

渡 船

英文動詞研究

THE FERRYBOAT

A STUDY OF THE ENGLISH VERB

by

C. H. LUNG

龍志霍著

修訂本

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PREFACE TO THE REVISED EDITION

A revision of this book has long been overdue, now that five years have elapsed since the manuscript was first completed. Continual classroom application of the method has made me the more aware of my own shortcomings and mistakes, and the notes I have so far made from serious and leisure reading alike have augmented so that I am obliged to dispose of them in a new edition.

In this revised edition, I have tried to make up the defects of the first edition with the original general plan intact. Besides important changes made at various points, more than thirty new subsections are added. Six sections (§§14, 31, 54, 55, 67, and 73) are almost entirely rewritten. Corresponding changes are made in the exercises.

I take this opportunity to re-express my thanks to Professor Lü Hsiang, whose review of the first edition prompted me to rewrite §§14 and 31. Acknowledgements are also due Mr. Chang Pei-lin, who, on behalf of the publisher, has made valuable comments and corrections.

C. H. LUNG

Pingfan English Language School,

Nanking,

June, 1948

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION

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 textbooks 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 competent 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 those students is to help them 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 unsparing 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 know 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 the verb is not exhaustive enough to answer the purpose, and very little effort is made in them to compare the various forms. Second, 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. Third, 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. Fourth, handicapped 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 conventional 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 moods; 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 placed in App. V.

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 ferryboat, 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 ferryboat, 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 readers, on their part, will find such an intimate form of presenta-

tion less fatiguing than an ordinary grammar book.

The Ferryboat 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 connexion with Chapp. V, VI, and VII. The selections should fulfil 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 §§22 and 23, and George Grey's *Kangaroo 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 Lü Hsiang of University of Nanking, who has very obligingly read the entire manuscript and given the author many *invaluable* suggestions. The author, of course, is solely responsible for the shortcomings.

The Ferryboat 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.

C. H. LUNG.

Chengtu, May, 1943

空白页

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，但不是因襲的陳舊文法，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。渡船打破了形式的枷鎖，自始至終注重實質，注重比較。

(3) 渡船底最重要部分是練習。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。渡船底練習約占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。這一點比某一部分的熟練還重要。

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 (in-

terlude), 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扔掉牠的日子來得很快。

作者 於南京平凡英語專修班

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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.*

PROLOGUE

At the Inquiry Office of the Ferryboat

DEAR READER:

You have obtained a copy of the *Ferryboat* and 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 cannot understand thoroughly, or simply helplessly let the lesson pass? Have you ever tried to commit to memory any lesson 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 Ferryboat. 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 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 ready 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 Ferryboat.

But I know you may entertain doubt as to the advisability of following me. Does it pay to take the Ferryboat? That is still a question. We do not know each other; we have just met. You may be afraid I shall mislead you. That is only natural. I am not hurt in the least if you do think so. Moreover, the proof of the pudding is in the eating. You will not understand the usefulness of the Ferryboat 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 make your English little 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 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 subjects. 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 coordinated 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." *It may be true. In that case, however, I rather think you have erred the other way. You must have never neglected grammar. Your neglect of grammar may have come about thus:*

You are clever; you are no bookworm. Because you are clever, you need not be hard-working in order to get a 60% mark for every course you take. The bookworms 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 bookworms,

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 talk legs 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 Allan 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 bookworm. 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 *Ferryboat* 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 *Ferryboat*. 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 Ferryboat. 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 properly; for usually every English sentence must have a verb unless it is omitted. It is high time that you learned 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 know 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 Ferryboat.

(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 Ferryboat 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 on the Ferryboat. 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 on the Ferryboat. You have to do the work yourself.

The Ferryboat is not a steamboat, nor a motor boat. It sails on oars and paddles. Nobody should, nor can, remain idle on 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 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 PRESENT

11 Present Actions and Habitual Actions

11.1 Now you are on the Ferryboat. You will begin your work with the actual and the timeless present. 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 “modal particles” (助詞) or “empty words” (虛字).

Such words 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(著)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 exercise.
 A: *Is she taking her exercise now*?
 B: No, she is not taking 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. I would advise you to read them several times. This will help you to form good habits in using the verb forms concerned. For example, every student knows that a verb in the third person singular present indefinite ends in *s* or *es*, but how many still often write or 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. I *am completing* the draft. (= 快完了)
2. The crop does not need any more rain; it *is ripening*. (= 就要熟了)
3. It is time to start now; day *is dawning*. (= 快亮了)
4. Make haste! The time *is fast approaching*. (= 馬上到了)

5. *I am finding* it out. (= 快查出來了)
6. The apples have been left here too long. *They are beginning to rot.* (= 快要壞了)
7. *You are getting* into trouble. (= 就會找到麻煩 or 找到了麻煩)
8. For lack of practice *I am forgetting* my French. (= 忘記不少了)
9. *You are getting* to like it. (= 有點愛好了)
10. *Is the business paying* well? (= 賺了錢)
11. I can still do something though *I am getting* old. (= 老了)
12. I am afraid he *is finding* the work more difficult than he expected. (= 發現了)
13. *We are dying* for news from home. (= 等得急死了)
14. Formerly we misunderstood him, but now we *are beginning to know* his ways. (= 漸漸明瞭)

In sentences 8-10, the Chinese verb is past or perfect instead of future. In 7, it may be either future or past. For the rest, 老了, 發現了, 等得急死了 are present, but the process-notion is 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 §14 below.

EXERCISE 1

Now I shall give you a written exercise. The answers to it will be found in the booklet *The Ferryboat 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 until you have finished your exercise.

