues, you ought to have noticed one thing; that is, no expressions referring to definite past time are used in connexion with the present perfect. This is only natural; for the present perfect is present. Many students of English have the bad habit of saying, "I have seen him yesterday" and the like. You must avoid such mistakes. Say, "I have seen him," without *yesterday*. In case you do want to indicate the time, use the past indefinite instead of the present perfect and say, "I saw him yesterday."

22.4—A great many students of English think that 已經 or 過 in Chinese serves the same purpose as the present

perfect in English. I do not condemn that as a gross mistake, but that is at least misleading. To make the point clear, let me give you some examples of comparison:

1. I saw him. }  
I have seen him. } = 我看見他了。
2. I have seen him. }  
I have already seen him. } = { 我看見過他了。  
我已經看見他了。  
我已經看見過他了。
3. Have you seen him? }  
Have you seen him yet? } = { 你看見他沒有?  
你看見過他沒有?  
Have you already seen him? } { 你已經看見他了沒有?
4. I saw him yesterday. }  
I did see him yesterday. } = { 我昨天看見他了。  
我昨天看見過他了。  
我昨天已經看見他了。

Do you see here that 已經 or 過 does not always express the same thing as an English present perfect form does? To think that they do is accountable for such erroneous use of the present perfect as in "I have seen him yesterday" "I have read the book three years ago", etc.

☞ If the English language could be mastered simply by equalizing some Chinese expressions with some English ones, then it would not be worth any serious study at all. The truth is this: No two languages are alike. Every language has its peculiar ways of expression. Translation is useful as a help to the study of a foreign language, but it is dangerous when imprudently handled.

Let me give you a few more examples. Pay attention to the different meaning of 了 in the following sentences.

1. 他來了, }  
他已經來了. } = He has come.
2. 看,他來了. = Look, he is coming. (他正在來 or 他來着 is English Chinese).

3. 我走了。= I am going.  
 4. 醫生走了。= { The doctor has gone.  
 { The doctor is going.

I have kept you so long with these comparisons with but one end in view. You must not study English as if it were very much like Chinese. You must study English as English. Observe the English ways of saying things and follow these ways. Do not try to translate mechanically. There is no short-cut in learning any foreign language.

So, learn to use the present perfect as an English verb-form. Forget about silly translations of any kind.

#### Exercise VI

Read the following sentences and try to grasp the change of meaning with every change of the verb form.

1. A. *Has* he *written* his letter?  
 B. Yes, he *has written* it.  
 A. When *did* he *write* it?  
 B. He *wrote* it several hours ago.  
 A. *Does* he often *write* letters?  
 B. Yes, he *writes* them very often.  
 A. *Is* he *writing* another letter now?  
 B. No, he *is not writing* another letter now.
2. A. *Has* the letter *been written*?  
 B. Yes, it *has been written*.  
 A. When *was* it *written*?  
 B. It *was written* several hours ago.  
 A. *Are* such letters often *written*?  
 B. Yes, they *are written* very often.  
 A. *Is* another letter *being written* now?  
 B. No, no letter *is being written* now.

Using these sentences as a pattern, write a dialogue of eight sentences with each of the following verbs: do, study, speak, read. Change your subject with every verb, and try both the active and the passive voices.

Do not write anything like this: I have done; I did; I do; I am doing. This will not do you much good. Try to write sentences that have sense, that say something. You have to write in such a way that every group of eight sentences constitutes a sensible dialogue. If you do try this, you will find that this exercise is not so easy to do as it first appeared to you.

### 23. The Present Perfect and the Period of Time

23.1—You have now learned how to speak of past events with the present tense. But the present perfect has other uses than what you have learned. Study the following and see if you can make out the differences of meaning between the present perfect verb phrases.

1. She *has told* me all.  
His grand father *has read* all the Chinese classics.
2. How long *have you lived* in Chengtu?  
This student *has studied* English for five years.
3. I *have met* him twice to-day.  
I *have not caught* a glimpse of him since August.

23.2—If you cannot make out the differences yourself, let me help you with the following explanations:

1. She told me all, and finished telling me so some-time ago.  
His grand-father read all the Chinese classics, and finished reading them many years ago.

2. You began to live in Chengtu sometime ago, and you are now still living in Chengtu. How long is this period of time?  
Five years ago this student began to study English and he is still studying it now.
3. I met him once, and then met him a second time. These two events all occurred today.  
I did not see him in September, nor in October, nor in ..., nor this month.

In sentences 1, the events are past; the telling and the reading were done once for all. At present the events are completed. This use of the present perfect you have already learned under sect. 22.

✧ In sentences 2, the events are not wholly past; for you are still living in Chengtu, and this student is still studying English. "How long" denotes a period of time during which the event of living continues to occur. Similarly, the period of five years is co-extensive with the event of studying.

In sentences 3, the events are past, but they took place within definite periods of time which include the present. A part of today is past, but the time of speaking is still today. And *since August* means *from August till now*.

23.3—Thus, the present perfect is what links the present to the past. It is, as the foregoing sentences show, used in three different ways:

*Use I:* To express the present state of completion of a past event—sentences 1.

*Use II:* To express the continuation of an event that is still going on at the present time of speaking—sentences 2.

*Use III:* To express the occurrence or repetition of an

event within a period which includes the present time of speaking—sentences 3.

23.4—Acquaint yourself with the present perfect by carefully studying the following sentences. Make a point of reading with thorough understanding.

1. I *have received* three telegrams this morning. (At the time of speaking is it morning or afternoon?)
2. Now I *have heard* you speak English. (Cf: I heard you speak a moment ago.)
3. The work *has just been finished*. (Cf: the work was finished just now.)
4. Your pupil *has called* on you many times. (Either use I or use II. Cf: He called on you twice yesterday.)
5. The wind *has blown* for many hours. (Is the wind still blowing?)
6. The steamer *has left*. (Do you know when the steamer left?)
7. His mother *has received* only one letter from him since he left. (Which words express the period of time?)
8. These boys *have never seen* an elephant. (What is the period of time?)
9. This is the best book I *have ever read*.
10. The one *has come*, but the other *has gone*; they *have not met* each other here.
11. She *has sung* many beautiful songs tonight.
12. Many battles *have been fought* this year.
13. A. *Have you seen* him to-day? B. No, I *have not*. I *have long wished* to know him. But when I went to his, he was out. (Do I still wish to know him now?)

14. A. How are you going on with your English? B. Very well. My teacher says I *have made* much progress.
15. We *have walked* twenty-five miles to day. The villages we *have passed* are all deserted. We *have only drunk* a few handfuls of water from the brooks, but *have got* nothing to eat. We are now very hungry.
16. He used to be weak. Since March of last year, he *has continued* to take much physical exercise. He *has taken* to sports. He *has led* a very regular life too. As a result, he *has become* much stronger this year.

Read these sentences many times. Make sure that you know the exact meaning of every verb phrase in them before you go on.

23.5—Have you ever felt helpless before *have (has) had* or *have (has) been*? These are two present perfect forms that puzzle many a Chinese student; but they are in reality not at all difficult to use. Let us solve these riddles.

*Have (has) had* is composed of two different parts, which, though both seem to be derived from the same verb *to have*, yet are different in function. The first part, *have (has)*, is an auxiliary verb, the sign of the present perfect form; the second part, *had*, is the past participle of the transitive verb *to have*. Distinguish the different functions between the transitive verb *to have* and the auxiliary verb *have*, and you will find *have (has) had* easy to handle.

1. A. *Have* you *had* your supper?  
B. Yes, I *have* (*had* my supper).

- A. When *did* you *have* it?  
B. I *had* it at half past six.
2. A. *Have* you *had* a talk with him?  
B. No. I *have* not (*had* a talk with him).  
A. I *had* a talk with him *this morning*.

You ought to have found these sentences easy to understand. If you do not, your trouble is certainly not with *have* (*has*) *had*, but elsewhere.

Either you have not understood what a present perfect form is. In that case, read from the beginning of sect. 22 again, and pay special attention to the sixteen examples given under 23.4.

Or else, you do not understand the various uses of the transitive verb *to have*. Then the thing for you to do is to consult a good dictionary to find out what it means in various connexions.

23.6—*Have* (*has*) *been* is the present perfect form of verb *to be*, just as *have* (*has*) *studied* is that of verb *to study*. It is nothing mysterious. But it will be a mystery to you if you have not taken pains to learn to distinguish a past event from its present state of completion. Note the following comparison.

Past event:

- 1a. I studied my lesson last night.  
2a. I was in the laboratory this morning.  
3a. I was ill last week.

Present state of completion:

- 1b. I have studied my lesson.

2b. I have been to the laboratory.

3b. I have been ill.

23.7—Do not mix up this *have (has) been* with the present perfect verb phrases in the passive voice.

1. He *has been* ill.

2. He *has been given* the first prize.

23.8—Now, learn the difference between *have (has) been* and *have (has) gone*,

1. He *has gone* to the park. (He went to the park a moment ago and has not come back yet.)

2. He *has been* to the park. (He went to the park a moment ago and has now left it.)

Is it sensible to say, "I have gone to the park"? or "Have you gone to the park?" If so, why so? If not, why not?

23.9—*Have (has) had* and *have (has) been*, like other present perfect verb phrases, also have use II and use III.

#### Use II

1. How long *have* you *been* here?

2. I *have been* here for an hour or so.

3. For how many days *has* he *been* ill?

4. He *has been* ill since Tuesday.

5. *Have* you *had* time to do it?

6. Sorry, I *have had* no spare time. (I do not have time even now.)

Compare *have (has) been* and *have (has) had* in these

sentences with the verb phrases in sentences 2 under 23.1.

Use III:

7. I *have been* there three times today.
8. He *has been* ill this month.
9. They *have had* many quarrels since they began to live together.

Compare these with sentences 3 under 23.1.

23.10—Now, a word more about the expressions that indicate a period of time that includes the present.

Such expressions as *yesterday*, *three months ago*, *at nine o'clock last night*, etc. all refer to definite points of past time. As has been discussed in 22.3, they ought never to be used to modify verb phrases in the present perfect form. But you ought to learn to distinguish them from those indicating a period of time.

*For a long time*, *long since last year*, *since he left*, etc. are expressions that indicate a period of time that includes the present, and are often used in connexion with the present perfect. And their presence or absence very often make great difference of meaning. Note how sentences *a* and *d* mean differently as given below.

- 1a. I have been ill. (I am well now.)
- b. I have been ill *since Friday*. (I began to be ill last Friday and am now still ill.)
- 2a. He has studied his lesson. (He is not studying now.)
- b. He has studied his lesson *for half an hour*. (He is now still studying.)

23.11—Sometimes, such expressions are understood.

1. She has not been to school for a week. Why? She has been ill. (She is still ill. *For a week* is understood.)
2. I have not visited him since the end of the last month. I have had no time to do so. (I still have no time now. *Since the end of last month* is understood.)
3. They have tried to be kind to him since he began to live with them. But he has not shown any appreciation of their kindness. (He still shows no appreciation. The *since* clause is understood.)

23.12—The present indefinite forms of *verb to be* (*am, are, is* etc) are sometimes used, especially in informal writings and talks, instead of their corresponding present perfect forms. For example:

1. It *is* two weeks since he went away.
2. I *am* here several days.
3. It *is* more than four weeks since school began.
4. You *are* here for a week and you do not see anything changed?
5. It *must be* at least a week since I saw him last.

#### Exercise VII

A. Translate into English:

1. A. 他寄了信嗎? B. 沒有,他沒有寄. A. 爲什麼沒有呢? B. 我今早寄了.
2. A. 你看見他了嗎? B. 沒有,昨天我去看(去看 = call on)他.

今天又去看了他兩次，但沒有在他家找著他 (to find him at home)。

3. A. 他受了嚴厲的斥責 (受斥責 = be reprimanded). B. 爲甚麼? A. 他昨晚回來晚了。
4. 我今早接到 J. T. 一封信。(The time of speaking is afternoon.) B. 你接到了 J. T. 底一封信? 裏面看得到。他現在幹甚麼了? 我很久 (long) 就想 (wish) 知道一點他的情況 (something about him)。
5. A. 這問題很難做。我弄了 (to work at it) 半個鐘點，但還沒有算出來。(to solve). P. H. 怎樣了? B. 他已經算出來了。他在二十分鐘以內算出來的。
6. A. 你到旅行社 (tourist bureau) 去過了嗎? B. 是的，旅行的 (for the journey) 一切準備 (arrangements) 都完成 (make) 了。我又弄明白 (be well informed) 了一切詳情 (details)。
7. A. 他到展覽會 (exhibition) 去了嗎? B. 是的，他去了。  
A. 他甚麼時候去的? B. 一個鐘頭以前。  
A. 你到那裏去過嗎? B. 是的，我去過了。
8. A. 他甚麼時候來的? B. 她半點鐘以前來的。A. 那麼 (then) 他在這裏很久了。
9. 他太忙了。幾天以來，我沒有一個機會和他說話，(to speak to him)。
10. 我底弟兄一星期沒有到學校去了。他病了。我沒有充分的時間去摺扶他。因爲我每天必須到學校去。
11. 他們開 (hold or have) 過了好幾次會 (sessions or meetings) 了，問題也辯論 (argue; active or passive?) 了幾個星期。但是，一點 (no) 辦法 (measure) 都沒有決定 (adopt; active or passive?)。
12. A. 這本書捆 (leave; active or passive?) 在這裏多久了?  
B. 捆在這裏三天了。  
A. 誰帶來的 (use passive voice.)  
B. 約翰帶來的 (use passive voice.)

## B. Fill in the blanks:

1. Whether he —— (be) living or dead nobody —— (know). He —— (leave) for the front three and half years ago. I neither —— (see) him nor —— (hear) anything of him ever since. He —— (leave) to my care his little sister, a girl of twelve now. She —— (love) her brother dearly, and for three and half years, often —— (dream) of his return. My wife and I —— (try) all that we can to comfort her and educate her. And for many months past, she often —— (say) to me: "It —— (seem) that you —— (be) now the only brother I can possibly —— (have)!" But she never —— (let) herself overcome by grief. She —— (be) always vivacious and studious, very much like her brother. This often —— (make) me think the more of the friend I probably —— (lose) forever.

2. They —— (talk) over such a plan and —— (discuss) it for many times, but —— (take) no practical steps. They —— (say) the scheme —— (fall) through for lack of funds. This may —— (be) true. Still I —— (wonder) whether they —— (try) their best to enlist the support of those who can —— (give), and —— (be) willing to give, their money for the cause.

3. "John," —— (say) the mother, "you —— (buy) a stamp and —— (post) the letter?" "I —— (post) it without stamp," —— (answer) John. "What? Without stamp? How you —— (do) that?" "I —— (spot) the moment when the postman was not looking at me, and —— (slip) the letter into the letter-box."

4. A. Hullo. Where you —— (be) recently? We —— (ransack) the whole city for days, but could not —— (find) a trace of yours. B. That —— (be) odd. I —— (lead) my life as usual. I —— (eat), —— (drink), —— (go) to the office, —— (work) there, and —— (return) home to sleep; nothing unusual about me. What —— (be) the fuss about it? A. Well, that ——

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(be) enough. I — (be) not here to argue with you. I — (want) to have a talk with you over something quite important. B. What — (be) it? I never — (see) you in such a serious mood. A. Yes, it — (be) something quite serious. You — (have) time now? B. I — (be) free at this moment. My office hour — (be) now over, and only — (take) a walk to refresh myself. A. That — (be) good. Let's go to the park. B. All right. By ricksha? A. No, I not — (ride) on ricksha; I not — (like) to do that. Walking — (be) refreshing, but it — (be) dull to ride on ricksha. B. So — (do) I think.

5. A. You — (find) the book? B. No, I not — (find) it, I now still — (look) for it. I — (forget) where I — (leave) it. A. You always — (forget) where you — (leave) you things, and then — (come) back to search for them. B. I — (try) hard to correct this bad habit, but — (find) it very difficult to do. A. Look here! — (be) not this the book? I — (find) it under your pillow. B. How in the world I — (put) it there? Oh yes, I — (read) it in bed last night. I — (forget) it. A. I — (hope) you will remember oftener than forget.

6. A. I never — (see) such a good book. Where you — (buy) it? B. I — (buy) it in a second-hand book-shop. That shop — (sell) a lot of good books. A. Where — (be) that shop? I — (want) to buy one. B. There — (be) no more. Such books all — (sell) out.

7. A. When she — (arrive)? B. I — (be) not quite sure, but I — (think) she — (be) here two or three days. A. You — (meet) her? B. I — (see) her this morning, but — (have) no time to talk with her.

8. Eliza, a friend of the sister of little Tommy, met him in the street and — (ask) him, "You — (see) your sister?"

fiance" "Yes, I — (see) him," — (answer) Tommy. "How old — (be) he?" she — (inquire) further. Tommy — (hesitate) for a moment and then — (say), "I not — (know)." "—(be) he young?" "Certainly; he not — (get) hair yet."

9. In a bible class: French woman teacher: Jim, you — (read) your lesson? Jim: Yes, I — (read) it. Teacher: You — (commit) it to memory? Jim: Yes, I — (have). Teacher: Now, who — (be) the first man? Jim: Adam. Teacher: Very good. And who — (be) the first woman? Jim: Madam.

#### 24. More about Auxiliaries

You have learned some of the uses of the auxiliaries in the last chapter. These auxiliaries have their own past forms and some of them are used with the perfect forms of other verbs. To this I now call your attention.

24.1—The past tense of the auxiliaries is a simple matter.

1. I cannot do it now; I *could* do it when I was young. (ability)
2. I then thought that it *could* not be true. (inference)
3. He said that I *might* throw it away, and so I did. (permission)
4. The merchant thought I *might* accept the offer; but I refused. (inference)
5. I knew I *must* quit. (necessity)
6. They believed that he *must* be one of the robbers. (inference)
7. He never doubted that he  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{should} \\ \textit{ought to} \end{array} \right\}$  continue to

fight. (necessity)

8. Everybody thought that he  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{should} \\ \textit{ought to} \end{array} \right\}$  be rich.  
(inference)

The past forms of *should*, *ought to*, and *must*, which are the same as their present forms, are very often replaced by *had to*, the past form of *have to*, when expressing necessity.

5a. I knew I *had to* quit.

7a. He never doubted that he *had to* continue to fight.

24.2—*Could* and *might*, though past in form, are frequently used to mean the present. When an enraged husband says something impolite to the mother-in-law, the wife would try to stop him and say, "How *could* you!" And when you entertain much doubt as to the truth of something, you do not say, "It may be true" or "Can it be true?" but "It *might* be true" or "Could it be true?" Thus used, *could* is weaker than *can* and *might* weaker than *may*. They are in the subjunctive mood. I shall treat of them fully in 44.5, 44.6, and 44.7.

24.3—*Should* and *ought to* are used with the perfect verb to express a past necessity.

1. You *should have told* me so. 你早該告訴我了。
2. You *ought to have read* this book. 你早該讀過這本書了。
3. He *should have paid* his bill. 你早該付過帳了。
4. He *ought to have resigned*. 他早就該辭職。

24.4—*Can* is almost never used with the perfect form

of other verbs in modern English, and is generally replaced by *could*. *Have to* is not so used at all.

24.5—The auxiliaries given in the sentences below express inference. They are arranged according to their strength, beginning with the weakest and ending with the strongest.

- 1a. The news *might* have reached him.
- b. The news *may* have reached him.
- c. The news *could* not have reached him.  
*Could* the news have reached him?
- d. The news { *should*  
*ought to* } have reached him.
- e. The news *must* have reached him.
- 2a. He *might* have seen me.
- b. He *may* have seen me.
- c. He *could* not have seen me.  
*Could* he have seen me?
- d. He { *should*  
*ought to* } have seen me.
- e. He *must* have seen me.

Here again, *Could* and *might* are past in form but present in substance. They are subjunctive.

24.6—Such perfect forms as the above, unlike the ordinary present perfect, are often past in meaning, and so may be modified by expressions denoting definite points of past time.

- 1a. He *was* here yesterday.
- b. He *may have been* here yesterday.
- 2a. You *finished* your work this morning, didn't you?

- b. You *should have finished* your work this morning.
- 3a. The patient *died* last night.
- b. The patient *must have died* last night.
- 4a. I *saw* him some time before.
- b. I *might have seen* him some time before.
- 5a. *Was* he here last night?
- b. *Could he have been* here last night?

Compare these with the following.

- 6. You may have studied English *some five or six years*.
- 7. He *ought to have seen you today*.
- 8. Joseph *must have been ill for a week*.
- 9. The messenger *should have come back now*.

The expressions denoting a period of time or present time testify that the verb phrases are present perfect in form as well as in meaning.

24.7--These auxiliaries have also their own perfect forms though their past participles are wanting. Of course we cannot say, "I *have can* do it", but we may say, "I *have been able to do it*". Examples:

- 1. He has been ill for several days; I *have had to do* two persons' work.
- 2. He has been much occupied of late, and so *has not been able to call* on his friends.
- 3. He *has always been allowed to spend* lavishly.
- 4. He is a spendthrift; his father *has always been obliged to pay* for his debts.

*Have had to* and *has been obliged to* are perfect forms of *must*, *should*, or *ought to*; *has been able to*, that of *can*, and *has been allowed to*, that of *may*.

Note that the perfect forms of the auxiliaries are always followed by the infinitive.

Do not mix up *have had to* with *have had* discussed under 23.5 and 23.9.

### Exercise VIII

Fill the blanks with suitable auxiliaries:

1. Mr. Liang told me that I— stay with him for a few days. But I did not because I— not. I— come back, as I was called on business. I like his bungalow; I like its environment. I—have gone there much earlier in order to spend a few days there.

2. She looks quite depressed,—she have known the bad news? She— have known it. Mrs. Liu—have told her about it. Have you any idea? O! You— have taken good care not to let her know it.

3. I told him several times that he—come here this morning. He—have understood that this is very important; he—have seen what I mean. He— have come here by now. But still he has not appeared.—it be that some accident has happened to him? Yes, that is possible. And something— have delayed him. Let us wait for him for another half an hour.

4. A. Look, somebody is coming.—it be William? B. It—be he; yes, it is he. He—have missed the train.

5. A. You know the place so well; you—have lived here a number of years. B. You—have known the place better; you have been here several months.

6. Boldly they marched to the front, fully aware that they

— be killed; for well they understood what they — do.

7. A great inventor like him — not have been foolish; he — have been very wise. But it is said that once he boiled his watch instead of his egg. I think it — have been a mistake; he — have put the wrong thing into the water in an absence of mind; for he simply — not stop thinking about his experiments, whatever he — be doing.

24.8—The auxiliaries are often used to ask questions (the so-called tag-questions) at the end of a declarative sentence. For example:

1. You have removed to a new house, haven't you?  
(= Haven't you removed to a new house?)
2. He is not coming, is he? (= Is he coming?)
3. It is marking time, isn't it? (= Isn't it marking time?)

24.9--In this connexion four rules are to be observed: When the sentence is affirmative, the question must be negative, and *vice versa*.

1. He is coming, isn't he?  
He is not coming, is he?
2. You have told him so, haven't you?  
You have not told him so, have you?
3. You can do it, can't you?  
You cannot do it, can you?

24.10--The same auxiliary must be used in the question as is in the declarative sentence.

1. Wrong: He is now doing the work alone, doesn't he?  
Right: He is now doing the work alone, isn't he?
2. Wrong: It has rained for a week, isn't it?  
Right: It has rained for a week, hasn't it?
3. Wrong: You do like this, aren't you?  
Right: You do like this, don't you?
4. Wrong: He must finish it to-day, isn't he?  
Right: He must finish it to-day, mustn't he?
5. Wrong: You ought not to have done it, are you?  
Right: You ought not to have done it, ought you?

**24.11**—The subject-pronoun of the question must be of the same person, number, and gender, as the subject of the declarative sentence.

1. Wrong: The planes are sailing eastward, isn't it?  
Right: The planes are sailing eastward, aren't they?
2. Wrong: You have tried your best, isn't it?  
Wrong: You have tried your best, hasn't it?  
Right: You have tried your best, haven't you?
3. Wrong: He could come, isn't it?  
Wrong: He could come, wasn't it?  
Right: He could come, couldn't he?
4. Wrong: Your sister has been ill, isn't it?  
Wrong: Your sister has been ill, hasn't it?  
Right: Your sister has been ill, hasn't she?

**24.12**—If there is no auxiliary verb in the declarative sentence, use *do* in the question. No other verb can take its place unless the finite verb in the declarative sentence is a single verb *to be* or a single verb *to have*. In those cases,

the same verb is used in the question.

1. You understand what I mean, don't you?
2. She often practises reading aloud, doesn't she?
3. Miss Shou had a great many admirers years ago, hadn't she?
4. She has none now, has she?
5. He was not there, was he?
6. We are patriots, aren't we?

Note: *Need* and *dare* are two anomalous verbs of daily use. A treatise of their uses in a like manner would be too lengthy here. You can find out what they are from many grammar books. After you are well acquainted with their anomalous uses and with the rules given here, you will have no difficulty in using them to ask tag-questions.

24.13—Let me give you some Chinese sentences of similar construction.

1. 他來了,是不是?
2. 他在唸書,是不是?
3. 這畫不好看,是不是?
4. 他常常犯錯誤,是不是?
5. 這小孩底父母不歡喜他,是不是?
6. 我們有兩個星期沒看見太陽了,是不是?
7. 她病了一個多月了,是不是?
8. 我們都在進步,是不是?
9. 他們有許多事要做,是不是?

10. 敵人在退,是不是?
11. 你在這兒很久了,是不是?
12. 你不想見他,是不是?
13. 這不是做那事的時候,是不是?

How much simpler is the Chinese language in this connexion! But do not try to make English as simple as Chinese, when you ask tag-questions. This is a typical case where silly translations fall to pieces. You must learn the various ways of rendering 是不是? into English. If you keep this well in mind and do study English as English, it will go a long way to hasten your progress.

24.14—The rules stated in 24.10—24.12 also hold good as regards such answers that are shortened to avoid unnecessary repetition of words.

1. Does he write letters often? Yes, he does.
2. Is she doing her exercise now? No, she isn't.
3. Your teacher teaches well? Yes, he does.
4. Who is teaching him English? My brother is.
5. Does the sun rise in the west? No, it doesn't.
6. May I call on you at eight to-morrow morning? Yes, you may.
7. Has he sent the letter? No, he hasn't.
8. Have you seen him? No, I haven't.
9. Have you been there? Yes, I have.
10. What is the capital of Turkey? Ankara is.
11. Are there twelve months in a year? Yes, there are.
12. Should he start immediately? Yes, he should.
13. Can you do it? Yes, I can.

14. Can he be rich? No, he can't.
15. Can he be rich? Yes, he may.
16. Can he be rich? Yes, he is.

*May* is used in the answer in 15 because there it means the same as *can* in the question. In 16 *is* appears in the answer because the speaker is not guessing but stating what he thinks is actually present.

### Exercise IX

A. Translate the Chinese sentences under 24.13 into English.

B. Translate the following into English, avoiding unnecessary repetition in the answers.

1. 他來了沒有? 是的, 他來了。
2. 這畫好看嗎? 不, 不好看。
3. 他不是正在讀書嗎? 是的, 他在讀。
4. 她常犯錯誤嗎? 是的, 她常犯。
5. 你底父母愛你嗎? 是的, 他們愛我。
6. 我們不是好久沒看見他了嗎? 是的, 我們好久沒有看見他了。
7. 他生過病嗎? 沒有, 他沒有生過病。
8. 我們是有很多進步嗎? 是的, 我們有很多進步。
9. 他們有許多事做嗎? 是的, 他們有許多事做。
10. 敵人在退嗎? 是的, 他們在退。
11. 他們在還很久了嗎? 沒有, 他們在還不久。
12. 你不歡喜散散步嗎? 是的, 我不歡喜去。
13. 現在是走的時候了嗎? 是的, 是走的時候了。
14. 你能游泳嗎? 是的, 我能游泳。
15. 那天他會看見我了嗎? 是的, 也許, 不, 不會。

16. 現在我必須走了嗎? 也可以。  
 17. 我可以和他親自接談嗎? 不, 決不可以。  
 18. 我應當這樣告訴他嗎? 不, 不應當。  
 19. 你是不是說他早該辭職了? 自然, 他早該辭職了。

C. On the basis of the knowledge you have acquired from A and B, can you see now the differences between *so do I*, *so am I*, *so can I*, *so have I*, etc. or between *nor does she*, *nor is she*, *nor can she*, *nor has she*, etc? Make sentences to show the differences.

### 25. The Present Perfect Progressive.

25.1—As you have learned in 23.3, the present perfect is sometimes used to express the continuation of an event which is still going on at the present time. In “I have lived in Chengtu for two years”, *have lived* is thus used. But this is not the only verb form to use. Whenever the speaker wants to emphasize the continuation of the event, he will use the present perfect progressive form instead of the present perfect, and say, “I have been living in Chengtu for two years”. (Use I of the present perfect progressive)

Generally these two verb forms do not make very much difference.

- 1a. He *has studied* in this school for just three years today.  
 b. He *has been studying* in this school for just three years today.  
 2a. I *have thought* over the matter for days.  
 b. I *have been thinking* over the matter for days.  
 3a. The patient *has kept* indoors for weeks.

- b. The patient *has been keeping* indoors for weeks.
- 4a. While we *have talked* here, not a soul has passed.
- b. While we *have been talking* here, not a soul has passed.
- 5a. How long *have we sailed*?
- b. How long *have we been sailing*?

But such a difference, though not much, is still a difference. All sentences *a* emphasize the periods of time rather than the events. In sentences *b*, a great stress is laid on the continuation of the events though the periods of time are still conspicuous. The choice between these two forms depends wholly upon the attitude of the speaker.

25.2—Ponder over the verb phrases in the following sentences.

1. I *have* not yet *led* you through the Ferry-Boat, but *have I been leading* you well?
2. You *have* not *finished* your work, but *have you been working* in the right way?
3. I *have been trying* hard to listen to the speaker, but *have not heard* anything worth hearing.

25.3—The present perfect progressive has, however, another role to play. It is used to express the continuation of an event up to the present time, that is, the continuation of an event that has just ceased to occur. (Use II of the present perfect progressive)

1. Oh, you have come at last. I *have been waiting* a long time. (I have just ceased to wait.)
2. I have not seen you for weeks; what *have you*

*been doing?* (What have you been doing up to the present?)

3. He is panting; he *has been running*.
4. He needs a rather long rest. Think of the strenuous life he *has been leading!*
5. You are here. I *have been looking* for you long.
6. I am now very tired; I *have been working* all day.
7. He has just come back, he *has been taking* a walk in the park.
8. They (the British navy and army) are sent over to bind and rivet upon us those chains which the British ministry *has been* so long *forging*. And what have we to oppose to them? Shall we try argument? Sir, we *have been trying* that for the last ten years. (Patrick Henry)
9. Seven years, my lord, has now passed, since I waited in your outside rooms, or was repulsed from your door; during which time I *have been pushing* on my work through difficulties, ... and have brought it, at last, to the verge of publication. (Samuel Johnson)

Thus used, the present perfect progressive is generally not replaceable. It is good English to say, "I have waited for half an hour," but the use of the perfect immediately changes the point of view of the speaker. He is no longer stressing the continuity of the waiting up to the present moment but its completion. With most other present perfect progressive verbs, no such like substitution can be made without changing the meaning radically. "I have not seen you for weeks, what have you done?" sounds rather senseless. So is "He is panting; he has run."

## 25.4—Some more examples for comparison:

At last I *have found* and *bought* the book I *have been looking for* since May.

2. I *have been working* at it for half an hour; now I *have worked* it out.
3. He *has taken* lunch and *has been taking* a walk in the garden.
4. He returned home last Friday; he *has been traveling*.
5. { I *have been taking* a nap.  
I *have just taken* a nap.
6. { It *has been raining*.  
The rain *has just stopped*.

Study especially sentence 4. Evidently, there is interval of days between "last Friday" and the time speaking. Do not be mechanical with the rules.

25.5—It goes without saying that verbs having no present progressive forms are not used in the present perfect progressive. There are no such expressions as *I have been knowing*, *he has been liking*, etc. But *we have been having a lot of rain lately* is good English. So is *he has been considering the proposal for days*. (Consult 14.4)

25.6—Compare the present perfect progressive verb phrases in the following sentences with *is making* in the example given under 12.6. Try to discover the similarity as to the meaning of continuity.

1. The professor has invented a new treatment for tuberculosis in the experiments he *has been making*.

2. *How have you been studying* English?
3. *We have been fighting* Japan at a sacrifice unprecedented in history.
4. That is the goal towards which we *have been pressing*.

25.7—*Have (has) been* sometimes takes a present participle as a predicate adjective. Do not take the whole thing for a present perfect progressive verb phrase.

1. I want to take a rather long rest; the work has been *tiring*.
2. He has tried hard to be humourous, but what he has said or done has been vulgar and *disgusting*.
3. Although it seems that everything has been *discouraging*, yet he has been patient, and *unyielding* too.

#### Exercise X

Fill in the blanks:

1. A. Why you—(come) so late? I—(wait) for quite a long time. B. —(excuse) me, something urgent—(detain) me in my office. Mr. Wang—(come) to see me again. A. What you—(talk) about? B. About the factory, of course. Not—(ask) me any more questions about that. I—(talk) over such a thing for hours. I—(be) tired; I have to refresh myself.—(give) me some good tea, and—(let) me take a good rest.

2. A. I am going to remove to a new house. B. Why you—(want) to remove? Oh yes, I—(understand). You—(live) here long enough; you—(lose) interest in the surround-

ings here, and so you — (want) to have a change. A. Oh no, what you — (say) — (be) true years ago. But the war — (make) me changed. Now, I — (care) less for comfort and enjoyment and more for work. I — (want) to remove because I — (get) a bad neighbour. Ever since he — (begin) to live next door, I never — (have) a peaceful night. For a whole month he — (annoy) me with mah-jong games; with his clamorous guests, who often — (play) the game far into the night; and now and again with quarrels between him and his wife. I simply — (want) to get rid of this nuisance.

3. A. What you — (do) now? B. I — (repair) the radio; it not — (work). A. Your radio — (be) not a good one; it often — (go) wrong. You — (see) the one I — (get). I — (use) it for years and it never — (be) wrong. It — (work) well all the time.

4. A. Not — (trouble) yourself; — (go) on with your work. I — (can) wait. B. I — (be) in no hurry; I — (can) resume writing it later. A. What you — (write)? B. I — (write) an article for the S magazine. A. What — (be) it all about? B. About the present World War. A. The World War. Yes, it — (go) on for years and its end not — (seem) to be near. B. Yes, this war — (be) a long-drawn affair. Blitzkrieg — (prove) to be no blitz after all. In this war, many a single battle — (conduct) and successfully — (bring) to speedy conclusion along the line prescribed by lightning-warfare theories, but war itself — (know) nothing of lightning.

5. A. How long you — (stay) here? B. I — (stay) here for two weeks. A. What you — (do) for these two weeks? B. I — (do) a lot of things: I — (visit) old friends, — (make) new ones, and — (exchange) views with them on current topics I — (be) to theatres, exhibitions, and — (take) excursions into the villages. I — (enjoy) very much out of my brief

stop here.

6. A. Who —(be) that chap? B. His cousin, a loafer.  
A. I never —(see) him. A. He not —(come) here very often.  
But, whenever he —(come). — he (come) after money. Now,  
he —(be) here again. He —(must gamble); he —(must lose)  
again.

7. A. You —(find) the duplicate? B. I —(try) to  
find it for hours, but not —(catch) sight of it. A. I —  
(remember) I —(see) somebody put it somewhere. Oh yes, it  
—(must be) locked up in that drawer. Miss Wu —(put) it  
there. B. You —(be) right; it —(be) here. It —(lie) here  
several hours without my knowledge.

8. A. With a pair of dirty hands, you — (empty) a  
sewer? B. I not —(empty) a sewer; I —(look) for a "mewer".  
A. I —(be) beaten. What you —(want) to have a cat for?  
B. You —(see), I —(do) my experiments for two weeks on  
a rabbit. Everything —(go) on very well, but the data noted  
so far not —(be) conclusive. I —(think) of repeating the  
experiments on a cat.

### 26. By Way of Review

Up to the present, I have led you through all the verb forms of the present tense, plus the past indefinite. If you have made proper use of your intelligence, you must have acquired a tolerably good knowledge of these verb forms and some good habits in using them.

But I suppose it is necessary to do something more with these verb forms. Some more explanations and some more comparisons ought to be made.

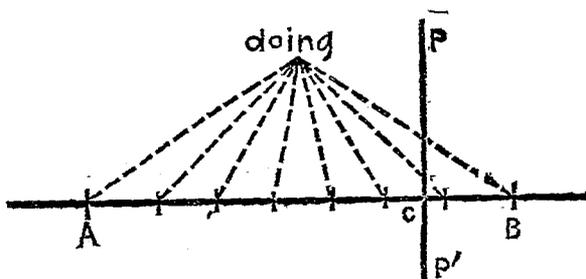
26.1—Let us begin with the present indefinite and the

present perfect. Do you see how the following two sentences differ from each other?

1. He always does that.
2. He has always done that.

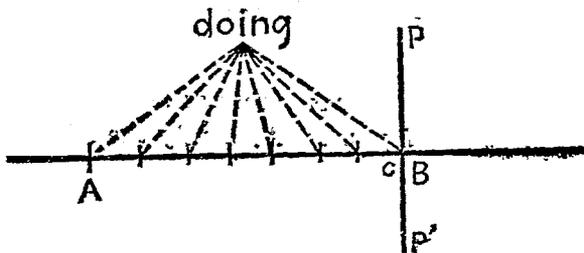
I propose to draw some figures:

Fig. 3



This figure represents the action of *does*. It is like fig. 2; it need not be explained a second time.

Fig. 4



This figure stands for *has done* in sentence 2. It is very much like fig. 3, the only difference being that points C<sub>1</sub> and B coincide. This means that *does* takes the future into account, while *has done* neglects it. In other words, *does* tells a timeless habit while *has always done* expresses a habit that has continued to be up to the present without reference to the future. Do not be surprised to find that the present perfect can be used to express a habit, but learn that no rule nor any definition is infallible.

Compare sentence 2 with "He has done that." What a world of difference *always* makes!

### 25.2—More examples:

1. You *have frequently heard* me sing.
2. I *have often said* that.
3. He *has often given* me good advices.
4. My strange neighbour *has always closed* his front door on hearing me come back every afternoon.
5. Grammar books *have not always been used* wisely, but I hope they will be.
6. He *has always taken* an interest in painting.
7. I know that place; I *have often been* there.
8. Hitler's signed agreements *have never meant* anything.

25.3—Even the present progressive does not always express what is actually present. Study the following sentences:

1. He always looks down when he *is walking*.

2. He does not want to be disturbed when he *is taking* an afternoon nap.
3. Sound is produced when the air which *is being forced* up from the lungs puts the vocal chords into vibration.
4. The topic sentence indicates what the writer *is talking* about, but what he *is saying* is another matter.

Here the present progressive verbs express habit or truth.

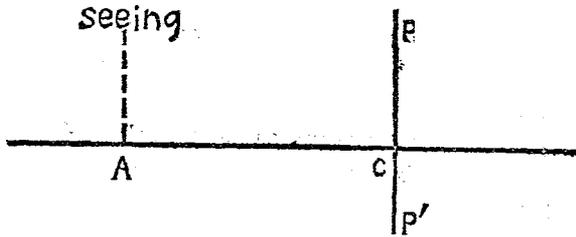
It is possible to draw a figure to represent this use of the present progressive, but I do not want to do that because it would be too complicated and it is not worth the trouble.

26.4—Look into the similar use of the present perfect in the following.

1. Once he *has made* up his mind, he will never draw back.
2. He writes diary every night. He will not go to bed till he *has finished* it.
3. Nobody can write nor speak good English before he *has read* much.
4. Darkness reigns when the sun *has gone* down.

26.5—The figure for the past indefinite is very simple. The following figure stands for *saw* in "I saw him".

Fig. 5



This figure seems to stand also for *have seen* in "I have seen him", since both the verb forms refer to one and the same past event, the difference being one of point of view on the part of the speaker. But in this difference is involved something quite important. Concrete examples are necessary:

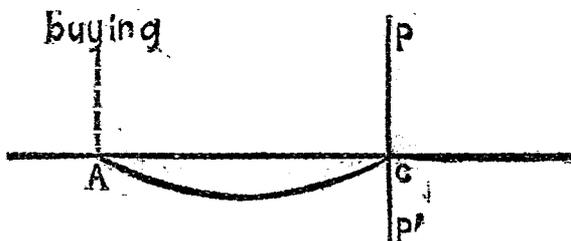
1. He bought a house last year and sold it this year.
2. He has bought a house and has sold it.

Do you see that *has bought* in sentence 2 is incorrect? If he bought a house some time ago and now still possesses it, it is correct to say, "He has bought a house". Since he has already sold it again, the action of buying the house is all past, and therefore it is now absurd to speak of the present state of completion of the action of buying. Similarly, it is wrong to say, "The book that has been lost has been found to-day". In such a case, the correct way of saying is: "The book that was lost yesterday has been found to-day".

25.6—This discussion clearly shows that, to represent the present perfect of use I, something must be added to fig. 5 to indicate the present state of completion of the

action.

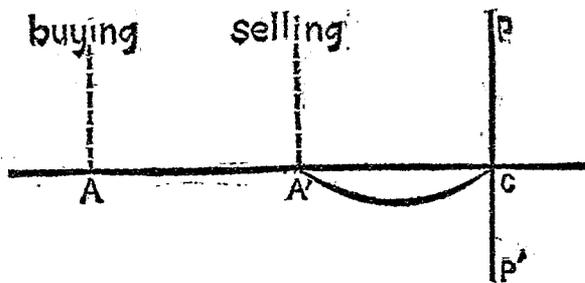
Fig. 6



This is the figure for *has bought* in "He has bought a house". The curved line with an arrow head connects the past with the present and signifies that the house is still in his possession.

Study further the figure given below which represents the two verb forms in "He bought a house but has sold it again."

Fig. 7



26.7—But it is right to say, "Men have come and gone," "He has bought and sold the house," "Speculation has enriched and impoverished him," etc. The two events in each

case are conceived of not as separate events but as two consecutive phases of one single event.

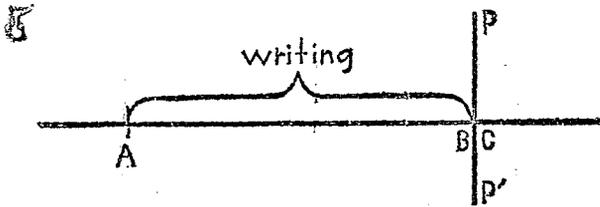
26.8—The next thing to do is to compare the present progressive with the present perfect progressive. Try to see how much the following two sentences differ.

1. I am writing a letter.
2. I have been writing a letter. (I have just stopped writing.)

Suppose you are now writing a letter and I have just come to see you. Naturally you stand up and come forward to meet me. Which of the two questions shall I ask, "What are you doing?" or "What have you been doing?"?

*Have been writing* may be graphically represented thus:

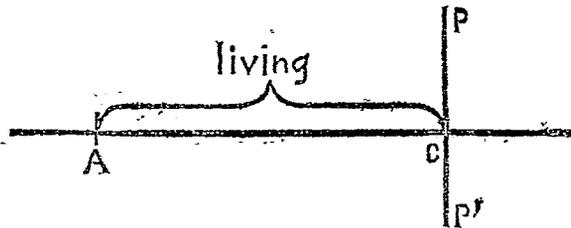
Fig. 8



Turn to 12.1 and compare fig. 1 with the present one.

This figure represents the present perfect progressive of use II. Points B and C are separated by an infinitesimal distance only. (But see example 4, 25.4.) If these two points coincide, the figure represents the present perfect of use II as well as the present perfect progressive of use I.

Fig 9



This figure stands for the verbs in:

He has <sup>lived</sup>  
 { been living } here for two months.

26.9—Now, let us have a grand review of all the verb forms learned so far. Study the sentences given below and try to discern the different shades of meaning of the various forms of *verb to work*. In case difficulties rise, review the sections indicated.

1. He always works hard.(11.3)
2. He is always working hard.(12.10)
3. He used to loaf his days away, but now he works hard (12.9)
4. He has always worked hard and has always been regarded as a young man of promise.(26.1)
5. He is not here; he is now working in the workshop.(11.3)
6. Is he working even during these holidays? (12.9)
7. He is now working so hard that he forgoes even his favorite sports.(12.6)
8. Don't peck at him; he is deaf when he is working

- hard. (26.3)
9. He worked hard last night though he still made some minor mistakes. (21.1)
  10. He has worked hard; don't blame him for such minor mistakes. (23.3, use I)
  11. He has worked hard ever since he was given the job (23.3, use II)
  12. Only those who have worked hard have few regrets. (26.4)
  13. He has been working hard on his experiments for weeks. (25.1)
  14. He has been working so hard that he is now suffering from a nervous breakdown. (25.3)

### Exercise XI

Fill in the blanks:

1. A. He ought to have come; he — (promise) to come. B. Most probably—he will not come. Ever since I — (know) him, very rarely he — (keep) his promises. He always — (give) his promises easily and — (break) his words readily.

2. He has been leading an interesting and eventful life. He always — (be) adventurous. He — (expose) himself to danger of death several times, but, strange to say, he always — (have) narrow escapes.

3. A. What are you doing there? B. I — (wash) my hands. I — (work) at the lathe in the work-shop.

4. Now, the tide — (turn) in our favor; we — (wait) long enough; at last the hour — (be) come. — (let) us be ready to act.

5. A. He — (come) yet? B. He — (come) here a moment ago, but just — (leave). A. Why you not — (ask) him to wait? B. Yes, I — (do), but he — (have) other matters to attend to; he not — (can wait) any longer.

6. A. In which direction you — (think) the train — (go)? B. It — (go) eastward; — (be) I right? A. Yes, you — (be) right. It — (go) northward for the last four hours, but just — (change) its direction.

7. A. Oh, you — (talk) about Mr. Cheng. Yes, he — (be) very rich, and I — (be) told that he — (become) rich through speculation in foreign exchange. B. He — (be) no longer rich now. He — (become) rich through speculation, but now — (lose) all his money. A. How? He — (lose) in speculation lately? B. I — (be) not quite sure whether he — (lose) anything in speculation, but somehow or other, his money — (go) into Japanese hands.

8. A. I — (must have) this done by next morning, — (understand)? B. Yes, I — (understand). I not — (may have) enough time to do it, but I — (can have) it done in due time. Mr. Shao — (promise) to help me.

9. A. They — (be) married seven years, and never — (quarrel). B. — (be) it possible? A. You never — (hear) of such a thing, — (have) you? Why — (be) it not possible? The husband — (be) a mute.

10. Troops have been sent north to meet the enemy. The enemy forces on the east — (repulse). Preparations now — (make) for an attack next morning. We — (wait) for further orders.

11. Prices — (look) higher and higher, but our income — (remain) the same. What are we going to do?

12. A. — (be) the regulation still in force? B. No, it — (be) not now; it — (pass) last year but now — (repeal).

13. Not—(think) of sports when you—(study); not—(bring) your books along when you—(play).

14. If you—(can think) in terms of English when you speak it, then you—(may hope) to speak well.

### 27. More about Participles

#### 27.1—In the following sentence

His eyes were closed.

the verb is not in the passive voice. *Were* alone is the verb, and *closed* is a past participle used as a predicate adjective. Undoubtedly, *closed* is passive in meaning, but *were closed* does not form a passive verb phrase. (Consult 17.9.)

#### 27.2—Study further the following paragraph.

The window was closed by the nurse last night. It was (or remained) closed throughout the night. This morning it was opened by the nurse again, and it was (or remained) open all day. At seven o'clock this evening, it was closed again. It is (or remains) now still closed; it has been (or has remained) closed for three hours.

What is the difference between *opened* and *open*? On the basis of such a difference, you ought to be perfectly clear about the two different uses of *closed*.

The *closed* after *has been* is also a predicate adjective. A past participle used in connexion with a present perfect form of verb *to be* is the only thing really now here. But

this new thing ought to be easy for you to understand. You may compare *closed* here with the word *ill* in 'He has been ill for two weeks.'

Can you see why *verb to remain* may sometimes be substituted for *verb to be* and sometimes not?

27.3—Now, let us study the following two sentences:

1. He has gone. 他走了 or 他已經走了。
2. He is gone. 他走了 or 他不在這兒了。

In sentence 1, *has gone* is present perfect. In sentence 2, *is gone* cannot be a verb phrase in the passive voice, for *gone* is the past participle of an intransitive verb. *Gone* is a predicate adjective.

These two sentences mean slightly different things. *Is gone* (a present form of *verb to be* + a predicate adjective) declares a present state as a present state. *Has gone* expresses a present state as the result of some past action; here the completion of the action is prominent. This difference is a very fine one. Mark it in the following dialogues

3. A. Where is he? In the other room? B. No, he is *gone*.
4. A. Tell him to get out of here. B. He *has gone*.

27.4—Let me give you some more food for thought:

1. Be ready, everybody! The hour is *come*!
2. O, spring is *come*; everything is so *animating*!
3. Let me take a little rest; the day is *done*.
4. At last the matter is *settled*.
5. When hope is *gone*, all is *lost*.

6. The war is actually *begun*.
7. This work is well *done*.

Note that *done* in 3 and 7, *settled* in 4, and *lost* in 5, imply passive meaning too.

27.5—In the following sentences, can you discover the different uses between the predicate adjectives in group 1 and those in group 2?

1. When the time has come, then it is *come*.  
When hope has gone, then it is *gone*.  
If he has drunk much wine, then he is *drunk*.
2. When you have settled the matter (or the matter has been settled), then it is *settled*.  
When you have done the work (or the work has been done), then it is *done*.

27.6—Examine further the following groups of examples:

1. I *have done* the work. It is *done*. It *was done* by me.  
He *has written* a letter. It is *written*. It *was written* by him.  
The teacher *has found* the laboratory reports. They are *found*. They *were found* by the teacher.
2. The matter *has been settled*. It is *settled*. It *was settled* yesterday.  
The work *has been done*. It is *done*. It *was done* several days ago.  
The paper *has been torn*. It is *torn*. It *was torn* a moment ago.

3. Everything here *pleases* me. I am *pleased* with everything here.  
This book *interests* many. Many are *interested* in it.  
His words *encourage* me. I am *encouraged*.
4. The rain was *soaking*. I was *soaked*.  
The story is *touching*. Everybody is *touched*.  
His pronunciation is *shocking*. They are *shocked*.  
You can easily be *pleasing* if you are *pleased*.  
If you are *interested* in some one because you understand him, then you cannot fail to be *interesting* to him.
5. The window is *closed*. It has been *closed* for days.  
The whole valley is *deserted*. It has long been *deserted*.  
He is hopelessly *involved* in debt. He has been *involved* in debt for the last seven years.

27.7—One thing more to be noted:

- 1a. I have made a pair of shoes.  
b. I have had a pair of shoes made.
- 2a. Cut a slot in the bar.  
b. Have a slot cut in the bar.
- 3a. We must finish the work by next Saturday.  
b. We must have the work finished by next Saturday.
- 4a. You ought to clean your blanket once a week.  
b. You ought to have your blanket cleaned once a week.

In sentences *b*, *made*, *finished*, *cut*, *cleaned* are all objective complements. Consult App. E if necessary.

You understand what sentences *a* mean, I am sure. Generally the subjects of those sentences are the agents of

the actions. In sentences 6; on the other hand, the agents of the actions are matters of speculation, but most probably they are persons other than the subjects. When I say, "I've had my hair cut", it is almost certain that the one who cut my hair is a barber. In "He's had two suits made by the tailor", the agent of the action is clearly indicated. But, when somebody says, "I've had the letter sent" then we are unable to tell whether he himself sent it or somebody else.

I think I need say no more. I had better leave the rest of the work to your own brain.

#### Exercise XII

A. Pick out the past participles and tell which of them form parts of a verb phrase and which are predicate adjectives.

1. A. Where is he? B. He is gone. A. Do you know where he has gone? B. He may have gone back home.

2. The kid was lost. The whole family was stirred; no stone was left unturned to find him.

3. When he came back, he found that the vase was broken. He was later informed that it was broken by the servant. But he was not angry (why not angered?) with the servant. He was not excited but remained as calm (why not calmed?) as ever.

4. He has long been engaged in the business; he is well versed in every aspect of it. He has never been mistaken even in connexion with comparatively unimportant details. But now he is gone—gone forever. It is not easy to get another person who is as experienced as he is. (What word is omitted at the end of this sentence? Try to supply it.)

5. I am now tired of my work here. I have grown sick of him. He is proud because he is the boss. But I have my own

sense of honour. To say the truth, I am better trained in this business than he. But, right or wrong, he must have his own way. To work under such a dogmatic master, I am simply wasting my time here. I must quit.

6. A. I must go to see him. B. Why must you do that? The contract is signed; everything is done. What more do you want him for? A. You are not well informed. The contract hasn't been signed yet. Haven't you learned that? B. In that case, you must go. A. You see? Everything is changed now, Let's go together.

B. Change the verb in every parenthesis into a present or a past participle as you see fit.

1. He is (bend) on long talks. In his long talks, he merely makes a lot of noise. Nobody is (interest) in them; they are not at all (interest). For me they have always been (annoy). I think everybody feels (annoy) with him.

2. The work has long been (tire); it has almost (tire) me out. Many of my co-workers are (tire) of the work too.

3. Hopes ran high. Everything was (encourage). Everybody was (encourage). Nobody was ashamed of his mean attire; nor was he (dissatisfy) with simple food and dwelling. What was highest in every mind was work, — creative work. Good creative work was the only thing that was (deserve) of praise there.

4. He is very much (absorb) in his research; he is (bury) in books. Very seldom have people seen him out-of-doors; for he has often been (confine) to the library.

When he first came to college, he used to be active and social. Now everybody is (surprise) to know that he is so radically (change).

5. Hurry up. We must have the case (finish) by nine

o'clock. Be sure to have it (paint) brown.

6. Have your papers (hand) in to-morrow. You must have them clearly (write) and your names and section numbers (put) at the assigned places.

7. He is fatally (wound). I will have a doctor (send) for. Have him well (attend) meanwhile.

How have you found the last few exercises? If you have found them to be very difficult, then there is no doubt that you have not been studying the book as you ought to. You must have slighted my advices.

The five verb forms you have studied so far are the foundation forms. To have mastered their uses is a prerequisite to the study of other forms to be discussed in the following chapters. If you have not acquired tolerably good skill in using these forms, you disqualify yourself to go further. Of course, the book is in your hand, you are free to read on. But it would be fruitless. Just as I have already warned you, you would be walking in a labyrinth and eventually you would be puzzled to despair.

Moreover, I have been explaining in detail in these two chapters. I will not continue to do so as we go further on. On the basis of what has been discussed in these two chapters, not only shall I not be disposed to reiteration of any kind, but explanations and discussions will be brief. Much more work is expected of your own brain, your own hand, and your own tongue. Master the contents of these two chapters before you go on.

## CHAPTER III

### INTER-RELATIONS OF PAST AND FUTURE EVENTS

#### 31. The Signs of the Future

**31.1**--There was a time, according to some authorities, when the English language knew no special signs of the future. Then, the present indefinite was also the future indefinite, and the future time was expressed by some adverb or some adverbial phrase. This practice survives even now though *shall* and *will* have come to be frequently used. For example:

1. He *comes* soon.
2. I *leave* for Kweiling tomorrow.
3. My brother *starts* next week.

This crude device, however, has fallen into disuse with most of the verbs. Now *shall* and *will* are the most common signs of the future.

**31.2**--To express simple futurity, *shall* is used with the first person and *will* with the second and third persons,

1. I *shall be* here tomorrow. Tell him to come.
2. We *shall hold* a meeting next Tuesday, I *shall be* busy.
3. You *will* fall if you don't take care.
4. You *will be promoted* soon, I am sure.
5. She *will sing* tonight by request.
6. Don't you think they *will be* amply rewarded for

their service?

**31.3**—To express the intention of the speaker, *shall* is used with the second and third persons.

1. You *shall* not waste your time (= I don't want you to).
2. He *shall* finish the work by four o'clock (= I intend to have him do so).
3. They *shall* not swim in the river (= I don't allow them to).

**31.4**—To express volition on the part of the subject of the sentence, *will* is used with all of the three persons.

1. I *will* not do that (= I am determined not to).
2. We *will* try our best (= We promise to).
3. You *will* not go (= You aren't willing to).
4. They *will* not let me pass (= They don't allow me to pass).
5. He *will* not join us (= He doesn't want to).

You can see that with the second and third persons, *will* may mean either simple futurity or volition of the subject. When used to express volition, *will* is emphasized in speaking. In writing, the implication of volition can only be inferred from the context.

- 3a. You will not go; if you miss the chance, I am not to blame.
- 4a. They will not let me pass; can you do something for me?
- 5a. I persuaded him to join us; but he will not.

Or, other devices of clear statement are often necessary.

- 3b. You don't want to go.
- 4b. They are determined not to let me pass.
- 5b. He has decided that he will not join us.

31.5—Many Chinese students use *I will* and *we will* in places where they really mean *shall*. Say, "I shall be punished" but not "I will be punished" if you are not willing to be punished. Nor use *will* instead of *shall* in "We know we shall fail if we don't take care".

Compare *shall* and *will* in the following groups of sentences.

- 1a. We shall be very much delighted to come.
- b. You want to see us in distress, but we will be happy.
- 2a. In that case I shall starve.
- b. I will starve if I need to.
- 3a. If this is to be accomplished, we shall need to take the initiative.
- b. Gentlemen we will take the initiative.
- 4a. I shall not be back for supper.
- b. I will not take this food.
- 5a. I am afraid we shall fail.
- b. We will not fail.

31.6—Other auxiliaries than *shall* and *will* are sometimes future in meaning, such as in "I may leave soon"; "Why should I see him tomorrow?", or "Can you come next Saturday?" But they also have their future forms: *shall* (or *will*) *be able to* for *can*, *shall* (or *will*) *be permitted to* (or *be allowed to*) for *may*, and *shall* (or *will*) *have to* for *ought to*; *should*.

and *must*. In using such expressions, be sure that *shall* and *will* express simple futurity.

1. I shall be able to come.
2. They will have to do it anyway.
3. You will have to face the issue.
4. He will be able to finish it in due time.
5. He will not be allowed to stay here any longer.  
(Cf. He shall not be allowed to, etc.)

Similarly,

6. We shall be glad to be of service to you. (Cf. sentence 1b, 31.5.)
7. They will be delighted to take the trip.
8. I hope I shall always be with you. (Cf. I will always be with you.)
9. They will be unable to escape.
10. I am afraid that in this connexion money will not be of any use.
11. I shall need (or be in need of) this book.

31.7—In an interrogative sentence, use that future auxiliary which is expected in the answer.

1. Will you do that for me? Will I? Of course (I will).
2. Shall you see him? Yes (, I shall).
3. Will you bring me those books some time next week? Certainly (, I will).
4. Shall I ask him to help me? If you want, (you shall).
5. Will he succeed? Most probably he will.
6. Shall he be pardoned? No, he shall be punished.

It can be seen from the foregoing that the use of *shall* and *will* in connexion with the third person is the same in the interrogative sentence as in the declarative sentence.

*Shall you* expresses simple futurity, and *will you*, volition.

Can you find any other use of *will I?* than what is shown in sentence I?

**31.8**—Auxiliaries are not the only signs of the future. The present progressive of *verb to go*+*infinitive* is very frequently used to express simple futurity.

1. What *are you going to do?*
2. I *am going to tell* him all about it.
3. I think he *is going to refuse*.
4. We *are going to study* differential equations.
5. Who *is going to be* the captain?

But such expressions as *going to go*, *going to be gone*, *going to come*, etc. are rather rare. Verbs of motion are very often used in the present progressive to mean future.

6. Wait; he *is coming* in a minute.
7. Please attend the baby for a moment; I *am running* over to get the milk.
8. I am told you *are going* away. *Are you travelling* very far?
9. She *is leaving* for Kunming in a few days.

**31.9**—Another frequently used sign of the future is *verb to be*+*infinitive*; which generally expresses, in addition to the future meaning, a command, a notion of necessity, deter-

mination, definite arrangement, etc.

1. Nobody knows whether he *is to be punished*.
2. We *are to meet* twice a week.
3. You *are to keep* it; not lie."
4. What's *to be done*?
5. The patriot *is to be shot* next morning.
6. You *are to come* in first, and you, *to follow* him.

**31.10**—The immediate future may be expressed by *about*, *shortly*, *on the point of*, etc.

1. They are *about* to fail.
2. Everything is *about* to be removed.
3. Those two clerks are *shortly* to be discharged.
4. The case is *shortly* to be tried.
5. He is *on the point* of falling.
6. They are *on the point* of leaving.

**31.11**—In an adverbial clause of time or condition, the present indefinite is used instead of the future indefinite if the principal verb is future in meaning.

1. You will fall if you *don't take* care.
2. I shall not go out if it *rains*.
3. I shall be in bed when he *arrives*.
4. He himself is going to suffer the consequences if he *continues to* do that.
5. I am going to tell him if he *comes*.
6. I shall let you know when due preparations *are made*.
7. She will be very much pleased if this *is given* to her as a present.

8. Come if you *please*.
9. Tell him so if you *meet* him.
10. By the time he *returns*, all will be gone.

But:

11. I don't know what he *will* do.
12. I wonder who *will* succeed him.
13. He will tell you when you *shall* start work.

Why is the future indefinite used in the subordinate clauses? Do you know how to tell a noun clause from an adverbial clause? How does the following sentence differ in meaning from sentence 13?

13a. He will tell you everything when you *start* work.

### Exercise XIII

A. Fill the blanks with *shall* or *will* as you see fit. When neither is necessary, leave them blank and put the verbs following in due form.

1. A. — you please copy this for me? B. With pleasure.  
A. Thanks, but — you be able to finish it this afternoon? B. That all depends; but I — try. A. I — be much obliged if you can do that. I — have to use it in the reading club tonight.  
B. In that case I — make haste. I — be able to get somebody to help me if I — be too busy.

2. A. Do you find that book interesting? B. Oh yes, I am very much interested in it. May I take it home to read?  
A. Certainly. B. When — I return it to you? A. Take your time; I — not need it for weeks. B. Where is volume two? —

you lend me that too? A. Of course. Here it is.

3. A. —she be able to come? B. Her brother says she —not. A. Why? B. Most probably she has not quite recovered. The doctor says she —keep indoors a few days more.

4. A. Excuse me; I am going. B. You needn't go so early. A. I am afraid he—be out before I—arrive there. B. Don't worry; no matter what time you—go there, you—be able to find him in. He has just told me so on the phone. Somebody is coming; wait until you—see him. A. Who is that somebody? A friend of mine? B. He is not, but he—be. I —introduce him to you. I believe you two —make good friends after you—meet each other. It is K. V. Liu, whom I have often spoken of.

5. A. —you leave soon? B. I think I —have to remain a few days more. I —have to wind up all my affairs before I —go. A. You—not come back again? B. Most probably I—not.

6. A. Be quick, or we —be late. B. Why should we be punctual when everybody—be late. A. How do you know that everybody—be late? B. You are still too young, spiritually. You —take things the way I do now by the time you —know these people better.

7. I thank you very much for your invitation, but I don't know yet whether I —be able to come. I am leaving in a few days. My sister is leaving too. We —have to make due preparations for the long journey. But if I —have time, I —be glad to come. —you have to know in advance whether I —come? I may not be able to do that. —I be welcome if I —come without warning? —you let me have the liberty either to come or not? Anyway I —come to say good-bye before we —go away.

B. Replace the following dashes with appropriate signs of

the future other than *shall* and *will*, changing the form of the verb following if necessary.

1. A. You— go away soon? B. Yes, I — leave for Chungking tomorrow. By decision of the board of trustees, I —go there immediately. A. Mr. Wang—go too? B. No, he —remain; he —act for me in my absence.

2. You—start work at once. The bridge—be completed by five o'clock next morning. You—shoulder the whole responsibility, understand?

3. Stop that! The liquid—spurt out. It—hurt some of your class-mates. Don't heat the test-tube at the bottom. You —put the flame at the middle of it. I have often told you that you—follow the laboratory directions closely. Do be careful.

4. A. How do you like my new book on aviation? B. Oh! It's marvellous! I—recommend it to all aviators I know, and I myself—take it with me on my next flight. A. You—read it in the plane? B. No, I —use it as ballast.

5. Don't you know we—have a big holiday of three days? The days are well chosen; they—fall on the Chinese New Year days. All government offices and schools—be closed. Everybody—be off work. Certainly we — have festivities of all kinds. Moreover your favorite Claudet Colbert and Norma Shearer—be had cheap. You—allow yourself a regular spree, —you not?

### 31·12—*Shall we* is used in two different ways.

1. Student: Shall we hand in our papers today?  
Teacher: Yes (, you shall).
2. John: Shall we go for a walk?  
His friend: I just want to do that. Let's go.

In sentence 2, the answer is never *we shall* (of course not *you shall*). *Shall we?* in the question amounts to *shall I? with you or will you? with me.*

Note the relation between *shall we* and *let us* in the following.

1. Let's go for a walk, shall we?
2. Let's have a rubber of bridge, shall we?
3. Let's try our fortune, shall me?

**31.13.** *You will* has long been used to give command in official instructions and military orders. For example: *You will hold the position at any cost! As soon as you arrive there, you will report to the Embassy.* Here, *you will hold* and *you will report* are equivalent to the imperative *hold and report*, which are replaced by the former expressions to avoid abruptness.

In ordinary speech *you will* has become even stronger in command than *you shall*. In the following dialogue

- A. You shall stay.  
 B. But I will not.  
 A. But you will.

*you will* means *I know you are willing* or *you dare not refuse to.*

**31.14.** *Will you (please)* has almost been worn out as an expression of courtesy. It has often been used to give command to subordinates and servants. A chief will say to his typist, "Will you type this?" And a mistress will ask of

her servant, "Will you bring more coffee?" Consequently it is often replaced by *won't you* in making a request where no command is meant. But the really polite form is *would you* or *could you*. For example, sentence I, A in Exercise XIII would be "Would you (or could you) copy this for me?" if the speaker mean to be polite. This will be fully discussed in 44.5 and 44.8 in connexion with the subjunctive mood.

**31.15**—In indirect discourse *shall* or *will* is used according as which ought to be used in direct discourse, the change of the subject notwithstanding.

1. I think I shall be there. ("I shall be there")
2. I promise I will do it. ("I will do it")
3. You say you will help me; don't go back on your word. ("I will help you")
4. Do you mean you shall be away for a few days? ("I shall be away for a few days")
5. He says he shall go. ("I shall go")
6. I intend that he shall study harder. ("He shall study harder")
7. I say she will not live long. ("She will not live long")
8. He says he shall not be able to be present. ("I shall not be able to be present")

**31.16**—Note the italicized words in the following sentences.

1. He regrets that on account of illness he *is* not able to accept your invitation.

2. The ship *is* scheduled to leave four days from now.

Many Chinese students use *will be* wrongly in such like sentences because they mix up two events, of which one is present and the other is future. Although he will not be able to come as invited, yet he is *now* unable to accept the invitation. Similarly, the event of the ship's leaving is future, but the time of departure is *now* fixed, not to be fixed four days from now.

§1.17—*Will* is often used to express a present habit.

1. Whenever he comes uptown, he *will drop in* to see us.
2. Nobody *will be* pleased if he is unduly neglected.
3. You must know that once he has made up his mind, he *will* never *draw back*.
4. It is too bad that I *will forget* the name of a person immediately after he is introduced to me.
5. The habit of asking questions of ourselves *will go* a long way to help educate ourselves.
6. In most cases the person who is wrong *will stick* to his opinion even after he has learned of his error.
7. The more distinctly we are aware of our wants and desires in reading, the more definite and permanent *will be* our learning. (Noah Porter)
8. The lower animals are even better physicians than we are: for when they are ill, they *will*, many of them, *seek* out some particular herb which they do not use as food, and which possesses a medical quality exactly suited to the complaint; whereas the whole college of physicians *will-dispute* for a century about the virtues of a single drug. (Jane Taylor)

9. A man who lives out of doors among men, and who gives his fellows a fair chance to see his conduct *will find* that he is accurately measured and earnestly judged. (Henry Ward Beecher)
10. It *will not do* to be perpetually calculating risks and adjusting nice chances. (Sydney Smith)

You may have noticed that *will* thus used still suggests a certain future meaning. It suggests no future as against the present, but future to some timeless present event. *Will drop* is future to *comes*; *will be* is future to *is neglected*; *will draw* is future to *has made*, etc. (Of the present progressive under 26.3 and the present perfect under 26.4)

Note *never* in 3 and *often* in 4, both of which express habit. *Always* may be used in a similar way.

- 5a. The habit of asking questions of ourselves *will always* help educate ourselves.
- 6a. He *will always* stick to his opinion, right or wrong.
11. He *will always* say to a new friend, "Glad to meet you".
12. Boys *will always* be boys.
13. Will you *always* take up a new job when a higher pay is offered?

Compare these future verb phrases with the present progressive under 12.10 and the present perfect under 26.2.

### 32. Continuous Event at a Certain Point of Past or Future Time

32.1--Suppose this is Nov. 24, seven o'clock in the

evening, and you are talking with a friend of yours, Mr. Y. H. Ma. To assert such an event in your own words, you will say,

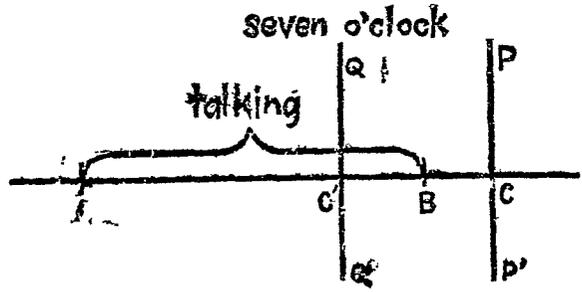
I am talking with Y. H.

Now suppose several days or weeks have passed, and now it is December or January. What shall you say if you want to tell somebody about the same event? The matter is very simple. Change *am* into *was*, add some adverbial phrases of time, and all is well done.

On Nov. 24, at seven o'clock in the evening, I *was talking* with Y. H.

32.2--*Was talking* is a past progressive verb phrase. Its graphical representation is as follows.

Fig. 10



Line QQ' intersects line AB at C'. C' is the point of past time, seven o'clock, at which the event of talking was going on. Compare this with fig. 1, 12. 1. When lines PP' and QQ' coincide, fig. 16 becomes fig. 1. Grasp the full meaning of such a change.

32.3 -In the foregoing example, the point of past time  $\text{\textcircled{C}}$  is indicated by a phrase. But a clause will answer the same purpose.

*When the alarm was sounded, I was talking with Y.H.*

More examples:

1. *When I went into the room, he was reading at the fireside.*
2. *He was taking a walk in the garden yesterday afternoon.*
3. *the student did not pay attention to the lecture; he was thinking of his home.*
4. *A. I peeped through the window. B. What did you find? A. He was loading his pistol.*
5. *Yesterday evening I had a talk with him. We were discussing the problem of aid to the wounded soldiers.*
6. *It was half past five. The sun was setting.*
7. *He came in the nick of time; the play was just beginning.*
8. *Winter was come. It was getting colder and colder.*
9. *I passed by the door. I could hear that he was being reprimanded by the dean.*
10. *He did not know that he was doing harm to many people.*
11. *Nobody understood what he was talking about.*
12. *When they were reading, we were writing.*
13. *My brother is much older than I. When he was teaching in college, I was still studying in a middle school.*
14. *The people swept from power those who were*

*leading* them into defeat.

Whenever you come across a past progressive, you can always find some words, expressed or understood, that indicate the point of past time.

§2.4—Compare the use of the past progressive verbs in the following sentences with the present progressive verbs under 12.6, 12.8, 12.10, and 26.3.

1. He was studying in college when his father died.
2. During those months he was painting a picture.
3. He used to live in Peiping, but that summer he was staying at Pei-tai-ho.
4. Day and night he was always working and thinking in the laboratory.
5. The king did not like the courtiers who were always praising him.
6. The boys used to talk much even when they were taking meals.
7. They liked to stroll into the woods when it was raining.

§2.5—Do not use the past progressive unless some occasion really demands it. Many students of English use the verb phrases indiscriminately because they think the longer ones are more beautiful. They want to show that they know more than the indefinite forms. That is sheer nonsense. Remember, do not use the past progressive unless it is necessary to emphasize that some past event was continuous.

Study the following sentences.

1. A. When *did* you *prepare* your lesson? B. I *prepared* it last night.

2. A. You did not come last night. What *were you doing*? B. I *was preparing* my lesson.
3. A. Did you *prepare* your lesson last night? B. You forget so easily? *Wasn't I preparing* my lesson when you came into my room last night?
4. Yesterday evening they *had* a debate. They *were debating* about which is more difficult, to remember or to forget.

32.6--The past progressive is generally more descriptive than the past indefinite. Consequently, the indefinite form is used when only a simple narrative is intended. But the progressive form is to be preferred when you want to describe the background of something you are going to relate. Read the following carefully.

1. The procession was going on. / He stood amidst the crowd and looked on.
2. When the procession was going on, / he stood amidst the crowd and looked on.
3. The procession was going on. He was standing amidst the crowd and looking on. / Suddenly a thundering explosion was heard. A turmoil followed.
4. The procession was going on, he was standing amidst the crowd and looking on. Before him the police and the gendarmes were busily keeping the throng to the sidewalk; behind him men women and children were bustling hither and thither to find some opening to the front line. / Suddenly a thundering explosion was heard. A turmoil followed.

Each of the preceding paragraphs is divided into two parts by an oblique line. The first part gives a picture, that is, describes the back-ground, while the second part relates the event that occurred in it.

Substitute the past indefinite for all the past progressive in the examples, and the paragraphs become simple narratives.

32.7— Compare the italicized expressions in each of the following groups.

- 1a. Few noticed him when he *passed* by.
- b. A stone fell on his head when he *was passing* by.
- 2a. He *walked* across the street, and suddenly a shot *was heard*.
- b. He *was walking* across the street when he suddenly heard a shot.
- 3a. He *gained* steadily on the first man in the race as they went.
- b. He *was gaining* steadily on the first man in the race as they went. But somehow he stumbled.

All sentences *a* are simple narratives while in *b* the writer intends to describe.

32.8—When a past continuous event has just ceased to occur, use a verb in the present perfect progressive form. The past progressive would make the meaning unclear.

1. Unclear and loose: He needs a rather long rest.  
Think of the strenuous life he *was leading*.  
Clear and exact: He needs a rather long rest. Think

of the strenuous life he *has been leading*.

Cf: His health was deteriorating, for he *was leading* a strenuous life.

2. Unclear and loose: His sister, who *was travelling* far and wide, has just come back.

Clear and exact: His sister, who *has been travelling* far and wide, has just come back.

Cf: His sister was not at home. She *was travelling* far and wide.

**32.9**—Shift line QQ' in fig. 10 to the right of line PP', and the past progressive becomes the future progressive. This means that you are speaking of the event of talking some time before Nov. 24, perhaps in September or October. The sentence will be something like the following.

On Nov. 24, seven o'clock in the evening, I *shall be talking* with Y. H.

More examples:

1. Don't go now. By the time you arrive there, he *will be taking* supper. We had better wait a few moments.
2. At three o'clock tomorrow afternoon I *shall be taking* a walk in the garden. Please come at four.
3. A. Would you type this for me tomorrow morning?  
B. Sorry, I shall not be able to do that. Tomorrow morning I *shall be doing* biology lab.
4. We shall have a meeting next Saturday. We *shall be discussing* money matters.
5. Do you know what the students *will be doing* next?

Saturday?

32.19—In an adverbial clause of time or condition, the present progressive takes the place of the future progressive just as the present indefinite does to the future indefinite.

1. You may go to see him, but if he *is reading*, you shall wait.
2. From now on you shall keep quiet when the other boys *are studying*.
3. I hope you will make yourself at home while you *are staying* with us.

#### Exercise XIV

Fill in the blanks.

1. A. In what direction we—(go) now? B. We—(go) northward. A. We not—(go) westward just a minute ago? B. Yes, we—(be). We long—(go) westward, but the train—(change) its direction at the station we just—(pass). A. We—(shall or will go) northward for the rest of the journey? B. No, we not—(shall or will go) northward long. We—(shall or will have) another turn at the M. station. After that we—(shall or will go) westward again. We—(shall or will continue) to go in that direction till we—(arrive or shall or will arrive) at our destination.

2. A. When you—(leave) last night? I not—(notice). B. I—(leave) when you—(talk) with Mr. Wu. He then—(relate) to you how he—(capture) the Japanese captain alive, and you—(listen) so interestedly that I not—(wish) to divert your attention. A. You—(be) fortunate; you—(leave) much earlier than I—(do). When I—(come) back, I—(be) caught in a heavy rain. Wind—

(blow) hard too. I — (feel) very cold because I — (be) socked to the skin.

3. It was a fine day. Spring — (be) at its best. The field and hill-slope — (be) covered with a layer of soft green, which — (gladden) every heart. The suspending willow twigs, slender and soft, — (swing) in a refreshing breeze. Birds — (sing) among the trees. In the court the children — (run) about with hoops, or — (play) shuttlecocks. The grandma — (sun) herself on the porch and — watch them play. In the rice fields beyond, man — (divide) and — plant rice grass; some — (sing) folk-songs. On the hill-slopes, little boys — (tend) cows, which — (graze). Some of the boys — (lie) on the grass, others — (play) pranks with one another. Everybody — (be) cheerful and gay.

4. Little Jackie — (sit) on bed and — (think) of something Mother — (see) him and — (ask), "What you — (think) about, darling?" He — (reply), "I not — (know) what to do, to wash my neck or to wear a higher collar."

5. A shabby man — (walk) along the street and — (cry) dolefully. Some one — (stop) him and — (ask) why he — (cry). He — (say) that he — (cry) because the well-known Lord Rothschild — (be) dead. "Then you — (be) a relative of his?" "No, that's just why I — (cry)."

### 33. State of Completion at a Certain Point of Past or Future Time

As is shown in the preceding sections, the past progressive is used to emphasize the fact that some event was going on at a certain point of past time. If that point is indicated by a verb, then we have two past events, the inter-relation be-

tween which is expressed by the past progressive verb phrase. In the same way the future progressive is used to express similar inter-relations of future events.

But past and future events have other inter-relations, which, under certain circumstances, have to be emphasized. To do this, the English language has also developed such verb forms as the past and the future perfect, the past and the future perfect progressive, and the past future tense.

33.1—Having acquired knowledge of, and some good habits in, the use of the present perfect as you ought to have done, you will find the past perfect very easy to handle. Just like the present perfect, the past perfect has also three uses, with only this difference: While the base of operation of the former is the instantaneous present, the latter rests on some point of past time. Below are given some sentences for comparison.

Use I:

- 1a. The rain *has stopped*.
- b. When he left the house, the rain *had stopped*.
- 2a. They *have* all *written* their compositions.
- b. At nine o'clock last night, they *had* all *written* their compositions.
- 3a. My watch *has been stolen*.
- b. I found that my watch *had been stolen*.

Use II:

- 4a. The wind *has blown* for two hours.
- b. The wind *had blown* for two hours when the rain

began to fall.

- a. The book *has been left* here for days.  
 b. He did not know that the book *had been left* there for days.
- 6a. He *has studied* English for six years.  
 b. When I began to teach him English, he *had studied* it six years.

Use III:

- 7a. I *have warned* him several times.  
 b. He did not heed my words though I *had warned* him several times.
- 8a. I *have called* on him twice today.  
 b. I went to see him again; I *had already called* on him twice that day.
- 9a. We *have had* many discussions.  
 b. Finally we agreed after we *had had* many discussions.

Draw figures to represent the various uses of the past perfect if you are interested in doing so. Consult figs. 6, 7, and 10.

33.2--Compare the following examples with those under 15.2 and 26.4.

1. Nobody was surprised; he *had always done* that.
2. The boy *had so often been punished* that he began to lose his sense of self-respect.
3. She never dared to take supper until her husband *had come* back.
4. He would not even stir out of the house before he *had consulted* the fortune teller.

33.3—Do not use the past perfect unless it is required by clear statement, emphasis, etc.