I. Fill each of the blanks with either the present progressive or the present indefinite form of the verb given in parentheses as you see fit.

1. Nobody——(*take*) this dangerous road in the evening. Look, it——(*get*) dark. Listen, wind——(*howl*); 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 magazine.
 A: You——(*waste*) too much time on magazines.
 B: That is not true. First, magazines not——(*take*) much of my time. Second, 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 classmate, now — (make) progress too. Progress — (mean) happiness.

II. 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: 劉先生坐在那裏。
A: 他在那裏幹甚麼?
B: 他在那裏學英文。
A: 誰在教他英文呢?
B: 我的弟弟在教他。
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。我的弟弟說的好, 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) 嗎?
B: 是的, 收音機常常壞。收音機 (when) 壞了, 他就修理。
3. A: 你在做甚麼?
B: 我沒有做甚麼。我 (only) 在等給他。
A: 看, 他來了。 (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。他每回到我這兒來, 總是 (always) 帶些 (some) 好消息給我。
4. A: 你的姊姊在做甚麼?
B: 她在看小說。
A: 她每天看小說嗎?
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) 出來嗎?
B: 不, 太陽從東邊出來。
A: 看, 太陽出來了 (progressive)

ACTUAL AND TIMELESS PRESENT

B: 實在說來 (To speak the truth), 太陽既不 (neither) 出來, 不 (nor) 沒落; 地球繞着 (around) 太陽轉 (revolve).

III. Translate the following sentences into English, making use of the verbs enclosed in parentheses.

1. 布快乾了 (to get dry).
2. 我就準備好了 (to get ready).
3. 假期快到了 (to draw near).
4. 她漸漸被人家談論起來了 (to begin to be talked about).
5. 他快睡着了 (to fall asleep).
6. 他們是騙你的 (to try to cheat).
7. 孩子們能講一點英語了 (to begin to speak).
8. 我們剛開始 (to begin).
9. 生活漸漸艱苦起來了 (to get difficult).
10. 他們快成功了 (to succeed).
11. 鋪子賺了錢嗎 (to make money)?
12. 我們是贏了還是輸了 (to win or lose)?
13. 天 (day) 快亮 (to break) 了.

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.

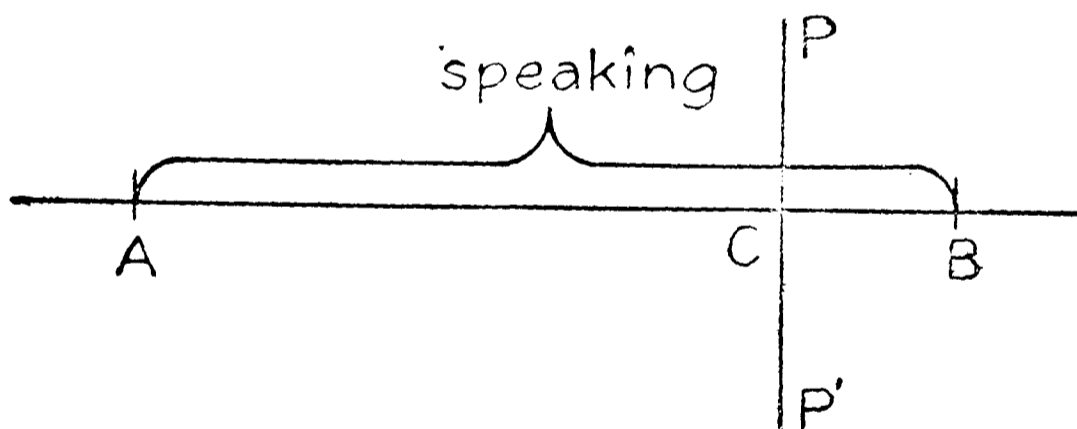
Do not make little of the exercise. You ought to know that you will have many difficulties to face as you go on. If you do not try your best to master the use of the easier verb forms now, you are bound to suffer later on. There will certainly come, a time when you will find yourself unable to surmount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

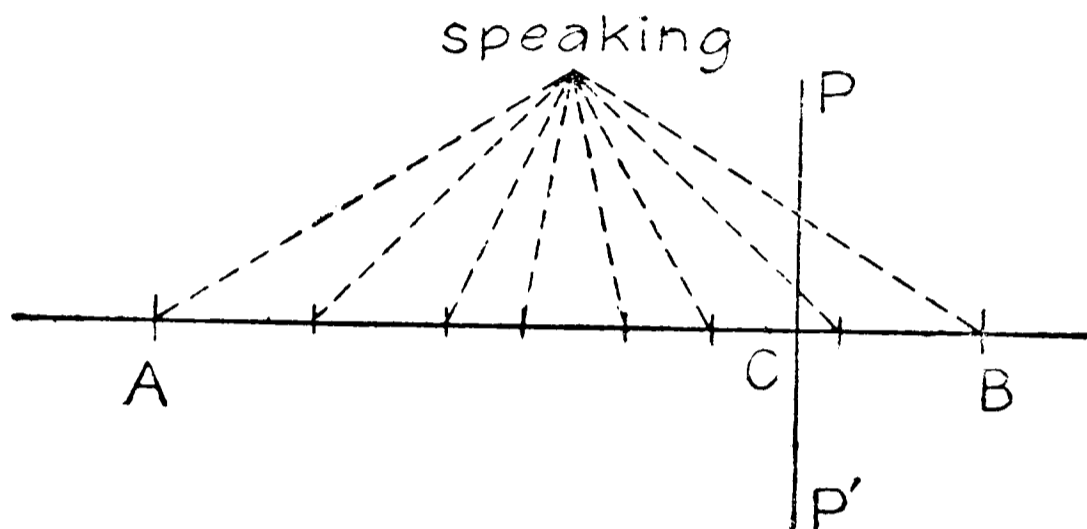
Fig. 1. The Actual Present



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. PP' 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.

Second, it does not necessarily 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 promise.

B. General truth or belief in it:

1. Time and tide *wait* for no man.
2. The bird *flics*.
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 ultra-violet 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," "They *are building* a factory," "We *are looking* forward to a time when China will be really independent and democratic and her people happy and free from want," "The fight for peace *is going* on; we *are defending* humanism as well as our civil liberties." There are certainly lulls between campaigns in the fight, 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. Never "is living")
2. I *am staying* here for the summer.
3. She is ill and *is remaining* indoors.
4. You *are wearing* long gown today.
5. He spends more than he *is earning*.
6. I need what little money *is coming* to me.
7. What *are* you *paying* for rice there?
8. What a spring we *are having*!

Lives expresses an event of long duration, and so the event is regarded as a habit. But staying, remaining, etc. are events of short duration. 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, is remaining, etc.*, 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 is *always* hearing rumours.
7. You are *always* forgetting everything.

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. Who *goes* there? (a sentry's challenge)
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 follow-

ing 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 engage 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. Read the following examples and acquaint yourself with the passive forms and their meanings. (The formation of the tenses and the voices will be found in App. I and II. Refer to them if necessary.)

- 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 accommodate the poor. The municipal government does a great deal of useful work.
3. The civil 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 very seldom 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*. (Cf. *Is the book in print?* No, it **is out of print**.)

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" instead of "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 not uncommon. 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 2

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 imperialistic 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 Without Progressive Form

14.1 Compare the verb forms in the following sentences.

1. What is it you *are looking* at?
2. How many boys *do you see* in the picture?

In *do see*, we have an example of the present indefinite expressing the actual present.

“To look” means to direct your eyes at some object; it is an activity. “To see” means to discern by sight; it is the result of looking. A person may look at something without seeing it (視而不見), but nobody can see, for example, a house without looking at it.

There are many other verbs that go in similar pairs. For example:

<i>Activity</i>	<i>Result</i>
look (at) = 看	see = 看見, 看得見
listen (to) = 聽	hear = 聽見, 聽得見
look (for) = 找	find = 找到, 發現
study = 研究	find = 認爲
recollect = 回憶	remember = 記得

Study the Chinese meanings and compare the following pairs of sentences.

- 3a. I *am looking* at it.
- b. *Do you see* it?
- 4a. He *is listening* to her.
- b. *Does he hear* her?
- 5a. They *are looking* for him.
- b. I *find* him asleep.
- 6a. They *are studying* his terms.
- b. I *find* his terms unacceptable.

Verbs expressing the result of some other activity have no progressive form.

14.2 Similarly, verbs expressing a state that is the result of some other event are also used in the present indefinite to express the actual present. His name *is* (not *is being*) Liu because he was born in a family bearing that name; you *are* (not *are being*) a student because you have been and are still at school; she *has* (not *is having*) a pair of shoes because she bought or was given them some time ago; Wang *believes* (not *is believing*) in Christianity because he was brought up in a Christian environment; we *forget* (not *are forgetting*, but cf. sentence 8, §11.4 and sentence 7, §12.10) something because it has slipped our memory. . . .

Many verbs come under this category: *need, dare, interest, exist, possess, seem, appear, belong, taste, smell, weigh, signify, show, doubt, constitute, represent, give, center, consist, like, admit, etc.*

Dare, doubt, like, admit, find (in 6b of last section), *remember, think* and *believe* express a mental state. Other examples are: *mean, say, want, desire, love, hope, feel, consider, regret, understand, see, know, dislike, accept, approve, trust, care, deny, value, despise, esteem, hate, realize, fear, etc.*

You can get an idea of the nature of these verbs by going through the lists. But do not be so silly as to try to memorize them. That such efforts would be futile is easy to prove.

14.3 This sentence—

1. I *am seeing* my sister off.

is a good one, though *see* is used in the present progressive. Here *see* itself expresses an activity instead of a state as the

result of some other activity or event. It means 送行 instead of 看見.

Again, in—

2. I *am just hearing* lectures. (cf. §12.6)

the progressive form is also legitimate. The sentence means that you just go to recitation classes without doing laboratory or other assigned work. You do not say “I *am just listening* to lectures” because you are not only lending ear to the lecturers but also trying to apprehend the contents of the lectures. Here lies another important difference between “listen to” and “hear” (cf. sentence 6, §12.10).

14.4 Make out the difference in meaning and use of the verb in each pair of sentences below with the help of the Chinese translations 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. 我認為這是生死問題。
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. 大夫在把他的脈。
4. Do you *see* the ship there? 你看見那裏的一隻船嗎?
Are you seeing many friends today? 你今天有拜會許多朋友嗎?
5. They *have* nothing to do now. 現在他們沒有事情做。
They *are having* their supper now. 他們現在正在吃晚飯。
6. Sugar *tastes* sweet. 糖味甜。
He *is tasting* the meat. 他在嘗嘗肉味。

14.5 Sometimes the progressive is used to make the statement less emphatic. Compare—

- 1a. I *hope* you have enjoyed.
- b. I *am hoping* to get it.

“I *am hoping* you have enjoyed” would convey to the departing

guests that you are not sincere. On the other hand, “I *hope* to get it” implies a stronger desire than sentence *b*, which implies that much is left to the natural course of event.

Similarly, “he forgets” means “he loses remembrance,” but “he is forgetting” means that he is in the process of forgetting (see sentence 8, §11.4) but has not entirely forgotten (cf. sentence 7, §12.10).