1. Wrong: I *had read* that book yesterday.  
 Right: I *read* that book yesterday.  
 Right: I *have read* that book.  
 Right: I *finished reading* that book yesterday.  
 Right: I *had read* that book before he ever knew its existence.
2. Wrong: I *had made* many mistakes in the theme I wrote last Tuesday.  
 Right: I *made* many mistakes in the theme I wrote.  
 Right: I *have made* many mistakes in the theme I wrote.  
 Right: Of course I myself was to blame for the mistakes I *had made*.
3. Wrong: He *had lived* in Berlin.  
 Right: He *lived* in Berlin then.  
 Right: He *has lived* in Berlin.  
 Right: He *has been* in Berlin.  
 Right: He *had lived* in Berlin for years when I met him there.  
 Right: At that time he *was living* in Berlin.

33.4—The past perfect of Use I is often replaced by the past indefinite when only a simple narrative is meant and the priority of the event to another need not be emphasized.

1. We *arrived* at the air-port long after he *did*.
2. I *lived* in Kunming before I came to Chengtu.
3. The fault *weighed* so heavily on his mind that he went to apologize.

4. So many people *came* to town that there was not a sufficient number of hotels to accommodate them.
5. He *made* sure that there was nobody on the road before he left the cave.
6. Before he was a genius, he *was* a drudge.

33.5—Of the following two sentences, the second one is more descriptive.

1. As soon as he *had jumped* ashore, he dashed for the bush.
2. As soon as he *jumped* ashore, he dashed for the bush.

33.6—But when a narrative has to be suspended for the introduction of some preceding events, then the past perfect is indispensable.

1. He was hard up. He *had written* to his friends for help, and some of them *had sent* him remittances, but he *had not received* their money yet. So he went to the dean to ask for permission to postpone his payment of tuition for a few days.
2. On that day they were married. They *had been* intimate friends for years and *had always* helped each other. But her mother *did not appear* in the simple ceremony because she was opposed to the marriage.

33.7—Read the following and note the verb phrases in italics.

1. I *was* certain that the man who *was smoking* was the one I *had met* with in the train and that he

*was only pretending not to know me.*

2. When the day *was closing* and he *had not made* his appearance, everybody *was anxious* if he *had been trapped*.
3. I found he *was reading* the letter he *had just received*.
4. I *went* at once to a shop where they *sold* toys for children, and being charmed with the sound of a whistle that I *had seen* by the way, in the hands of another boy, I *voluntarily offered* and *gave* all my money for one. . . . My brothers and sisters and cousins, when I *told* of the bargain I *had made*, said I *had given* four times as much as the whistle *was* worth.  
(Franklin)

**33.8**—The past perfect form of verbs of intention, hope, etc., means that something did not occur as was expected, intended, or arranged.

1. I *had intended* to speak about the shorter investment of Sebastopol too, but time did not permit.
2. I *had thought* the room to be furnished but found it empty.
3. We *had meant* to call on you too, but the whistle warned us that time was up.

**33.9**—Substitute a point of future time for the point of past time, and we have the future perfect.

1. The rain *will have stopped* by the time I leave.
2. By nine o'clock tonight, they *will all have finished* their compositions.

3. I *shall have lived* here for fully three years at the end of the next month.
4. If you don't hurry, the train *will have left* before you arrive at the station.
5. I *shall have been* there three times today if I go once more.

33.10 The future perfect is sometimes used to express an inference (with a *will*) or intention of the speaker (with *shall*).

1. He *will have reached* home now.
2. Mother *will have received* my letter now.
3. What is the use to stop him. He *will have* already sold the house.
4. Let's work *the harder*; let's resolve that he *shall not have died* in vain.

The *will* in the foregoing sentences is a little stronger than *should* and *ought to* and not so emphatic as *must*. Compare 1; 2; 3 above with the examples given under 24.5.

33.11 The future perfect gives place to the present perfect in an adverbial clause of time or condition if the principal verb is future in meaning.

1. You shall not go out until I *have come back*.
2. She may do anything she wants after she *has finished* her work.
3. Don't criticize until you *have examined* it in its entirety.
4. He has promised to come as soon as he *has wound*

up his affairs there.

### Exercise XV

Fill in the blanks, inserting future signs wherever necessary.

1. A. I am going to talk over the matter with him. I — (try) to persuade him to co-operate with us. I — (think) he — (give) his consent. B. — (be) sure to come back after you — (have) the talk. A. Certainly. I — (come) again at four. B. But you — (have) to come before that time. At four I — (go) out.

2. A. — (cheer) him up; — (give) him every kind of help. He — (do) a great service to society if he — (succeed). B. I always — (help) him, but I still — (entertain) doubt as to the final outcome. He — (be) not very perseverent and the work — (be) very difficult. I — (be) afraid he — (become) discouraged before he thoroughly — (try) it.

3. A. You — (see) Mr. Liu this morning? (Time of speaking is afternoon.) B. I — (expect) to find him in, but he — (leave) for Chungking. A. I not — (expect) him to leave so early. B. What we — (do) then? A. — (send) him an express letter through T. C. by air-mail. A plane — (be) scheduled to leave for Chungking tomorrow morning. The letter — (reach) T. C. before Mr. Liu — (arrive) there.

4. The manager was waiting impatiently for his return. He — (be) away for more than a week, a period of time much more than what — (be) needed to complete his errand. He — (instruct) with all details about the transaction, which — (be) nothing difficult for a clever and conscientious clerk as he — (be). But he not — (return). The manager — (begin) to wonder how his affairs — (turn) out or what — (become) of him.

33.12—The past perfect progressive is used to express the continuation of some past event which either was still going on (Use I) or had just ceased to occur (Use II) at a certain point of past time.

The past perfect progressive of Use I takes the place of the past perfect of Use II when the continuation of the event is to be emphasized.

Use I:

1. It went on raining. It *had been raining* for a week or so.
2. He *had been living* there with contentment until one afternoon when he came back from office, he found that his drawers and shelves had been tampered with.

Use II:

3. They *had been going* up the long street, and now they turned to the right.
4. The explosion broke upon the silence in which we *had been admiring* the sunset.

Exercise XVI

Fill in the blanks (the following paragraphs are all narratives of past events).

1. At last we — (receive) orders for a halt. We — (march) for two whole days, scorched by the sun and blinded by dust. The weaker ones among us almost — (be) exhausted.
2. He — (obtain) a leave of absence of illness for three

days. When he—(come) back, however, he—(confide) to his close friends that he only—(pretend) to be ill.

3. A fire—(break) out at mid-night. Everybody—(arouse) from sleep. He—(awake) too. He—(curse) the fire, not so much for the devastation it—(inflict) on the poor people as for his own irreparable loss; for it maliciously—(break) the sweet dream he—(dream).

4. It—(be) a cool autumn night, about half past nine. He—(lie) on a sofa; his head—(lean) backward; his eyes—(be) closed; his right hand—(hold) a letter and—(rest) on his thigh. A clock, which—(be) hung against the wall opposite to the sofa—(keep) on ticking monotonously. Gradually he—(open) his eyes, slowly—(rise),—(yawn),—(take) a look of the clock, and—(murmur), “It—(be) nine-thirty now; why he not—(come)?”

He—(be) tired of waiting; he—(approach) the window,—(open) it, and—(look) out. The rain—(stop). All—(be) dark and quiet without; only the barking of dogs in some far away villages—(can hear). After he—(listen) for a while, he—(close) the window again. With dropped eyes he—(begin) to walk up and down the room. Now he—(look) at the letter; now he—(cast) a glance at the clock. Suddenly he—(stop) walking; somebody—(knock) at the gate. Then footsteps—(come) up the staircase, and after a moment the door—(open). There—(stand) before him a tall, stout fellow. He—(be) surprised; for the man he—(see)—(be) not the one he—(wait) for.

5. It—(rain) incessantly for several days. Most of the peach flowers, which fully—(bloom) a few days ago,—(be) gone. How much she—(hate) this rain! For it—(shatter) the hopes she—(cherish). For several years peach blossoms—(be) not so beautiful. She—(calculate) a merry

spring vacation, and so — (devise) a three day's programme of enjoyment: of picnics, of drives, of a visit to the hot spring. But that cursed rain! To her nothing — (can be) so unjust, so cruel. Whether there — (be) tears in her eyes — (be) a matter of speculation; but when supper — (be) ready her maid — (find) that she — (lie) prone on bed, and that her shoulders — (keep) on shuddering as if in convulsion.

6. <sup>43</sup> When night — (come) on, he — (sit) alone on the threshold. He — (think) of the roving life he — (lead). Indeed, for more than twenty years, he — (stroll), strolling into far away countries, into strange lands. Such a life — (make) him what he — (be). He — (have) innumerable adventures, which — (teach) him much and — (toughen) him. They — (tax) his resources, — (try) his wisdom, and — (strengthen) his perseverance and endurance. In those adventures, he — (meet) countless people, clever and dull, rich and poor. He — (make) both fast friends and irreconcilable foes. He — (fight) with his fist, with his pistol, as well as with his unremitting mental power. He — (get) used to such a life and — (enjoy) it. He — (mean) not to come back; he simply — (happen) to be home again. But as soon as he — (learn) what the situation — (be) in his native country, he — (decide) to remain.

7. He then — (live) a life of seclusion. For many years he — (look) for <sup>an</sup> ideal girl. But he not — (make) any girl friend; for he <sup>de</sup> (think) it below his dignity to stoop to commonplace love-making with commonplace women. He — (care) for the ideal only. He repeatedly — (tell) by his friends that he not — (know) how to treat girls, but every time — (answer) with a smile of self-confidence. He — (have) a theory of ideal love and ideal life of his own, which he nevertheless — (take) no trouble to apply to practical situations. In fact, he — (be) so much absorbed in this theory of his that he — (lose) sight

of the realities around him; and as the years—(roll) on, he—(become) more and more indifferent to the actual world, which, he—(feel),—(have) to be destroyed in order to make room for his ideal one. As a result, a peculiar turn of mind—(create) within him. He—(grow) aloof from society, the everyday intercourse among men that—(contribute) a great deal to our personalities. Moreover, his reservedness and excessive self-esteem—(develop) to such an extent that the passions for his unrealizable ideal—(pass), imperceptible to himself, into a sort of self-love. He—(retire) entirely into himself. Now, he—(be) nervous, easily irritable, and perpetually—(yearn) for something which even he himself not—(can specify).

33.13—The future perfect progressive is rarely used because there are very few occasions to demand it.

Use I:

1. By the end of the next month, I *shall have been studying* English for fully seven years.
2. You *will have been working* here four weeks day after tomorrow.

Use II:

3. I *shall have been taking* a walk when you come back.
4. At four o'clock tomorrow afternoon, he *will have been reading*.

The future perfect progressive of Use I is very often replaced by the future perfect, because there is generally no need to emphasize the continuation of the event. Use II

is exceedingly rare because it is almost impossible to foresee future events so exactly as the verb form signifies. Indeed, a person may have written books without having a single recourse to the future perfect progressive. It will do if you know it. Do not trouble yourself with it more than is necessary.

### 34. The Signs of the Past Future

34.1—What is the past future? Let us discuss it in some roundabout way. Take for example the following sentence.

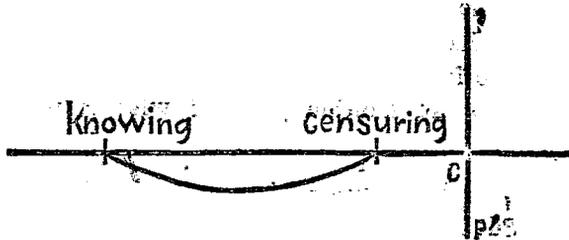
I knew he was censured.

Here we have two verbs in the past indefinite; the speaker does no more than stating that two simple past events occurred. But the sentence shows beyond doubt that the event of knowing took place after the event of censuring. Then it naturally follows that, if the order of the events is reversed, some device must be found to state it clearly. It is quite possible that I knew the event of censuring beforehand, that is, I predicted it before it actually occurred. In that case I say.

I knew he would be censured.

*Would be censured* is a past future indefinite form. The past future indefinite form is used to emphasize the subsequence of some event (censuring) to some other event (knowing). Below is given the graphical representation of *would be censured* and *knew*.

Fig. II



34.2—Study the past future indefinite in the following sentences.

1. I told him that I *would help* him.
2. It was reported that there *would be* a storm last night.
3. I *knew* that I *should* soon *need* often to go on foot, therefore I determined to buy a pair of durable shoes.
4. The doctor *had said* many times that his condition was critical and that no callers *should be received*.
5. I thought it *would rain*.
6. Everybody believed that he *was not to live* much longer.
7. It seemed that the clouds *were about to disperse*.
8. Nobody doubted that he himself *was to suffer* the consequences.
9. He was sorry that his dear friend *was going to part* from him.
10. Nobody had ever thought that he *was going to join* the army.
11. All were happy to know that he *was returning*.

12. Nobody knew when he *would* come.
13. He let nobody know why he *was going to dig* a hole in the ground.
14. I forgot to tell you that he *wasn't coming*.

34.3—The following points ought to be noted.

A. The past forms of all the signs of the future are the signs of the past future.

B. *Should* and *would*, used as past future signs, follow the same rules as govern the use of *shall* and *will* as future signs.

C. Other past forms than the past indefinite are also used to indicate the point of past time to which the event expressed by the past future is subsequent (as in sentence 4 and 10).

D. Study sentence 4 and try to see the difference between the past indefinite *was* and the past future indefinite *should be received*.

34.4—*Should* and *would* may not be used to express such past future events as imply the meaning of necessity, definite arrangement, etc. In such cases only the sign of *verb to be infinitive* is appropriate. (Consult 31.9.) Compare the different signs of the past future in the following examples.

1. According to schedule the train *was to arrive* before mid-night, but as it used to be behind schedule, we were not at all certain whether it *would*.
2. They could not get the paper started for lack of fund. But *was it to be* a failure after all? He said that it *should* not.
3. He had no idea that they *would refuse* to pay for

his-travelling expenses because by previous arrangement they *were to pay* for them.

4. I thought we *should be* able to arrive before sunset at the town where we *were to join* the second detachment.

24.5—As the auxiliaries other than *shall* and *will* are sometimes future in meaning (31.6), so their past forms are sometimes past future. In the examples given under 24.1, *might throw* is future to *said*; *might accept*, to *thought*; *must* (or *had to*), *quit*, to *knew*; *should* (or *ought to* or *had to*) *continue*, to *doubted*.

24.6—The past future tense has the same four forms as the other tenses. To realize how they are used, the best way is to place them side by side with the future forms.

- 1a. The poor peddler *will be shot* on a false charge of treason.  
 b. He was told that the poor peddler *would be shot* on a false charge of treason.
- 2a. He *is going to resign*.  
 b. Few people *knew* that he *was going to resign*.
- 3a. It *will be raining* when he comes back.  
 b. I predicted that it *would be raining* when he *came back*.
- 4a. We *shall have used* up all our ammunitions before the re-enforcement *comes* to our rescue.  
 b. Everyone of us *was afraid* that we *should have used* up all our ammunitions before the re-enforcement *came* to our rescue.

- 5a. By the time this semester ends, he *will have been teaching* here fully five years.
- b. It suddenly occurred to him that by the time that semester *ended*, he *would have been teaching* there for fully five years.
- 6a. This is the village where we *are to pass* the night.
- d. Three hours later we arrived at the village where we *were to pass* the night.
- 7a. The soldiers are waiting impatiently for the time when they *will be fighting* the enemy.
- b. The soldiers were waiting impatiently for the time when they *would be fighting* the enemy.
- 8a. The day is drawing near when they *will have completed* their investigation.
- b. The day was drawing near when they *would have completed* their investigation.

You can gather from these sentences that the past future-forms are formed simply by replacing the future signs by the corresponding past future signs. As these forms are used only in the noun clause (sentences 1--5) and the adjective-clause (sentences 6--8) and only when the principal verb is past, their manipulation is but one of mechanical substitution of one group of signs by another. As a matter of fact, the past future rather consists of signs than makes up a tense.

Give attention to this fact: *Comes* in sentences 3a and 4a, and *ends* in sentence 5a are present in form but future in meaning. Consequently, *came* in 3b and 4b and *ended* in 5b are past in form but past future in substance.

### Exercise XVII

Supply proper forms of the verbs enclosed in parentheses.

and insert proper auxiliaries into the blanks (all paragraphs are narratives of past events).

1. I (do) it; I — not help doing it. I fully (understand) that I — get into trouble if I (do) it. But I (decide) that I should try (see infra 45.8) my best to show them that there (be) such things as the right and the wrong.

2. We not (go). We (be) afraid that we — get caught in the rain which (come) on. We think that they — come to us, since they (have) umbrellas. But they not (come).

3. They (think) that he — accept their money and — release the goods. Certainly they (be) mistaken. He (be) not such a man as — (be) bought by bribes. He (refus) the offer and (report) the matter to his chief.

4. He (be) conscientious in his work. He (do) it pretty well. Of course he not (know) much then, but he (have) the right spirit of learning every detail and (pay) much attention to the question of method. Indeed, great things (expect) for the future when he — (become) more experienced.

5. He (see) what (go) to happen and what the consequences — be. That (be) why he not — stand aside and simply (look) on. Indeed, he (understand) that he — (oppose) by many people and that he — (compel) to conduct a hard fight. But he well (know) too that he not — (fight) alone and that the whole matter — be worth a fight. So he (act).

6. Everyday he would sit (see infra 34.8) himself down at the foot of the tree where he (find) the dead rabbit. There he (wait) for other rabbits that — come and (knock) themselves against the trunk of the tree. He (think) he — sell them and (become) rich without doing any work. But no more rabbits (come).

He (want) a man that — be able to do the work well,

that—work hard, and that—abide by his often impracticable orders without a grudge. He (look) for such a person for years. Now he (discover) that there (be) not a single person who—fulfill all these conditions.

8. He (be) about to leave.

He (be) with us for about a year. He (be) learned and experienced, and (lead) us through difficulties of every kind. He (teach) us to be wise, not by abstract talks but by his own example: his ways of life, his attitude towards work, his method of conducting business. We (come) to follow his example, and always (hold) him in respect and esteem.

When we first (inform) that he—part from us, the news (fall) upon our ears like a thunder. Everyone of us (be) stupefied. We (go) to see him and (explain) to him how much good he (do) us and how much we—need him in the days to come. We (do) this in the hope that he—change his mind and (stay) with us. But all such efforts (be) in vain. He (tell) us in a low and grave tone that he (be) not willing to leave us but that he (have) to go by force of circumstances.

He (say) that he—(leave) on the morrow.

34.7—Just as *will* is used to express a present habit (31.17), so *would* is used to express a past habit. *Would* is different from *used to* (21.3) in that the former generally implies a past future meaning.

- 1a. He *used to visit* us in summer.
- b. Whenever summer came, he *would visit* us.
- 2a. He *used to blame* others and excuse himself.
- b. Whenever things went wrong, he *would blame* all but himself; for he thought that was the way for a leader to keep his followers obedient

- 3a. He *used* to *keep* his promises.  
 b. Once he had given his promises, he *would* never go back upon them.

34.8—*Would* (either as a finite verb or as an auxiliary) is sometimes used idiomatically to mean a wish. Thus used, it is present or past and not past future.

1. I *would* that he were here.
2. As luck *would* have it, the letter was miscarried.
3. I *would* that my tongue could utter the thoughts that arise in me. (Tennyson)
4. He that *would* search for pearls must dive below. (Dryden)
5. Who is here so base that *would* be a bound man? (Shakespeare: *Julius Caesar*)
6. "Speak not of that," said Rebecca blushing deeply: "I see how easy it is for the tongue to betray what the heart *would* gladly conceal." (Scott: *Ivanhoe*)
7. Thus, there are many men who are reputed to be hard, severe; stern, but who at heart are full of all kindness, and *would* go farther and face harder to serve a friend or to relieve a real case of trouble than anybody else around them. (Henry Ward Beecher)

Note: *Were* in 1 and *could utter* in 3 are subjunctive verb phrases, which will be fully discussed in 42.2.

## CHAPTER IV

### THOUGHT IN CONTRAST TO FACT

#### 41. Form *versus* Substance

41.1—In the sentence;

I decided that I would not let him go until he *had finished* his work.

the form of *had finished* is past perfect but its meaning is past future perfect. It is different from the same phrase in the following sentence.

He went out after he *had finished* his work.

Here *had finished* is past perfect in both form and substance.

41.2—To acquire complete skill in handling the subjunctive mood, which is the subject matter of this chapter, the first thing to do is to distinguish form from substance. Take for example this sentence:

If I *were* you, I *would* do it. 我要是你的話,我就去做。

Here *were* is past in form but present in meaning; *would* do is past future in form but future in substance.

Always keep this question of form *versus* substance in mind as you proceed; it will have much effect towards mastering the subjunctive mood.

41.3--What is the subjunctive mood? To answer this question, some theoretical explanations are necessary.

With the only exception of 16.1--16.5, we have been, in the last three chapters, studying how to express fact or belief, be they present, past, or future.

- Fact: 1. He has gone.  
 2. I found that they had been quarrelling.  
 3. Does he do his work well?  
 4. He was reading the whole day.
- Belief: 1. They will certainly get the prize.  
 2. This is a gross mistake.  
 3. Nobody was sure whether he would speak.  
 4. How can I do that?  
 5. He ought to have understood that.

Verbs expressing fact or belief are said to be of the indicative mood.

41.4--The subjunctive mood, on the other hand, expresses thought in contrast to fact.

- Thought: If I *were* you, I *would* do it.  
 Fact: I *am* not you, so I *will* not do it.

Thought in contrast to fact is of different kinds. Consequently, it is expressed in various ways. Such thought and its different ways of expression are to be dealt with in order in the following sections.

#### 42. Supposition Contrary to Fact

42.1--The thought I am going to discuss with you first

is supposition contrary to fact. In the example given in the last section,

If I were you, I would do it,

*were* expresses such a supposition. It is used because I am not you, and so is said to be in the subjunctive mood. *Would do* is also subjunctive, but its use needs a little more explanation.

*If I were you* is called a condition, and *I would do it*, its consequence. Whenever a condition is contrary to fact, the usage of the English language demands that the verb in the clause of consequence be also put in the subjunctive mood. *Would do* is dependent on *were*; it cannot stand by itself.

42.2—The use of *were* and *would do* follow certain rules concerning form and substance. The rules can best be shown by a table as follows:

Substance	Form
1) Supposition contrary to present fact	1) Past
2) Supposition contrary to past fact	2) Past perfect
In principal clause of consequence	
3) Supposed present event	3) } Past future
4) Supposed future event	
5) Supposed past event	5) Past future perfect

42.3—This table is not intended for memory work; whoever has studied this book so far ought to have become wise enough not to memorize it, indeed it is of value only if you treat it, not as dead rules, but as a help to the understanding of the following examples:

1. Oh, that he *were* alive! (He is dead.)
2. I wish I *had* a good teacher. (I have none. *Wish* is indicative.)
3. I would I *could* fly. (I cannot fly.)
4. If I *did* not *admit* who I am, You *would* surmise it. (Now I admit who I am, and so you do not need to surmise.)
5. If I *could* go, why *should* I not? (I cannot go, and so there is no possibility that I shall.)
6. If that *were* possible, he *would* not remain here. (That is not possible, and that is why he remains.)
7. If the wind *were* howling, why *should* we not hear it? (The wind is not howling; otherwise we shall hear it.)
8. Supposing that he *were* here, what *would* you do? (He is not here, and so you will not do anything.)
9. Oh, that I *had* known this earlier. (I knew this too late.)
10. If I *had* not met you, I *might* have been killed. (I did meet you and that is why I was not killed.)
11. If he *had* been more careful, such things *could* not have come to pass. (He was not more careful than he was; therefore such things have come to pass.)
12. I *would* not have said it when she was there, if I *had* thought that it would shock her. (I said it

when she was there because I did not think that it would shock her. (*Was* and *would shock* are indicative.)

13. *We could have won* if he had stood by us. (He did not stand by us, and so we did not win.):

42.4—Some points are to be marked:

A. Sentences 1, 2, 3, 9, express wish, while the rest express condition and its consequence.

B. Sentence 1 may be rendered into Chinese thus: 呵, 他要是還活着就好了。 It is exclamatory and more emphatic than sentences 2 and 3.

C. Conditional clauses are often introduced by *if*, *supposing (that)*, *in case (that)*, *provided (that)*, *unless*, etc.

D. *Were* howling in sentence 7, follows rule 1 in the preceding table.

E. *Could have come* in sentence 11 follows rule 5.

F. Read carefully sentences 2, 3, and 12 and mark the indicative verbs in them, especially *would shock* in 12. Learn to distinguish the past future indicative form from the past future subjunctive form.

G. If *should* in sentence 5 is replaced by *would*, what difference will that make? How about substitution of *should* for *would* in 6, 8, and 12, for *might* in 10, of *would* or *might* for *could* in 11 and 13?

H. For the use of *were* in 1, 6, and 8, refer to App. C. *Was* may be used in its place in connexion with first and third persons singular.

42.5—Point C claims our special attention.

On the one hand, *if*, *supposing that*, etc. are not sure signs of the subjunctive; much depends upon the meaning.

Note the use of such expressions in connexion with the indicative as follows.

1. If you have not done it, I will not blame you.
2. In case he is back, tell him to come tomorrow.
3. If they have not kept to their half of the bargain, why should we keep to ours? (*Should* is indicative, but see infra 46.9.)

42.6—On the other hand, it is not necessary to use *if* or other signs to express subjunctive conditions.

1. I might have been killed *without your timely help.*
2. Such things would not have come to pass *under more efficient leadership.*
3. *In failing to do honour to others* she would have debased herself. (She did honour to others.)
4. *Whoever had been there at that moment* would have seen a delightful sight. (Nobody was there.)
5. I would give my life's blood *to be sure of not offending you.* (I am afraid that I do offend you.)
6. *A true friend* would have acted differently. (He is not a true friend.)
7. He would have been here, *but he has business to attend to.*
8. He could have opened the door *by running a knife along the crack and sliding the catch up.*
9. Anybody *who had seen him there* might have taken him for a burglar.
10. He might have stayed at home and idled his days away, *but such was not his wish.*

42.7—Another kind of *supposition* contrary to fact is *concession*.

1. Even if he had not done it, the intention is already wicked. (He has done it.)
2. Even though he were working much harder, he would not succeed; for his method is incorrect.
3. I would not for the world forsake a friend like him. (For the world=even if the world were given me in exchange.)
4. They should not behave like that even if he were wrong.
5. He would not have done it under any circumstances. (Under any circumstances=even if circumstances had given him much inducement.)
6. He has no right to force upon her the man of his own choice even though he is her father. (He is her father.)

You can see from these sentences that *even if* or *even though* is not a necessary sign of concession and that it is not necessarily followed by verbs in the subjunctive mood.

42.6—With regard to the use of the subjunctive verb forms so far discussed, the figures given below may be of some help to you.

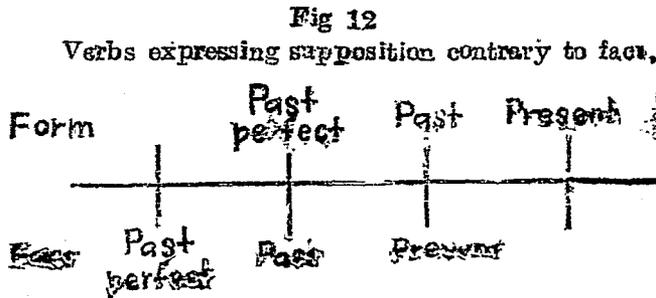
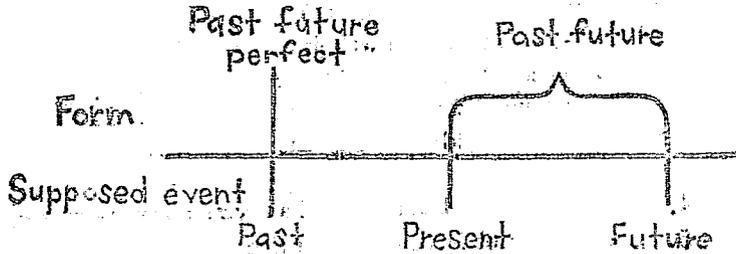


Fig. 13

## Verbs in Principal Clause of Consequences



"Work the figures out with your own head; any explanations of mine ought to be superfluous."

## Exercise XVIII

A. Translate into English:

1. A: 我們怎麼辦呢? 呵, 他要在這兒就好了! 假使他在這兒, 他就會領導(lead)我們。B: 他是不在這兒, 但這並不是說(mean), 他不在(in his absence), 我們大家(all)就完全(entirely)沒有辦法(helpless)了, 即令他在這兒, 我們是不是(should we)就(then)站着不動(stand idle), 聽他去做一切(all the)工作呢? 自然不是。是行動的時候(time to act)了; 讓我們行動吧! 我們會成功的, 只要(only if)我們肯(try)依賴我們自己。

2. A: 他會成功的; 他肯努力(work hard)。B: 我懷疑。A: 爲甚麼? B: 假使他的方法是正確的, 那他會成功。但是他並沒有(hasn't got)正確的方法。

3. A: 你做好了麼? B: 沒有, 我早(if)能够做, 我老早(long ago)就做, 但是我不能。A: 我知道你能够做, 困難(the trouble)是你不肯(won't)做。你要肯做, 你就能夠做。

4. A: 他一定(must)已經把一切都(all about it)告訴你了。B:

假使他告訴了我，我爲甚麼要到這兒來問你呢？我好幾天沒有看見他了。  
A. 我不知道你好幾天沒有看見他了。假使你看見了他，他就告訴你了。

B. Supply an *if* clause for sentences under 42.6 without altering its meaning.

C. Supply proper forms of verbs in parentheses.

1. She married the man who was rich instead of the man she loved. She (shall marry) the latter. She (will be) much happier; but she (have) not the courage to face me, and so smash the shackles of convention.

2. But for you, he (will say) it in the meeting last night; he (will create) a bad impression on all. Indeed, you (do) something not in his interest alone but in the interest of all of us. Our work here just (begin). If he (create) a bad impression on our colleagues, it (will impede) greatly the progress of our work.

3. I know he (be) a man of no political faith. I not (shall be) so positive in my assertion if I not (work) with him for years. And I not (will say) this if you not (come to ask) about him seriously.

4. You have not been there. If you (be) there, you (will think) differently. Now just take for granted what I (tell you). Under such circumstances, if you (be) in my place, what you (will do)?

5. He might have failed. But I (know) what kind of man he (be). Even if he (fail), he (will try) it again. (Past fact) And you have not behaved worthily as a friend of his. If you (stand) by him, he (will encounter) less difficulties. Oh, I wish (can go) to see what he (do) now, but I (have) too much to do here.

6. Your brother (be) very much like you. I (shall know)

him, even if you not (introduce) him to me. Rather, I (shall be) surprised if he (be) not your brother.

7. You (think) that the subjunctive mood (be) something rather difficult. I (expect) you to think so. But I (want) to tell you this: The subjunctive mood itself not (constitute) an insurmountable difficulty. Your trouble (be) rather that you not (master) the indicative verb forms. If you (master) the indicative verb forms, the subjunctive mood not (will be) so difficult to you. You not (should begin) the study of Chap. IV until you (acquire) a thorough knowledge of the preceding chapters.

8. A gentleman, with a portfolio under his arm, (hurry) for the platform from which his train (be) to leave. When he (make) way through a crowd, he (come) across a railway employe, whom he (stop) and (ask), "You (can tell) me whether I still (can catch) the 5:30 train?" "If y... y... you n... not s... s... (stop) and sp... sp... (speak) to me, you m... m... most probably w... w... (will be) able to catch it."

### 43. Supposition Contrary to Anticipation

43.1—There is supposition contrary to present and past fact, but no supposition contrary to future fact, since future events are those that have not yet become facts. But the future can be conjectured. When we are speaking of the future, a certain degree of anticipation is often involved.

Of the following sentences,

1. I have not the least idea whether he is coming.
2. I am not sure whether he will come.
3. He may come.
4. He will probably come.

5. I think he will come.
6. He is undoubtedly coming.

the first implies no anticipation, that is, the speaker does not predict at all. For the rest, however, the degree of belief of his coming increases with every next sentence; all of them express the anticipation of the occurrence of some future event.

43.2—Then, there is naturally supposition contrary to anticipation; and to express such thought, the subjunctive mood is used. Take for example this Chinese sentence:

假使她來的話我就告訴她。

There are more than one way of translating it into English. If the speaker has no idea whether she is coming or not, he uses indicative verbs. He may, however, believe that she is not coming. In that case, the supposition of her coming is contrary to his anticipation, and the verbs will be put in the subjunctive mood. Thus:

1. I am not sure whether she will come. But if she comes, I will tell her.
2. I don't think she will come. But if she should come, I would tell her.

In example 2, *should come* and *would tell her* are both subjunctive; the former expresses what is contrary to anticipation, while the latter expresses an event consequent on the former supposition. Here, just like what you have learned in connexion with supposition contrary to fact, the subjunctive in the clause of consequence is not independent, but contingent upon the subjunctive in the conditional clause.

433—The rule governing form and substance in connexion with supposition contrary to anticipation is simple enough: The substance in every case is future event and the form is always past future. Only three points need to be noted concerning the verb form in the clause of condition or concession. First, all persons take *should*; *would* is used only when the volition of the subject must be emphasized. Secondly, any of the past future signs may be used. Thirdly, the past indefinite may also be used to mean future.

For example:

1. If she 
 should come,  
 came,  
 were coming,  
 were to come,
  } I would tell her. (I believe she will not come.)
2. If she would come, she would have come. (I believe she is not willing to come.)

Note 1. In the subjunctive mood, *verb to be* + infinitive loses its sense of certainty, immediacy, etc. *Were to come* is equivalent to *should come*.

2. Formerly the bare past verb forms were often used in the principal clause of consequence. For example: *Really it were a grave question* (Carlyle) / *If a man write little, he had need have a great memory* (Bacon) / *The notice which you have been pleased to take of my labours, had it been early, had been*

*kind (Johnson).*

43.4—Read the following and note the explanations enclosed in parentheses.

1. If I *should* see him, I *would* ask him to come. (I think I shall not see him.)
2. If she *knew* this, she *would* be unable to restrain herself. (she is not likely to know this.)
3. Provided that troops *were despatched* not later than tomorrow morning, the situation *could* be saved. (I think there are no spare troops to be sent.)
4. Even if I *were* to sell all my clothes, the money they *would fetch* *would* not be enough to pay for my board and lodging for two months. (I am not going to sell all my clothes.)
5. It *would* be unfortunate if he *should* regard us as enemies rather than as friends.
6. If you *were* going to help me, I *should* be thankful.
7. If he *should* go there, he *would* be utterly disappointed.
8. You *would* certainly do good work if you *would* learn the correct method of approach.
9. Unless he *took* my advise to heart, he *would* get into trouble.
10. If he *might* go, he *would* see his mother.
11. If he *would* only work hard, I *should* be satisfied.
12. If I *might* advise you, I *should* say this: Stick to your present job and learn with whole heart.
13. If I *could* persuade him, why *would* I not try it?
14. If he *were* to start tomorrow, he *would* arrive at

the same time as I.

15. I wish it *would* snow heavily.
16. I wish he *would* spare you this time.

43.5—Study the use of *would learn*, *might go*, *would work*, *might advise*, and *could persuade* in sentences 8, 10, 11, 12, and 13. Substitute *should* for everyone of them and note the change of meaning. If *could* in 13 is replaced by *should*, do you have to rewrite the principal clause in order to give the sentence some sense?

*Might advise* in 12 is a courteous form (see infra 44.3).

In sentences 6, 8, 9, and 12, wish is implied besides thought contrary to anticipation.

Sentences 15 and 16 express wish contrary to anticipation.

43.6—Supposition contrary to anticipation is frequently stated without resorting to conditional clauses.

1. The situation could be saved by *immediate action*.
2. It would be a mistake to *think them corrupt on such flimsy grounds*.
3. They would turn out experts by *proper training*.
4. It would be wiser of us to *go a little more round about*.
5. I feel that just a word of yours, *which should attempt to clear up the misunderstanding*, would be the most effective means to put a stop to the confusion.
6. He would certainly fail *without your help*.
7. I would not tolerate such like offense *a second time*.
8. He would even do it *alone*.
9. *Read more* and you would be convinced that you

know very little.

10. *Go to the country, go to the villages, go to the peasants, and you would reach the center of China's problems.*
11. *He only pretends to be learned; all his theories could not stand the least scrutiny.*
12. *What would a victory of the fascist states mean to civilization!*

### Exercise XIX

A. Rewrite the sentences under 43.6 in such a way that each of them contain a clause of condition or of concession but still mean the same thing as the original.

B. Translate into English:

1. 大概他再不敢那麼幹(do)了。但是,假使他敢的話,我就要給他一個更大的教訓(lesson)。

2. 不要失望 (be disappointed) 假使沒有失敗這種事情 (such things as), 還有能稱為成功的事情嗎? 你沒有再去做 (try) 的勇氣 (courage) 嗎。假使你隔隔一次又一次地 (again and again) 去做的話, 我相信 (sooner or later) 會成功的。

3. A. 假使我們不探險, 我們要受罰了 (Use passive voice.) B. 不相信 (think so); 我相信 (believe in) 他忠實 (his integrity). A. 你知道他是一個甚麼樣的人。假使你知道他多一點 (better) 的話, 你就不會然 (so) 了。平常 (usually) 他是溫和而可親的 (amiable); 但是, 只 (once) 他度私利 (private interest) 一受到危險 (in stake), 他就變 (ready) 捨棄他底朋友們。你還是提防一點 (be on guard) 子。 (= It . . . better for you to . . . ) B. 你也許是對, 但是, 我要是 (if) 不信任他, 我信任誰呢? A. 假使他是值得 (be worthy of) 信任的話, 我絕不會說甚麼話 (anything) 了。但是, 他不值得, 知道他能幹。但是, 只要 (if) 你肯去幹, 你就可以得到至少 (at least)

像他一樣能幹(as capable as he)的人(somebody), 卽令(even if)亦找不到這樣一個合式的(suitable)人, 也不見得(it does not follow that)你就非信任一個不值得(deserve or be worthy of)信任的人不可。(非...不可=be compelled to)

C. Supply proper forms of verbs in parentheses, adding auxiliaries when necessary.

1. Although he denies that he accepted the money offered, yet the secret is leaking out. Unless he (return) the money, his honour (be) at stake. This (be) of course too much to expect of him. If he (value) his reputation more than money, he not (accept) it.

2. I (go) away for a few days. I (be) very much obliged if you kindly (take) care of little Jessie in my absence.

3. A. This (be) a very good chance, why you not (take) it? B. I easily (take) it if I (will). Such like chances often (come) to me. If I (want), I (take) many. To me, they (be) no chances at all. If I (accept) the present offer, I (be) a man of no principles.

4. I (be) quite willing to lend you this book if I not (want) to use it tomorrow. A friend of mine (have) a copy of it. He may not (use) it now. If I (borrow) it from him, you (have) mine, and I (have) it sent to you to-night.

5. A. I (be) engaged; I (have) to attend a meeting to-night. Otherwise I (be) glad to go to him with you. B. You (have) too many meetings. You like them; you (enjoy) your own empty talks. Oh, if you (attend) less meetings in the future and (use) your brain for more practical purposes, you (do) more good, at least to yourself.

43.7— Sometimes, when the verb in the conditional clause (or clause of concession) is past in form, it is almost im-

possible to tell whether the supposition is contrary to present fact or contrary to anticipation. Take sentences 2, 9 under 43.4 and 6 under 42.3. Note the two possible explanations enclosed in parentheses:

- 43.4, 2. If she knew this, she would be unable to restrain herself.  
 (She does not know this. or)  
 (She will not know this. )
9. Unless he took my advice to heart, he would get into trouble.  
 (He does not take my advice to heart. or)  
 (He will not take my advice to heart. )
- 42.3, 6. If that were possible, he would not remain here.  
 (That is not possible. or)  
 (That will not be possible.)

Whether such a verb is present or future in meaning depends upon the context.

43.3—Compare further each of the following sentences with that indicated in the parentheses following.

1. It would be a mistake if you (should think) them corrupt on such flimsy grounds. (43.5, 2)  
 (thought )
2. He would certainly fail if you (did not help) him.  
 (were not to help)
3. He would do it even if he (were) alone. (43.5.3)  
 (were to be)



3. Oh, if I could only see him once more!
4. Suppose we should never see him again.
5. Supposing, after all, that his ears should fail him (he was blind). Supposing they were capable of being tricked, without his being able to know it. Supposing that that *cachorra* (a man's name) should come and go, and he, Boaz, living in some vast delusion, some unrealized distortion of memory, should let him (*cachorra*) pass unknown. Supposing precisely this thing had already happened. (Wilbur Daniel Steele)
6. What if he should not consent to it (=what should we do if he, etc.)?
7. What if the earth should collide with a comet (= what would happen if the earth, etc.)?
8. What if I should inform against you (=what should you do if I should, etc.)?

**44.3**—The conditional clause is often omitted when its meaning is clear to the reader or the person spoken to.

1. Who would have thought of running across you here (unless he could predict)?
2. How could you have done it (if you had any sense of honour at all, or if you were not wicked, etc.)?
3. What would you advise me to do (if I might ask you)?
4. You might as well give the whole thing up (if you so wished).
5. It seems strange that I could have looked upon such atrocities with indifference (unless I had gone mad).
6. You might at least knock at the door (if you had

- good manners).
7. His silence could only have meant his opposition to the plan (if I guessed right).
  8. Would you come to-morrow (if it were not too much trouble for you)?
  9. You would have liked the play (if you had seen it).
  10. He would not do it (if he were in your place, or even if you should promise him a big sum of money).
  11. In this sculpture he has done a piece of work which the greatest sculptors would be proud of (if it were their own production).

44.4—Compare the preceding sentences with those under 42.6 and 43.6. Do you see that sometimes it is quite difficult to say whether the conditional clause is omitted or whether another clause or phrase takes its place? Note the two possible explanations attached to each of the sentences given below.

1. It would be a mistake to think them selfish simply on that account.
  - (a. To think = if we were to think.
  - (b. Conditional clause omitted: If I were right.)
2. I would never think of accepting the offer without consulting my father.
  - (a. Without consulting = unless I had consulted.)
  - (b. C. c. o.: Unless I were unscrupulous.)
3. It would be too sad to tell the whole story.
  - (a. To tell = if I were to tell.)
  - (b. C. c. o.: If I should do it.)
4. You should say what you mean; you would defeat your own purpose by equivocation.

- a. I y equivccation = if you should equivocate. }  
 b. C. c. o.: if I might say so. }
5. I should be very happy to have you to-morrow.  
 a. To have = if I could have. }  
 b. C. c. o.: If you were willing to come. }
6. He appears kind and sympathetic; but he would not part with a cent of his to save a man's life.  
 a. To save = even if it could save. }  
 b. C. c. o.: Even if that were possible. }

Either *a* or *b* is correct. Nothing is more unfortunate than argue for one explanation and against the other. These examples are given with a view to clearing up doubts which might have risen in your mind. Do not speculate about the explanations more than is necessary, or you would go astray. What you ought to do is only to understand them and then go on.

44.5—Learn the use of *could* and *might* in the subjunctive with the conditional clause understood by studying the following sentences, turning to 24.1 for comparison of their uses in the indicative (see also 24.2 and 24.5).

1. He *could have killed* his father, the traitor.
2. How *could you have said* such things to her!
3. Nothing *could be* better than that.
4. No act *could have been* more appropriate for the occasion.
5. I believe you *could write* good English.
6. It *might be* true.
7. He *might have been wounded*.
8. I am old and weak, and unable to earn a living!

One *might* take it for a punishment; I did not work hard when I was young.

9. He *might have been admitted* to membership.
10. You *might* as well *leave* him alone.

44.6—*Might* used to express an inference is weaker than *may*, because the former is subjunctive. "It may be true" means "It is likely to be true", but "It might be true" is a pure supposition depending upon other circumstances understood, which would be expressed by such conditional clauses as "if I guessed right", "if our information concerning the matter were dependable", etc. (see 24.5.)

44.7—*Might* does not always express inference. Mark the following pairs of sentences.

- 1a. He might have been wounded ( ; but I am not at all sure about it ).
- b. He might have been wounded (if he had not immediately thrown himself down on the ground ).
- 2a. He might have been admitted to membership now (if I guessed right ).
- b. He might have been admitted to membership (if his secret designs had not been timely brought to light .)
- 3a. You might as well leave him alone (if I might advise you .)
- b. You might as well leave him alone (if you only would .)

In sentences *a*, *might* expresses pure supposition and may be replaced by *may* to express a stronger belief. In sentences *b*, on the other hand, it expresses hypothetical possibilities, and substitution of *may* for it is out of the

question.

44.8—As the subjunctive mood expresses pure supposition, it savours of politeness when the speaker makes use of it to state his opinion or wish or to make a request. In such cases, the conditional clause is often omitted.

1. Have you any good novels that you *could* lend me (if I might make such a request)?
2. *Would* you *mind* dropping in some time next week (if I might ask your favor)?
3. I *should like* to take a look at your picture (if you should not object).
4. I *should like* very much to have both of you (if I might). *Would* you *mind* coming tonight (if it were not too much trouble for you)?
5. *Could* you *remove* that parcel a little that the lady might sit down?
6. *Could* you *explain* that to me?
7. What *would* you *advise* me to do?
8. We *should be* very much delighted to be able to offer you every convenience.
9. *Would* you *like* to know who the old man is? Oh, I *should*.
10. He *would like* very much to be excused. *Would* you excuse him?
11. They *would like* to be your pupils.
12. *Might* I take the book away?

44.9—*Will* you? is often impolite (see 31.14); *would* you? is polite because it expresses the consequence of a

supposition contrary to anticipation or fact. Similarly *might I?* is more polite than *may I?* *Can you?* is sometimes impolite (see 15.2), but *could you?* is always polite.

Pay attention to *should like* (and *should be delighted* and the like). "I like to take a look at your picture" amounts to a command because it does not take into account whether you will consent to it or not. "I should like to take a look at your picture" implies that I am afraid that you will not agree to what I am going to do. *I should like* is a polite expression very often used in conversation.

But *should like* is not always meant to be merely a polite form. Examples: *I should like to become learned in one day!* *I should like to be able to speak as good English as you do.*

#### Exercise XX

Supply proper forms of verbs indicated, inserting *should* *would* or *could* as is required.

1. A. I not(like) such novels. B. This one(be) different. It(be) well written. I(be) sure you(like) it. A. It(may be) well written so far as skill(=)concerned. Even then, it not(=)worth reading. I (know) the writer. How he(can write) anything that (have) any value at all?

2. A. Who did this? B. It(must be) V. C.; nobody else (can-do) it. A. Why you (think) so? B. Nobody else (be) here today. Otherwise, I not (think) so. A. But somebody (may be) here without your knowledge.

3. A. Nothing like that (can happen). B. Nothing like that (can happen). A. Nobody (can enter) the room without my noticing it.

4. A. You (can tell) me what it (be)? B. S. T. (get) the examination questions before it (take) place. Dean did

(find) it out. A. Then he (be) to be dismissed. F. He (may dismiss) already, (be) it not for his good record. He now (place) on probation. A. It (seem) to me rather incredible that a student like him (can do) that. B. At first I (be) surprised to hear of it too. I not (can believe) it. Later, I (learn) how the thing (happen). The other day, S. T. (happen) to see some mimeograph papers in the waste paper basket. They (be) the examination questions. (Be) he stronger, nothing (happen). But he (be) too weak to resist the temptation. He (take) them. A. Who ever (refuse) the wine of Circe? B. You (be) smart! I know you now (read) Odyssey. But how the name Circe (can occur) to you so readily? A. That (be) another story. I (mean) to say that, (be) I in his place, I not (be) strong enough to resist the temptation. Our school authorities (take) more care not to let such mimeograph pages go into the waste paper basket before the examination (be) over. I (say) that to be fair, the person who (have) custody of the examination questions (should subject) to severer punishment. B. I (think) you (be) right.

4. A. You (do) me a favor? B. What (be) it. A. As you (be) away for the summer vacation, I (like) to borrow your typewriter. You (can spare) it me? B. Certainly; even if I (remain) here, I (be) quite willing to lend it to you.

5. A. You (go) back? B. Yes. A. You (mind) explaining to Mr. Lee the general situation and asking him to come to dinner this evening? I (like) to hear of his opinion about the matter in hand. B. I (think) he (be) willing to come, but what if he not (be) at home? A. In that case (please) phone me.

6. A. I (be) rather disappointed. My son not (heed) my advices. B. I (say) it (be) your own fault rather than his. Not (persist) in your talks. You as well (leave) him alone. Indeed, (drive) him out with your abstract talks. he (love),

you better. I now (observe) he (try) to get away from you. To him, your talks (be) boring. If I (advise) you, I (say) that you ought to stop your talks, which (be) rather harmful to him, but to help him form good habits by other means,

7. At the close of the engagement, the Japanese in retreat (burn) their own wounded men. Some people then (believe) that they (cannot do) that. But that (be) a fact. Indeed, nothing (can be) more cruel and brutal.

8. Rich man: Why you not (respect) me? I (be) rich. Boy: What (have) your riches to do with me? R. M: Now suppose I (give) you thirty thousand. B: Absurd! You (think) I (care) for such trifles as thirty thousand? R. M: What if I (give) you fifty million, half of my fortune? B: In that case I (be) as rich as you (will); why I (respect) you any more than you (respect) me?

#### 45. Statement of Semblance, of Uncertainty, and of Wish

45.1—To describe the semblance of one thing to another, such verbs as *seem*, *appear*, etc. are often used, either followed or not followed by *to be*. (Consult 17.5)

1. He *seems* crazy.
2. The old man *appeared* to be drunk.

There is, however, another way of stating the same thing, though a little differently.

- 1a. He acts *as if* he were crazy.
- 2a. The old man walked *as though* he were drunk.

*Seems* and *appeared* in 1 and 2 are indicative because they express fact. The two *were*'s in sentences *a* are subjunctive because they do not express fact but supposed semblance.

Very often supposition contrary to fact is involved in such supposition of semblance, yet the latter means something more than the former. In sentence *1a*, *were* is used not only because he is not crazy but also because he seems crazy. And the English usage concerning form and substance of these two categories of thought are different. That is why statement of semblance is here treated separately.

45.2—The clause expressing supposition of semblance is introduced by *as if* or *as though*.

1. He spoke as if he *were* angry!
2. She sings as if she *had* a cold.
3. How could you reject your son as though he *were* a disgrace.
4. She felt as if she *should* suffocate.
5. He is in such a hurry to write his will as though he *should* die in a few days.
6. The girl was looking around on the ground as though she *were* seeking for something she had lost.
7. He addresses this assembly of teachers as if he *were* speaking to primary school pupils.
8. The director went out as though he *had* not seen us.
9. That man walks as if he *had* been wounded.
10. She spoke as though she *had* already known me.
11. You will try to appear as if you *had* been ill for a long time.
12. He talked as if he *would* not give his permission.

## 45.3—Some explanation:

A. As may be seen from these examples, the rules governing the use of the verb expressing supposition of semblance are these two: First, it is always past (or past future) subjunctive, whatever the tense of the principal verb. Secondly, the use of *should* and *would* follows the same rules as apply to supposition contrary to anticipation. Thus:

B. *Sings* in 2, *is* in 5, *address* in 7, and *walks* in 9 are of the actual present (see 12.11), *could reject* in 3 is present in meaning, and *will try* in 11 is future; but the verbs in the clauses of semblance are all past (or past future) subjunctive.

C. *Will* gives place to *should* in 4 and 5.

D. Compare 9 with the following.

- 9a. He is keeping in bed because he *has been wounded*.  
 b. He was keeping in bed because he *had been wounded*.

E. Compare the following sentences with 1, 2, 4, and 11 above.

- 1a. He spoke *as he would if* he were angry.  
 2a. She sings *as she would if* she had a cold.  
 4a. She felt *as she would if* she should suffocate.  
 11a. You will try to appear *as you would if* you had been ~~!!!~~ for a long time.

These sentences explain the rules laid down in A.

45.4—Supposition of semblance is expressed by the

subjunctive only when it is pure supposition. This is the reason why *as if* and *as though* are sometimes followed by indicative verbs. For example:

1. It seems as if he *will* not *live* much longer. (I believe he will not live much longer.)
2. It transpired as if the minister *was going to resign*.
3. It appeared as if the train *had* just *left* the station. (*Had left* may be regarded as either indicative or subjunctive. This is to be determined only by the context.)

In such cases, *as if* usually gives place to the conjunction *that*, either expressed or understood. Thus:

- 1a. It seems (that) he will not live much longer.
- 2a. It transpired (that) the minister was going to resign.
- 3a. It appeared (that) the train had just left.

I must hasten to add that sentences 1a, 2a, 3a, are a little more positive in their assertion than 1, 2, 3.

45.5 — Statement of uncertainty concerns the present or the future. Compare sentences a, b, and c in each of the following groups of sentences:

- a. If he is trustworthy, why don't you trust him?  
(He is trustworthy.)
- b. If he were trustworthy, he would not have lost his job. (He is not trustworthy.)
- c. If he *be* trustworthy, I shall think differently.  
(I do not know whether he is trustworthy.)

2. {
  - a. He will do it if that is possible.
  - b. I would have written to you if that were possible.
  - c. Write to him if that *be* possible.
  
3. {
  - a. If the child goes astray, who is going to find him?
  - b. If the child went astray, you would be held responsible.
  - c. If the child *go* astray, who is to blame?
  
4. {
  - a. If he has no money, he is learned.
  - b. If he had no money, how could he have come?
  - c. If he have no money I will lend him some.

Every future verb in a conditional clause implies a certain degree of uncertainty. *Is* in 2*a* and *goes* in 3*a* are such verbs. They are like, for example, the italicized verbs in the sentences under 31.11. But *be* in 2*c* and *go* in 3*c* express a higher degree of uncertainty than *is* and *goes*. Indeed, the difference in degree is so slight that the subjunctive verbs are not very often found in current English.

45.6—In connexion with statement of uncertainty, the principal verb in the clause of consequence may be either indicative or subjunctive.

1. If he be trustworthy, I {
 

{	shall	}
{	should	}

 think differently.
  
2. In case he have no money, I {
 

{	will	}
{	would	}

 lend him some.
  
3. If this be the case, I {
 

{	will	}
{	would	}

 go immediately.
  
4. If he know it, then you {
 

{	do	}
{	would	}

 not need to see him.

5. Provided he mean to do it well, everything  
 {will  
 would} be well.
6. If you don't take care, you {will  
 would} fall.
7. Suppose that he return you the money, what  
 {will  
 would} you do with it?

**45.7**--There are cases where both the indicative and the subjunctive forms of a verb expressing uncertainty are alike. In such cases we shall be unable to tell in which mood the verb is. Substitute *they* for *he* in sentence 4, **45.5**, then *has* becomes *have* in sentence *a*, and thus the conditional clause becomes the same as that in *c*.

**45.8**--In the *Merchant of Venice*, the Jew Shylock expresses his sense of injury against the Christians in these words:

If you *prick* us, do we not bleed? If you *tickle* us, do we not laugh? If you *poison* us, do we not die? And if you *wrong* us, shall we not revenge? If we *are* like you in the rest, we shall resemble you in that. If a Jew *wrong* a Christian, what is his humility? Revenge. If a Christian *wrong* a Jew, what should his sufferance be by Christian example? Why, revenge. (Act III, Sc. I)

Note the verbs in italics: *Prick*, *tickle*, *poison*, and *wrong* may be regarded as either indicative or subjunctive as you wish; *are* is certainly indicative; the two *wrong's* following are subjunctive, the indicative form being *wrongs*.

**45.9**--Statement of wish refers either to present or to

future events, but the verb form is always of the subjunctive present.

1. Long *live* the Chinese Republic!
2. Thy kingdom *come*.
3. Peace *be* with thee.
4. The devil *take* him.
5. Far *be* it from me to condemn the sounds of hammer, and saw, and anvil. (Sydney Lanier)

In connexion with future events, *may* is used.

6. *May* the devil *take* him.
7. *May* he *be* *pardoned*.
8. I wish that he *may* not *give* up hope.
9. I pray that the day of his downfall *may* *come* soon.

Note that in 6 and 7, *may* precedes the subject, while in 8 and 9, it follows the latter. Can you discover the rule governing such a difference?

45.10—There are wishes that are contrary to fact or anticipation. These have been discussed in 42.3 and 43.4; they do not come under the category in hand. Moreover, there are big differences between the two former categories on the one hand and the latter one on the other. Note the explanations enclosed in parentheses in the following.

- 1a. I wish I could fly. (I cannot fly.)
- b. I wish he may come back. (He may or may not come back; I have no idea about that.)
- 2a. Oh, that he had come earlier! (He came too late.)

- b. May he come back soon. (He may or may not come back.)
- 3a. I wish they would make up their quarrels. (They are most unlikely to make up.)
- b. I wish they may make up their quarrels. (I don't know whether they will; I simply wish them to do so.)

45.11—*Wish* is always followed by a subjunctive verb in the noun clause. When no pure wish is meant, *hope* replaces *wish*, and then the verb in the noun clause should be indicative.

1. I hope he will come back.
2. I hope they will make up their quarrels.
3. I hope you will succeed.

#### Exerci III

Supply proper verb forms with or without auxiliaries.

1. A. He will fail. B. Why you (think) so? A. He always (feel) as if he (be) unequal to the task before him. That's why he (become) more and more timid and unsteady. I wish he (succeed), but I (be) afraid he cannot.

2. The miser was then at death's door. He (gasp) for breath. He (talk) as if he (suffocate). Nobody (can follow) what he (say). He (mutter) as if he (pray), "God (save) my life!" These (believe) to be his last words: "If I (must die), I (take) my riches with me!"

3. The next evening I (see) her coming again. She (seem) scared. She (look back and then (slip) into the dark lane just opposite my window as though she (pursue).

4. A. How long they (know) each other? B. They just (meet). A. (Be) that so? They (talk) as though they (be) friends for years.

5. It (be) three years since I last (have) news of him. He (be) safe! I (wish) he (come) back again.

6. I (remember) the last visit he (pay) me as though it (be) yesterday. But now he (be) gone. He always (fare) well!

7. The peasant not (steal) the king's deer. But when he (bring) before the king, he (tremble) with fear as if he (be) guilty. On this ground, he (give) a thrashing and (put) into prison.

8. Just as hypotheses (be) the mother of laws in the evolution of the sciences, so in social evolution ideals (be) the mother of progress. But ideals should not be held as though it (be) something too precious to mingle with worldly realities. Indeed, social ideals should be questioned, investigated, tested, repeatedly tested, not as pure ideals, but as ideals that (can embody) in flesh and blood through contact with practical social conditions. Only fools (desist) from ideal speculations; but it is no part of wise men to wish that the millenium (come) in the twinkling of an eye. In short, a wish that (be) devoid of practicabilities always (be) an empty dream; an ideal that (stand) aloof from realities forever (remain) a hermit's illusion.

#### 46. Statement of Purpose and of Definite Opinion

46.1—The use of the subjunctive verb expressing purpose is easy to learn because the rules concerned are no more than a set of clearly defined formulas. Read the following.

1. I come to Chengtu *in order that* I may get in touch

- with them.
2. He left school *that* he *might* go to the front.
  3. He told the whole truth *so that* all misunderstanding *might* be cleared up.
  4. I shall write you often *so that* you *may* know what I shall be doing.
  5. He will come *in order that* he *may* have a talk with you.
  6. Book your seats now *lest* you *should* miss the chance.
  7. I shall see him first *lest* he *should* be unwilling to receive you.
  8. I hinted that I was at Tsinan at that time and knew what he was doing there *lest* he *should* take me for a dupe.
  9. *Lest* he *should* think that I had some selfish motive behind, I refused to put my name on it.

46.3—The rules concerned are the following.

- A. *May* or *might* is used when the clause of purpose is introduced by *that*, *so that*, or *in order that*.
- B. *May* is used when the principal verb is present or future; *might* is used when it is past.
- C. *Lest* is equivalent to (*so or in order*) *that...not*.
- D. *Should* follows *lest*, whatever the tense of the principal verb.

46.3—*Should* is sometimes omitted.

1. Take care *lest* you *fall*.
2. Lower your voice *lest* they *hear* us.

3. Let us walk on lest we *be suspected*.
4. I shall tell him once more lest he *forget*. (not *forgets*)

46.4—The notion of purpose may be expressed with an indicative verb introduced by *or*, *or else*, *otherwise*, etc.

1. Lend me this book (or I *shall have* nothing to read;  
(in order that I *may have* some-  
thing to read.
2. Come tomorrow (lest the meeting *be* a failure.  
(; otherwise the meeting *will be* a  
failure.
3. Lower your voice, or else they *will hear* us.
4. Let's walk on; or else we *shall be suspected*.
5. I shall tell him once more; otherwise he *will forget*.

46.5—Study the following sentences:

1. They were so tired that they *fell* into sound sleep immediately.
2. He always takes good care of himself so that he *has never been* ill.
3. The fact that a cable had been laid across the British Channel so that if *was* possible to telegraph from Dover to Calais was no proof that a current could be sent across the whole *breadth* of the Atlantic. (Cyrus Field).

Do you see here why *may* or *might* is not used? Do *fell*, *has been*, and *was* express fact or purpose? Compare the following sentences with the above.

- 1a. He rowed the whole afternoon so that he *might have* a sound sleep at night.

- 2a. Take good care of yourself lest you be taken ill again.
- 3a. They laid a cable across the British Channel so that it *might* be possible to telegraph from Dover to Calais.

46.6—When a definite opinion (as distinguished from a statement of fact) is asserted with the help of a noun clause, the subjunctive mood is used, the verb form being either present subjunctive or past future (with *should*, *could* or *might*, but not *would*). Such a definite opinion may be an order, a necessity, a preference, a fear, an explanation, a regret, a refutation, a logical conclusion, or what not.

1. The colonel gave orders that the prisoners of war (*should*) *be sent* to the headquarters.
2. The ordinance says that all courts of justice (*should*) *be reorganized*.
3. It is necessary that we (*should*) *fight on*.
4. I moved that the factory (*should*) *be built* at once.
5. It is important that the minutes (*should*) *be well kept*.
6. It seems only reasonable that they (*should*) *be given* first of all enough to eat and to wear.
7. I will gladly die than that he *should*.
8. She decided to let her son leave rather than that she (*should*) *spoil* him by keeping him to herself.
9. It is as much in your interests as it is in ours that this tract of land (*should*) *be cultivated*.
10. I regret that I *should have hurt* your feelings.
11. It is a great pity that he (*should*) *close* his eyes to realities.
12. There is no reason that they *should pick* a quarrel.

- with us.
13. It is but natural that she *should be respected* by all.
  14. It is no wonder that they *should have treated* you so well.
  15. It seems strange that I *could have looked* upon such atrocities with indifference.
  16. It seems incredible that he *could have escaped*.
  17. It surprised many that a man like him *could have been entrusted* with such an important affair.
  18. The little ones never go outside of their nest for fear that some stranger *might hurt* them.
  19. He is very careful in his wording for fear that he *might be misinterpreted*.

46.7—Be it understood that the subjunctive mood is used only when there is a statement of opinion and not an assertion of fact. Note the italicized words in the following.

1. It is common knowledge that he *has amassed* much wealth by fraud.
2. Who would have thought that it *would rain*?
3. Nobody knows who he *is*.
4. I do not care what they *are doing* now.
5. It is only too plain that he *is* the man responsible for the blunder.

Compare further these sentences with the following.

- 1a. It is not at all beyond my expectation that he *should have amassed* much wealth by fraud.
- 2a. He doesn't understand why it *should rain*.
- 3a. You must see to it that he *be* the captain.

- 4a. It is a part of our plan that they *should be doing* it now.
- 5a. We don't see why he *should be held* responsible for the blunder.

45.8—Compare the use of *should* in the following pairs sentences.

- 1a. Newton wondered why the apples *should fall* toward the ground and not some other way.
- b. Newton wondered. Why *should* the apples *fall to-*wards the ground and not some other way?
- 2a. It is not his will that I *should tell*.
- b. *Should* I *tell*? No, it's not his will.
- 3a. It seems necessary that he *should obey* his father.
- b. *Should* he *obey* his father? That is the question.
- 4a. We must see to it that his presence here *should be kept* a secret.
- b. We *should keep* his presence here a secret.
- 5a. There is no reason why this *should be* so.
- b. Why *should* this be so?

*Should* is used in the same way in a as in b. Call *should* b indicative or subjunctive as you like, only if you have learned how to use it.

45.9—A noun clause of definite opinion is often used (with the conjunction *that* retained) as a form of *ex-*planation.

1. Ah! That you *should* have suspected me too!
2. Oh! That he *should* never come back again,

3. Oh! God! That the child should lose her parents so early.

Compare these sentences with sentences 1 and 9 under 42.3 and try to discern the difference.

46.10—In the following two sentences,

1. A true friend would have acted differently.
2. A true friend should have acted differently.

*would* expresses what is consequent upon some supposition contrary to fact (see sentence 6, 42.6), and *should* expresses an independent definite opinion.

46.11—Up to this point we have learned all the subjunctive verb forms that can in some way be classified. It remains to take up two of the idioms that are very useful.

*Had rather, would rather, had better*—These phrases are past in form, but present or future in substance; they are generally followed by infinitives without *to*.

1. You had better go. 你還是去的好。
2. I would rather die free than live the life of a slave.  
我寧可自由而死不願活著做奴隸。
3. Had you rather work hard to earn a bare living than stay comfortably at home?
4. You had better keep your mouth shut. If I were you, I would rather try to help her out through her own trial and error than bore her with tedious repetitions of dogmas.

*Live* in 2, *stay* in 3, *bore* in 4, are infinitives without the sign *to*, which is omitted after the preposition *than*. (See infra 56.7.)

Study sentence 4; then try to supply an *if* clause for each of the other sentences.

*Had as lief as*, *had sooner*, and *would sooner* are used much in the same way, but they are not in very frequent use in current English.

46.12—A clause beginning with *whether*, *no matter what*, *no matter who*, etc. may be changed into one with a subjunctive verb introducing it.

1. All children arriving at the age of six, *be* they boys or girls, are required by law to attend school (Be they = whether they are.)
2. *Say* whatever he may, I am determined to do what I think right. (Say whatever he may = no matter what he may say.)
3. If it be the pleasure of heaven that my country shall require the poor offering of my life, the victim shall be ready at the appointed hour of sacrifice, *come* when that hour may. (Daniel Webster; come when that hour may = no matter when that hour may come.)
4. *Sink* or *swim*, *live* or *die*, *survive* or *perish*, I give my hand and heart to this vote. (Webster; sink or swim = whether I sink or swim.)
5. No man is well pleased to have his all neglected, *be* it ever so little. (Samual Johnson; be it ever so little = however little it may be.)

## Exercise XXII

Supply proper verb forms, inserting necessary auxiliaries:

1. A. She not (go) to resign. If she (will), why she (work) so hard now? B. You (have) better give up your abstract theories. She (tell) me that she (resign), but that she (work) hard till she (leave). There (be) no reason why she (neglect) her present duty although she (decide) to resign.

2. We (discuss) the matter long enough. It (seem) to me that the situation (be) not perfectly clear to every one of us. I (move) that the matter (lay) on the table until called up.

3. The law of unity (require) that directly related ideas (group) together and that only such related ideas so (group). This (be) nothing peculiar to the English language. Indeed, rules of rhetoric in general (be) applicable to any language, (be) it French, or Russian, or Chinese.

4. A. He is here now. B. (Be) he here already? It (seem) impossible that he (come) so early.

5. A. Did he come again? B. Who (like) to talk about him any more. He (be) disgusting! It (be) better that I never (see) him again. A. Don't you want to be so harsh! B. (say) harsh. I don't see why you (refuse) him an interview. He (be) repentant. It well (become) you that you give him a chance to make up. Everybody (be) liable to make mistakes, (be) he clever or dull. You yourself (be) not free from them. (Be) a little more lenient towards other people's conduct.

6. A. Shall we go out for a walk? B. I rather (stay) at home. I (have) many letters to write. A. (Have) you rather stay at home, when the rain just (stop) and the air (be) so cool and refreshing? (Come) with me so that you (relax) your nerves a little.

7. A. It (be) strange that she (have done) that. B. (Do)

whatever she may, I (be) unconcerned. A. So (be) I. But, for her own good, it (seem) that she (stop) all that. B. You (think) she ever (can tell) what (be) good from what (be) unwholesome for herself? You still (entertain) hopes; but I (do) not.

8. It (be) not intended that men always (live) in poverty and deprivation. The purpose of life (be) rather the accruing of benefits and happiness to all. But before such a condition (be) realized, it (be) proper that those who (have) the welfare of the broad masses at heart (have) the right spirit of self-denial and self-sacrifice, in order that they (devote) their time and energy to the work for the good of all.

9. A. (Try) as he may, he not (succeed). B. Oh, not (think) that he (be) serious about it. A. It (seem) impossible that he (be) not serious about it. B. Undoubtedly he simply (fool) with them in order that he (kill) his time.

## INTERLUDE:

### *Old Friends In New Attire*

In the foregoing four chapters, I have explained to you the various forms and uses of the English verbs and have given you many exercises in order that you may, by working at them whole-heartedly, form good habits in using them. You have been with these verbs for quite a long time. Therefore, they ought to have become to you quite intimate friends.

But these old friends of yours very often put on some new sets of clothes so that it is sometimes rather difficult for you to identify them or to grasp the full meaning of such changes of attire.

In their new attire, verbs become verbals.

The verbs we have been studying are limited, that is, they assume a certain definite form peculiar to certain person, number, tense, and mood.

On the other hand, verbals are infinite or unlimited, that is, they do not change their forms with person, nor with number, nor with tense, nor with mood. For example:

1. He wants *to go*.
2. You want *to go*.
3. They wanted *to go*.
4. I did not want *to go*.
5. Doesn't she want *to go*?
6. Who would want *to go*?

7. She doesn't enjoy *reading* good books.
8. They have never enjoyed *reading* good books.
9. He didn't enjoy *reading* good books then.
10. We enjoy *reading* good books very much.
11. Anybody could enjoy *reading* good books.

These examples may have been superfluous, but I want to leave no doubt in your mind about the unlimited nature of verbals.

Verbals are derived from verbs, but they have acquired so many other properties than those of the finite verbs that they must be studied as a distinct variety. Moreover, the English language allows of only one finite verb (or two or more co-ordinated verbs) in one clause or sentence; every other verb in it has to assume the form of a verbal. It is due to this fact that verbals are in very frequent use, and it is because of this that they need a thorough treatment apart from the finite verbs.

Verbals are distinguished one kind from another by their form. (Look up App. D to get acquainted with their outward appearance.) But different attire may fit the same occasion, and the same attire may be appropriate to different occasions. All these will be dealt with in the following three chapters.

But I think it is necessary to conclude this interlude with a few words more.

In the preceding chapters, the subject matter is treated from the point of view of grammar. Questions of rhetoric have been taken up only on very rare occasions, and are discussed so briefly that such discussions are rather hints than treatments in the strict sense of the word. In the following chapters, however, a little more will be said about

rhetoric; since a treatment of the verbals that is confined to the realm of grammar would be incomplete and consequently would not be of much help to you.

I say this because I want you to fully understand one thing: Questions of rhetoric are a subtler kind than those of grammar. For example, any pupil who has studied English diligently under a good teacher for a few months will be certain to say that "He *reads* everyday" is right and that "He *read* everyday" is wrong. On the other hand, it will take long years of study of English for anybody to give preference to one of the following two sentences: "He walked away *and laughed* a good hearty laugh" or "He walked away, *laughing* a good hearty laugh". Such like questions are much more delicate than questions of grammar not only because the demand of clearness, rhythm, forcefulness, thought subordination, etc., come in, but also because the choice has much to do with the context.

It is therefore imperative that in studying the following chapters you should avoid taking any statement as a rigid rule. Even in grammar, as I have often told you, no rule, nor any definition, is infallible. This is much more so in connection with rhetoric. If the preceding four chapters have made you wiser as a student of English, then you must now be quite well prepared to exercise more of this acquired wisdom as you go further on.

Moreover, the following chapters are written on a different plan. In the preceding chapters, I have given you exercises in such an amount and at such frequent intervals that you may learn the contents and form some good habits without the necessity of finding reading matter for yourself.

With the verbals, I cannot do the same without unnecessarily making the book unhandy. From now on I shall give you exercises only at the end of every chapter. How well you can learn will depend not only on how attentively you read and how earnestly you do the exercises but also on how much outside reading you do and how much attention you pay to the verbals you meet with in it.

So, I should suggest that in your further study of this book, you re-read the essays, stories, etc. you are already familiar with and concentrate your attention on the verbals. Make the lessons of your middle-school days a laboratory to test the principles given in the following chapters. Since you have learned the use of all the finite verbs, I think you will be able to do this with ease.

I am aware it takes more than a little courage for you to have closely followed me up to this point. The lazy bones must have quitted somewhere between the first chapter and this interlude. You can justly be a little proud of yourself being one of the survivors of the present struggle so far.

But mind you, you are still in the mid-stream. You have to continue to be at least as hard-working as you have been in order to row the Ferry-Boat to the other shore. Even as the Chinese saying goes, it is well for those who are on a hundred-li-journey to think of ninety li already covered as constituting only half the distance (行百里者半九十). This is the right spirit you need most now. If you should slacken your effort at this juncture, you would certainly fail and would consequently forfeit your own legitimate right to enjoy the fruits of your own labour, the pleasant journey onward (*Epilogue*). On the other hand, if you do

redouble your effort, then, by the time you reach the end of Chap. VII, you will have become tough enough for all kinds of exertion, not only on the journey of perfection of English, but in the whole realm of learning. Do maintain your grasp.

## CHAPTER V

### THE INFINITIVE

#### 51. A General Survey

51.1—An infinitive, while retaining the properties of a verb, may be used to perform a variety of other functions.

A. As a subject.

1. *To teach* is to learn.
2. *To have mastered* the various uses of the finite verb is a pre-requisite to the study of verbals.
3. *To be able* to take pains is one of the conditions of success.

B. As an object of a verb

4. He has long wished *to know* you.
5. I regret *to have hurt* your feelings.
6. Who would want *to ask* help of him!

C. As an object of a preposition.

7. They are about *to leave* for Sikang.
8. The student thought that there was no other way out than *cheat*.
9. Little Jim had nothing to do except *wander* about in the thick wood.

## THE FERRYBOAT

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D. As a subjective complement.

10. The report proves *to be* true.
11. The situation appears *to be improving*.
12. The letter seemed *to have been tampered with*.

E. As an objective complement.

13. Ask him *to come* immediately.
14. Nobody could make him *change* his mind.
15. I found him *to be composing* a song.

F. As an appositive to a noun or a noun equivalent.

16. Our task, *to dislodge* the enemy from its entrenched position, is indeed not easy.
17. Their aspiration *to become* free and independent is deserving of every kind of help from us.
18. Many thought he was attempting the impossible, *to study* French without a teacher.

G. To modify a noun.

19. Little Jim had nothing *to play* with.
20. I still have a great many letters *to answer*.
21. Have you clothes *to be washed*?

H. To modify an adjective.

22. English is more difficult *to learn* than German, French, or Russian.
23. Sorry *to have kept* you waiting.
24. Only those eager *to learn* can rightly hope to become

learned.

I. To modify a verb.

25. Then Japan turned south *to fight* Britain, U. S. A. and The Netherlands.
26. Nazi Germany has several times threatened *to invade* Turkey.
27. She then looked round *to ascertain* where she was.

J. To modify an adverb.

28. The American-made long-range bombers fly too fast *to be* effectively *intercepted* by the Japanese Zero fighters.
29. This work is done well enough *to win* the prize.

K. As an absolute expression.

30. *To speak* the truth, the sun neither rises nor sets.
31. *To transfer* this theory from space to time, the present becomes nothing but an imaginary line or plane that divides up the past and the future.

L. As an exclamation.

32. You fool! *To think* that she would come back again!
33. *To think* that he had never had a chance to attend school!
34. Oh, *to be* at the front and *work* among the soldiers!

51.2--In connexion with these sentences, note the following points.

A. An infinitive may be used as a noun (A, B, C, and F), as an adjective (D, E, and G), and as an adverb (H, I, J and K).

B. As the infinitive retains the properties of a verb, it can therefore take objects (*uses* in 2, *you* in 4, *feelings* in 5, *help* in 6, *mind* in 14, *where he was* in 27, etc.), complements (*able* in 3, *free* and *independent* in 17), or be modified by adverbs or their equivalents (*of him* in 6, *for Si-kang* in 7, *about* and *in the thick wood* in 9, *with* in 12; *immediately* in 13, etc.).

C. *Cheat* in 8, *wander* in 9, and *change* in 14 are infinitives without the sign *to*. The omission of *to* will be discussed below (56.7).

D. The infinitive is used as the object of only four prepositions: *about*, *than*, *except*, and *but* (*save* is archaic).

51.3—As has been discussed in 31.9 and 34.2, *verb to be* infinitive is a sign of the future or the past future. But sometimes it is *not*, and expresses only necessity, obligation, etc.

1. Society *is to provide* honourable work, decent living, and sound enjoyment for all.
2. Money *is to be spent* for useful purposes, *not to be hoarded* for its own sake, nor *to be* maliciously employed for selfish ends.
3. Some books *are to be tasted*, others *to be swallowed*, and some few *to be chewed and digested*; that is, some books *are to be read* only in parts, others *to be read*, but not curiously, and some few *to be read* wholly, and with diligence and attention. (Bacon)

These infinitives, though also used as subjective complements, must be distinguished in meaning from those in sentences where the subject is also an infinitive. Compare the infinitives in italics in the following sentences with the above ones.

4. To teach is *to learn*.
5. To live is *to work*.
6. With a perseverant person, to fail is *to succeed*.

51.4--Read the following:

- 1a. Nobody could make him *change* his mind.
- b. He could not be made *to change* his mind.
- 2a. I found him *to be composing* a song.
- b. He was found *to be composing* a song.
- 3a. This evidence will prove her *to be* innocent.
- b. She will be proved by this evidence *to be* innocent.

The change of voice from the active to the passive transforms the objective complements into subjective ones.

51.5--An adjective followed by an infinitive modifying it is sometimes absolute.

1. *Sorry to say*, I shall not be here tomorrow.
2. *Sad to tell*, his life was not saved.
3. *Curious to say*, some animals do fly.

51.6--Absolute infinitives are sometimes put in the middle or at the end of a sentence.

1. The success, *to be sure*, is not your making.
2. These people are, *so to speak*, avaricious blood-sucking animals.
3. The farmers keep horses, mules, and oxen, *not to mention* chickens and ducks.
4. He is at least trustworthy, *to say* nothing of his other abilities.

## 52. Forms and Voice

**52.1**—The progressive infinitive generally expresses simultaneity of an event with that indicated by the principal verb. Sentences *a* and *b* in each of the following groups mean the same thing.

- 1a. The situation appears *to be improving*.
- b. It appears that the situation *is improving*.
- 2a. I found him *to be composing* a song.
- b. I found that he *was composing* a song.
- 3a. He seemed *to be working* hard.
- b. It seemed that he *was working* hard.

But there are exceptions. In the sentence, "I didn't expect it *to be raining now*", *to be raining* expresses the actual present because of the presence of the adverb *now*.

**52.2**—The perfect infinitive expresses the priority of some event to that expressed by the finite verb. You can best learn its use in the following sentences by observing the corresponding perfect and past verbs in parentheses.

- 1a. He seems to be ill (= It seems that he is ill).

- b. He seems *to have been* ill. (=It seems that he *had been* ill).
- 2a. They seem to know English (=It seems that they know English).
- b. They seem *to have studied* English for several years (=It seems that they *have studied* English for several years).
3. I am glad *to have met* you today (=I am glad that I *have met* you today).
4. I wish *to have attended* school (=I wish that I *had attended* school).
5. I remember *to have seen* him some years ago (=I remember that I *saw* him some years ago).
6. The city is reported *to have been recaptured* by our forces (=It is reported that the city *has been recaptured* by our forces).
7. Sorry *to have* always troubled you (=Sorry that I *have* always troubled you).

Note *saw* in 5 and consult 24.6. The perfect verbs there are in reality perfect infinitives as the sign *to* is always left out ~~after~~ the auxiliaries (except *ought* and *have*).

22.3—The perfect infinitive following *was*, *were*, or a past verb of hope, intention, etc., mean that some event did not occur as was pre-arranged or intended.

- 1a. He was to take the 9:15 train (=It was arranged that he take the 9:15 train).
- b. The 9:15 train he *was to have taken* was wrecked in the accident. (Eventually he did not take the train; *was to have taken* = *would have taken*.)