More examples:

2. We *are hoping* for mild weather this winter (though it may turn out severe).
3. I *am forgetting* my own birthday (this time).
4. I *am supposing* that peace do come (though nobody is sure when it will).
5. You *are not being* very polite (judging by what you are doing).
6. It *is being* the fashion (at least for the present).
7. He *is being* to the doctor (at present).
8. I *am depending* on you (in this case).

EXERCISE 3

I. Translate the following dialogues into English:

1. A: 聽著.
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, 你沒有聽見嗎; 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*) 現在進行式 (*the present progressive form*) 了嗎?
B: 我祇 (*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. 我漸漸搞熟 (*get acquainted with*) 一些動詞習語了.
A: 你還覺得 (*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: 沈澱 (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, 我相信我知道這反應是甚麼.

II. 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 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{ } \\ \text{Are you finding} \end{array} \right\}$ the exercise difficult?
11. Do you see $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{ } \\ \text{Are you seeing} \end{array} \right\}$ my meaning?
12. Do you consider $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{ } \\ \text{Are you considering} \end{array} \right\}$ him a rascal?
13. This book now $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{belongs} \\ \text{is belonging} \end{array} \right\}$ to me.
14. Formally he was an atheist; now he $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{believes} \\ \text{is believing} \end{array} \right\}$ 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
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?}

III. Translate the following sentences into English.

- 1a. 這就證明 (show) 他誠實。
b. 他在指示 (show) 我們怎樣朗誦 (read aloud) 詩。
- 2a. 這本書供給 (give) 許多思考的材料 (food for thought).
b. 他在演講 (give a lecture).
- 3a. 這枝筆寫來 (write) 順手 (smoothly).
b. 他在寫 (write) 一個劇本 (play).
- 4a. 這窗子朝 (look) 南。
b. 你在看 (look at) 甚麼?
- 5a. 你不嫌 (mind) 我抽煙 (my smoking) 嗎?
b. 她在照顧 (mind) 着嬰孩。
- 6a. 不如你所想像 (imagine) 的那麼美好 (use an adverbial clause for 如你所想像的).
b. 他在想像 (imagine) 着各種各類的 (all sorts of) 事情。
- 7a. 你明白 (see) 我的意思 (what I mean or my meaning) 嗎?
b. 他在城裏各處 (of the town) 觀光 (see sights).
- 8a. 那沒有 (make) 甚麼不同 (difference).
b. 這店賺 (make) 錢嗎?
- 9a. 我以爲 (find) 沒有意義 (no sense in it).
b. 他舉 (in raising) 右手有點困難 (find a difficulty).

15 Some Auxiliaries

15.1 Many auxiliaries are used with both the present indefinite and the present progressive form. It is well that you learn, in passing, their proper uses too. For the present I will give you only the following six.

1. *Can*, used to express ability, permission, or inference.
2. *May*,¹ used to express permission or inference.
3. *Must*, used to express necessity (sometimes volition) or inference.
4. *Ought to*,² used to express necessity or inference.
5. *Should*, used to express necessity or inference.
6. *Have to*,² used to express necessity.

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 would be 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 impoliteness. 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

¹ *May* used in the subjunctive mood will be discussed under §45.9.

² *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.

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. $\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{Can} \\ \textit{May} \end{array} \right\}$ I go now? (= Am I permitted?)
2. $\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{Can} \\ \textit{May} \end{array} \right\}$ I call on you at eight tomorrow morning?
3. You $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{can} \\ \textit{may} \end{array} \right\}$ write your letter here.
4. Yes, you $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{can} \\ \textit{may} \end{array} \right\}$ 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 [on a plane] *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 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{should} \\ \textit{ought to} \end{array} \right\}$ do it. 你應當做。
- b. You *have to* do it. 你得做或你不得不做。
- c. You *must* do it. 你必須做或你非做不可。
- 2a. Considerations other than military $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{should} \\ \textit{ought to} \end{array} \right\}$ guide 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 affirmation; *can* is used in negation and in questions.

- 1a. He *may* be rich. 他也許有錢.
- b. *Can* he be rich? 他會有錢麼?
How *can* he be rich? 他怎麼會有錢?
- c. He *cannot* be rich. 他不會有錢.
- d. He $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{should} \\ \textit{ought to} \end{array} \right\}$ be rich; for he lives in a fine villa. 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 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{should} \\ \textit{ought to} \end{array} \right\}$ 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," or *may not* may be left out without altering its sense. Compare "He *may not* be rich" with 1a and 1c.

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.

15.8 *Mustn't* implies a prohibition even stronger than *don't*. It has a milder form in *don't want*, which sounds like an advice rather than a prohibition.

- 1a. You *mustn't* do that.
- b. *Don't* do that.
- c. You *don't want* to do that.
2. You *don't want* to play that; play spade.
- 3a. We *mustn't* delay.
- b. *Don't* delay. *Don't let's* delay.
- c. We *don't want* to delay. We *want* to set to work at once.

In 3, *we* and *us* (in *let's*) include the person spoken to.

EXERCISE 4

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

1. You—(see) those boys there? They—(be) in school uniform. 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 school—(be) over. Indeed, pupils []—(teach) to play well. But they [] not—(leave) to make free of their time in such a way.
2. According to the school regulation, 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—(feel) ashamed when he—(punish). Sometimes they even—(make) fun of the proctor. Something []—(be) wrong with the school authorities.

3. I [] not—(*stay*) here any 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.

16 The Imperative Mood

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

16.1 The retention of "you"—If the command is abrupt, the subject *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; and *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 person 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.