- 2a. He was to head the delegation.
- b. He *was to have headed* the delegation, but suddenly he fell ill.
3. They *were to have sung* that night, but the sopranos didn't come.
4. They found a few scattered leaves of the manuscript he *was to have sent* to the publisher.
5. I *intended to have spoken* about Tunisia too, but time didn't permit.
6. I *thought* the room *to have been furnished*, but found it empty.
7. We *meant to have called* on you too; what a difference would that have made.

Compare 5, 6, and 7 with 1, 2, and 3, §§3. The latter forms are more frequent. And it is rather seldom to put both the verb and the infinitive in the perfect form, as in "We *had meant to have called* on you," etc.

The perfect progressive infinitive is very rare and is often replaced by the perfect infinitive.

52.4—The question of voice of the infinitive is puzzling to many a student of English. To find your way out of the puzzle, read the following sentences with good attention. Groups 1, 3, and 5 contain active infinitives, while 2, 4, and 6, passive ones.

- 1a. What are we going *to do* about it?
- b. We are *to solve* the question.
- c. We've got *to tell* him.
- d. Do you want *to teach*?

- e. He likes *to go* to cinemas.
- f. They seem *to understand* me..
- 2a. What is *to be done*?
- b. The question remains *to be solved*.
- c. He's got *to be told*.
- d. Do you want *to be taught*?
- e. He doesn't like *to be seen* in public places.
- f. He seems *to be misunderstood* everywhere.
- g. This work's got *to be done*.
- h. These clothes are *to be washed*.
- 3a. Let him have something *to do* anyway.
- b. There are no books *to read*.
- c. I shall show you the right path *to take*.
- d. Have you clothes *to wash* today?
- e. He still has other duties *to attend to*.
- f. I have a lot of things *to think* over.
- 4a. This is something *to be done* (=that must be done) at once.
- b. These are the books *to be carefully read* (=that must be carefully read).
- c. This is a path *to be taken* with care.
- d. Have you clothes *to be washed* today?
- e. This is a duty *to be carefully attended to*.
- f. These are the very things *to be thought* over.
- g. Have you things *to be taken* to the city? I am going.
- h. These are the clothes *to be washed* today.
- i. These are the papers *to be corrected*.
- j. There are still many students *to be registered*.
- 5a. The reasons are not far *to seek*.
- b. You are free *to go* now.
- c. He is eager *to learn*.
- d. This book is interesting *to read*.

- e. You speak well enough *to pass* the examination.
- f. The work is done sufficiently well *to win* the prize.
- 6a. That clerk is sure *to be promoted*.
- b. This question is certain *to be put* on the agenda.
- c. He is too clever *to be tricked*.
- d. He is too dogmatic *to be convinced*.
- e. It impressed him too deeply *to be forgotten*.
- f. The American-made Flying Fortresses and Liberators fly too fast to be effectively intercepted by the Japanese Zero fighters.

52.5—Here are the explanations:

A. If an infinitive is used as a noun or a complement, the choice of the voice is made according to meaning. Compare sentences 1 with 2.

B. There are a few exceptions to this rule. In "Don't blame him", *blame* is transitive, but we more often say, "He isn't *to blame*" than "He isn't *to be blamed*". We also have: "A lot remains *to do*", "Little remains *to say*", etc. But "A lot remains *to be done*", "Little remains *to be said*", etc. are also good.

C. In sentences 3, the infinitives are active in form but passive in meaning; for an infinitive modifying a substantive is put in the active voice when it refers to things in a general sense, even if the substantive is the receiver of the action expressed by the infinitive. But when a particular act is emphasized, with some sense of certainty, determination, necessity, immediacy, etc., the passive voice is used (sentences 4).

Compare 3a - f with 4a - f. 3d is a question asked perhaps of a laundry-woman, and 4d, by a laundry-woman.

D. You may well note that *attend* in 3e and *think* in

3f are intransitive verbs made transitive by adding the prepositions *to* and *over* to them respectively. This makes it possible to use them in the passive voice in 4e and 4f.

E. Infinitives used to modify adjectives or adverbs are generally active, no matter whether their meaning is active or passive. The passive voice is used to express a passive meaning only when the adjective or the adverb implies some sense of certainty, immediacy, etc. (sentences 6a and b) or is modified by some adverb of degree (sentences 6c, d, e, and f).

F. The use of *enough* in 5e, *sufficiently* in 5f, and *too* in 6c, d, e, and f is to be discussed in 55. 10 and 55. 1i.

52.6—Read the following groups of sentences.

- 1a. The impression was too deep *to be forgotten*.
- b. The impression was too deep *for him to forget*.
- 2a. Many readings are *to be committed* to memory.
- b. Many readings are *for you to commit* to memory.
- 3a. Are these the letters *to be forwarded*?
- b. Are these the letters *for us to forward*?
- 4a. This is too clearly stated *to be mistaken*.
- b. This is too clearly stated *for anybody to mistake*.

Mark the change of the voice of the infinitives. Such expressions as *for him to forget*, *for you to commit*, etc., will be taken up in 54.6.

52.7—Not all intransitive verbs can be made transitive by the prepositions following. This is why many intransitive verbs followed by prepositions are never used in the passive voice. The infinitives of such verbs are used in some ways peculiar to themselves.

- 1a. He is *sitting on* a chair.
- b. { He has a chair  
There is a chair for him } *to sit on.*  
This is the chair for him
- c. He has a chair *on which to sit.*
- 2a. I will try *to write on* some other subject.
- c. { I cannot think of a better subject  
There is no better subject for me } *to write on.*  
This is not the subject for me
- c. I cannot think of a better subject *on which to write.*
3. Give her some toys *to play with.*
4. There is nobody *to depend upon* except yourself.
5. We use a pen *to write with.*
6. There is nothing for you *to boast about.*
- 7a. You can *pay him with* this money.
- b. { You have this money  
There is this money for you } *to pay him with.*  
This is the money for you
- c. You have this money *with which to pay him.*
8. He says: "A preposition is not a fitting word *to end* a sentence *with*".

*Pay* in 7 and *end* in 8 are transitive, but their use in connexion with the preposition is the same as the other intransitive verbs.

Compare sentences 4e and 4f, 52.4 with the above.

### 53. The Objective Complement and the Infinitive Clause

53.1—The infinitive used as an objective complement needs some more explanations. The following sentences *a* and *b*

in each group, though of similar construction, have an important difference.

- 1a. The officer commanded the soldiers *to fire*.
- b. They saw the *soldiers fire*.
- 2a. Everybody asked him *to sing*.
- b. I have always heard *him sing*.
- 3a. Nobody could make him *do it*.
- b. They expect *me to do it*.
- 4a. Ask him *to come*.
- b. I wish *him to come*.
- 5a. I will invite Mr. Li *to speak* to us.
- b. I found *Mr. Li to be speaking* to the students.

In sentences *a* the infinitive expresses the purpose or the result of the action or state expressed by the finite verb. The firing is the purpose or the result of the command; the singing is the purpose or the result of their asking; etc., etc.

On the other hand, in *1b* it is not the soldiers alone, but their firing too, that they saw. Certainly, the firing is not the purpose nor the result of seeing. Similarly, in *2b*, what I have always heard is *his singing*, not singing in general, nor singing by anybody else. In *3b*, what they expected was my doing it. Thus we may say that the italicized part of every sentence *b* is an entity by itself and that this group of words; rather than any portion of it, constitutes the object of the finite verb.

Indeed, a term has been invented for such a group of words. It is called the infinitive clause. (This term is borrowed from Professor David Lattimore, who uses it in his *A Complete English Grammar*; and it is more easily understood by the Chinese students than "infinitival nexus,"

"fused infinitives," etc.)

An infinitive clause is composed of a substantive in the objective case (called, however, the subject of the clause) followed by an infinitive, which is used as an adjective to modify the substantive,

53.2—An infinitive clause may often be replaced by an ordinary clause without altering its meaning. (Cf. 1 - 5 below with 1b - 5b, 53.1.).

1. They saw *that the soldiers fired*.
2. I have always heard *how he sings*.
3. They expected *that I should do it*.
4. I wish *that he would come*.
5. I found *that Mr Li was speaking to the students*.
- 6a. I wish *his book to be published*.
- b. I wish *that his book would be published*.
- 7a. I found *them to be quarrelling*.
- b. I found *that they were quarrelling*.
- 8a. He wanted *his son to be well-educated*.
- b. He intended *that his son should be well-educated*.
- 9a. Everybody knew *it to be false*.
- b. Everybody knew *that it was false*.
- 10a. I thought *it to be him*.
- b. I thought *that it was he*.
- 11a. He imagined *the chairman to be her*.
- b. He imagined *that the chairman was she*.
- 12a. They wished *the goal-keeper to be him*.
- b. They wished *that the goal-keeper would be he*.
- 13a. *Whom* did he take *me to be*?
- b. *Who* did he think *I was*?

53.3—Note *him* in 10a and its change into *he* in 10b.

Note similar changes with *her*, *him*, and *whom* in 11, 12, and 13. A predicate substantive in an infinitive clause is always of the objective case, the same case as the "subject" of the clause.

In 8, the finite verb changes with the change of the infinitive clause into a noun clause. This is necessary because *want* generally does not take a noun clause as its object. Thus we say, "I want to go", but not "I want that I will go". We may say, "I think I will go" instead.

The change of *take* into *think* in 13 is due to similar reasons.

Such choice of the verbs is not a subject matter of grammar. Constant and extensive reading can best help.

Generally the infinitive clause is more frequently used than the noun clause (especially after such verbs as *see*, *hear*, etc.) because the former is simpler and more natural.

§3.4—Sentences *a*, 53.1, may also be so rewritten that the object, together with the infinitive-objective-complement, may become a clause.

1. The officer commanded *the soldiers* that they should fire.
2. Everybody asked *him* if he would sing.
3. Nobody could convince *me* that I should do it.
4. Ask *him* if he can come.
5. I will invite *Mr. Li* so that he may speak to us.

Note that the object of the principal clause is the same as the subject of the subordinate clause. But in sentences 1-5 and 66-135, 53.2, the principal verb takes only a noun clause as its object. This is why the name infinitive

clause is fitting and useful.

53.5—Try to see the different meaning between the sentences in the following groups.

- 1a. He said: "Caps off."
- b. He told the pupils that they must take off their caps.
- c. He told the pupils to take off their caps.
- 2a. "Would you write a letter for me?" I asked.
- b. I asked if he was willing to write a letter for me.
- c. I asked him to write a letter for me.
- 3a. He said on the phone, "Hold your position at any cost".
- b. He said that we must hold our position at any cost.
- c. He ordered us to hold our position at any cost.

Sentences *a* are meant to be more descriptive. *1b* and *3b* emphasizes necessity, and *2b*, willingness. Sentences *c* are clear and simple.

#### 54. The Infinitive and the Expletive *It*

54.1—An infinitive may stand as an appositive to the expletive *it* used as a subject.

1. It is not easy *to master* a foreign language.
2. It is useless *to cry* over spilt milk.
3. It may fall to your lot *to direct* the campaign.
4. It takes a long time *to become* an experienced teacher.

54.2—The expletive *it* may be omitted. In that case, the infinitive becomes the subject of the sentence.

1. *To master* a foreign language is not easy.
2. *To cry* over spilt milk is useless.
3. *To direct* the campaign may fall to your lot.
4. *To become* an experienced teacher takes a long time.

54.3—These sentences mean the same as the original ones, but the retention of *it* very often contributes to better rhythm and smoothness of style, especially when the infinitive has a long trail of objects, complements, modifiers, etc., or when there are more than one co-ordinated infinitives.

1. It is very difficult to resist idleness when one need not work for one's daily bread.
2. It will take months to raise the fund, to erect the building, to install the machinery, to buy enough raw material, and then to start work.

In 1, *it* is best retained. In 2, if the infinitives are to be put at the beginning of the sentence, some device must be found to summarize them.

- 2a. To raise the fund, to erect the building, to install the machinery, to buy enough raw material, and then to start work, —*all these* will take months.

54.4—In interrogative sentences the expletive *it* cannot be left out "Is to master a foreign language not easy?" is poor English, though grammatically correct. Always begin with *is it?* and let the infinitive follow the predicate.

- 54.5—Some students do not read with thorough under-

standing and are unable to use the expletive *it*. They say:

1. *I am easy* to learn the lesson.
2. I cannot ride well on bicycle; *I am dangerous* to do it.
3. *You are better* to go immediately.
4. *You are not necessary* to do that.

In fact, it is not the speaker, but to learn the lesson, that is easy; nor is it the speaker, but to ride on bicycle, that is dangerous; etc., etc. These sentences are all wrong. They should be rewritten thus:

- 1a. It is *easy for me* to learn the lesson.
- 2a. It is *dangerous for me* to ride on bicycle.
- 3a. It is *better for you* to go immediately (= You had better go immediately).
- 4a. It is not *necessary for you* to do that.

54.6--*For me to learn, for you to go*, etc., are infinitive clauses introduced by the preposition *for*, which governs them. They are also in apposition with the expletive *it*.

Such infinitive clauses are very rarely made the subject of a sentence; the expletive *it* is almost always retained. This is because the preposition *for* is often in some way related to some words in the predicate. Note how *for me* is related to *easy* or *dangerous*, and *for you*, to *better* or *right*.

And in such a sentence as the following,

It was *left for him* to wind up everything there.

the omission of *it* is out of the question because *left* and *for him* are so closely connected that they cannot be separ-

ated without rendering the meaning ambiguous.

**54.7**—You have learned the use of the following infinitives in italics.

1. We *are to stay* here.
2. I *am to make* a draft of the by-laws and regulations.
3. He *is to decide* what course to take.

For emphasis, the expletive *it* is supplied and the infinitives are changed into infinitive clauses introduced by *for*.

- 1a. It is *for us to stay* here.
- 2a. It is *for me to make* a draft of the by-laws and regulations.
- 3a. It is *for him to decide* what course to take.

The expletive *it* in these sentences cannot be omitted. Sometimes the *a* type sentence means differently from the original.

4. The soldiers *are not to fight* the enemy alone.
- 4a. It is not *for the soldiers to fight* the enemy alone.

Sentence 4 means that there are other people who will help, while 4a means that we must do our part and ~~must~~ not leave the soldiers unassisted.

**54.8**—Observe how the infinitive clause shifts from *a* to *b* as follows.

- 1a. It is my advice *for you to admit* your own mistakes and shortcomings.  
 b. My advice is *for you to admit* your own mistakes and shortcomings.
- 2a. It is <sup>(his bad luck</sup> ~~(bad luck for him)~~ <sup>to</sup> *have broken* his leg.  
 b. <sup>(His bad luck is</sup> ~~(The bad luck is for him)~~ <sup>to</sup> *have broken* his leg.
- 3a. It is easy *for all of you to answer* this question.  
 b. This question is easy *for all of you to answer*.
- 4a. It is generally disagreeable *(for anybody) to listen* to straight-forward advices.  
 b. Straight-forward advices are generally disagreeable *(for anybody) to listen* to.

I may add that in 1 and 2, the predicate substantive in *a* becomes the subject in *b*, and that in 3 and 4, the subject in the infinitive clause in *a* becomes the subject in *b*. For the use of *to listen to*, see 52.7.

54.9—Other prepositions than *for* may also take the infinitive clause as object.

1. They listened with interest *to the peddler call* musically.
2. Everything depends *on him not to interfere*.
3. Do you think you can rely *upon him to come*?
4. We are very much concerned *about your business to prosper*.
5. Everybody looked *at her come* into the room.

54.10—When an infinitive or an infinitive clause is

used as the object of a factitive verb, that is, a verb that takes some objective complement, then, for rhetorical reasons, the expletive *it* is inserted between the verb and the complement, and the infinitive or the infinitive clause is placed after the latter. This is another case where an infinitive or an infinitive clause plays the role of an appositive to the expletive *it*.

1. I find *it* almost impossible *to teach* English grammar well without co-ordination with reading.
2. You will find *it* a difficult task *to convince* him.
3. Many think *it* good luck *to be born* a son of a millionaire.
4. I regard *it* as of great importance *for you to do* all the exercises in this book carefully.
5. He considers *it* always wrong *for anybody to disobey* his parents.
6. Mere self-preservation would make *it* imperative *for us to fight* to a man.

54.11--See how this object-expletive *it* becomes the subject in the following.

1. It is almost impossible *for me to teach* English grammar well without co-ordination with reading.
2. It will be a difficult task *for you to convince* him.
3. According to some people, it is good luck *to be born* a son of a millionaire.
4. It is of great importance *for you to do* all the exercises in this book carefully.
5. It is, says he, always wrong *for anybody to disobey* his parents.

6. It is imperative for us to fight to a man even for mere self-preservation.

**54.12**—An ordinary pronoun *it*, which has an antecedent, must not be taken for the expletive *it*.

1. I have not finished my work;  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{it} \text{ is very difficult (for} \\ \text{me) to do.} \\ \text{I find } \textit{it} \text{ very difficult} \\ \text{to do.} \end{array} \right.$
2. My brother bought me a hat, but  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{it was too small} \\ \text{(for me) to wear.} \\ \text{I found } \textit{it} \text{ too small} \\ \text{to wear.} \end{array} \right.$
3. His writing is wanting in clearness;  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{it is harmful (for you) to} \\ \text{imitate.} \\ \text{I regard } \textit{it} \text{ as harmful (for} \\ \text{you) to imitate.} \\ \text{you will find } \textit{it} \text{ harmful to} \\ \text{imitate.} \end{array} \right.$

All the infinitives in these sentences, instead of being appositives to *it*, are adverbial modifiers of the adjectives *difficult*, *small*, and *harmful*.

Many students do not understand this and often say or write: "My brother bought me a hat but it was too small for me to wear it", etc. The last *it* must be dropped. Would you say, "The hat was too small for me to wear it"? If you do not use *it* in this sentence, why should you use it when *hat* is replaced by another *it*?

**54.13**—Do not strain your mind for the expletive *it* in

writing or in speaking.

- 1a. It is necessary for me to work to earn a living.
- b. I must work to earn a living.
- 2a. It is imperative for us to see him immediately.
- b. Lose no time; let's go to see him immediately.
- 3a. It is easy for you to ring him up on the phone.
- b. You can easily ring him up on the phone.

Sentences *b* are at least as good English as *a* and are even better when simplicity is required.

### 55. The Infinitive and the Clause

55.1—The infinitive clause introduced by *for* or other prepositions may sometimes be replaced by an ordinary clause. The following pairs of sentences in each group mean the same thing.

- 1a. It is good *for us to rise* early in the morning.
- b. It is good *that we should rise* early in the morning.
- 2a. It is necessary *for all of you to hand in* your papers today.
- b. (It is necessary *that*) *you should all hand in* your papers today.
- 3a. It is imperative *for us to see* him immediately.
- b. (It is imperative *that*) *we should see him* immediately.
- 4a. It was bad luck *for him to have broken* his leg.
- b. It was bad luck *that he should have broken* his leg.

- 5a. The school library has bought a great many story-books and picture-books *for the pupils to read*.
- b. The school library has bought a great many story-books and picture-books *so that the pupils may read them*.
- 6a. He set that as an object *for himself to attain*.
- b. He set that as an object *that he himself was to attain*.
- 7a. There was nothing left *for him to eat*.
- b. There was nothing left *that he could eat*.
- 8a. We have decided *for the meeting to take place at 2*.
- b. We have decided *that the meeting should take place at 2*.
- 9a. We counted *on him not to know it*.
- b. We counted *on the chance that he would not know it*.
- 10a. He is proud *of himself to be first in English in the class*.
- b. He is proud of the fact *that he is first in English in the class*.

*For the pupils to read* is an adverbial modifier; *for himself to attain* and *for him to eat* are adjective modifiers; *for the meeting to take*, *(on)him not to know*, and *(of) himself to be* are used as nouns. Hence their replacement by adverbial, adjective, and noun clauses respectively in sentences 5.

55.2--If the infinitive clause is in some way closely related to some word in the predicate, then its replacement by an ordinary clause is impossible. (See example under 54.C.)

1. It is *difficult for some people* to rise early in the morning.
2. It is *dangerous for you* to go there.
3. I am *waiting for him* to bring back the message.

But when the infinitive clause used as an appositive to the expletive *it* is changed into a modifier, it may be replaced by an ordinary clause. Sentences 3b and 4b, 55.3, may be rewritten thus:

4. This question is easy *so that all of you can answer it*.
5. Straight-forward advices are generally disagreeable *so that many people would not listen to them*.

55.5—Note that the verbs in the subordinate clauses in 1b, 2b, 3b, and 4b, 55.1, are subjunctive, expressing definite opinion. A noun clause used as an appositive to the expletive *it* may also be used to state a plain fact, (sentences 1 and 2) or a belief (sentence 3) but an infinitive clause introduced by *for* cannot be so employed.

1. Wrong: It is true for the Japanese captain to have been captured.  
Right: It is true that the Japanese captain has been captured.
2. Wrong: My reason is for him to be good humoured.  
Right: My reason is that he is good humoured.
3. Wrong: It is of no importance for it to rain or not.  
Right: It is of no importance whether it will rain or not.

**55.4--In**

It is unfortunate for the Chinese students of English that the Webster sound scheme instead of international phonetic signs should be used in the English-Chinese dictionaries.

the noun clause which expresses a definite opinion may not be replaced by the infinitive clause because of the presence of the phrase *for the Chinese students of English*. Another preposition *for* following it would render the meaning ambiguous and the construction clumsy.

**55.5**—The expletive *it* in sentences 1-6, **54.10**, may be made the subject of a noun clause if a copula is supplied. (Cf. the examples under **54.11**)

1. I find that it is almost impossible to teach English grammar well without co-ordination with reading.
2. You will find that it is a difficult task to convince him.
3. Many think that it is good luck to be born a son of a millionaire.
4. I say that it is of great importance for you to do all the exercises in this book carefully.
5. He thinks that it is always wrong for anybody to disobey his parents.
6. Mere self-preservation would tell us that it is imperative for us to fight to a man.

**55.6**—Substitution of noun clauses like the above is also possible with the sentences under **54.12** though the *it's* there

are not expletives.

1. I find that it is very difficult to do.
2. I found that it is too small to wear.
3. I think that it is harmful for you to imitate.

**55.7**--There are many ways where infinitives serve similar purposes as various kinds of clauses do, especially when they are introduced by *so as*, *in order*, *how*, *when*, etc. The following examples speak of themselves.

- 1a. I regret to have hurt your feelings.
- b. I regret that I should have hurt your feelings.
- 2a. He has long wished to know you.
- b. He has long wished that he should know you.
- 3a. The situation appears to be improving.
- b. It seems that the situation is improving.
- 4a. The letter seemed to have been tampered with.
- b. It seemed that the letter had been tampered with.
- 5a. (I am) sorry to have kept you waiting.
- b. (I am) sorry that I have kept you waiting.
- 6a. He was surprised to find me there.
- b. He was surprised the he found me there.
- 7a. They speeded up loading and unloading (so as) to relieve congestion at the port.
- b. They speeded up loading and unloading (so) that they may relieve congestion at the port.
- 8a. I come to school (in order) to learn.
- b. I come to school (in order) that I may learn.
- 9a. He opened the window (in order) to look out.
- b. He opened the window (in order) that he might look out.

- 10a. How could he be so dogmatic as to neglect such advices of yours.
- b. How could he be so dogmatic that he should neglect such advices of yours.
- 11 a. Indeed, there are people so stupid as to be proud of their tea-spoonfuls of brain.
- b. Indeed, there are people so stupid that they are proud of their tea-spoonfuls of brain.
- 12a. I don't remember how to begin.
- b. I don't remember how I shall begin.
- 13a. He will tell you when to start work.
- b. He will tell you when you shall start work.
- 14a. The boy was at a loss to know what to say.
- b. The boy was at a loss to know what he ought to say.
- 15a. I forget whom to write to.
- b. I forget whom I shall write to.
- 16a. He was not sure which way to choose.
- b. He was not sure which way he should choose.

### 55.6--Some necessary explanations:

A. Generally, an infinitive is simpler and more forceful than a clause. This is especially so when the principal verb is in the imperative mood. "Let's go to see him" is a good command; "Let's go that we may see him" is unnatural and clumsy. And, as it is good enough and quite plain to say, "He rose to address the audience", so avoid saying, "He rose in order that he might address the audience" unless you have very good reasons for it. One of such good reasons is emphasis on his speaking as the purpose of his rising. Such reasons you may not be able to fully appreciate at present. But the more you read, the better able you

will be to do that, on the condition that you read with thorough understanding.

B. Observe that in all sentences *b* except 13*b*, the subjects of the subordinate clauses are the same as those of the respective principal clauses. This shows when an infinitive may take the place of a clause and when not. For example, "Come tomorrow that I may give you further details about the case" is good, but "Come tomorrow to give you further details about the case" would be grammatically incorrect and rhetorically obscure. Sentence 13*a* is an exception, where the meaning is unmistakable.

C. It follows that when the subject of a sentence is other than the expletive *it*, then the substitution of an infinitive for the clause in apposition with it would render the sentence unclear, for the subject of that clause would disappear. But then, an infinitive clause introduced by *for* would be appropriate. (See sentences 1—4, 55.1.)

55.9—Infinitives introduced by *what, how, when, etc.* may be used alone to ask questions. Some grammarians condemn this practice against usage. In fact, it is just as good to say, "What to tell him?", "What to take", "What to do?", "How to play?", etc., as "What shall I tell him?", "What shall I take", "What's to be done?", "How shall we play?", etc.

55.10—Learn the use of *too...to* in the following. Sentences *a* and *b* are similar in meaning.

- 1*a*. That stone is too heavy for a single person to raise.
- b*. That stone is so heavy that a single person cannot

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- raise it.
- 2a. He is too short-sighted to comprehend the far-reaching influence of this measure.
- b. He is so short-sighted that he cannot comprehend the far-reaching influence of this measure.
- 3a. They are not politically too big to befriend.
- b. They are not politically so big that we cannot befriend them.
- 4a. I have been too busy to call on you.
- b. I have been so busy that I did not call on you.
- 5a. He is too well versed in the business not to know that.
- b. He is so well versed in the business that he must know that.
- 6a. This piece of work will take too much time to finish.
- b. This piece of work will take so much time that we shall not be able to finish it quickly.
- 7a. We have too little money to save.
- b. We have so little money that we cannot save.
- 8a. The situation is now too grave to save.
- b. The situation is now so grave that nobody can save it.
- 9a. You speak too quickly for them to follow.
- b. You speak so quickly that they cannot follow.
- 10a. He was too deeply absorbed to hear anything.
- b. He was so deeply absorbed that he didn't hear anything.
- 11a. It is now still not too late to go.
- b. It is now still not too late if we go immediately.
- 12a. It would be too big a mistake for you to insult them.
- b. It would be too big a mistake if you should insult them.
- 13a. It would be too unbecoming for him to do such things.
- b. It would be too unbecoming if he should do

such things.

Sentences *b* are helps to the understanding of *a*. Generally the infinitive is preferred.

55.11—Some other adverbs are used much in the same way as *too*.

- 1a. The house is good *enough* for us to live in.
- b. The house is good *enough* so that we may live in it.
- 2a. The patient is now *sufficiently* recovered to take a walk in the garden.
- b. The patient is now *sufficiently* recovered so that he can take a walk in the garden.
- 3a. He is now old *enough* to be sent to school.
- b. He is now old *enough* so that he may be sent to school.
- 4a. They were fool *enough* to co-operate with him.
- b. They were fool *enough* so that they co-operated with him.

55.12—There are some bad practices to guard against. *Too young* means *not old enough*; *too dark*, *not light enough*; *too kind* means *very kind* and is stronger than *kind enough*. Do not use *too*, *so*, etc. to modify the same word with *enough*. It is wrong to say, "This exercise is too difficult enough to do", "You are very kind enough to inform me of that", "The music is too beautiful enough", etc. If one modifier is used, the other must be dropped.

55.13—The auxiliaries also have their infinitives. The

following pairs of sentences show the point.

- 1a. I am glad *that I can report* continued and marked improvement in our economic and military strength.
- b. I am glad *to be able to report* continued and marked improvement in our economic and military strength.
- 2a. He was disappointed *that he must go* away.
- b. He was disappointed *to have to go* away.
- 3a. I am not at all discouraged *that I must do* it over again.
- b. I am not at all discouraged *to be obliged to do* it over again.
- 4a. He had expected *that he might keep* it.
- b. He had expected *to be allowed to keep* it.
- 5a. It is not likely *that he will be allowed to do* that. (*will be allowed* is the future form of *may*).
- b. He is not likely *to be allowed to do* that.

### 56. Miscellanea

56.1--Infinitives may be divided into different kinds according to meaning. We have thus infinitives of cause, purpose, semblance, result, etc. Examples:

1. I am glad *to have made* your acquaintance. (cause)
2. Sorry *to say*, we cannot accept your terms. (cause)
3. He went away *to fetch* the balance. (purpose)
4. Throw him into the river *to be* king of the fishes. (purpose)
5. He loaded the gun as if *to prepare to* shoot. (semblance and purpose)

6. She said, "Qu'est 'que c'est?" as though *to show* that she knows French. (semblance and purpose)
7. The Japanese moved into the village and prepared for a rest only *to be caught* by the guerillas in a surprised attack. (result)
8. Many saw that there would come a stalemate *to be followed* by a counter-offensive. (result)

53.2—Some students cannot distinguish the infinitive of result from that of purpose. This is why they cannot learn the former use. Compare the following sentences *a* and *b*.

- 1a. He entered the school to study German. (To study =in order to study)
- b. He entered the school only to be expelled three months later. (To be expelled =with the result that he was expelled)
- 2a. The Japanese came forward to attack.
- b. The Japanese came forward only to meet death at the accurately fired bullets of Chusan.

53.3—But do not think that *only* always introduces an infinitive of result. In the following sentence,

He waited only to see that the pulleys were in good order and then let go.

*to see* expresses purpose. Meaning, not form, determines of what kind an infinitive is.

53.4—For the sake of emphasis, an infinitive of purpose (with or without *in order*) is frequently placed at the begin-

ning of a sentence. When the infinitive is so used, care must be taken in the choice of the right subject.

1. Wrong: In order to study rhetoric profitably, grammar should be studied first.  
Right: In order to study rhetoric profitably, you should study grammar first.
2. Wrong: To be a successful leader, learning first from one's followers is necessary.  
Right: To be a successful leader, one has first to learn from one's followers.
3. Wrong: To fully enjoy life, some serious work must be tried.  
Right: To fully enjoy life, one must have some serious work to do.
4. Wrong: To do reverse gear, the handle must be pulled back.  
Right: To do reverse gear, pull the handle back.
5. Wrong: In order to gratify your curiosity, a detailed description of his attire will be given.  
Right: In order to gratify your curiosity, I shall give you a detailed description of his attire.

The rule is this: The subject of the sentence must be such that the infinitive tells something directly about it and, in case that infinitive is changed into a clause, it will logically become the subject of that clause.

56.5--The infinitive of semblance is used in a similar way and demands the same kind of subject.

1. As though to testify to all that he is studious, he

always carries books with him wherever he goes.

2. As if to increase my difficulties, he put down his signature without consulting me about the matter.

56.6--Compare the following two sentences.

1. Come to see me tomorrow.
2. Come and see me tomorrow.

There is a difference between them. *To see* in 1 expresses simply the purpose of coming while the finite verb *see* in 2 gives a command. *See* is more emphatic than *to see*. As a sentence of command, 2 is more frequently used than 1.

Sometimes, the difference between a finite verb and an infinitive of purpose is so great that the one must not be used in place of the other.

- 3a. He threw away the cigarette and then *rose to speak*.  
(Emphasis on *rose*.)
- b. He could not restrain himself, and so he *rose and spoke*. (Emphasis on *spoke*.)
- 4a. The whole village *went to look* for him.
- b. Do you expect that other people will *come and look* for you before you have shown yourself to be worth looking for?
- 5a. Try to do it. (persuasion)
- b. Try and do it. (intimidation).
- 6a. Try to speak to him (;it will help).
- b. Try and speak to him (;certainly he won't listen to you).

56.7—*To*, the sign of the infinitive, is sometimes omitted. It is left out after all auxiliaries except *ought* and *have*, and after *had rather*, *would rather*, etc. (See 46.11) With those infinitives that follow the anomalous verbs *need* and *dare* and the prepositions *but*, *except*, and *than*, however, there are no hard and fast rules; the retention or omission of *to* follow different usages. Instead of giving you rules that would be too complicated to be like rules, I would advise you to learn these idiomatic uses through attentive reading and listening to good speakers.

56.8—There is a host of other verbs which the infinitive follows without the sign. But if the verb is in the passive voice, *to* is generally retained.

1. *Please come again tonight.*
2. *I want to see her do it.*
3. *Let him write anything he wants to.*
4. *You let slip the golden opportunity; nobody else is to blame.* ( With *let*, the infinitive is sometimes placed before the object.)
5. *I heard him relate the whole story.*
6. *I will make him stay.*
7. *I felt the pressure increase.*
8. *His father bade him go away.* (*To go* is also right.)
9. *Everybody was watching the plane fly.*
10. *Help him do it.* (*To do* is also right.)
11. *The earth was felt to shake.*
12. *He was made to reveal his designs.*
13. *He was seen to walk across the street.*
14. *She was heard to scream.*

Suffice it to give you these examples. I would not make

any list of such verbs. The best thing for you to do is to read much and thus get used to them.

**56.9**--With parallel infinitives, *to* is retained only in the first infinitive.

1. I should like to be able *to write* and *speak* good English.
2. Do you want *to go* there and *be insulted* once more?

But in balanced construction, *to* is generally repeated.

3. He told us *to go* half a mile onward, *to turn* left by the watertower, *to pass* through the first lane on the right side, *to cross* the road, and then *to follow* a narrow path, which led to the river bank.
4. It will take months *to raise* the money, *to erect* the building, *to install* the machinery, *to buy* enough raw material, and then *to start* work.

**56.10**—There are cases where the infinitive has the sign *to* retained and the verb itself left out. This may be done only when the verb omitted is unmistakable.

1. They simply got what they are entitled *to*.
2. Nobody can always do what he wants *to*.
3. He doesn't like to take some of the courses he is required *to*.
4. Many people enjoy doing the things they are not permitted *to*.
5. He joined the business although I told him not *to*.
6. I will do as much as I am able *to*.

7. He could not leave the room; he was not allowed *to*.
8. Don't go there; you are not supposed *to*.
9. He wants to go, but I won't let him.
10. My wife is now teaching in a school. Did you make her?
11. How do you know that he said that? I heard him.
12. Come if you please.

In 1 and 5, the principal verbs are past while the verbs understood after *to* are *get* and *join*. This practice is supported by usage; only the over-cautious grammarians would be against it.

You can find no *to* at the end of sentences 9, 10, 11, and 12. Why?

56.11—It remains to say a few words about the so-called "split infinitive", that is, an infinitive with some adverbial modifier inserted between the verb and the sign *to*, as in *to clearly see*, *to thoroughly understand*, *to quickly march*, etc.

Split infinitives ought not to be condemned outright. Compare the following two sentences.

1. You must try to understand it *thoroughly*.
2. You may not be able to *thoroughly* understand it at present.

In 1, *thoroughly* is placed at the end of the sentence for the sake of emphasis; in 2, the infinitive is split to avoid ambiguity. The other two possible alternative positions for *thoroughly* in 2 are either before *to* or after *it*; but then it would stand either too close to *able* and might be mistaken for

its modifier, or not close enough to *understand*. The split-position of *thoroughly* is the most natural and renders the meaning clear.

Of course infinitives must not be split too often. Do not split them unless clearness of meaning so demands.

56.12—When the verb in the infinitive is composed of more than one word, the adverbial modifier is often placed in between just as is done with finite verbs. Mark this in the following.

1. He's got to *be severely punished*.
2. This book is *to be carefully read*.
3. The population is proved to *be steadily increasing*.
4. I want him to *be soon admitted* to membership.
5. It is not surprising for a clever boy like him to *have so quickly finished* his work.

These infinitives are not split infinitives, since the adverbial modifier do not come immediately after *to*.

#### Exercise XXIII

A. Change the clauses of purpose in sentences 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, under 46.1 into infinitives of purpose. (In sentence 3, you will have to change the construction of the clause of purpose before the substitution can be attempted.)

B. Substitute infinitive clauses for the clauses of definite opinion in all the sentences under 46.3, making other necessary changes with it.

C. Change the infinitives (or infinitive clauses) in italics in the following sentences into clauses.

1. Shall I tell you what I want *to do*?
2. It was impossible *for them to stand* his arrogance.
3. He is too inexperienced *to do that*.
4. I heard the clock *strike* four.
5. I am sorry *to have* to trouble you again.
6. I will come again this evening *to discuss* it with you.
7. I have bought it *for myself to wear*.
8. It is imperative *for you to stop* him.
9. The judge sentenced *him to be set* free.
10. She found the *children to be playing*.
11. The fire-brigade rushed to the scene *to put out* the fire.
12. I thought the *composer to be* her.
13. It is my intention *to have her promoted* to more responsible positions.
14. He hurried off *to be* in time for the meeting.
15. He was so pessimistic as *to lose* interest in everything around him.
16. I went up to the door but found it impossible *to open*.
17. This student doesn't know even how *to write* his own name in English.
18. They produced on me too deep an impression *to be forgotten*.
19. ~~In~~ <sup>In</sup> order *to criticize*, you have to examine the object closely first.
20. I was surprised *to find* that he had left.
21. That man is too much involved in debt *to be* upright.
22. As though *to prepare to fight*, Ah Kwei rolled up his sleeves.
23. Take the book home *to read*.
24. The population is shown *to be* steadily increasing.
25. In order *to appear* calm and composed, he took a

- book and pretended to read it.
26. It is not easy *to run* a factory well.
  27. His father has bought him a bicycle *to ride*.
  28. Nothing was left *for me to do*.
  29. I will try *to meet* you there.
  30. Nobody knew *what to do*.
  31. They imagined the winner of the prize *to be* me.
  32. He was blind and had to have somebody *to read* the daily paper to him.
  33. I came across that book in the library and directly found it *to be* interesting.
  34. Who knows how or where *to keep* it?
  35. I expect *him to come* in a few days.
  36. This is a matter too important *to be* neglected.
  37. In order *to command*, you have first to learn from your followers.
  38. You must learn how *to behave* yourself.
  39. He seems *to have left* for Chungking.
  40. He is too much absorbed in his useful work *to care* for such trifles.
  41. It is my intention for him *to be* well-educated.
  42. Are these the plan and elevation of the building *to be constructed*?
  43. He is too wise *to be misled*.
  44. Won't you come tomorrow *to teach* me to ride?

D. Rewrite the following sentences in as many ways as this chapter has taught you.

1. It is not easy to spend money wisely.
2. You must be mad to go for a walk under the scorching sun.
3. He has nothing to care for.

4. She returned to receive further instructions.
5. My intention is not so much for him to acquire knowledge from books alone as to learn through useful work and contact with worthy people.
6. Could we get something to drink?
7. She shuddered even to think of that.
8. The signboard at the station advises us to beware of pickpockets.
9. Sorry to come late.
10. He doesn't seem to be coming.
11. They even found the night-cap he was to have worn that night.
12. It is indeed bad luck for you to have your money stolen.
13. I know of no other way to criticize than borrow the words of Kuang-tse.
14. They don't know whom to obey.
15. He has many children to provide food for.
16. It is now high time for you to learn the proper use of the verbals.
17. It is necessary for everyone to have something to care for.
18. You seem to have come from afar.
19. You have got too many things to be proud of.
20. In order to see things clearly, you have to form a habit of distinguishing form from substance.
21. He expected to be back for his mother's birthday.
22. It is of course necessary to do it, but I have no money to start with.
23. They seemed to have taken me for an official.
24. It is good feat for them to have hurled back the

- enemy and to have inflicted heavy losses on it.
25. We are fighting to liberate ourselves.
26. You have a head to think with, a tongue to read and speak with, a hand to write with; why don't you use them?
27. I had wished I had helped you; but I had no money then.
28. There is a force of cultivated public opinion for him to appeal to.
29. You are to write it.
30. I mean to say this.
31. She would like to have come; her mother doesn't permit.
32. Some people are foolish to pretend to know what they really don't.
33. I am glad to hear of your success.
34. Have you any more to say?
35. It is a necessity or rather a duty for anyone to make the most of his opportunities to do good.
36. Have you any more letters to be registered?
37. For some trees to have sex seems strange.
38. That student is too clever not to understand everything I say.
39. For a son to be unconditionally filial and obedient to his father was an inviolable law of old China.
40. He knows too little to be interested in reading magazines.
41. I want him to come at once.
42. The children have many toy-locomotives and toy-aeroplanes to play with.
43. I regard it as unnecessary to see him again.
44. It is said that the exhibition will open tomorrow.
45. To learn to speak, you have to speak much.