16.6 Sometimes, a present indefinite passive is used to give commands:

*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.

1. The class *is dismissed*.
2. The meeting *is adjourned*.
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. V 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 describes the subject *her voice* and completes the meaning of the "linking" verb *is*. The insertion of *to* between it and *the audience* shows the aspect or direction in which her voice is pleasing. It tells rather of the quality of her voice; so it is a predicate adjective.

17.2 Compare the following two pairs of sentences:

- 1a. This book is very *good*.
- b. It is quite *interesting*.
- 2a. Her voice is wonderfully *sweet*.
- b. It is certainly *pleasing*.

Can you see that *interesting* and *pleasing* are used much in the same way as *good* and *sweet*? They all stand in similar relations to the verbs *is* and the subjects. Both the adjective and the participle tell something about the subject.

17.3 Both of them can be made attributive:

- 1. This is a *good book*. It is also an *interesting one*.
- 2. She has a *pleasing voice*. Hers is a very *sweet voice*.

17.4 Here are more contrasting 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. Her face is very *nice-looking*.
2. The weather is *appalling*.
3. The old man is still *living*.
4. Many patriotic students are *missing* from time to time.

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. The door is *closed*.
3. The guests are *gone*.
4. Their sons and daughters are all *spoiled*.
5. I am *tired* out.
6. He grows *tired* of life.
7. Miss Wang is *married*. She is *married* to an engineer. But her brother is *unmarried*.
8. I shall be *pleased* to see you. (Cf. I am *glad* to see you.)
9. That student is *interested* in mathematics and physics.
10. Say nothing more; I am *determined*.
11. In this sentence, the subject is *understood*.
12. You should get *rid* of that bad habit.
13. The teacher seems *disposed* to give me free access to his books.
14. He is *bent* on promotion.
15. This book is *intended* primarily for self-study.
16. 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*, *pleased with* instead of *pleased by*, *possessed with* or *possessed of* instead of *possessed by*.

- 3a. He is *satisfied with* simple life.
- b. I am *satisfied with* his work.
4. I am quite *pleased with* his manners.
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 fuller treatment of their uses can be attempted only after you have learned the perfect form. More will be discussed in § 27.

EXERCISE 5

I. 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.
6. 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.

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

CHAPTER II

LINKING OF THE PAST WITH THE PRESENT

21 The Past and the Present Indefinite

21.1 The past indefinite is used to express: 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* all 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 without present progressive form 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 with *to* instead of a simple past indefinite.

1. I *used to stroll* far into the wood when I lived there.
2. As she 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 men *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.

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 1925-27 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)
9. *It is* Wall Street and 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 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{is} \\ \text{was} \end{array} \right\}$ the best policy.
2. Did he say that men $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{are} \\ \text{were} \end{array} \right\}$ not very much different from other animals?
3. Were the pupils taught that the earth $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{moves} \\ \text{moved} \end{array} \right\}$ around the sun?

4. Professor Wang said in his lecture that it $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{is} \\ \text{was} \end{array} \right\}$ 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.

21.9 *It is time* is often followed by the past indefinite to mean that the event should have occurred, as in "It is about time that you *started*," "It is high time that you *learned* to use verbs properly," etc. (cf. §46.6)

22 How to Speak of Past Events with the Present Tense

22.1 Take this sentence,

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

The verb *met* declares a past event; it 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. Instead of the above sentence, we can say:

2. I *have met* Mr. Wang.

The event is still the same, but, with the second 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. Though 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 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 Chinese 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 Chinese students 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 for comparison:

1. I saw him. } = 我看見他了。
I have seen him. }
2. I have seen him. } = { 我看見過他了。
I have already seen him. } = { 我已經看見他了。
我已經看見過他了。
3. Have you seen him? } = { 你看見他了沒有？
Have you seen him yet? } = { 你看見過他了沒有？
4. Have you seen him? } = { 你見過他了嗎？
Have you seen him already? } = { 你已經看見過他了嗎？
5. I saw him yesterday. } = { 我昨天看見他了。
I did see him yesterday. } = { 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 shades of meaning of 了 in the following sentences.

1. 他來了. } = He has come.
他已經來了. }
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 it is used by the English-speaking people themselves. Observe the English ways of saying things and follow them strictly. 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 6

I. 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* any more 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.

II. Write a dialogue of eight sentences with each of the following verbs, using the above examples as a pattern: *do*, *study*, *speak*, *read*. Change your subject with every verb, and try both the active and the passive voice.

Do not write anything like this: *I have done*; *I did*; *I do*; *I am doing*. This won't do you any 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 grandfather *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 today.
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 grandfather read all the Chinese classics, and finished reading them many years ago.
2. You began to live in Chengtu some time 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 §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 it 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 one of the best books 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 today?
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 today. The villages we *have passed* are all deserted. We *have only drunk* a few handfuls of water from the brook, 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.
17. A: *Have we won* the game?
B: Of course. Now we *have won* for three years. (How does the first *have won* differ from the second?)

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 really 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.

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. 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. Compare:

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*.

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

- b. He *has been* to the park. (He went to the park a moment ago and has now left it.)
- 2a. She *has gone* to inquire after Mrs. Tsai.
- b. I *have been* to inquire after Mrs. Tsai.

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. I *have been* here for an hour or so.
2. He *has been* ill since Tuesday.
3. He *has had* no spare time to attend to it.
4. I *have had* a continuous run of ill luck for the last four years.

Compare *have (has) been* and *have (has) had* in these sentences with the verb phrases in sentences 2 under §23.1.

Use III:

5. I *have been* there three times today.
6. He *has been* ill this month.
7. They *have had* many quarrels since they began to live together.
8. You *have had* some strange notions for some months past.

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 should not 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 **makes** great difference of meaning. Note how sentences *a* and *b* mean differently as given below.

- 1*a.* 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.)
- 2*a.* 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 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 7

I. 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, 昨天我去看他(去看=call on). 今天又去看了他兩次, 但沒有在他家找着他(to find him at home).
3. A: 她受了嚴厲的斥責(受斥責=be reprimanded).
B: 爲甚麼?
A: 她昨晚回來晚了.
4. A: 我今早接到J.T.一封信.(The time of speaking is afternoon)
B: 你接到了J.T.的一封信嗎? 讓我看看. 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: 一個鐘點以前.
A: 你到那裏去過嗎?
B: 是的, 我去過了.
8. A: 她甚麼時候來的?
B: 她半點鐘以前來的.
A: 那麼(then)她在這裏很久了.
9. 他太忙了. 幾天以來, 我沒有機會和他說話(to speak to him).
10. 我的兄弟一星期沒有到學校去了. 他病了. 我沒有充分的時間去照料他. 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, 一點辦法(measure)都沒有決定(adopt; active or passive?).
12. A: 這本書擱(leave; active or passive?)在這裏多久了?
B: 擱在這裏三天了.
A: 誰帶來的?(Use passive voice)
B: 約翰帶來的.(Use passive voice)

II. 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: Hallo. 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——(*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.

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- 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 I 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) your 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's fiancé?" "Yes, I—(see) him,"—(answer) Tommy. "How old—(be) he?" she—(inquire) further. Tommy—(hesitate) for a mo-

ment 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.

23.13 Compare these two sentences.

1. *Have you ever seen a cruiser?*
2. *Did you ever see such a man?*

The second sentence means, “Certainly you never did.” The speaker is, in fact, not asking a question but expecting an answer in the negative. He simply could not think of the completion of any event but only its non-existence. That is why he uses the past indefinite instead of the present perfect.

Phonetically, sentence 2 ends with a falling instead of a rising tone. It is not a normal question but a challenge to refutation.

23.14 In a *since*-clause (meaning “since . . . till now”) the present perfect often replaces the past indefinite, especially in careless speech and familiar letters.

1. It's a long time since I *have seen* you (=since I saw you last).
2. It's ages since I *have heard* really good music.
3. Nothing to speak of since I *have come* back.

A similar loose construction often occurs in such sentences as—

4. My wife **and** I *have lived* in Peiping *before*.
5. Who *has been* here while I *was* out?

The speaker suddenly shifts his viewpoint from the present to the past. Such “mistakes” are psychologically natural.

23.15 *Have gone* is sometimes used in contradiction to what is explained under §23.9. In that case, the person

spoken of is not simply "gone" but has taken to doing something, often repeatedly.

1. I *have often gone* for walks.
2. *Have you ever gone* on excursions?
3. The planes *have gone* out once a week to deliver relief.
4. Since then, *whenever* I had the opportunity, I *have gone* to the top of the tower and enjoyed myself.

It is walks, excursions, to deliver relief or to enjoy myself that engage the attention of the speaker. There is naturally no need to emphasize that the person in question has gone and come back.

Note also that *to go for*, *to go out*, etc. are phrases in which *go* expresses an activity, which is not expressible by means of *be*.

Compare "whenever I had the opportunity" with "while I was out" in sentence 5, §23.14.

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)

LINKING PAST WITH PRESENT

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.

And in independent clauses, *must* is not used at all.

9. I didn't want to do it but simply *had to* (not *must*).

10. We *had to* (not *must*) go on foot.

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 more in detail under §§44.5-44.7.

24.3 *Should* and *ought to* are used with the perfect form of other verbs 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. 他早該付過帳了。

4. He *ought to have resigned*. 他早就該辭職了。

24.4 *Can* is hardly ever used with the perfect form of other verbs in current English, and is generally replaced by *could*. *Have to* is not so used at all.

24.5 The auxiliaries in the following sentences 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 $\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{should} \\ \textit{ought to} \end{array} \right\}$ 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 $\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{should} \\ \textit{ought to} \end{array} \right\}$ 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?
- 6a. Who *was* it that called?
 b. Who *could it have been* that called?

Compare these with the following.

7. You may have studied English *some five or six years*.
 8. He ought to have seen you *today*.
 9. Joseph must have been ill *for a week*.
 10. 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 with the sign *to*.

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

24.8 Similarly, we can use such expressions as *may be obliged to, must be able to, your being allowed to*, etc. to express the notions of 或許不能不, 必定能够, 你的可以……, etc., for which it is simply impossible to say “*may should,*” “*must can,*” “*your may,*” etc. in English. (For *your being allowed to*, see §75.5.)

EXERCISE 8

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? Oh, 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-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 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.

24.9 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? (=A little weaker than "Haven't you removed to a new house?")
2. He is not coming, is he?
3. It is marking time, isn't it?

24.10 In this connexion four rules are to be observed:

(1) 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?

Note that this rule does not hold with commentative questions, *i.e.* when the preceding statement simply echoes what the other person has just said. For example:

4. A: He's coming.
B: Oh, he's coming, *is he?* (Not *isn't he?*)
5. A: Last night I sat up till three.
B: As late as that, *is it?* (Not *isn't it?*)

24.11 (2) 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 today, isn't he?
RIGHT: He must finish it today, mustn't he?
5. WRONG: You ought not to have done it, are you?
RIGHT: You ought not to have done it, ought you?

24.12 (3) 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?

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?

24.13 (4) 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?

By the way, *need* and *dare* are two anomalous verbs of daily use. A treatise of their uses in 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.