46. It is only natural for him to be praised.
47. You will find that this article is easy to understand.
48. It ought to be easy for you to jump across.
49. I don't know how to answer him.
50. He is too difficult to deal with.
51. They are waiting for the storm to subside.
52. I find that it is advisable not to think too much of the little I know.
53. It is only natural for anybody to make mistakes.
54. I consider it worth our while to stay here a few days more.
55. She is old enough to take care of herself.
56. It is never too late to mend the pen even after the sheep is lost.

E. Correct or improve the following sentences.

1. There is nothing for me to be done.
2. He has no house to live.
3. He has no house to be lived.
4. It is learned from reliable sources for him to have been killed in action.
5. Why do you come here at this moment? You are not supposed.
6. I find him difficult to deal.
7. It is reported for all of them to attend the meeting.
8. You have to attentively listen to him.
9. We are not proper to do that.
10. Write to him if you care.
11. Let him have some books to be read.
12. The factory gives me a great deal of trouble. I didn't expect it so difficult to manage it.
3. Don't ask him to do what he is unwilling.

14. Nobody seems thoroughly to understand what the teacher says.
15. In summer there will be still more patients to accommodate.
16. They went early to bed in order to early rise the next morning.
17. Is this the dynamo to repair?
18. Can you always do what you want?
19. Give me some useful work to be done.
20. Is this the boy to employ?
21. He has done all he is able.
22. What are you instructed to be done?
23. That book is very good, and I find it very interesting to read it.
24. There are still many people on board to take care of.
25. There remains one more question to discuss.
26. Read it aloud to correct your mistakes in pronunciation.
27. Nobody may enter that house; nobody is allowed.
28. Whom am I supposed to be?
29. This is the man to set free.
30. In order to take the Ferry-Boat and to cross the river, strong arms and strong legs are necessary.
31. If he should do that, he would be sure to punish.
32. He bought a house in order to be burnt the following year.
33. We were to win the game. Unfortunately, one of our fullbacks played foul and fell out.
34. He is too good humoured to irritate.
35. Let's wait to see.
36. Will you go there? I think I'd rather not to.

37. Be very good enough to help me.
38. This improvement made to aim the bombs more accurately possible.
39. That was a bold thing to be done.
40. He is impossible to do it.

## CHAPTER VI

### THE PARTICIPLE

The participle performs three different functions: as a part of a verb phrase, as an adjective, and as an adverb. When used as an adjective, it is called by some grammarians the verbal adjective, and when used as an adverb, the verbal adverb.

You have learned how the present participle helps to form the progressive and the perfect progressive forms of the verb and how the past participle helps to form the perfect and the passive forms. These verb forms have been dealt with. I shall not say anything more about them in this chapter.

It certainly need not be emphasized that the verbal adjective and the verbal adverb, like the infinitive, retain their properties of a verb.

#### 61. The Restrictive Verbal Adjective

The verbal adjective may be used both attributively and predicatively. Used attributively, it may be restrictive or explanatory.

##### 61.1—Examples of the restrictive verbal adjective:

1. He told us a *touching* story.
2. *Running* water is always cleaner than stagnant water.
3. There were heavy forces *gathering* on the borders.

4. In summer, the sun gives *dazzling* light and *overwhelming* heat.
5. Read these sentences and note the explanations *following*.
6. This is a *withered* flower.
7. Which do you like better, *written* exercises or oral ones.
8. They held their meeting behind *closed* doors.
9. If you don't pay attention to the corrections *made* you are most likely to repeat your mistakes.
10. There's much time *wasted*.
11. The birds *flying* and *soaring* high are swallows.
12. The problems *being discussed* are the following.
13. This is the student *placed* on probation.
14. A person *having failed* twice in an attempt is not very likely to try it again.
15. Are these the dishes *prepared* by yourself?
16. Who could believe that this is the money *raised* in one day!
17. By the light of the moon just then *breaking* through the clouds, I saw a man coming towards me.
18. He is perhaps the most *boasting* man ever *seen*.

61.2—Note the explanations below.

A. A present participle expresses quality (*touching* in 1), activity (*running* in 2), or what is actually going on at the time indicated by the principal verb (*gathering* in 3); a past participle, either a condition (*withered* in 6), or a passive meaning (*written* in 7), or both (*closed* in 8); and a perfect participle, the priority of the event to that expressed by the principal verb (*having failed* in 14). As to the meaning of the word *priority*, see 52.2.

B. A *touching story* means a story that is touching. All restrictive verbal adjectives are replacable by the adjective clause.

C. A single participle usually precedes the substantive it modifies (sentences 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, and *boasting* in 18), but is placed after the latter if it is itself followed by other words closely connected with it (sentences 11, 13, 14, 15, 16, and 17).

D. A participle consisting of more than one word (the present passive and the perfect) always follows the substantive (sentences 12-14).

E. At the end of sentence 5, *them* is omitted. This is why *following* does not precede *explanations*.

F. The past participle expressing a condition as the result of some past action always follows the modified (sentences 9, 10, 15, 16, and *seen* in 18). When such a participle is replaced by an adjective clause, the verb of the latter must be perfect. "A withered flower" means "a flower that is withered", but "corrections made" means "corrections that have been made" or "corrections that the teacher has made". Again, "a returned student" is "a student that is returned", but "a book returned" is "a book that has been returned". (Consult 27.3)

Other examples: labour *lost*, books *read*, money *paid*, guests *gone*, company *formed*, problems *discussed*, battles *fought*, battles *won*, acts *committed*, etc.

G. In such phrases as *something interesting*, *nothing inspiring*, *anything encouraging*, *for the time being*, *in times past* (past is, however, generally regarded as an adjective), etc., the verbal adjectives follow the substantives. These are idioms.

61.3 - Compare the following two sentences.

1. Did you ever see any who, *reading* without thorough understanding, did master the English language?
2. Did you ever see any *who read* without thorough understanding *but who* did master the English language?

Sentence 2 is certainly grammatically correct, but with the two *who's* parallel, its construction is loose and weak. Sentence 1 is close-fitting and terse.

Patrick Henry once asked his fellows in the Virginia Convention:

3. Are we disposed to be of the number of those who, *having* eyes, see not, and *having* ears, hear not, the things which so nearly concern their temporal salvation?

Try and substitute adjective clauses for the two *having's*, and see how that would weaken the force of his argument.

Note: *Having* may also be regarded as a verbal adverb, equivalent to *though they have* (see infra sect. 65).

61.4 - Of the following sentences, *a* is clumsy but *b* is simple and rhythmical.

- a. Who is it *who is reading* in the garden?
- b. Who is it *reading* in the garden?
- 2a. Hush! What is that *that is coming*?
- b. Hush! What is that *coming*?

- 3a. What is that *that is moving* on the water?
- b. What is that *moving* on the water?

61.5—But if the subject is separated from its modifier by some rather long expression, then it is better to use an adjective clause, which makes the meaning clearer than a restrictive verbal adjective. For example, in

There is no one in the rank and file—men who know why they have come and how they should do their business—  
—who would waste a single bullet.

*who would waste* is best not replaced by *wasting* or *disposed to waste*.

61.6—In these sentences,

1. You are the only person *being* in a position to mediate.
2. He took the bottle *lying* on the table and drank it empty.

*being* ought to be, and *lying* is best, left out because they are not needed. Or they may be replaced by a relative pronoun and a verb (*that is* in 1 and *that lay* in 2).

61.7—Although both the participle and the infinitive may be used to modify substantives, yet they are generally not interchangeable. The participle describes the quality, the state, or the action of the substantive it modifies, while the infinitive implies the future or tells of the purpose for which something is intended.

1. He showed me the right path *to take*. I found it to be a *winding* one.
2. He gave me an *interesting* book *to read*.
3. We've got only *foaming* milk *to drink*.
4. Have you some *written* exercise *to do*?
5. Have you some *worn-out* clothes *to give* me?
6. There are no more *imported* goods *to examine*.
7. These are the books *read*, and those, *to be read*.

61.8--*Worn-out* in 5 is a compound word used as an adjective. Many compound adjectives contain participles, such as *hair-splitting*, *easy-going*, *well-meaning*, *land-owning*, *bomb-carrying*, *badly-made*, *widely-used*, *ill-advised*, *well-said*, etc.

61.9--The restrictive verbal adjective is often used with *with* or *without* in the following way.

1. What a life has she lived, *with the thought* of her lost son always *floating* before her.
2. *With their faces bathed* in perspiration, they pulled the cart up the hill side.
3. They went creeping forward, *with machine-guns* of the enemy *rattling* before them.
4. He has never read a novel *without his attention being directed* towards its social background.
5. He has never passed a new year's eve *without his first thoughts being* of the poor who have nothing to enjoy themselves with.

61.10--Just as an adjective is said to be used as a noun when the noun it modifies is understood, so a participle may be regarded as a noun in similar cases.

1. Lying around him were the dead and *the dying*.
2. The forties of the present century certainly marks the advent of an era of emancipation of *the oppressed* in the whole world.
3. *The vanquished* will not forever remain *vanquished* if they have a just cause to fight for.

### 62. The Explanatory Verbal Adjective

62.1—In this sentence,

1. The poor innocent peasant, *scared* and *trembling*, fell on his knees.

*scared* and *trembling* are verbal adjectives, for they modify *peasant*. But they do not limit or restrict *peasant*; they simply describe the state the peasant was in or the act he was doing. They are not restrictive verbal adjectives.

Compare this sentence with 1.

2. "The *scared* and *trembling* peasant must be the murderer", said he.

Here, *scared* and *trembling* limit *peasant*; they pick out a particular *scared* and *trembling* peasant among many persons present.

But it is not simply the position of the participle that matters.

- 1a. The poor innocent peasant, *trembling* with fear, fell on his knees.
- 2a. "The peasant *trembling* with fear must be the mur-

derer", he said.

And look into the following.

- 1b. The poor innocent peasant, *who was trembling* with fear, fell on his knees.
- 2b. He thought that the peasant *that was trembling* with fear must be the murderer.

"That was trembling" is called a restrictive adjective clause and "Who was trembling" an explanatory one. If we make such a distinction with the adjective clause, why should we not do the same with the verbal adjective?

*Scared* and *trembling* in 1 and 1a may rightly be called explanatory verbal adjectives.

Note the commas in 1a and 1b and their absence in 2a and 2b.

62.2—The explanatory verbal adjective must also be distinguished from the participle used as a predicate adjective.

1. The peasant stood *scared* and *trembling*.
2. The peasant stood there, *scared* and *trembling*.

In 1, *stood* is inseparable from *scared* and *trembling*; the whole sentence expresses one single thought. In 2, the participles are mere appendages, which may be left out without affecting the sense of the sentence, because they express a separate thought subordinate to the main thought.

The following sentences *a* mean the same as their respective originals.

- 1a. The peasant *was* scared and trembling.
- 2a. The peasant stood there; *he was* scared and trembling.

62.3--An explanatory verbal adjective always expresses a subordinate thought concerning the subject of the sentence without limiting or restricting it.

62.4--Examples of the explanatory verbal adjective:

1. I stood amazed, not *knowing* what to do.
2. He walked away, *laughing* a good hearty laugh.
3. The school master remained standing, *leaning* backward and *supported* by the thick walking-stick held in his hand.
4. He felt awkward, *rubbing* his hands and *grinning*.
5. We walked on and on, *overcome* by the scorching sun and unable to find any shades for a little rest. (Note that *overcome* and *unable* are parallel.)
6. He went along the street, all the while *singing* a merry tune.
7. She directly bolted from the room, *screaming*.
8. The family was at table, *chatting* merrily.
9. The students, continually *shouting* patriotic slogans, marched on.
10. They were seated upon the balcony, *taking* cold drinks.
11. She sat on the window sill, *looking* out.
12. She alone remained at home, *cleaning* the kitchen and *washing* clothes.
13. He said "Excuse me", *going* into the other room.
14. His coat, *stained* with the blood he gloriously shed for this patriotic cause, is still there.

15. *Loaded* with bullets but never once *used*, the gun has been lying all the while, in the drawer.
16. Thus he lived there for several years, *well-fed*, *well-clad*, *enjoying* himself in various ways, but not a bit *moved* by the sufferings of the people around him.
17. "How could it be he!" said she, *shivering* and almost *distracted* with grief.
18. *Wiping* her little eyes, she rose from the bedding.
19. *Reminding* him of his promises, she took leave of him.
20. *Seizing* his hands and *looking* anxiously straight into his eyes, she told him of the danger that was threatening their relations.
21. The river, *dashing* along between its own banks, brings down mud and sand, thereby *raising* its own bed in the lower course.

62.5—The placement of the explanatory verbal adjective follows these rules.

- A. If it expresses an afterthought, it is always placed at the end of the sentence.
- B. Otherwise, it may be placed either at the beginning or in the middle of the sentence.
- C. It seldom immediately follows a pronoun-subject that begins a sentence.

62.6—The present form of an explanatory verbal adjective does not necessarily mean simultaneity.

1. Some students take the Ferry-Boat and, *crossing* the river, enjoy the pleasant journey onward.
2. They sailed east, *reaching* Cape Verde two days later.
3. *Taking* the boy home, she gave him a good thrashing.

Present participles expressing priority precede the main verb (*crossing and taking*); those expressing subsequence follow it (*reaching*).

**62.7**—Subordinate thought expressed by the explanatory verbal adjective becomes a part of the main thought by changing the verbal adjective into a finite verb.

1. I stood amazed *and did not know* what to do,
2. He walked away *and laughed* a good hearty laugh.
3. The students continually *shouted* patriotic slogans *and* marched on.

Compare these with sentences 1, 2, and 8, **62.4.**, which are more descriptive by distinguishing the subordinate thought from the main thought.

**62.8**—Compare further the following with sentence 14 under **62.4.**

1. The coat is stained with the blood he gloriously shed for this patriotic cause and is still there.

See how loose and clumsy this sentence is! If the hearer knows the blood-stained coat, then its description must be made subordinate to the main thought; but if he does not and need be told, then *is still there* is something quite unrelated to the thing you tell by the first part of the sentence. In the latter case, it is clearer and more forceful to express the second main thought with another sentence and say, "It is still there".

Again,

2. He then turned to the Far-Eastern theatre of war and demanded a united continental counter-offensive in China.

is a good sentence. But if you are giving a *resume* of somebody's speech, it is then far better to subordinate the first thought and say:

- 2a. Turning to the Far-Eastern theatre of war, he demanded a united continental counter-offensive in China.

62.9—Avoid using any explanatory verbal adjective that asserts almost the same thing as the main verb. In such a sentence as "He asked me, saying whether I would go for a walk with him", *saying* is tautological, and therefore should, together with the preceding comma, be crossed out. On the other hand, it is good to say, "He rose, saying that it was time to part", for *rose* and *saying* declare entirely different actions. Change the two *saying's* into finite verbs, place *and* before them, and you will see the point clearly.

62.10--Do not use any explanatory verbal adjective to express a main thought.

1. Bad: He reads widely, *writing* well.  
Good: He reads widely *and writes* well.
2. Bad: Our teacher teaches well, *giving* us a great many exercises.  
Good: Our teacher teaches well; *he gives* us a great many exercises.

62.11—Do not put in any explanatory verbal adjective where it is not needed.

1. I have given the book to Mr. Penfield, *being* my friend.
2. We were all stupefied, *being* unable to say a word.

The two *being*'s are uncalled for (Cf. 61.5).

62.12—Examine the following.

1. Wrong: He is now very weak, *caused by an attack* of malaria.  
 Right: He is now very weak, *for he was recently attacked* by malaria.
2. Wrong: He is well-versed in economic geography, *thus enabling* him to become a better military critic than his contemporaries.  
 Right: He is well-versed in economic geography; *this enable*s him to become a better military critic than his contemporaries.

*Caused* and *enabling* are wrong because they each refer to the preceding clause as a whole instead of to the subject alone.

### 63. The Verbal Adjective Used as a Predicate Adjective

Used predicatively, the verbal adjective may stand either as a predicate adjective or as an objective complement.

Used as a predicate adjective, it has been treated in sects. 17 and 27 only in so far as it has to do with certain verb forms. A little more need to be said here.

63.1—Compare the participles and the infinitives in the following sentences.

- 1a. He remained *sitting*.
- b. He remained (in order) *to look* after the office.
- 2a. This problem is *puzzling*.
- b. This problem is *to puzzle* many people.
- 3a. I am *determined*.
- b. I am *to determine* what I shall do.
- 4a. You can rest *assured*.
- b. You can rest (in order) *to recuperate*.

In all sentences *a*, the participles are predicate adjectives. In sentences *b*, the infinitives are either subjective complements or adverbial modifiers of the principal verbs; they express purpose or futurity. Note *in order* in parentheses.

63.2—But, with such verbs as *seem*, *look*, *appear*, *prove*, etc., which are not followed by infinitives of purpose or futurity, or with many passive verbs, the case is different.

- 1a. This seems *interesting*.
- b. This seems *to be interesting*.
- 2a. The result proved *encouraging*.
- b. The result proved *to be encouraging*.
- 3a. She looked *scared*.
- b. She looked *to be scared*.
- 4a. All seemed *depressed*.
- b. All seemed *to be depressed*.
- 5a. They were found *quarrelling*.
- b. They were found *to be quarrelling*.
- 6a. He was heard *singing*.

- b. He was heard *to be singing*.  
 7a. Mr. Li was found *speaking* to the students.  
 b. Mr Li was found *to be speaking* to the students.

Every pair of sentences *a* and *b* means exactly the same thing. In *a*, the participle is the predicate adjective to the main verb, while in *b*, to the infinitive *to be*.

In these two sentences,

8. It seems *to be raining* over there.  
 9. He seems *to have been punished*.

the progressive and the perfect infinitives are used as the meaning demands. They cannot be replaced by participles. Review 17.3 and then compare the following sentence with 8 and 9.

- 8a. It *is raining* over there.  
 b. It seems that it *is raining* over there.  
 9a. He *has been punished*.  
 b. It seems that he *has been punished*.

63.3—Mark the participles in the following.

1. They drove away *picnicking*.
2. Will you go *fishing* with me?
3. As the prices are soaring, few goods go *begging* in the market.
4. They used to ride out *hunting*.
5. She went *practising* on her piano.

Formerly, *a* (a shortened form of *on*) was inserted

between the verb and the participle, but it is now generally dropped. This use of the participle is idiomatic and it follows almost only the verb of motion. In "drove away to picnic", "go to fish", "go to hunt", "went to practise" the sense of purpose predominates, while the participle as is shown in the above examples mean that the action of picnicking, fishing, hunting, or practising is going to be long and continuous. *Go begging* is a fixed formula; *go to beg* refers only to the beggars.

#### 64. The Objective Complement and the Participial Clause

64.1—In "The officer commanded the soldiers to fire" *to fire* cannot be replaced by the participle *firing* because the former expresses purpose or result while the latter does not. This is true with all sentences *a*, under 53.1.

64.2—But those factitive verbs that by their meaning cannot be followed by expressions of purpose generally take participles as their objective complements instead of infinitives.

1. Charles I *had* his head *cut* by the Roundheads. (See 27.7.)
2. He hasn't told anything? *Have* him *shot*.
3. We must *keep* the press *running* no matter what the loss in money.
4. Sorry to *have kept* you *waiting* so long.
5. *Set* the fly-wheel *going*.
6. His words *set* me *thinking* the more of my lost friend.
7. You ought to *get* your shirt *mended*.
8. Clear thinking and systematic presentation will never

fail to *make you understood* by sensible people.

Compare especially 8 with 9a under 53.1 and see the difference between *do* and *understood*.

64.3--Examine further the following.

- 1a. I *wish* his book *to be published*.
- b. I *will have* his book *published*.
- 2a. He *wanted* all enemy planes *to be shot* down.
- b. The flying-officer *reported* seven enemy planes *shot* down.

64.4--With sentences *b* under both 53.1 and 53.2, substitution of participles for the infinitives is impossible when the principal verb demands an infinitive of purpose, or when the infinitive is no other than *to be*. Otherwise, the infinitives may be replaced by participles.

- 1. They saw the soldiers *firing*.
- 2. I have always heard him *singing*.
- 3. I found Mr. Li *speaking* to the students.
- 4. I found them *quarrelling*.

In these sentences the participle and the infinitive are interchangeable, the only difference being that the former is more descriptive as in 1 and 2.

64.5--As *the soldiers fire* is called an infinitive clause, so there is no reason why we should not give the name of "participial clause" to *the soldiers firing*.

## 64.6—More examples of the participial clause.

1. They saw a *truck standing* in the middle of the road.
2. I have seen *him working* hard.
3. They often saw many *people taking* the liberty to call on him without being ushered in.
4. She listened and only heard a few *dogs barking* far away.
5. The mad man thought *himself leading* an army in triumph.
6. He felt *himself sinking* deeper and deeper towards the bottom.
7. By the moon light I saw a *man coming* towards me.
8. I saw *them driving* down the road towards the jetty.
9. I'd rather see *you damned* first.
10. I found the *flower faded*.
11. He did not live to see the last *volume* of his works *published*.
12. Yes, I own *myself beaten*.
13. He thinks *himself* unduly *neglected*.
14. That dogmatic fellow has never once adm'tted *himself mistaken*.
15. I must see *it done* without delay.
16. I am very happy to hear *of your mother being safe*.
17. The communique tells of Soviet *troops having recaptured* Rostov.
18. The messenger informed us *of the procession having marched* out into the street.
19. Our success will depend *upon* the first *detachment crossing* the river not later than daybreak.
20. We are very much concerned *in the measure having been adopted*.

21. They are opposed *to the meeting being postponed.*
22. He caught sight *of a transient light shooting through the sky.*
23. What would you do in the event *of fire breaking out.*
24. Think *of the soldiers, equipped with only rifles and machine-guns and hand-grenades, fighting an enemy who has planes and big guns!*

Participial clauses introduced by the preposition *of* are very common.

Present Participles may mean the future (sentences 19, 21, and 23, cf. 62.6).

Compare these sentences with those under 61.9. Call *thought floating, face bathed*, etc. participial clauses if you will.

Compare *fighting* in 24 with *who would waste* in the example given under 61.5.

64.7—Certain verbs demand the insertion of an *as* before the participle in the participial clause.

1. We cannot recognize *him as speaking* on behalf of all of us.
2. Do not think *of him as representing* the best of modern writers.
3. He spoke *of the factory as being* the best equipped in the whole Far East.
4. She fancied her *clothes as being* made of silk.
5. The Japanese militarists imagined the Chinese *troops as being* easily annihilated within three months.
6. The board passed a resolution, setting the *period*

*as beginning* from February 27.

7. The report tells of the road *as being* littered with wrecked cars and lorries.
8. Many thought of the *article as being* written by him.
9. They regarded *me as being* one of themselves.

**64.8**--Present participles introduced by *as* may also refer to the future (sentences 5 and 6).

In sentence 1, the time of "speaking" can be decided only by the context, the sentence itself does not tell whether he has spoken or is speaking or is going to speak.

A comparison may be made of sentence 9 with 10a, 11a, 12a, 13a, under 53.2. Note the different positions of the personal pronouns.

**64.9**--Sentences 4 and 8 above may be shortened.

1. She fancied her *clothes made* of silk.
2. Many thought the *article written* by him.

*Made* and *written*, used as predicate adjectives to *being* in the original sentences, now become a part of the participial clause. There are two conditions for such shortening of the participial clause: the principal verb expresses some mental state and *being* takes another participle as its own predicate adjective.

**64.10**--Sentences 3, 7, and 9 under 64.7 may also be shortened, but in a different way.

1. He spoke of the *factory as the best equipped* in the

- whole Far East.
2. The report tells of the road *as littered* with wrecked cars and lorries.
  3. They regarded me as one of themselves.

In 1 and 2, *as* is retained because the verbs *spoke of* and *tells of* do not express mental states. In 3, the participial clause disappears altogether, and *one* may be taken for the objective complement of *regarded* or the object of *as*.

### 65. The Verbal Adverb

65.1—Compare the following sentences.

1. He went on, *singing* merry tunes all the way.
2. He went on *relating* the incident.
3. He went *creeping* out into the courtyard.

In 1, *singing* expresses a subordinate afterthought, telling what he was doing at the very same time when he went on. It is, therefore, an explanatory verbal adjective.

In 2, *relating* does not tell anything in addition to what *went* does. Rather, the three words, *went*, *on*, and *relating*, work in chorus and express one single thought. Thus, sentence 2, unlike sentence 1, contains no subordinate thought. *Relating* serves only to complete the thought that *went on* is unable to express alone. This is why *relating* is called a complement (predicate adjective).

In 3, *creeping* serves still another purpose. It is unlike *relating* in that it does not complete the thought of *went*, for "He went out into the courtyard" expresses a complete

thought. It is also different from *singing*; for while the latter expresses a subordinate thought as distinct from the main thought, *creeping* describes the manner of going into the courtyard instead of stating any additional, distinct thought.

*Creeping* is a verbal adverb, and *out* modifies *creeping*.

65.2—Verbal adverbs are of many kinds.

1. We waited and waited until darkness came *creeping* over the vase expanse.
2. I shall be busy *making* preparations for the meeting to be held next week.
3. He recollected with grief those happy autumn days that he had spent with her, *working* and *reading* books together, *discussing* problems of life, and once in a while *boating* in the lake under the moon light.
4. She followed the man, *keeping* at a certain distance in order not to let him know it.
5. The demonstrator dived into the water, *making* several turns in the air.
6. The teacher shouted, "Down with Japanese Imperialism!"; *straining* his voice to the utmost.
7. *Living* in the country, I found it doing me much good to chat with the peasants.
8. *Arriving* at the big square, he alighted from horseback.
9. *Having finished* his words, he walked away sedately.
10. The greedy gambler, *having* bargained with the peddler for half an hour, succeeded in *cutting* down

- the price from ten dollars to nine dollars ninety cents.
11. *Having taken* our supper, we would go for a walk by the side of the lake, enjoying each other's company.
  12. *Having been thrown* into the dungeon, he began to plan for his escape.
  13. *Having taken* his degree, he thought himself a learned scholar, who did not need to study any more.
  14. The tea-house, *being* situated at the cross-roads, has a thriving business.
  15. *Thinking* that he would not come, I left for the club.
  16. *Having been given* the first prize, he becomes more proud than ever.
  17. *Attacked* by submarines below and torpedo-carrying bombers in the air, the ship was eventually sunk after a dogged fight.
  18. *Addicted* to the gaieties of city life, many middle school and college graduates are averse to work in the countryside.
  19. *Climbing* up that small hill, you will be able to see the river beyond.
  20. *Closing* the door in his face, I made my escape.
  21. *Reading* always with thorough understanding, you will make much greater progress.
  22. *Pulling* his hat down to the eye brow, he tried to conceal his face from the people sitting opposite him.
  23. *Having written* out the melody, he began to work at the harmonic tones.

65.3--Study these participles with the help of the following.

- 1a. How did darkness come? It came *creeping*.
- 7a. *When I lived*(or *was living*) in the country, I found it doing me much good to chat with the peasants.
- 9a. *After he had finished* his words, he walked away sedately.
- 14a. *As the tea-house is situated* at the cross-roads, it has a thriving business.
- 19a. *Climb* up that small hill; you will *thus* be able to see the river beyond.
- b. *If you climb* up that small hill, you will be able to see the river beyond.

These sentences explain why *creeping* may be called a verbal adverb of manner; *living* and *having finished*, verbal adverbs of time; *being*, a verbal adverb of cause; and *climbing*, of means or condition. But the thing for you to do is not to remember these terms. Rather, try to write out the *a* and *b* type sentences as shown for other examples.

#### 65.4—Other necessary explanations:

A. *Being* in 14 takes *situated* as its predicate adjective. If it is omitted, then *situated* becomes a verbal adverb. In a similar way, *addicted* in 18 may be preceded by *being*.

B. *Attacked* in 17 is passive; it usually goes without *being*.

C. Compare the following sentence with 8.

- 8a. *Having arrived* at the big square, he alighted from horseback.

Reread 33.4 and draw your own conclusion of this comparison.

D. The perfect participle **may not be used to express priority to a future event.**

Wrong: Saturday week, *having taken* lunch, I shall have to go to Kuanhsien.

Right: Saturday week, *after (I have taken) lunch*, I shall have to go to Kuanhsien.

E. In 20 and 22, *closing* and *pulling*, but not *having closed* and *having pulled*, are used, because it is not the priority of the actions, but the means of escape and concealment that is meant.

F. Compare the following.

1. I saw a man *coming* towards me.

2. I saw a man *come creeping* towards me.

When *creeping* is added in 2, it is better to change the participle *coming* into an infinitive.

65.5—The verbal adverb must tell something directly about the subject. (Cf. 62.3)

1. Wrong: Handicaped by a ready-made grammar book, *it* will be difficult for the teacher to co-ordinate grammar and reading.

Right: Handicaped by a ready-made grammar book the *teacher* will find it difficult to co-ordinate grammar and reading.

2. Wrong: Being born blind, *you* cannot make *him* appreciate the meaning of colour.

Right: Being born blind, *he* cannot be made to appreciate the meaning of colour.

3. Wrong: Having given my answer which he thought satisfactory, *he* rose and bid me good-bye.  
 Right: After I had given my answer which he thought satisfactory, *he* rose and bid me good-bye.
4. Wrong: Having taken our lunch, *the journey* was resumed.  
 Right: Having taken our lunch, *we* resumed our journey.
5. Wrong: Sustaining her with his right arm, *she* was led out.  
 Right: Sustaining her with his right arm, *he* led her out.
6. Wrong: Stepping upon the platform, *the people* gave him an applause.  
 Right: As he stepped (or was stepping) upon the platform, *the people* gave him an applause.

65.—Certain participles are, however, exceptions to this rule:

1. *Judging* by its appearance, this ware must be German-made.
2. Generally *speaking*, such a principle is good.
3. Even *supposing* you to be in the right, you should not have hurt his sense of honour.
4. *Considering* his age, he has learned much.
5. *Regarding* such matters, it is always not easy to make quick decisions.
6. *Concerning* the actual steps to be taken, a further discussion is necessary.

The last two participles, *regarding* and *concerning*, and others like *during*, *granting*, *providing*, *pending*, etc., have been so often used in this way that they are now regarded as prepositions rather than as participles.

65.7—But note the following change of the subject.

1. *To transfer* this theory from space to time, the *present* becomes nothing but an imaginary line or plane that divides up the past and the future.
2. *Transferring* this theory from space to time, *we* ~~now~~ ~~may~~ regard the present as nothing but an imaginary ~~line~~ ~~or~~ ~~plane~~ that divides up the past and the future.

65.8—In the following sentences, the adverbs in italics, are redundant. ~~Cross them out.~~

1. Having graduated from middle school, *then* he entered this college.
2. *Wishing* to make a good appearance, *therefore* she borrowed a diamond necklace.
3. Being a mere boy, *so* he needed help!

### 66. Thought Subordination

66.1—The following sentences ~~a~~ are wrong, the error being the so-called upside-down subordination. The participle meant for an explanatory verbal adjective ought to be made the principal verb, and the principal clause, turned into an adverbial clause or a participle phrase.

- 1a. He felt the house shake, immediately *running* into the garden.

- b. No sooner did he feel the house shake, he ran into the garden;
- c. Feeling the house shake, he immediately ran into the garden.
- 2a. He has lived long in London, *speaking* the standard south-of-England English.
- b. As he has lived long in London, he speaks the standard south-of-England English.
- c. Having lived long in London, he speaks the standard south-of-England English.

66.2—The participle should not be connected with the principal verb by *and*. Do not say, "I was amazed, and not knowing what to do", or "Closing the door in front of him, and I walked away", etc. Leave out that co-ordinate conjunction. This is a very common mistake.

66.3—The following sentences are all right, but every *a* differs from every *b* in the same group. Find out the differences by distinguishing the main thought from the subordinate thought.

- 1a. Feeling abashed, she blushed deeply.
- b. She felt abashed, blushing deeply.
- 2a. He said "Excuse me", retiring to his bed-room.
- b. Saying "Excuse me", he retired to his bed-room.
- 3a. Walking along the street, he played on his flute.
- b. He walked along the street, playing on his flute.
- 4a. Seated upon the balcony, they could enjoy looking at the fishermen daring surging billows in their small boats!
- b. They were seated upon the balcony, enjoying looking

at the fishermen daring the surging billows in their small boats.

- 5a. Being alone at home, he took a book and read it.  
 b. He was alone at home, reading a book.  
 6a. With their faces bathed in perspiration, they pulled the cart up the hill-side.  
 b. They pulled the cart up the hill-side, bathing their faces in perspiration.

### 67. The Participle and Ellipsis

67.1—Compare the sentences in each group as follows.

- 1a. She lost her mother when she was only five years old.  
 b. She lost her mother when only five years old.  
 2a. Although he is a mere boy, he has fought many battles.  
 b. Although a mere boy, he has fought many battles.  
 3a. If you are in doubt as to how many doses you should take daily, consult the doctor.  
 b. If in doubt as to how many doses you should take daily, consult the doctor.  
 4a. He wrote very good poems when he was at middle school.  
 b. He wrote very good poems when at middle school.

Sentences *a* and *b* in every group are of the same meaning.

The ellipsis in *b* is possible under these two conditions: The subjects of both the principal and the subordinate clauses are the same, and the verb in the latter is a copula and takes a subjective complement.

67.2—If the subjective complement is a participle or if the verb is of other forms than a mere copula, then we shall

have, in the *b* type sentence, a participle connected with the principal clause by a subordinate conjunction.

1. *Though* quite busily occupied, he still finds time to read the daily papers.
2. The tram will stop *if requested*.
3. This article is sure to make a sensation *when published*.
4. Nobody can become a good musician *unless trained* young.
5. I stumbled over a stone *while walking* in the dark.
6. He used to go swimming in the river *when living* there.
7. *While coming* back, I pondered and pondered over the matter.
8. He kept groping in the empty air *as if trying* to get hold of something.

Generally, subordinate clauses that express time, condition, concession, and semblance may be shortened in the way as is shown above.

### 67.3—*In*

*After cutting* some of the wires, we crept in and took the enemy by surprise (=*After we had cut, &c.*)

*cutting* is generally regarded as a gerund, for *after* may be used as a preposition. The gerund will be dealt with in Chap. VII.

67.4—The following sentences *a* are exceptions to the

general rule.

- 1a. Insert a dash only *when really needed*.
- b. Insert a dash only *when it is really needed*.
- 2a. Do not put in any punctuation marks *unless required*.
- b. Do not put in any punctuation marks *unless they are required*.

In *b* the subject of the subordinate clause is not the same as that in the principal clause. *When needed and unless required* may be classed with *if possible, if any, when necessary, etc.*

67.5—To avoid ambiguity, it is sometimes advisable to use such a shortened subordinate clause instead of a single verbal adjective. The following sentences *b* are clearer and therefore better than *a*.

- 1a. I stumbled over a brick *walking* in the dark.
- b. I stumbled over a brick *while walking* in the dark.
- 2a. *Being* a mere boy, he has fought many battles.
- b. *Though* a mere boy, he has fought many battles.

Compare the following with the above:

- 1c. I stumbled over a brick *fallen* perhaps from the wall.
- 2c. Being a mere boy, *he cannot be held* legally responsible for his acts.

In 1c, *fallen* follows *brick*, which it modifies. In 1a, *walking* occupies the position of a verbal adjective while it is meant to be a verbal adverb modifying *stumbled*. This

is why *while* must be inserted between *brick* and *walking* as in 1b.

In 2a, *being* is unable to express the meaning of concession, and so must be replaced by *though* as in 2b. But *being* in 2c is good because it is a verbal adverb of cause.

**67.6**—When the subordinate clause contains a subject different from that of the principal clause, it may be shortened in a different way: with the subject retained and the conjunction left out.

1. *This being* the case, we shall have to change our plan.
2. *The shower being* over, I went out into the garden again.
3. *The day's work being* done, they went home.
4. *Time permitting*, I shall see you tomorrow afternoon.
5. *The wind blowing* so hard, I doubt if they will come.
6. Many were at the station to see the soldiers off, their *handkerchiefs waving* and the *band playing*.
7. *He appeared on the balcony*, the *people receiving* him with ovation.
8. We were compelled to dismount, *the hill-side being* too steep.
9. *It was quiet in the house*, *everybody having gone* to bed.
10. *They being* hard up, my father lent them some money.
11. *She being* very much grieved, I persuaded her to go for a trip with me.
12. *The pontoon bridge having been completed*, the

- troops passed over it.
13. The *farmers having harvested* their wheat crop, the fields were sown with rice.
  14. The *essential points having been concurred* in, they undertook to make a draft of the final agreement.

The italicized parts of these sentences are called the absolute participle phrases and the retained subjects, the subjects of the phrases.

67.7--Compare the following with 6 and 7 above.

1. Many were at the station to see the soldiers off; their handkerchiefs were waving and the band was playing.
2. He appeared on the balcony; the people received him with ovation.

These sentences each express two main thoughts connected by a semicolon. In 6 and 7 above, the absolute participle phrases express afterthoughts.

67.8--Compare 6 and 7, 67.6, with examples 4—7 and 9—13, 62.4. Do you see that the absolute participle phrase and the explanatory verbal adjective perform similar functions? The choice between them is not free but determined by the identity or difference of the subjects. Comparison of the following sentence with 6, 67.6, will show the point clearly.

Many were at the station to see the soldiers off, ~~the~~ their handkerchiefs high.

**67.9**—*Included, excluded, and excepted* are very often used absolutely.

1. Thirteen people were killed or injured, *the chauffeur included.*
2. We will give you all, *the books excluded.*
3. I have only five dollars left, *the dimes excepted.*

*The chauffeur included* may be replaced by *including the chauffeur*; *the books excluded*, by *excluding the books*; *the dimes excepted*, by *excepting the dimes*. Thus, *including, excluding, and excepting* are participles used as prepositions. (See 65.6.)

#### Exercise XXIV

- A. Change the restrictive verbal adjectives in the examples given under 61.1 into adjective clauses.
- B. Do the same with 61.10.
- C. Replace the participial clauses under 64.6 by noun clauses.
- D. Do the same with 64.7.
- E. Using the examples given under 65.3 as samples, write out the same for all the other sentences under 65.2. Next, pick out sentences 7, 12, 16, 19, 20, and 21, and change every perfect participle in them into a present participle and *vice versa*, at the same time making other changes to suit the changed meaning of the participles. Then, substitute clauses for the new participles.
- F. Rewrite the examples under 67.2 in such a way that

the participles become a part of the finite verb in a subordinate clause.

G. Do the same for 67.6.

H. Correct mistakes in the use of infinitives and participles below.

1. The murderer concealed himself in the dark passage to lead to the chapel.
2. He went home reading.
3. He is active, energetic, and studious, saying nothing of his other virtues and abilities.
4. Do you want to have your question to be answered immediately?
5. We swooped low, to release two bombs on the enemy concentration.
6. He looked around, seeing if anybody was there.
7. They walked along the small stream, to discuss tomorrow's programme.
8. She walked zigzag on, with her children to hang on her skirts.
9. I shall have the tailor making me a new suit.
10. The teacher, to forget his own mistakes, wanted to have the whole class to be punished.
11. The submarine remained on water surface for two and a half hours, to recharge her batteries.
12. I asked him coming.
13. The enemy was forced giving ground, to withdraw to a new position.
14. The horse came to gallop down the street.
15. He remained to face the door.
16. With our hand-grenades to rain on the enemy, we

- advanced.
17. The first thing doing is to dig trenches.
  18. The front despatch tells of six enemy planes to be destroyed by our guerillas right in the enemy aerodrome.
  19. Being a college student, he writes very poor Chinese.
  20. I strained every nerve of mine to keep the thing to go.
  21. They drove slowly down the avenue, the multitude to welcome them with cheers.
  22. The submarine had to come to the water surface recharging her batteries.
  23. There was no place reposing in.
  24. I have not read the whole book; I looked over only the pages to open and the paragraphs to conclude.