24.14 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. 這小孩的父母不歡喜他, 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 are asking 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.

24.15 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 tomorrow morning? Yes, you may.
Yes, please do.
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. Is Ankara the capital of Turkey? Yes, it 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.

24.16 In statements, auxiliaries are used in the same way

for economy. Note the transitive force the auxiliaries have thus taken on.

1. He didn't buy the house as many believe he *had*.
2. Mr. Truman likes the Soviet Union no better than Mr. Churchill *does*.
3. She burned the letter as she *had* many others like that.
4. I couldn't speak to him in such intimate terms as I *could* his brother.

EXERCISE 9

I. Translate the Chinese sentences under §24.14 into English.

II. Translate the following into English, avoiding unnecessary repetition of the verb.

1. 他來了沒有？是的，他來了。
2. 這畫好看嗎？不，不好看。
3. 他不是在看書嗎？是的，他在讀。
4. 她常犯錯誤嗎？是的，她常犯。
5. 你的父母愛你嗎？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. 他們在這兒很久了嗎？沒有，他們在這兒不久。
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。
20. 我和他一樣地 (as well as) 歡喜 (like) 這本書。
21. 我講英語比半年前能多講很多了。
22. 比起女兒來，她更愛她的兒子些。

III. On the basis of the knowledge you have acquired from I and II, 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 exactly three years today.
- b. He *has been studying* in this school for exactly 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 themselves. In sentences *b*, greater stress is laid on the continuation of the events though the periods of

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are still conspicuous. The choice between these two forms depends wholly upon the attitude of the speaker.

The difference is more readily discernible in such sentences where the process-notion is involved in the perfect progressive but absent in the perfect.

- 6a. He *has got* into trouble.
- b. He *has been getting* into trouble.
- 7a. You *have wasted* your time.
- b. You *have been wasting* your time.

And in the following sentences, the perfect is hardly ever used.

- 8. The lamp *has not been burning* well lately.
- 9. I *have been wondering* why she hasn't written to me since she left.
- 10. If they *have been laughing* at me, let them do it.
- 11. We *have been expecting* rain for a long time.

25.2 Ponder over the verb phrases in the following sentences.

- 1. I *have not yet led* you through the Ferryboat 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.
- 4. *Have you seen* the house they *have been building*?

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 the present perfect progressive of most other 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:

1. 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 travelling*.
- 5a. She *has been taking* a nap.

- b. She *has just taken a nap*.
- ca. It *has been raining*.
- b. The rain *has just stopped*.

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

25.5 It goes without saying that verbs having no present progressive form 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* both imperialism outside and feudalism at home at a sacrifice unprecedented in history.
4. That is the goal towards which we *have been pressing*.

And repeated events too—

5. He *has been saying* the same thing over and over again.
6. Yes, my friends *have been warning* me against that.

Compare these two examples with sentences 8-11 under §25.1.

And then things that have been rumoured or long overdue—

7. He *has long been coming*; has he started this time?
8. Our boss *has been resigning* since last August—this time his resignation has **been** accepted.
9. As is reported, he *has been dying* for the last three months.

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 humorous, 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.

Compare *disgusting* with *vulgar* in 2 and *unyielding* with *patient* in 3.

EXERCISE 10

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 surroundings 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——(*got*). 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 Civil War.
- A: The Civil War. Yes, it——(*go*) on for years and its end not——(*seem*) to be near. I——(*wonder*) for a long time what will come of it. . . . You——(*choose*) a subject of heated controversy. Which side ——(*be*) you for? Which side you——(*think*) will win?
- B: The people's side, of course. World trend clearly ——(*indicate*) that it is only the organized people that can win or stop any present or future war.
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.
- B: 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: What dirty hands! You——(*empty*) a sewer?

B: I not——(*empty*) a sewer; I——(*look*) for a sewer.”

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

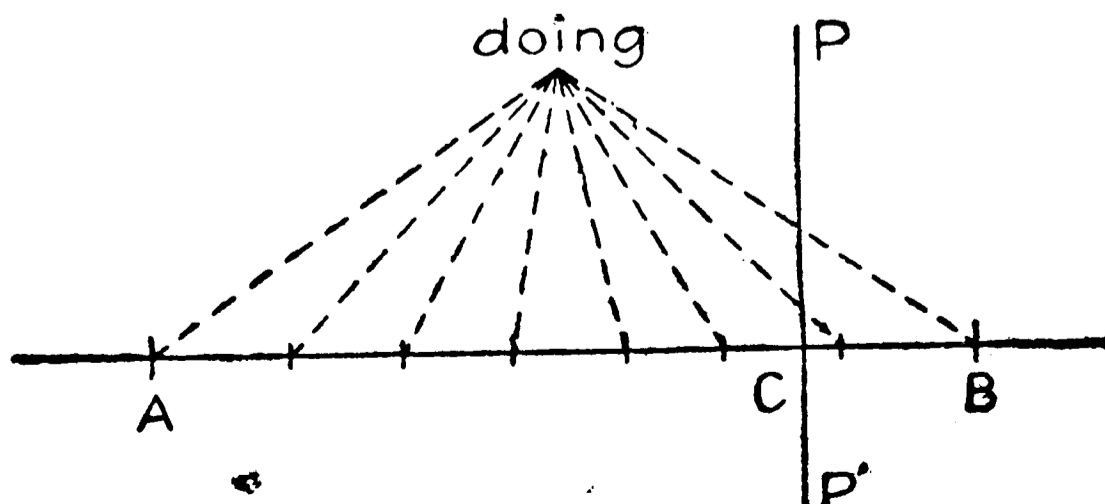


Figure 3 represents the action of *does*. It is like Fig 2; it need not be explained a second time.