I. Rewrite the following sentences by substituting participles for the finite verbs in italics and finite verbs for the participles in italics, making other necessary changes with it.

1. They saw a peasant woman *coming* towards them.
2. "I don't know", said he, and *went* into the house.
3. I will bring you a pass that *will be made* out in the name of somebody else.
4. The traitor, who only yesterday *lived* in luxury and *disseminated* reactionary theories, now lay there dead.
5. After he *had set* his conscience at rest by the offer he *had made* to the widow, the wealthy miser resumed calculating his accumulated amount of usury.
6. I will do anything that *is required* of me.
7. The young officer walked up and down the ante-room, and *waited* impatiently.

8. As he *was* bent on carrying through his own plan of study, he did not care for high marks.
9. Many a thing will produce static electricity when it *is rubbed*.
10. The masons went on labouriously with their work and *took* drinks between whiles when they *were* thirsty. (*They were* can be omitted.)
11. He studied the strangers when he *was talking* to them.
12. *Pitching* the tents, we reposed ourselves in for the night.
13. *Having pitched* our tents, we reposed ourselves in for the night.
14. Although we *were compelled* to evacuate, yet the losses that *were incurred* by the enemy were three times ours.
15. *Having been out of* position for several months, he had now very little money left.
16. What do you plan to do in the winter vacation that *is coming*.
17. Nobody in the whole village recognized him, his hair *having turned* snow white and the expression of his face *being* entirely altered.
18. The worst thing about him is vanity that *is coupled* with hypocrisy.
19. The horse *drinking* water in the brook belongs to the colonel.
20. The grandma was standing on the porch, *watching* the children play.
21. This *being* the case, we shall have to postpone our meeting.
22. The word *would*, thus used, is idiomatic.
23. The coolies, *fanning* themselves cool under the shades,

- have come from that village.
24. Do you think yourself *well-treated* here?
  25. To the *unthinking*, beauty is a curse rather than a blessing.
  26. The motor *having been repaired*, we set out the next morning.
  27. The age of large-scale production *having come*, the age of equitable distribution is on your side arising in the darkness.
  28. No wonder that he have no bosom friends, *seeing* that he is too proud and selfish. (*Seeing* is used in the same way as *judging*, *speaking*, etc. in the sentences under 65.6. Replace it, together with the *that* following, by some conjunction instead of a finite verb.)
  29. He is proud of his degree *being taken* at Harvard.
  30. Strange to say, international law does not in such cases recognize war as *being in existence*.
  31. He was out early that morning and *was walking in* the woods.
  32. The enemy's recent attack in this sector surpassed in intensity anything that *has been exercised* by us.
  33. Glaciers, *flowing* down the mountain gorges, obeyed the law of rivers.
  34. Now we have an eclipse of the moon, the earth *being* between it and the sun.
  35. Now the earth *being* between the sun and the moon, we have an eclipse of the latter.
  36. This book, originally *written* in Russian, has not yet been translated into Chinese.
  37. The whole thing depends upon fresh reserves *being sent* to the front in time.

38. They sit there all day and *kill* their time by mah-jong games.
  39. The enemy lost three ships *sunk* and at least four severely *damaged*.
  40. Dark clothes, which *absorbs* the rays of the sun, are warm in summer.
  41. The spokesman of the Military council, *reviewing* the war situation, pointed out the great losses of the enemy at Chung-tiao-san.
  42. Little Elizabeth, *sitting* by his side, was reading Handerson's stories.
  43. Many think of a pencil as *being* made of lead.
  44. A rule *learned* as an isolated rule will not do you much good.
  45. The intelligence corps reported a bigger enemy detachment *being sent* from the city.
  46. He has never taken up any serious work, *caring* only about immediate enjoyment.
  47. There is no one *doing* the job.
  48. There is no one *to carry* the message.
  49. It *was* then no longer worth while for Hitler to abide by the non-aggression pact, and so he hurled his mighty hammer of tanks, guns, and planes on the Soviet Union.
- J. Improve the following sentences.
1. They went on and ascending that interminable mountain slope,
  2. The boy stood there, his head was dropped, and did not know what to say.
  3. Throwing the intruder out, he hastened to the phone.

4. Seizing with anger, he dashed the vase on the floor.
5. "Is this the way you would treat your father?" he said, and was driven mad by anger.
6. Having seen that I was no enemy but a friend, he came forward, shaking hands with me.
7. The rain announced the approach of winter and suddenly woke me from my inactivity.
8. Now, I sum up the points I have mentioned and draw this conclusion of mine.
9. That afternoon he was seen to be roaming about with a distracted air.
10. The boy gave way to his grief and began to weep piteously.
11. Hurrah! There you are and are still living!
12. With his eyes fixing on the ceiling, his thoughts were wandering.
13. While gazing into the night, an idea came across his mind.
14. Just then, we saw a boat coming floating down the stream.
15. Having thought that the barbed wires would ensure their safety, the Japanese went to bed without posting a sentinel.
16. The orchestra could be heard playing by me here.
17. Not wishing to speak the truth, a story was made up which he thought would please the listener.
18. We reviewed the events of the last week, while criticizing ourselves.
19. Walking for a whole day, he is now exceedingly tired.
20. I want him punished.
21. Plucking up courage, the cleft proved not difficult

- to jump over.
22. The fishermen's boats are very light, thus enabling them to ride the surging billows easily.
  23. That Japanese spy spoke perfect Peiping dialect, thus taking several weeks for us to disclose his identity.
  24. The motor being repaired, we set out the next morning.
  25. The teacher asked us, giving three questions.
  26. This being a very difficult task, therefore we prepared a detailed plan before we started.
  27. He left the house and was sorely troubled in mind.
  28. This article is very badly written, thus making it almost impossible for anybody to see its central idea.
  29. And so was won the third battle of Changsha, thus frustrating the enemy's plan of annihilating our main forces and gaining access to the upper reaches of the Hsiang River (*Annihilating and gaining are gerunds.*)
  30. Whenever going dodging about the village, he was surrounded by a troop of children, to play a thousand tricks on him with impunity.
  31. There were only two successful applicants, your brother including.
  32. He gave us an example of the heroism that permeates the rank and file, relating to us the case of the "seven rear-guard heroes".
  33. They were seen by him rowing a boat that afternoon.
  34. He takes much, giving nothing.
  35. I saw him, going forward to meet him.
  36. We crossed the harbour and swooped low.
  37. Seeing him last in June, I have not heard of him since.
  38. Being the only daughter and heir of the family, her

- parents has spoiled her through indulgence.
39. He could not repair the boiler immediately, being too hot.
  40. Have you some interesting story telling. No, I have interesting nothing to tell.
  41. He was bewildered and not knowing how extricating himself from the labyrinth of learning.
  42. Then I lived in the country, being in the habit of going swimming in the river with my play-mates.
  43. Taking the chair, he put his hands over the fire to take warmth.
  44. Having given many concrete examples, the students were then led on to some abstract theories comprehensible to them.
  45. Arriving there late, the show had begun.
  46. He has given up the work, being too difficult.
  47. The temple has been standing here for more than four hundred years, being built in 1493.
  48. Do not remove the lid until thoroughly cooked.
  49. Having seen that the situation was grave, he hastened to the front.
  50. Who was it who was talking with you a moment ago?
  51. They are kept exceedingly busy from morning till night, thus giving them no time to think.
  52. He always talks about the war of resistance and uses a great many beautiful war-time expressions, being at heart selfish and rotten.
  53. Beginning to work at it six months ago, it is now still unfinished.
  54. We knew him to be a hypocrite, keeping away from him.

55. While sitting before the fire-place, his servant handed him a letter.
56. He has been a soldier for years, being straight-forward.
57. He is blind, resulting in his inability to read.
58. He was studying in a middle school, while already writing stories, and poems which very few college students could.
59. Hearing of wonderful pyramids in Egypt, he made a trip to see them.
60. The trains collided, thus killing and wounding many passengers.
61. Climbing up the city wall, the distant mountains could be seen.
62. He found it impossible to refuse, consenting though reluctantly.
63. There were hundred and eighty-five of them; the broken ones excepting.
64. Have you seen the man who has his forearms cut off, but can still use a typewriter with his feet?
65. I have seen Mr. Chow, being the director of the factory.
66. He writes good English, speaking Russian fluently.
67. You can rest recuperating.
68. You ought to get a new suit making.
69. Keep on and going.
70. Next Friday, having finished my lab, I shall meet you at the social room.
71. He composed a poem, writing four stanzas.
72. Today's paper reports three cities to be captured by our forces.

## CHAPTER VII

### THE GERUND

In form, the gerund is like the participle, but it is used differently. While the participle is used as an adjective or an adverb, the gerund is used as a noun. Or, we may say, a participle used as a noun is called a gerund.

There are present and perfect gerunds but no past gerunds. Passive meaning of the gerund is always expressed, when necessary, by the passive voice.

A gerund is a noun in disguise; it may be used as a subject, as a predicate substantive, as an appositive, as an object of a verb, and as an object of a preposition. Let us take up these uses in order.

#### 71. The Gerund Used as a Subject, a Predicate Substantive, and an Appositive

71.1—First let us see how it is used as a subject.

1. *Reading* books pleases him.
2. *Skating* is an interesting sport.
3. *Being taught* by a good teacher is a blessing.

These gerunds serve the same purpose as infinitives do. Substitution of the latter for the former does not change the original meaning.

- 1a. *To read* books pleases him.

- 2a. *To skate* is an interesting sport.  
 2a. *To be taught* by a good teacher is a blessing.

The first three examples given under 51.1 can be re-written by changing the infinitives into gerunds without altering their meaning.

4. *Teaching* is learning.  
 5. *Having mastered* the various uses of the finite verb is a pre-requisite to the study of the verbals.  
 6. *Being able to take pains* is one of the conditions of success.

71.2—All the foregoing sentences tell some general truth or belief. When some sense of the future is implied, then the gerund is not suitable.

1. You want to see him? But I think *to see* him is to surrender.  
 2. I would not under any circumstances accept such terms. *To accept* them is to give up my necessary freedom of action.

The infinitives in italics are best not replaced by gerunds.

71.3—The gerund used as a subject is sometimes introduced by *there is no*. This use is idiomatic, and so no infinitive may be substituted for it.

1. *There is no climbing* up this cliff. (= It is impossible to climb up this cliff.)

2. *There is no dodging* the question.
3. *There is no denying* the fact that he has been bribed.
4. *There is no concealing* his inner motives.
5. *There could be no disguising* the fact that the fascist states had been preparing for war before they actually started it.
6. If you should let him in, *there would be no driving* him out.

71.4—Sometimes a noun is inserted between *no* and the gerund.

1. There is no *need* informing him of it (= It is needless to inform him of it).
2. There is no *hurry* jumping aboard the Ferry-Boat (= You are in no hurry to jump aboard the Ferry-Boat).
3. There could be no *exculpation* killing so many people without a just cause (= They could not be free from charge since they have killed, etc.).

Some people prefer to call *informing*, *jumping*, and *kill-  
ing* participles. I would not insist on your calling them gerunds so long as you have learned how to use them. Idioms are idioms.

71.5—Examples of the gerund used as a predicate substantive:

1. His favorite summer sport is *swimming*.
2. Your bad habit is *reading* without thorough understanding.

3. His distress is not *having taken*. his Ph. D.
4. The chief cause of his hatred for you is your *being loved* by all.

The gerunds here, with the only exception of that in 4, may give place to infinitives.

- 1a. His favorite summer sport is *to swim*.
- 2a. Your bad habit is *to read* without thorough understanding.
- 3a. His distress is not *to have taken*. his Ph. D.

*Being loved* may not be so replaced because of the presence of *your*, as the infinitive may not be modified by possessive pronouns. More will be said about the use of possessives in connexion with the gerund later on. (infra 75.5)

*To swim* in 1a is not so good as *swimming* in 1. A detached gerund is to be preferred to a detached infinitive. (But see 71.2, and the sentences 5-8 under the following section.)

71.6—On the other hand, the infinitives in sentences 10, 11, and 12, 51.1, may not be changed into gerunds. The gerund may be used as a predicate substantive only if the verb (often a copula) serves as a sign of equality, that is, only if the gerund tells of the same thing as the subject.

Thus:

1. His favorite summer sport = swimming.
2. Your bad habit = reading without thorough understand-

standing.

3. His distress = not having taken his Ph. D.
4. The sole cause of his hatred for you = your being loved by all.

And compare these gerunds with the following infinitives.

5. *To see him is to surrender.*
6. *To accept such terms is to give up my necessary freedom of action.*
7. *To read such books is to poison yourself.*
8. *To praise her in such a way is to ruin her character.*

Here, the copulas are not signs of equality; a sense of result or of the future is implied in the infinitives. Do not use gerunds in such cases.

**71.7**—Generally a gerund-subject is followed by a gerund-complement and an infinitive-subject, by an infinitive-complement when the verb is a copula. This is psychologically natural. And it produces the good result of balanced construction and natural rhythm.

Examples of the gerund so used:

1. *Teaching is learning.* (Teaching = one form of learning.)
2. *Boasting is cheating.*
3. *Being able to take pains is being able to do useful work.*

**71.8**—Sometimes, for the sake of emphasis, a gerund

used as a subject is made a predicate substantive by supplying the expletive *it*.

- 1a. *Reading* books will occupy my attention this morning.
- b. *It is reading* books that will occupy my attention this morning.
- 2a. *Swimming* has turned out to be his favorite summer sport.
- b. *It is swimming* that has turned out to be his favorite summer sport.
- 3a. *Reading* with thorough understanding will help.
- b. *It is reading*, with thorough understanding that will help.
- 4a. *Growing* in bulk like a tree does not make a man better.
- b. *It is not growing* like a tree  
      In bulk, doth make man better be; (Ben Jonson)

Do not take *is reading*, *is swimming*, and *is growing* for the present progressive verb forms.

In the *b* type sentences, usage favors the gerund instead of the infinitive.

71.9—Used as appositives, the gerund and the infinitive are interchangeable. Sentences 16, 17, and 18, 51.1, may be rewritten thus:

1. Our task, *dislodging* the enemy from its entrenched position, is indeed not easy.
2. Their aspiration, *becoming* free and independent, is deserving of every kind of help from us.

3. Many thought he was attempting the impossible, *studying* French without a teacher.

More examples:

4. I wonder if he likes his job, { to teach } 42 hours a week, { teaching }
5. Many admire his special ability, { to learn } three different foreign languages at the same time, { learning }
6. Their work, { to mingle } with the peasants, { to teach } them, { to learn } from them, and { to organize } them, { learning } { organizing } demands a great deal of skill, patience, perseverance and self-denial.

**71.10**—After *no good*, *no use*, and *useless*, the gerund may stand in apposition with the expletive *it* just as the infinitive does.

1. It is { no use } { to cry } over spilt milk, { useless } { crying }
2. It is { no use } { to indulge } in empty talks, { no good } { indulging } { useless }
3. It is { no use } { to ask } a wolf to give up the lamb it is going to devour, { useless } { asking }
4. It is no good { to make } plans without putting them into { making }

practice.

The appositional use of the gerund in connexion with the expletive *it* has in recent years been expanding, but it has not so far been placed on an equal footing with the infinitive.

## 72. The Gerund Used as an Object of a Verb

72.1—The choice between the infinitive and the gerund used as an object of the verb need some elaboration.

Let us first examine the infinitive.

1. I determine not *to go*.
2. I wish *to see* him improve.
3. I should like *to have* both of you tomorrow.
4. What do you intend *to do*?
5. He would like very much *to be excused*.
6. Everybody wishes *to have* good health.
7. He wants *to succeed*.
8. Only fools would try *to dissuade* him.

These infinitives express either some purpose or some events future to those expressed by the principal verbs, or both. Thus used, the infinitive may not be replaced by the gerund. "I determine not *going*" is grammatically correct, but it violates the law of usage.

72.2—On the other hand, the gerund has its own special use.

1. All of us enjoy *reading* good books.
2. She could not bear *parting* from her old friend and

teacher.

3. How did he escape *being punished*?
4. I shall finish *writing* it next week.
5. Then he stopped *smoking*.
6. Sorry to have delayed *returning* your book.
7. I cannot help *thinking* that he is right.
8. He renounced *going* to the exhibition.

In contrast with the infinitive, the gerunds here imply neither sense of the future nor meaning of purpose. This is because, while the infinitive retains a large amount of the verbal nature, the gerund has become almost a noun though it may still take objects, as in 1, 4, 6, and 7. (See *infra* 75.1, 75.2, and 75.3.)

But we say, "Would you mind *coming*?" and "Would you care *to come*?" Also: "I don't mind *seeing* him" and "I don't care *to do* useless and needless work". *Mind* is followed by the gerund, and *care*, by the infinitive.

72.3--The perfect infinitive and the perfect gerund are interchangeable since they both express some event which is completed at the time indicated by the finite verb.

1. I regret { *to have* } torn your clothes by accident.  
                  { *having* }
2. He denied { *to have* } borrowed my fountain pen.  
                  { *having* }
3. I remember { *to have* } seen him somewhere.  
                  { *having* }

72.4--In 2 and 3 above, the perfect gerund may give place to the present gerund.

1. He denied *borrowing* my fountain pen.
2. I remember *seeing* him somewhere.

Such replacement is advisable when the time element need not be emphasized and the priority of the event is unmistakable. Indeed, the perfect gerund is generally regarded as clumsy, and so it is not used unless its presence is required by clearness of statement.

72.5--With certain verbs, the object-infinitive and object-gerund are mutually replaceable.

1. He likes  $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{to ride} \\ \text{riding} \end{array} \right\}$  horses.
2. She loves  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to wear} \\ \text{wearing} \end{array} \right\}$  clothes of gorgeous colours.
3. He dislikes  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to be} \\ \text{being} \end{array} \right\}$  over-raised.
4. We planned  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to bring} \\ \text{bringing} \end{array} \right\}$  the land under cultivation.
5. At mid-night we began  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to attack} \\ \text{attacking} \end{array} \right\}$ .
6. Will you teach me  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{(how)to swim?} \\ \text{swimming?} \end{array} \right\}$

72.6--*Should like* and *would like* are subjunctive future, and so may not be followed by the gerund. Compare 1 and 3 above with 3 and 5 under 72.1.

72.7--With some verbs expressing a mental state, there is a difference between the object-infinitive and the object gerund. Note the explanations in parentheses at the end of

the following sentences.

- 1a. I don't like *talking* too much (anybody's talking).
- b. I don't like *to talk* too much (my talking).
- 2a. I hate *making* a fuss of a trifle (anybody's making).
- b. I hate *to make* a fuss of a trifle (my making).
- 3a. He means *selling* the business (the sentence does not tell who is going to sell).
- b. He means *to sell* the business (he is going to sell).

Every infinitive has a notional subject mentioned in the sentence. In 1b and 2b, it is *I*; in 3b, *he*.

With the gerund, the notional subject is indeterminate. *Talking* and *making* are used in a general sense; and the subject of *selling* can only be inferred from the context.

**72.8**—That the gerund may have no determinate notional subject explains why sometimes its active form means the passive.

1. The house needs *repairing* (=The house should be repaired).
2. He's got a thrashing (=He's been thrashed).
3. I think the writer needs some *teaching* in grammar and rhetoric; his writings simply defy *reading* (= I think the writer should be taught grammar and rhetoric; his writings could hardly be read and understood).

**72.9**—The verb *stop* needs a separate treatment. The following sentences *a* and *b* mean diametrically different things.

- 1a. He stopped *speaking* (= His action of speaking ceased).
- b. He stopped *to speak* to me (= He stopped some other action in order to speak to me).
- 2a. He never stops *thinking* (= He is always in a state of thinking).
- b. He never stops *to think* (= He never uses his head).

In *a*, the gerund is the object of the verb *stop*. In *b*, the verb *stop* is intransitive and the infinitive is its adverbial modifier, expressing purpose. *In order* is omitted before *to speak* and *to think* for simplicity's sake.

Such a difference is brought out more clearly in a sentence like the following.

3. He stopped *talking* (*in order*) *to reflect*.

#### 72.10—Read the following sentences.

1. Why do you work so hard? I simply *enjoy working*.
2. When we were young, we used to go to the sea-shore and *enjoy ourselves collecting* shells.

In 1, *enjoy working* means *find much delight in working*. In 2, *collecting shells* names the means by which we enjoyed ourselves. Of course, we enjoyed collecting shells, otherwise we could not have enjoyed ourselves collecting shells. But the insertion of *ourselves* changes the function of *collecting* and consequently the meaning of the sentence.

*Working* is a gerund used as an object of the verb *enjoy*, while *collecting* is a verbal adverb modifying *enjoy*.

#### 73. The Prepositional Phrase Containing a Gerund

73.1—The gerund is used the most frequently as an object of a preposition. Examples:

1. His failure is attributable to his habit of *deciding* upon important steps *without consulting* anybody.
2. He is now *in hiding*.
3. She has been reprimanded *for coming* back late.
4. Many people live useless lives *by resigning* themselves in what they call fate.
5. The boy was ashamed of his *weeping at seeing* a crowd about him.
6. What would prevent you *from doing* good if you had the will?
7. People had no end of fun *over his stammering*.
8. They amused the peasants *by singing* to them.
9. So they all fell *to talking* about the soaring prices.
10. She is far *from being* pleased with his intentional flattery.
11. Being a mere boy of seven, he could do no more to help his father *than running* errands.
12. He would not go away *without seeing* you.
13. I will not leave *without having seen* him.
14. I had the feeling of *having reached* the limit of my resources.

The italicized expressions here are prepositional phrases containing a gerund; *of deciding* is an adjective modifier of *habit*; *without consulting*, adverbial modifier of *deciding*; *in hiding*, subjective complement of *is*; *for coming*, adverbial modifier of *has been reprimanded*; *of weeping*, adverbial modifier of *ashamed*; etc., etc.

Perfect gerunds are used in 13 and 14 for emphasizing the time element. *Coming* in 3 and *seeing* in 12 are substitutes for *having come* and *having seen*. (Consult 72.4)

Compare *seeing* in 12 with *having seen* in 13.

73.2—The infinitive is used as an object of only four prepositions, *about*, *than*, *but*, and *except*. With *than* and *except*, the gerund can do the job just as well. Sentences 8 and 9, 51.1 may be rewritten thus:

1. The student thought that there was no other way out *than cheating*.
2. Little Jim had nothing to do *except wandering* about in the thick wood.

*About* is always followed by the infinitive, which means the future. (See 31.10)

*But* generally takes the infinitive as object; but if a gerund governs the substantive the *but*-phrase modifies; it is followed by the gerund.

3. He can do nothing *but talk*.
4. I enjoy *doing* anything *but talking* with him.

73.3—Study in 9, 73.1, the preposition *to*, which is not followed by *talk* but by *talking*. Then read further the following examples.

1. We have been looking forward *to your coming*.
2. Do you object *to inviting* him too?
3. They foolishly prefer *studying* English literature in vain *to building* up a sound foundation of grammar

and rhetoric.

4. He thinks himself too "well-bred" to stoop *to talking* with the labourers.
5. As his mother always kept him supplied with an excessive amount of money, he took *to gambling* when only eight years of age.
6. So kind of you to consent *to reading* the proof sheets for me.
7. Many are opposed *to his building* such a beautiful office at this time.
8. He is accustomed *to ignoring* other people's wishes and conveniences.

*Coming* in 1 and *building* in 7 may not be replaced by *come* and *build* because of the presence of *your* and *his* (see 71.5). In 3, *to build* is out of place because the main verb is *prefer* (see the following section). All the other prepositional phrases containing a gerund may be replaced by infinitives. But you may well note that *too look forward to*, *to object to*, *opposed to*, *accustomed to*, etc. may take nouns as objects. This is the reason why some grammarians are against the infinitive. In order to play safe, you may well stick to the gerund.

**73.4**—In connexion with *prefer to*, many students are prone to make mistakes. Carefully read the following and deduce rules for yourself.

- 1a. He prefers *to stay* here.
- b. He prefers *staying* here.
- c. He prefers *staying* here *to going* there.
- 2a. Don't you prefer *to depend* upon yourself?
- b. Don't you prefer *depending* upon yourself?

- e. Don't you prefer *depending* upon yourself to *court-  
ing* the favors of the big and the rich?

☉ In the *c* type sentence, *prefer* is always followed by *to*; do not say, "prefer...than". Some grammarians tolerate this form, but it is found in very few good writers.

73.5—The choice between the infinitive and the prepositional phrase containing a gerund and introduced by other prepositions than *to*, *except*, *than*, and *but* is a subject about which usages vary so much that it is almost impossible to lay down rules. But, in the main, the following points may be safely put.

A. The notion of activity (which often involves futurity or purpose or both) is prominent in the infinitive while the prepositional phrase defines the word it modifies. In "a chance to see", *to see* implies a future activity, but in "the chance of seeing", *of seeing* simply defines *chance*.

B. If the preposition has a special meaning which the infinitive cannot express, then the latter may not replace the former. *Without consulting*, *in hiding*, *for coming*, *by resigning*, *from doing*, *by singing*, *from being*, *without seeing* and *without having seen* under 73.1 are such phrases. This needs no elaboration. (In *of his weeping*, and *over his stammering*, the presence of *his* rules out the infinitive.)

C. Idioms that end with a preposition are followed by the gerund: *think of*, *clever at*, *assist in*, *far from*, *keep from*, *in despair of*, *tired of*, *on the verge of*, etc. (But there are exceptions; see *infra* 73.9.)

It remains to give a few examples and make some comparisons.

73.6—Examples of the prepositional phrase modifying a substantive.

1. You made a mistake *in believing* his words.
2. There is no other way *of learning* English than attentive reading coupled with constant practice.
3. He has no capacity *for scientific thinking*. (*Thinking* may be regarded as a pure noun; see *infra* 75.3).
4. They simply couldn't find means *of supporting* their respective families.

These prepositional phrases answer the questions, "What mistake?", "What way?", etc. They can be replaced by infinitives, but then the notion of activity becomes prominent.

73.7—And in

1. I have no plan  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{of making} \\ \text{to make} \end{array} \right\}$  any trip.
2. He gave us every assurance  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{of using} \\ \text{to use} \end{array} \right\}$  his influence  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{in securing} \\ \text{to secure} \end{array} \right\}$  their help.
3. His intention  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{of quitting} \\ \text{to quit} \end{array} \right\}$  was strengthened by a higher pay offered elsewhere.
4. He tried to appear composed; but the hurry in which he sent his reply betrayed his desire  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{of getting} \\ \text{to get} \end{array} \right\}$  the money.

The infinitive is just as good as the prepositional phrase. To

*make, to use, and to secure* imply futurity; *to quit* and *to get* imply purpose. The choice has much to do with the attitude of mind of the speaker.

Note: The Mr. Fowlers, in their *The King's English*, insist on *intention* followed by the infinitive. This insistence, however, is rather arbitrary.

73.8—When an infinitive modifying a substantive is used in the active voice to mean the passive, or in the passive voice to express certainty, necessity, etc, it may not be replaced by the prepositional phrase containing a gerund. (All the sentences in groups 3 and 4 under 52.4 contain such infinitives.)

73.9—With some adjectives, the infinitive of cause and the prepositional phrase are equally good.

1. He is afraid { of stating } it in plain language.  
                  { to state }
2. I am contented { with having } this much.  
                      { to have }
3. Everybody was surprised { at finding } him in such an  
                                  { to find } impoverished state.

But, while *surprised at finding* is right, *surprised at knowing* is unidiomatic. Similarly, *sorry* and *glad* are idiomatically followed by the infinitive. We say, "Sorry to come late" and "I am glad to have made your acquaintance", though *sorry for him* and *glad at the results* are good English. *Sorry for* and *glad at* generally do not take gerund-

objects unless some possessives intervene, as in "I am sorry for *your missing* the chance" or "I am glad at *his being* able to take pains". (See 74.4 and 75.5 for the use of the possessives.)

**73.10**—The infinitives in the sentences in groups 5 and 6, 52.4 are not replaceable by the prepositional phrase containing a gerund. (For *sure to be promoted* in 6a, see B under the following section.)

**73.11**—Two idiomatic ways need explanations.

A. *Able* is always followed by the infinitive and *capable* by the gerund.

1. He is *able to shoulder* the responsibilities.
2. He is *capable of shouldering* the responsibilities.

B. The word *sure* is followed by the infinitive and the gerund with different meanings.

3. She is *sure to succeed* (= I am certain she will succeed).
4. She is *sure of succeeding* (= She is certain that she will succeed).

But, if the subject is of the first person, the infinitive and the prepositional phrase mean the same.

**73.12**—The infinitive used as an adverbial modifier of a verb always implies a purpose or the future, and so-replacement by the prepositional phrase containing a gerund is out of the question. (See sentences 25-29, 51.1.)

On the other hand, the prepositional phrase containing a gerund is used to modify a verb under the conditions as have been stated in A and C, 73.5. (See sentences 3, 4, 6, 8, 12, and 13, 73.1.)

**73.13**—Note the use of *not...without* in 12 and 13, 73.1 and compare the following two sentences with 4 and 5, 61.2.

1. He has *never* read a novel *without studying* its social background.
2. He has *never* passed a new year's eve *without first thinking* of the poor, who have nothing to enjoy themselves with.

**73.14**—When used as an adverbial modifier, the prepositional phrase containing a gerund do different work from verbal adverbs of manner. Compare the following sentences with sentences 3, 4, 5, and 6, 65.2.

1. He spends too much time *in reading* and too little *in acting*.
2. She followed the man without his knowledge by keeping at a certain distance.
3. The demonstrator showed his skill of diving *by making* several turns in the air.
4. I could not make the people across the river hear me even *by straining* my voice to the utmost.

The difference lies here:

The verbal adverb of manner asserts a subordinate thought, while the prepositional phrase containing a gerund does not, but forms a part of the main thought.

*In reading* and *in acting* are closely connected with

*spends by keeping, with followed; by making, with showed; and by straining, with make.* But in the sentences under 65.2 mentioned above, the verbal adverbs are loosely connected with the finite verbs, and may be made finite verbs. For example, sentence 2 may be rewritten thus: "He recollected with grief those happy autumn days that he had spent with her—how they worked and read books together, discussed problems of life, and once in a while boated in the lake under the moon light." On the other hand, the gerunds in the foregoing examples cannot be made finite verbs without changing the meaning of the sentences.

73.15--The prepositional phrase containing a gerund and modifying an adjective or a verb may sometimes be replaced by an adverbial clause.

1. She has been reprimand *because she came back late.*
2. Many people live useless lives *because they resign themselves to what they call fate.*
3. The boy was ashamed of his weeping *when he saw a crowd about him.*
4. I will not leave *until I have seen him.*

Compare these sentences with 3, 4, 5, and 13, 73.1, respectively. The latter are of course simpler.

73.16--More examples of such prepositional phrases used as adverbs.

1. *On reaching* the field, I found the people dispersing.
2. *After finishing* my work, I used to rest a while by

lying on the turf by the side of the stream.

3. *On being* told that his article had been published, he expressed unbounded delight.
4. *Upon opening* the door, he was surprised to find me there.
5. *After reading* all the books he thought useful to him, he took up a new job at another library.
6. Don't you remember that *in talking* to him the other day, I warned him of the danger.
7. *Without denying* the truth of your statement, I still think it advisable to wait.
8. *Upon examining* the letter I found in the pocket of the dead Japanese soldier, I began to realize how the Japanese people already felt the effect of the war then.
9. *Before seeing* his boss, he had his speech well prepared.

*Finishing* in 2 and *reading* in 5 are used in place of their respective perfect forms ( see 72.4 ).

73.17—Such a group of words like *on reaching the field*, which is a shortened subordinate clause, is called by some grammarians a gerund phrase. The gerund phrase may be used only when its notional subject is the same as the subject of the main clause.

The following sentences are wrong.

1. On reaching the field, the *people* were dispersing.
2. After finishing my work, *it* was my habit to rest a while by lying on the turf by the side of the stream.
3. On being told that his article has been published, *I*

noticed his unbounded delight.

**73.18**--But when the gerund is used to assert something in a general sense, the foregoing rule does not apply.

1. *In keeping healthy*, sufficient sleep is the first requirement.
2. *In swimming*, the head should not be held too high.
3. *In learning to pronounce* English proper names correctly, the first thing to do is to forget the sound in Chinese.

Compare these sentences with those under **73.12**, with **30** and **31**, **51.1**, and with the sentences under **51.5**, **56.4**, **56.5**, **65.6**, **65.7**, **67.1**, and **67.3**.

#### **74. The Gerund Used as an Adjective**

**74.1**--The gerund may sometimes be used as an adjective modifier without a preposition going before it. In such a case, the gerund is placed before the noun instead of after it.

- 1a. That is a very good *place for bathing*.
- b. That is a very good *bathing place*.
- 2a. *Water for drinking* is scarce here.
- b. *Drinking water* is scarce here.
- 3a. Have you *lessons in reading* today?
- b. Have you *reading lessons* today?

*Bathing*, *drinking*, and *reading* in b are said to be gerunds used as adjectives. This is not exceptional, since nouns

are often used in the same manner, such as *country* in *country men*, *book* in *book review*, etc.

*Bathing place*, *drinking water*, *reading lessons*, and many other like expressions are often used for simplicity's sake instead of the longer ones introduced by prepositions.

74.2—For such gerunds, infinitives are sometimes good substitutes. Instead of *drinking water* it is also good to use *water to drink*. These two expressions, however, are not exactly equal. Whether they are interchangeable or not will depend upon the place they occupy in the sentence.

Of the following two sentences,

- 1a. *Drinking water* is scarce here.
- b. *Water to drink* is scarce here.

a and b mean the same thing.

But the case is different with the following.

- 2a. I have no *drinking water*.
- b. I have no *water to drink*.
- 3a. There is no *drinking water*.
- b. There is no *water to drink*.
- 4a. Give me some *drinking water*.
- b. Give me some *water to drink*.

In these groups of sentences, the sense of purpose is prominent in the infinitives, while the gerund tells of the special use of water. "Water to drink" means "water that somebody may drink", while "drinking water" means "water that is set apart for the special purpose of drinking". Consequently, the following differences arise.

A. *Water to drink* may or may not be drinking

water. A person would not care what kind of water is given him when, on the point of dying of thirst, he requested with a husky voice, "Give me some water to drink." Under ordinary circumstances, water to drink may mean "drinking water", but the meaning is only implicit.

B. *To drink* implies an action, and so has its notional subject. In 2*b*, *I* is the notional subject; in 4*b*, it is *me*. And in 3*b*, though not mentioned in the sentence, it can be inferred to be either the speaker or the person spoken to, or somebody else. This can be decided by the context. On the other hand, in all sentences *a*, *drinking* has no notional subject at all; it only describes the quality of the water. Even in 4*a*, it is not certain whether the drinking water is intended for the speaker or for somebody else to drink. ( Cf 72.7 )

74.3—Observe how the gerunds and the infinitives mean differently in the following groups of sentences.

- 1*a*. We have a good *bathing* place here.
- b*. I have no place *to bath* in.
- 2*a*. This is a *reading* lesson.
- b*. This is a lesson for you *to read*.
- 3*a*. Isn't that a *fishing* boat?
- b*. Why do you say you have no boat *to fish* in?
4. I have no *blotting* paper *to blot*.

74.4—The gerund used as an adjective must be distinguished from the restrictive verbal adjective. The following equations speak of such differences themselves.

- 1*a*. A *walking* man = a man that is walking.

- b. A *walking* stick = a stick that is carried in the hand during a walk.
- 2a. *Running* dogs = dogs that run their master's errands.
- b. *Hunting* dogs = dogs that are used for hunting.
- 3a. A *burning* house = a house that is burning.
- b. A *smoking* room = a room that is set apart for the purpose of smoking.

Reread the examples in groups 3 and 4, 52.4, and those under 61.1 and 61.2, and compare the infinitive, the participle, and the gerund used as restrictive adjective modifiers.

74.5—*Walking stick* may be written as *Walking-stick*. Thus it becomes a compound noun. Such compound nouns are many, such as, *sleeping-car*, *sitting-room*, *stepping-stone*, *blotting-paper*, *skating-rink*, *boxing-gloves*, *printing-press*, *trading-expedition*, etc. There is no rule governing the presence or absence of the hyphen; usages vary a great deal.

## 75. The Verbal Noun and the Possessives

75.1—Many grammar books draw a distinction between the gerund and the verbal noun. Study the following.

- 1a. We all enjoy *reading* good books.
- b. We all enjoy *the reading of* good books.
- 2a. Is this worth *carefully doing* at all?
- b. Is this worth *a careful doing* at all?
- 3a. He likes *riding* horses.
- b. He likes *an occasional riding of* horses.

- 4a. *Teaching* English is his profession.  
 b. *The teaching of* English his is profession.  
 5a. Your mistake is *giving* him too much power.  
 b. Your mistake is *the giving of* too much power to him.

*Reading, doing, riding, teaching, and giving* are said to be gerunds in *a* and verbal nouns in *b*. The gerund takes adverbial modifiers and, when transitive, takes objects. On the other hand, the verbal noun takes adjective modifiers and does not take any object. Thus, the verbal noun is a pure noun.

75.2—Such a distinction is worth noticing though it is blurred in the case of a gerund modified by a possessive pronoun. For example, in such a sentence as, "His writing such a letter to me is beyond my expectation", *writing* is modified by *his* but at the same time takes *letter* as its object. (Cf. 72.2)

Anyway, it is certainly futile to ascertain whether *swimming* in "Swimming is a good exercise" is a gerund or a verbal noun. Such detached gerunds are not exceptional but quite common.

So, what you should do is rather to get acquainted with the two different ways of using a gerund as is illustrated in the foregoing examples *a* and *b*. If this is well done, you may well forget about the term verbal noun.

75.3—On the other hand, there are gerunds that have come to be regarded as pure nouns through constant use, such as *saying, heading, doing, meeting, coating, meaning, living, gathering, opening, firing, etc.* They often take adjective modifiers and are frequently put in the plural:

*Confucius' sayings, his doings, three meetings, various meetings, etc. And tidings, soundings, etc. even have no singular forms.*

**75.4**—In connexion with the possessives, there is something of importance. This has to be explained in some lengthy way.

The following two sentences

1. Am I entitled *to hear*?
2. Am I entitled *to a hearing*?

have a big difference of meaning. Sentence 1 means "Do I have the claim to hear?" while 2 is equivalent to "Do I have the claim to be heard?"

Such difference of meaning has been brought about by this fact: the gerund (or *the verbal noun* if you wish) does not of necessity refer the action or the state to any person or thing mentioned in the sentence. (Consult 72.7 and 74.2, B.) To come back to the two examples given above, *to hear* refers the action to the person represented by *I*, while *hearing* is an action expected to be done not by the person *I* mentioned in the sentence, but by some other person (probably you or they) which does not appear in it but indicated somewhere in the context.

Such expressions as *entitled to a hearing* have been so often used that the meaning of *hearing* is unmistakable. But there are often cases where the agent of the action, if not clearly indicated, will remain unascertainable. The question resolves itself, therefore, into how to clearly indicate the agent in such cases.

**75.5**—The matter is very simple—place a possessive

modifier before, or an *of*-phrase after, the gerund.

1. *Your doing* the work conscientiously pleases him.
2. Are you sure of *his being admitted*.
3. The *beating of drums* woke me.
4. Only the *barking of dogs* in some far away villages could be heard.
5. This is a work of *his doing*.

In case the agent is the subject of the sentence, no possessive is necessary, except for emphasis. We do not say, "He is bent on *his succeeding*" or "I regret *my* having kept you waiting so long"; *his* and *my* ought to be omitted. But we say, "You are proud of your being rich, aren't you?" *Your* is put in here for emphasis.

**75.6**—A comparison may be made of the participial clause and the gerund modified by a possessive.

- 1a. Everybody heard *him singing*.
- b. Nobody appreciated *his singing*.
- 2a. I must see *it done* without delay.
- b. Everybody demands *its being done* without delay.
- 3a. I found *him writing* at the desk.
- b. I like *his writing* so neatly.

The choice between the participial clause and the gerund has much to do with the point of emphasis and the nature of the principal verb. It is difficult to give rules about it. My advice to you is attentive reading, both intensive and extensive.

75.7—In the following groups, both *a* and *b* are good.

- 1a. Everything depends upon *it being done* without delay.
- b. Everything depends upon *its being done* without delay.
- 2a. I don't doubt *you being able* to do it.
- b. I don't doubt *your being able* to do it.
- 3a. I cannot conceive of *him saying* such things to her.
- b. I cannot conceive of *his saying* such things to her.
- 4a. There is no proof of *him having said* that.
- b. There is no proof of *his having said* that.
- 5a. He laughed at the idea of *you objecting* to the measure.
- b. He laughed at the idea of *your objecting* to the measure.
- 6a. I am certain of *him being* bribed.
- b. I am certain of *his being* bribed.
- 7a. He is deeply moved to hear of *his friend taking* such risks.
- b. He is deeply moved to hear of *his friend's taking* such risks.

Some grammarians prefer *his friend* to *his friend's*, the latter being regarded as awkward. But the rule is overriden by many good writers.

75.8—As many nouns of inanimate objects and some collective nouns are not used in the possessive by adding *'s* to them, so they cannot be used as possessive modifiers of gerunds. With them, the *a* type sentence is the rule. Sentences 17—23, 64.6 are illustrations. In 24, *soldiers* is not put in the possessive because it is separated from *fighting* by a phrase.

But some nouns of inanimate objects are used in the possessive, and so they may stand as a modifier of the gerund. For example: "I cannot think of the *ship's leaving* without his knowledge."

### Exercise XXV

A. Replace the gerund phrases in the sentences under 73.16 by adverbial clauses.

B. Change the infinitives into gerunds and *vice versa* in the following sentences. If this cannot be done, leave them alone.

1. I may have no chance of *seeing* them any more.
2. He began *to study* English when very young.
3. *Breathing* is natural to animals.
4. He likes *to use* high-flown expressions.
5. His former hobby, *to compose* songs, has now become his main occupation.
6. Which do you prefer *having*, riches or distinction? I prefer *having* distinction, but only through *working* for the good of society as a whole.
7. Has he made a good record in the *training* school?
8. He was not ashamed *to see* so many people laughing at his lack of common sense.
9. *To boast* is *to lie*.
10. I am sure of *succeeding*.
11. Then he stopped *smoking*.
12. *Asking* questions is the *beginning* of *thinking*.
13. Won't you teach me how *to ride* a bicycle?
14. Many people like *being flattered*.
15. They simply could find no means *to meet* the ever-

- increasing expenses, except *teaching* more hours.
16. He is sure *to offend* many.
  17. We planned *to build* a canoe.
  18. She went home *to practise* singing.
  19. *To keep* healthy, physical exercise is half the battle.
  20. *Talking* with a friend after long separation is most delightful.
  21. It is no use *to blame* him; he has done his best.

C. Pick out the better or the safer one of the parallel expressions in each of the following sentences.

1. Is this a { fishing rod?  
rod for fishing?
2. I had the pleasure { to see  
of seeing } you some years ago.
3. I am sorry { to say  
for saying } that you are wrong.
4. If I could compose poetry, I should be able { to give  
of giving } fuller expression to my feelings.
5. He wants to have { folding doors  
doors to fold } here.
6. I have no time { to do  
of doing } it.
7. It was the next morning that I discovered that the night before I came within an inch { to fall  
of falling } into the well.
8. I was on the point { to fall  
of falling } overboard.
9. Books are used { to read,  
for reading, } not { to decorate  
for decorating } the shelves.

10. He enjoys  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to cheat} \\ \text{cheating} \end{array} \right\}$  others.
11. I never thought  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to study} \\ \text{of studying} \end{array} \right\}$  any other foreign language than English.
12. It is  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to enter} \\ \text{entering} \end{array} \right\}$  into active life that will help  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to kill} \\ \text{killing} \end{array} \right\}$  the closet philosopher and  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to gain} \\ \text{gaining} \end{array} \right\}$  realistic views.
13. He is in the habit  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to come} \\ \text{of coming} \end{array} \right\}$  late.
14. The possibility  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to open} \\ \text{of opening} \end{array} \right\}$  a new front in Europe attracts the attention of many.
15. This is a  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{horse to ride.} \\ \text{horse for riding.} \\ \text{riding horse.} \end{array} \right\}$
16. He is a little man who is accustomed to  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{make} \\ \text{making} \end{array} \right\}$  merry over other peoples' misfortunes.
17. Are you tired  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to have} \\ \text{of having} \end{array} \right\}$  read so much?
18. I don't know if what I have said is at all worth  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to hear.} \\ \text{a hearing.} \end{array} \right\}$
19. A *fait accompli* is something done and past  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to argue} \\ \text{arguing} \end{array} \right\}$  about.
20. Instead  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to help} \\ \text{of helping} \end{array} \right\}$  me, he unintentionally increased my difficulties.
21. Hitler himself knows well that he is on the verge  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to be} \\ \text{of being} \end{array} \right\}$  knocked out in North Africa.

22. Nobody could help  $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{to despise} \\ \text{despising} \end{array} \right\}$  such a man.
23. He was caught in the very act  $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{to steal.} \\ \text{of stealing.} \end{array} \right\}$
24. He slipped away without any  $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{one} \\ \text{one's} \end{array} \right\} \left( \begin{array}{l} \text{seeing} \\ \text{having seen} \end{array} \right)$  him.
25. We are now speeding up  $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{to load} \\ \text{loading} \end{array} \right\}$  and  $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{to unload} \\ \text{unloading} \end{array} \right\}$  the ships.
26. I impressed upon him the necessity  $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{to read} \\ \text{of reading} \end{array} \right\}$  with thorough understanding.

D. Substitute each of the expressions in italics by a gerund or some expression containing a gerund, hints being given in parentheses.

1. He likes *travels*.
2. She amused the party *with her songs*. (by)
3. He has been engaged in the building business for such a long time that he can measure any room quite accurately *by a look*. (looking)
4. The teacher took the pupil to task *because the latter had not handed in his exercises*. (for)
5. We cannot afford *to spend much money to buy books*. (the expense of)
6. *That you write your exercises so carefully* is a contributing factor of your quick improvement.
7. He opened the door *with a knife, which he ran along the crack and thus slid* the catch up. (by running...sliding)

8. She knows nothing about *cooking*.
9. They *successfully* drove a wedge into the enemy's defense. (succeeded in)
10. Everybody could not *but laugh*. (he'p)
11. I *have observed in reading history* that the greatest force in human society is the organized minority with a majority following. (never...without)
12. He *always makes* a speech in every banquet he attends. (never...with.out)
13. The commissioning of liaison officers would assist in the *establishment* of better relations.
14. Now, begin *to write*.
15. There is no *justification* for your act.

E. Improve the following sentences. Note the hints in parentheses.

1. After having read his lesson, he began to work at the exercises.
2. He is good to write, clever to study mathematics, fluent to speak, just to the point to debate, and expert to play a number of games and sports. (at, in)
3. She made up her mind of leaving her family.
4. Don't go there. Going there means never coming back again.
5. I cannot imagine his ~~to~~ laugh at his unfortunate neighbour.
6. Are you not glad at coming home again?
7. I said all that I knew with the view to prove his innocence. (*With the view of* is a prepositional phrase.)
8. The plan needs being reshaped.

9. So far from to do harm, the earthworm does us good to break up and turn over the earth.
10. On questioning as to the truth of his statement, he hesitated.
11. I prefer to die free instead to live the life of a slave.
12. I don't mind to stay a few days more.
13. This contributes a great deal to the politically awakening of the Indian people.
14. So far from to be lazy, he is full of energy.
15. After having passed the resolution, the meeting was adjourned.
16. Fools never stop thinking.
17. What was keeping you to come back?(from)
18. I cou'd not help to scold him.
19. He was disappointed to have been deprived of the opportunity to attend the lecture.
20. Are you not going to the meeting? No, going there is wasting my time.
21. The ugly duck turned into a beautiful swan after enduring many hardships.
22. When the Lu-kou-chiao incident broke out, we were compelled to make one of the greatest decisions in history: one alternative was surrendering, accepting the chains of slavery, helping turning backward the fascist clock of time, and halting the big strides history had been taking in the last three decades; the other was fighting the invader, vindicating the cause of the emancipation of the oppressed, and helping building up through these sacrifices that history called upon us to undergo a new world of freedom, equality and opulence for all.
23. As soon as I discovered that any further argument

- would be useless, I ended by resign myself to his presence.
24. In despair to settle the matter by compromise, they resorted to take drastic measures.
  25. Tell me the truth; I hate to lie.
  26. Do you object to me leaving now?
  27. I can join you later only by to leave you now.
  28. They all fell to talk about the scandal.
  29. I don't like him flattering at all.
  30. After having written one letter, he began writing another.
  31. He has nothing doing.
  32. It is no use to make plans without having examined the actual needs of the people concerned.
  33. To start business for himself, he became his own master. (by)
  34. They dislike him taking part in it.
  35. Is there no repairing the pen when the sheep is lost?
  36. He would not leave the office without setting everything in order.
  37. Be silent! Stop to talk.
  38. Is there anything that would prevent you to serve society?
  39. Do you mind seeing your letter by me?
  40. He promised never doing it again.
  41. Everybody was tired to wait.
  42. I am exceedingly tired to have overworked myself.  
(from)
  43. He denies having seen me the other day.
  44. Upon opening the door, escaping gas was smelt by him.
  45. What's your answer? I didn't say a word. I an-

- swered laughing at him.
46. The school-master permitted him going back home for a few days.
  47. I resent him always being late.
  48. We are beginning knowing his ways.
  49. I want his coming.
  50. Have you a stick for walking?
  51. A loudly knocking at the door was heard.
  52. This book is worth a carefully reading.
  53. He is fond to fish. ( of )
  54. The enemy showed signs to weaken. ( of )
  55. They often enjoy playing bridge; but I don't enjoy myself playing it.
  56. He spends most of his money buying books.
  57. Do you entertain doubt as to him being able to do it?
  58. Stop to do it; it is not right.
  59. Some complain to have not enough time; others leave no stone unturned with finding out various means to kill it.
  60. We spent the whole day by examining the papers.
  61. I would not object to this rug's being taken away.
  62. Hastily eating, though condemned by doctors, is the rule in the army.
  63. Everybody wishes succeeding.

## Exercise XXVI

Supply appropriate verbals:

A cool autumn night, about half past nine. He was lying on a sofa, with his head (lean) backward, his eyes (close), and his right hand (hold) a letter and (rest) on his thigh. A sock, (hang) against the wall opposite to the sofa, kept on

( tick ) monotonously. Gradually he opened his eyes, and slowly (rise) and (yawn), took a look of the clock, (murmur): "it is nine-thirty now; why hasn't he come?"

(Be) tired of waiting, he went to the window, and opened it (look) out. The rain had stopped. All was dark and quiet outside, only the (bark) of dogs in some far away villages could be heard. After (listen) for a while, he closed the window again. With (drop) eyes, he began (pace) up and down the room, now (look) at the letter, then (cast) a glance at the clock. Suddenly he stopped (walk); he heard somebody (knock) at the gate. Then foot-steps came up the staircase, and after a moment the door opened. But he was surprised (find) (stand) before him a tall, stout fellow, not the man he had been waiting for.

After you have done this exercise, compare it with Exercise XVI.

## *Epilogue:*

### *How to Enjoy Your Pleasant Journey Onward*

Here we are. Let us go ashore. Now you are through with the Ferry-Boat and here begins your journey overland. Since you have done earnest work in the boat, you are to be abundantly rewarded for it; your journey onward will be simply pleasant. My hearty congratulations!

But it is perhaps necessary for me to explain to you what the "pleasant journey" means. By it I do not mean a bridge game in the Blue Express or a delightful talk in a stream-line Chevrolet. Nothing of that sort. The journey will have to be taken on foot. There will be hills that you must climb over, fords that you must wade through, thick and dark woods that you must traverse. But I am certain that you are now tough enough for all these. Unworthy people enjoy idleness; worthy people enjoy working. The journey onward, disagreeable to the idlers, will be undoubtedly pleasant to you who are tough.

I believe you are now well prepared to take the journey alone; but I cannot leave you without giving you some advices as to how to enjoy it. It is important that you should take the right road and not waste your time and energy by going astray. And I have to tell you where the dangerous and misleading roads are and where you may linger round to enjoy the scenery. Are you interested in

these things?

But the following sections are not intended to be comprehensive, the subjects to be touched upon are only what I regard as the most important, and the discussions are to serve only as illustrations of some principles. I hope you will be able to amplify the few examples given and fittingly and skillfully apply the principles suggested on your further journey of the mastery of English.

### 1. Do Not Be Grammar-minded

As the grammar-translation method has been very often used in the teaching of English in our schools, some students suffer from a certain degree of what we may call "grammar-mindedness", that is, absorption in grammar more than is necessary. This is a waste and often impedes, instead of hastening, progress.

The truth is this: While grammar is a scientific study of language, a language is not always scientific. This is why the study of a language is not only a science but also an art. Over-consciousness of grammar is rather harmful. The criterion should be thorough understanding; so long as this is accomplished, you do not need to go into unnecessary grammatical controversies. Let me illustrate this.

In

1. She is *like* her mother.
2. This book is *worth* a careful reading.

*like* and *worth* are followed by nouns which seem to be their objects. Shall we call them adjectives or prepositions? This question need not be answered. (Cf. 46.8, 61.6, 71.4, and

75.2) All you have to do is to learn to use them in the way shown.

More examples of the like kind:

3. He has given up mah-jong games, *except now and then.*
4. You have done more than *is necessary.*
5. There was not a single soldier there but *was determined to fight to a finish.*
6. I had no idea *that he was trying to deceive me.*
7. I was surprised *that he was there too.*
8. Are you quite sure *that you locked the drawer that night?*

*Now and then* is an adverbial phrase, but in 2, it seems to be the object of the preposition *except*. In 4 and 5, we have a clause without a subject. In 6, 7, and 8, are the clauses introduced by *that* noun clauses or adverbial clauses?

Let different people use different names. If we first called a dog a cat, then a dog is a cat now. Your business is to understand thoroughly what the sentences really mean and then try to imitate.

Again, in colloquial English, we say, "Me?" "It is me." "Who is that for?" instead of "I?" "It is I." "Whom is that for?" What can the grammar-minded do with them?

And some over-careful grammarians say that *if* should not be used in place of *whether*, but this is not the belief of many good writers. A sentence like "I don't know if he is coming" is good English.

I may have to say a word about diagram.

Diagram is helpful in the initial stages of the study of grammar, but this ingenious device must not be abused.

Certainly it is good pomp to fill a whole page or a whole blackboard with a single diagram of some very long compound-complex sentence, but useful knowledge has nothing in common with a dazzling display. If it be not judiciously handled, I would prefer that you know nothing of diagram.

It is probably necessary for you to read some good grammars, but always remember: Grammar is made for language, not language for grammar.

And, what is more, the sooner you can forget about grammar, the better it is. But such unconsciousness of grammar will come only naturally and only through effort at thorough understanding.

## 2. Avoid Common Errors by Attentive Reading and Frequent Consultation of Dictionary

Many students do a lot of mis-spelling, such as *runing* for *running*, *writen* for *written*, *have began* for *have begun*, *flew* for *flowed*, *fourty* for *forty*, *foreward* for *forward*, etc. Many cannot distinguish *sit* from *set*, *lie* from *lay*, *rise* from *raise*, *practice* from *practise*, *hung* from *hanged*, *born* from *borne*, etc. And very few can draw a distinction between *idle* and *lazy*, *take* and *bring*, *dangerous* and *in danger*, *healthy* and *healthful*, *delighted* and *delightful*, *a little* and *the little*, *send* and *send for*, *hear* and *hear of*, *ask* and *ask of*, *consist of* and *consist in*, *concerned about* and *concerned in*, *in course of* and *in the course of*, *out of question* and *out of the question*, etc.

Why should they be ignorant of these things?

The cause is twofold: careless reading and aversion to consult a dictionary. The cure lies in the opposite: attentive

reading and frequent consultation of dictionary.

Besides, there are mistakes in grammar which are also brought about by careless reading. See if you can discover such mistakes in the following.

1. He could take no other course besides resigning.
2. Thorough understanding is when a person knows the form and meaning of all the words he reads, their inter-relations, and the meaning of all punctuation marks.
3. Since the Japanese capitalists and militarists started the war of aggression by imposing their will upon the Japanese people, who are not our enemies.
4. The magnates of Wall Street think differently on this question than the City of London.
5. I will have nothing to do with him except he apologizes.
6. Peter the Great, having spent a year in the shipyard at Saardam, and learned the business, he returned to Russia.
7. He saw the girl to whom he had been introduced but he had forgotten her name.
8. He died from tuberculosis.
9. He said, "Are you hurt"?

These sentences should be so corrected:

1. Replace *besides* by *than*.
2. Leave out *when a person* and change *knows* into *knowing* and *he* into *one*.
3. Change *who* into *the latter*.
4. Change *than* into *from* and insert *those of* between

- from* and *the*.
5. Replace *except* by *unless*.
  6. Leave out *he*.
  7. Insert *whose name* between *but* and *he* and cross out *her name*.
  8. Change *from* into *of*.
  9. Put the question mark between *hurt* and the second pair of the inverted commas.

Some books on correction of common errors and faulty sentences are useful. But if you do not at the same time read other books with good attention and thorough understanding, you curtail their value. And it is most probable that after you are through with them, you forget all about the corrections.

I repeat it to you: Attentive reading and frequent consultation of dictionary is the surest road to success in the study of any foreign language.

Some students are no less passive than a radio receiving set; but you must learn to be active. Turn your books around and ask them questions.

### 3. Learn the Proper Use of a Dictionary

Dictionaries have not always been properly used, and some students almost never make use of them. This is the result of the bad practice that the teacher gives the students the meaning of every new word in the lesson instead of requiring them to find it out themselves. This practice, besides encouraging laziness, is bad in several other respects.

It gives the students a wrong notion of the usefulness

of a dictionary. They think that it gives the meaning of words only, while in fact it can tell you many other things only if you will ask of it by turning over its pages.

And, what is most important, a word is a dead thing when left alone; it lives only when connected with other words. So it will not do to know a word merely as a word. Of course you must possess a tolerably big vocabulary before you can read with ease and write with proficiency. But a vocabulary of dead, isolated words, however big, will not help. In the last analysis, the determining factor is not how many words but how many sentences you really understand and can freely use to express your thoughts. And it is only after you have become a good user of dictionary that you can impart life to a word by ascertaining its proper place among other words in the sentence.

The worst thing is giving dead Chinese equivalents to isolated English words. It is conducive to what we call Chinese English.

A good user of dictionary must make it tell the following.

1. Spelling and inflections: *write, writing, wrote, written; die, dying, died; dye, dyeing, dyed; bamboo, bamboos; torpedo, torpedoes, etc.*
2. Pronunciation (including clear vowels and slur-vowels) and accent. (Linking and assimilation, which are very important in spoken English, are however incapable of being explained in dictionaries.)
3. The part or parts of speech the word belongs.
4. That one of the definitions that fits the context.
5. The change of meaning and that of pronunciation

and accent with the derivatives: *nātion, nātional, natio n-  
glization, nationalit̄y; derivē, derivātion, derivātive, etc.*

6. Phrases that are formed with the word, especially that appears in the reading.

If your dictionary does not tell all these, buy another one that tells.

If you have so many new words in the reading that it takes too much time to do all these, select other readings that give you fewer new words.

I do not mean that for every word you ought to learn by heart all that are mentioned under these six headings, but you must glance over them. At first, much time seems to be wasted, but by and by you will discover certain parallelism, which will save much of your time later on. Rest assured, the time you spend and the pains you take will be repaid tenfold.

Below are some examples of such parallelism.

1. { *derivē, derivātion, derivātive.*  
*conserve, conservātion, conservātive.*  
*determinē, determinātion, determinātive.*
2. { *exist, existēce, existēnt.*  
*repent, repentānce, repentānt.*
3. { *rēal, rēalize, rēalizātion, rēally, unrēal, rēalism,*  
*rēalist, rēalistic.*  
*natural, naturalize, naturalizātion, naturally, un-  
natural, naturalism, naturalist, naturalistic.*
4. { *present(n), present(v), presentātion.*  
*protest(n), protest(v), protestātion.*
5. { *proceed, process, procession, processional.*  
*succeed, success, succession, successional.*

- |    |   |   |
|----|---|---|
| 6. | { | die, dying, died.<br>tie, tying, tied.                                      |
| 7. | { | nātion, nātional.<br>nature, nātural.<br>type, tȳpical.                     |
| 8. | { | plēase, plēasant.<br>knōw, knōwledge.<br>brēathe, brēath.<br>nōse, nōstril. |

These are some of the good scenery you must stop to enjoy. The proper use of dictionary will eventually give you the power to understand the meaning and the use of many new words without consulting it.

#### 4. Study Rhetoric Wisely

Just as some students regard grammar as consisting of definitions and rules and paradigms, so they study rhetoric for rhetoric's sake. Now that you have acquired a correct conception of grammar, it is well that you apply the same method to the study of rhetoric. In order that you may not have the least chance of going astray, I offer you the following advice.

Do not try to recite the exact words of the rules of unity, coherence, etc, but try to understand them and see how the authors you read conform to, or violate, these rules. Similarly it is not enough that you know the difference between a loose sentence and a periodic sentence as is explained in the text-book; you must try to discern in your own readings why a loose sentence is used here and a periodic sen-

tence there. Attentive reading is always the first requirement.

Some books on rhetoric give a great many terms: metaphor, simile, irony, antithesis, hyperbole, etc. It is of course good to be able to remember them: but it is more important to know what they mean, to discern them in your readings, and to imitate them in your own writing and speaking. If you can do these things, it does not matter if you forget the names, and the chances are that you will never forget them.

So, you see, in studying rhetoric, the general principles are the same as are applicable to the study of grammar.

But grammar and rhetoric are quite different in one respect.

We speak of English grammar, German grammar, Japanese grammar, etc., but we never have such things as English rhetoric, Russian rhetoric, or Italian rhetoric. Why? Because grammar deals with the structure of words and their inter-relations in groups, which are different with different languages; while rhetorical principles are applicable to all of them.

This makes rhetoric a very easy subject to some Chinese students of English and a very difficult one to others. The reason is that some students have mastered their mother tongue, while others make their forehead sweat when compelled to wield the Chinese brush.

You may want some concrete examples. Well!

The other day, while walking along some street, I happened to see a very big advertisement sign in front of a shop, which read: 各貨價格低廉, 本市首稱第一. The composer of the sign must be ignorant of rhetoric; for 首 means "first",

and 第一 means "number one"; they should not be used together

Again, in the play Kanglusu (甘露寺), Lusu (魯肅) praises Chaoyun (趙雲) as a man whose "heading-the-world-list heroic name leads in the nine Chou" (蓋世英名冠九洲). In fact, "heading-the-world-list" means the same as "leading in the nine Chou". Either of these expressions must be changed in order to make the sentence rhetorically good.

And, have you not sometimes heard say 女太太, 外國洋人, and the like?

In rhetoric, such repetition of the same idea with different expressions is called redundance or tautology. It is condemned and must be avoided. Those students who do not see this point in 首稱第一 and 蓋世英名冠九洲 will find rhetoric a difficult subject, but those who do know it will find it easy to avoid such mistakes as follows.

1. He has *abundant wealth* and *plenty of resources*.
2. This is *universally* known to *all people*.
3. He often makes *extemporaneous* speeches *without preparation*.
4. Please *repeat* that *again*.
5. This boy is *equally as* clever as his sister.
6. All was *tranquil silence*.

The point is this: If you do write good Chinese and do read English with thorough understanding, then you will, in writing English, follow the same principles of rhetoric. Indeed, I never expect a Chinese student who has not mastered his mother tongue to write good English (unless he is brought up in an English-speaking environment).

Principles of rhetoric are too many to be enumerated

here. But, all such principles put together are not worth the one advice often given by good grammarians and rhetoricians:

*First learn to write simple and clear.*

I cannot leave you with any better advice than this.

Good-bye! Good luck! My dear reader!

## Appendix A.

### How the Various Tenses Are Formed

Basic forms :

1. Progressive = (verb to be) + (present participle)

Ex: He is writing

2. Perfect = (verb to have) + (past participle)

Ex: He has written

3. Passive = (verb to be) + (past participle)

Ex: It is written

Derivative forms: These forms are derived from the three basic forms. The derivation is simple addition of equations, only the plus sign in the middle is replaced by a of,

4. Progressive, passive

$$\begin{aligned} &= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{verb} \\ \text{to be} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{present} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{verb} \\ \text{to be} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{past} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{verb} \\ \text{to be} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{present} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right\} \text{ of } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{verb} \\ \text{to be} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{past} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

Ex: It is being written

5. Perfect passive

$$= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{verb} \\ \text{to have} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{past} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{verb} \\ \text{to be} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{past} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{verb} \\ \text{to have} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{past} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right\} \text{ of } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{verb} \\ \text{to be} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{past} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right\}$$

Ex: It has been written

#### 6. Perfect progressive

$$= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{verb} \\ \text{to have} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{past} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{verb} \\ \text{to be} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{present} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{verb} \\ \text{to have} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{past} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right\} \text{ of } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{verb} \\ \text{to be} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{present} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right\}$$

Ex: He has been writing

#### 7. Perfect progressive passive—*writing*

The examples given above are of the present tense. The other tenses are formed by changing the first member of the verb phrase concerned. (See appendix B.)

Appendix B.

Inflection Tables--Indicative Mood

Active

Passive

Present Indefinite

I teach  
You teach  
He teaches  
We teach  
You teach  
They teach

I am taught  
You are taught  
He is taught  
We are taught  
You are taught  
They are taught

Present Progressive

I am teaching  
You are teaching  
He is teaching  
We are teaching  
You are teaching  
They are teaching

I am being taught  
You are being taught  
He is being taught  
We are being taught  
You are being taught  
They are being taught

Present Perfect

I have taught  
You have taught  
He has taught  
We have taught  
You have taught  
They have taught

I have been taught  
You have been taught  
He has been taught  
We have been taught  
You have been taught  
They have been taught

## Present Perfect Progressive

I have been teaching .	<i>wanting</i>
You have been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
He has been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
We have been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
You have been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
They have been teaching	<i>wanting</i>

## Past Indefinite

I taught	I was taught
You taught	You were taught
He taught	He was taught
We taught	We were taught
You taught	You were taught
They taught	They were taught

## Past Progressive

I was teaching	I was being taught
You were teaching	You were being taught
He was teaching	He was being taught
We were teaching	We were being taught
You were teaching	You were being taught
They were teaching	They were being taught

## Past Perfect

I had taught	I had been taught
You had taught	You had been taught
He had taught	He had been taught
We had taught	We had been taught
You had taught	You had been taught
They had taught	They had been taught

---

 Past Perfect Progressive

I had been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
You had been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
He had been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
We had been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
You had been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
They had been teaching	<i>wanting</i>

## Future Indefinite

I shall teach	I shall be taught
You will teach	You will be taught
He will teach	He will be taught
We shall teach	We shall be taught
You will teach	You will be taught
He will teach	They will be taught

## Future Progressive

I shall be teaching	I shall be being taught
You will be teaching	You will be being taught
He will be teaching	He will be being taught
We shall be teaching	We shall be being taught
You will be teaching	You will be being taught
They will be teaching	They will be being taught

## Future Perfect

I shall have taught	I shall have been taught
You will have taught	You will have been taught
He will have taught	He will have been taught
We shall have taught	We shall have been taught
You will have taught	You will have been taught
They will have taught	They will have been taught

## Future Perfect Progressive

I shall have been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
You will have been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
He will have been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
We shall have been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
You will have been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
They will have been teaching	<i>wanting</i>

## Past Future Indefinite

I should teach	I should be taught
You would teach	You would be taught
He would teach	He would be taught
We should teach	We should be taught
You would teach	You would be taught
They would teach	They would be taught

## Past Future Progressive

I should be teaching	I should be being taught
You would be teaching	You would be being taught
He would be teaching	He would be being taught
We should be teaching	We should be being taught
You would be teaching	You would be being taught
They would be teaching	They would be being taught

## Past Future Perfect

I should have taught	I should have been taught
You would have taught	You would have been taught
He would have taught	He would have been taught
We should have taught	We should have been taught
You would have taught	You would have been taught
They would have taught	They would have been taught

**Past Future Perfect Progressive**

I should have been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
You would have been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
He would have been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
We should have been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
You would have been teaching	<i>wanting</i>
They would have been teaching	<i>wanting</i>

## Appendix C.

### Inflection Tables—Subjunctive; Mood.

1. Subjunctive verbs, third person singular present, does not end in *s* or *es*.
2. Subjunctive verbs have no future forms; subjunctive future is expressed by the past future forms.
3. Only those forms different from the indicative forms are given below.

#### Present Indefinite

( *verb to be* )

I be  
You be  
He be  
We be  
You be  
They be

( *verb to have* )

I have  
You have  
He have  
We have  
You have  
They have

#### Past Indefinite

( *verb to be* )

I were(or was)  
You were  
He were (or was)  
We were  
You were  
They were

---

Note: In current spoken English, *was* is used oftener than *were* with the first and the third persons singular. But the former rarely replaces the latter in such frequently used expressions as *were I in your place*, *if I were you*, *were it possible*, etc.

Appendix D.

Inflection Tables--Verbals

1. The infinitive:

Active		Passive
	Indefinite	
to teach		to be taught
	Progressive	
to be teaching		<i>wanting</i>
	Perfect	
to have taught		to have been taught
	Perfect Progressive	
to have been teaching		<i>wanting</i>

2. The participle and the gerund:

Active		Passive
	Present	
teaching		Being taught

---

Past

*wanting*

taught

Perfect

having taught

having been taught

Note: The gerund has no past forms.

## Appendix E.

### The Subjective and the Objective Complements

A complement is a word used to complete the meaning of a verb. When it completes the meaning of an intransitive verb, it always tells something about the subject, and so, it is called a subjective complement. When used to complete the meaning of a transitive verb, then it is the object that it says something about; hence the name objective complement.

A complement is not necessarily a single word; it is sometimes a group of words.

#### I. The subjective complement—examples:

##### 1. Nouns used as subjective complements:

- a. He is my *brother*.
- b. A butterfly is an *insect*.

##### 2. Pronouns used as complements:

- a. Oh, it's *you*.
- b. *Who* is it?

##### 3. Adjectives used as complements:

- a. We are all *ready*.
- b. He looks much *older* than last year.

##### 4. Infinitives used as complements:

- a. He seems *to have read* much.  
 b. Who is *to blame*?
5. Participles used as complements:  
 a. He appears very much *pleased*.  
 b. Go on *reading*.
6. Prepositional phrases used as complements:  
 a. Complements are *of many kinds*.  
 b. The city lay *in ruins*.
7. Adverbs used as complements:  
 a. Everybody is *out*.  
 b. Is there anybody *upstairs*?
8. Clauses used as complements:  
 a. The chances are *that they will come after supper*.  
 b. This is *why I am teaching here*.

Nouns and pronouns used as subjective-complements are often called predicate nominatives or predicate substantives; and adjectives and participles, predicate adjectives.

Predicate adjectives must be clearly distinguished from adverbial modifiers. Examples:

- 1a. He looked *carefully* into the box. (Not *careful*, but *carefully*; since *carefully* describes the manner of his looking.)  
 b. He looked *pale*. (*pale* does not modify *looked*, but

- tells of his appearance.)
- 2a. He has gone *alone*.
  - b. He has gone *mad*.
  - 3a. I fell *down*. (*Down* means *toward a lower position*; it is an adverb.)
  - b. I fell *prostrate*. (*Prostrate* does not describe the manner of falling but, rather, the state resulting from the falling; it is a predicate adjective.)
  4. She is now lying *sick in bed*. (*Sick* is a predicate adjective. *In bed* is an adverbial modifier.)
  5. He lay *hidden in the bush*. (*Hidden* is a predicate adjective. *In the bush* modifies *hidden*.)

More examples of the subjective complements:

1. He sits here our *guest*.
2. He left school a good *Latinist*.
3. Now, the school is *over*.
4. The tub appeared *to be heavy*. (*Heavy* is a predicate adjective to the infinitive *to be*.)
5. When I got *close* to the house, I found it *empty*.
6. Sugar tastes *sweet*.
7. He is now *in hiding*.
8. I was *out* of breath.
9. He sprang to his feet a raging *maniac*.
10. It is *due* to your own negligence.
11. His heart is *of a sterner stuff*.
12. He looks very much *like* his father.
13. What has become *of him*?
14. I was *out* of touch with them.
15. Everything here is *at your disposal*.
16. One day the animal broke *loose*.

17. He is quite *at home* in swimming.
18. If that be the *case*, then we shall all go *hungry*.
19. Do you want to keep *well*?
20. Although they are *rough*, yet they mean *well*.
21. He stands *number one*.
22. They now stand *in need* of much fund.
23. It is *ten to one* that he will fail.
24. That statement sounds *queer*.
25. His attempt was *of no avail*.
26. The machine is *out of gear*.
27. Are you *through* with your work? I am still *at it*.
28. Now, speak; I am all *attention*.

11 The objective complement--examples:

1. Nouns used as objective complements:

- a. They elected him *magistrate*.
- b. He thought all other people *fools*.

2. Adjectives used as objective complements:

- a. His words made his father *mad*.
- b. Take it *easy*.

3. Infinitives used as objective complements:

- a. I took the servant *to be* a relative of his.
- b. They made him *tell* the truth.

4. Participles used as objective complements:

- a. The girl found the pigeon still *sitting* on the *egg*.

- b. I shall have my hair *cut to-morrow*.
5. Prepositional phrases used as objective complements:
- a. We found ourselves *in a dilemma*.
- b. He always keeps me *in the dark* about his affairs.
6. Adverbs used as objective complements:
- a. I thought him *out* of position.
- b. I saw him *across* ~~the river~~.

Compare the sentences in each group as follows:

- 1a. They made me a *box*. (*Box* is the object of *made*; *me* is the indirect object.)
- b. They made me *adviser*. (I was the adviser and the adviser was I.)
- 2a. He filled the boys *with legends* and *anecdotes*. (*With legends* and *with anecdotes* tell the means by which he filled the boys; thus they are adverbial modifiers.)
- b. She fed the children *fat*. (*fat* tells of the result of the feeding and is therefore a complement.)
- 3a. Wrap it up *tightly*. (*Tightly*, an adverb, answers the question how.)
- b. Wrap it up *tight*. (This sentence emphasizes not the *manner* but the *result* of the wrapping.)
- 4a. The Japanese burned their own wounded men in that house. (*In that house* answers the question where.)
- b. The Japanese burned their own wounded men *alive*.

(*Alive* tells of the condition the wounded men were in when they were given a burning.)

A transitive verb that takes objective complements is called a factitive verb.

When a factitive verb is made passive, the objective complement it takes becomes a subjective complement. In the following sentences, the objective complements in *a* are made subjective complements in *b*.

- 1a. They elected him *president*.
- b. He was elected *president*.
- 2a. The boy set the bird *free*.
- b. The bird was set *free* by the boy.
- 3a. They made him *tell* the truth.
- b. He was made *to tell* the truth.
- 4a. He left all his clothes *lying* about.
- b. All his clothes was left *lying* about.
- 5a. He always keeps me *in the dark*.
- b. I am always kept *in the dark*.
- 6a. Did you find him *at home*?
- b. Was he found *at home*?

More examples of the objective complements:

1. I found myself *short* of money.
2. They found themselves *in front* of a wide river.
3. They captured many Japanese soldiers *alive*.
4. He kept me *waiting* long.
5. She heard it incessantly *repeated* that nobody was ever so clever and so charming as she.
6. Can't think yourself *helpless*.

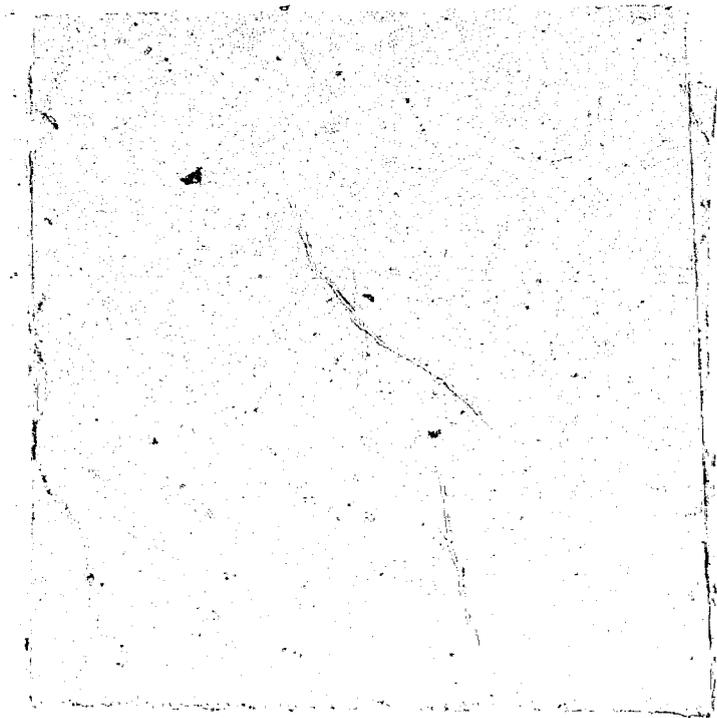
7. He saw himself *forced* to tell the truth.
8. You have made him *glad* by your timely call.
9. You'd better not to force him *to do it*. (*To do* is an objective complement *to to force*.)
10. As I was exceedingly hungry, the smell of these delicious dishes made my mouth *water*.
11. Sweep the floor *clean*.
12. Nail the picture *solid* on the wall.
13. I must have it *ready* at seven.
14. Many students consider English *difficult* to learn.
15. The newspaper reported him *to be ill*. (*Ill* is a subjective complement *to to be*.)
16. He imagined the speaker *to be me*.
17. I consider this a *question* of freedom and slavery.
18. The man I thought *to be* a doctor of wide experience proves *to be* a *quack*.
19. Many regard that expression as *being* trite.
20. He thinks it *below his dignity* to do manual work.
21. We found many *lying* dead on the field.
22. Everybody knows him *to be* not only clever but also wise.
23. I believe him *to be* a diligent student.
24. What's the use to fill it *full*.
25. Comrades, raise the standard *high*.
26. Tell me, please, if there is a way *to keep him safe*.
27. If everything makes your life *hard*, so much the better.
28. I want to make this perfectly *clear* to you.
29. Do you think it *time* to open it now?
30. That year saw him *commander-in-chief*.
32. Many fools think themselves *clever*.

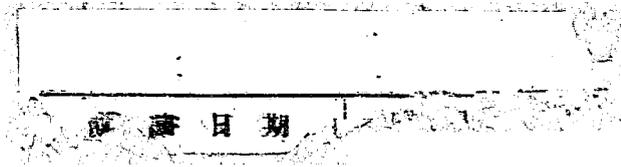
32. Many learned men think themselves *knowing too little*.

11 Here is a little exercise for you: In the following sentences tell which of the italicized expressions are complements and which are not.

1. This window looks *east*, does it not?
2. The doctor said she should keep *indoors*.
3. He always feels *sad*.
4. The boy felt very *strange* among the strangers.
5. We walked *several hours*.
6. Who can go *without water*?
7. Keep *silent*, everybody!
8. I was told *that there were many books in that library*.
9. I made *straight* for the jetty.
10. Now, boys, sit *straight* and listen to me.
11. He is considered *straight*.
12. Do you want *to do it*?
13. Only this remains *to be done*.
14. He was thought *to be* one of those who participated in the fight.
15. It stands *immovable*.
16. Continue *reading*.
17. They were all *anxiety*.
18. I wish you good *luck*.
19. He will make a *poet*.
20. I wonder if you can make out this *telegram*.
21. Don't leave your things *about* in this way.
22. The guide showed them *round*.
23. The servant broke the vase *by accident*.

24. He held the book wrong end *up*.
25. The riot woke me *up*.
26. Ask the book as many *questions* as you are capable of.
27. Do you think this a difficult *question*?
28. Now hold it *steady*.
29. No matter how *deep* you bury it, it will come *to light* soon.
30. He sent everybody the same *letter*.
31. He was caught right *in the act* of escaping.
32. Why do you always keep your fountain-pen *in the drawer*?
33. They would not let me *alone*.
34. I found him *lying* in bed.
35. Don't take it *to heart*.
36. It rises *higher* and *higher*.
37. He had his interesting story *published* in a magazine
38. I found out his address *in the directory*.
39. This book gives much food *for thought*.
40. Everybody thought him a *crook*.





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