Fig. 4

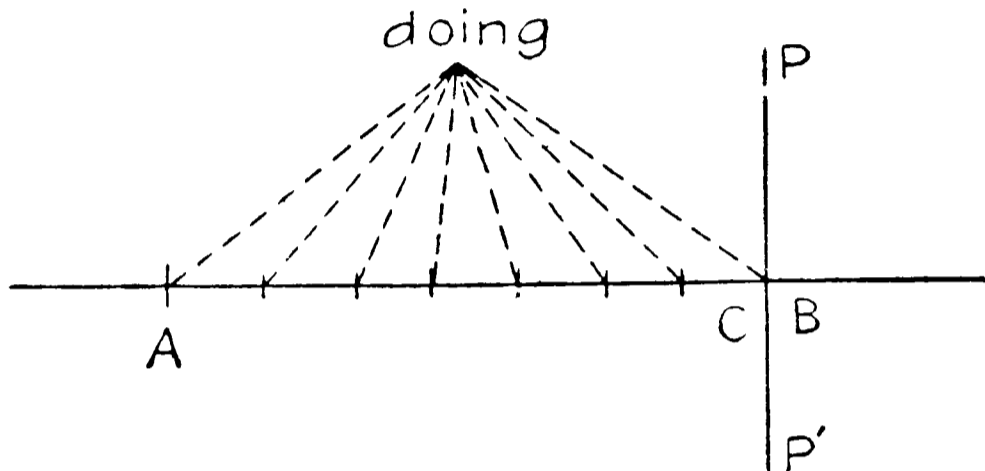


Figure 4 stands for *has done* in sentence 2. It is very much like Fig. 3, the only difference being that points C and B coincide. This means that *does* takes the future into account, while *has done* neglects it. In other words, *does* tells a timeless habit while *has always done* expresses a habit 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 remember that all rules leak and no definition is infallible.

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

26.2 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. Chinese republican constitutions *have never meant* anything.

Compare sentence 2 with 5 under § 25.6.

26.3 Even the present progressive in a subordinate clause 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.

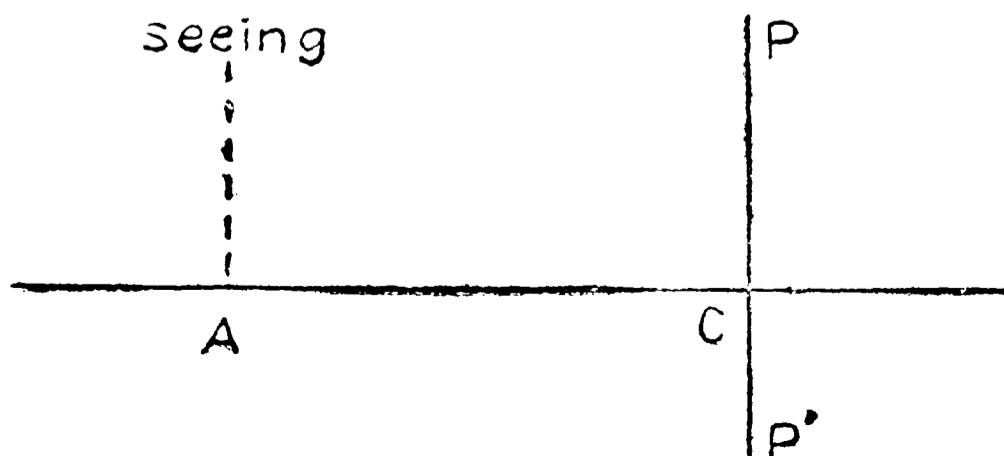
It is possible to draw a figure to represent this use of the present progressive, but I do not want to do that because it would be too complicated and is not worth the trouble.

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 one stands for *saw* in "I saw him."

Fig. 5



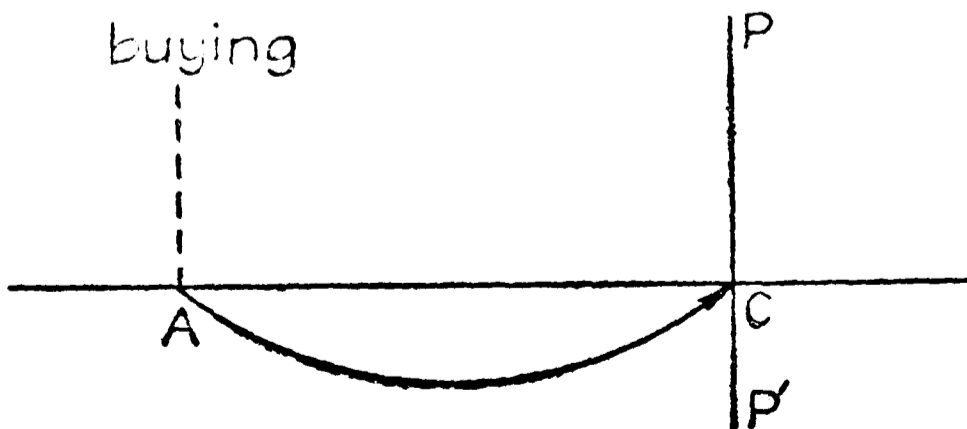
This figure seems to stand also for *have seen* in "I have seen him," since both the verb forms refer to one and the same past event, the difference being one of point of view on the part of the speaker. But in this difference is involved something quite important. Concrete examples are necessary:

1. He bought a house last year but sold it this year.
2. He has bought a house but 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 already 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 today." In such a case, the correct way of saying is: "The book that *was lost* yesterday has been found today."

26.6 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

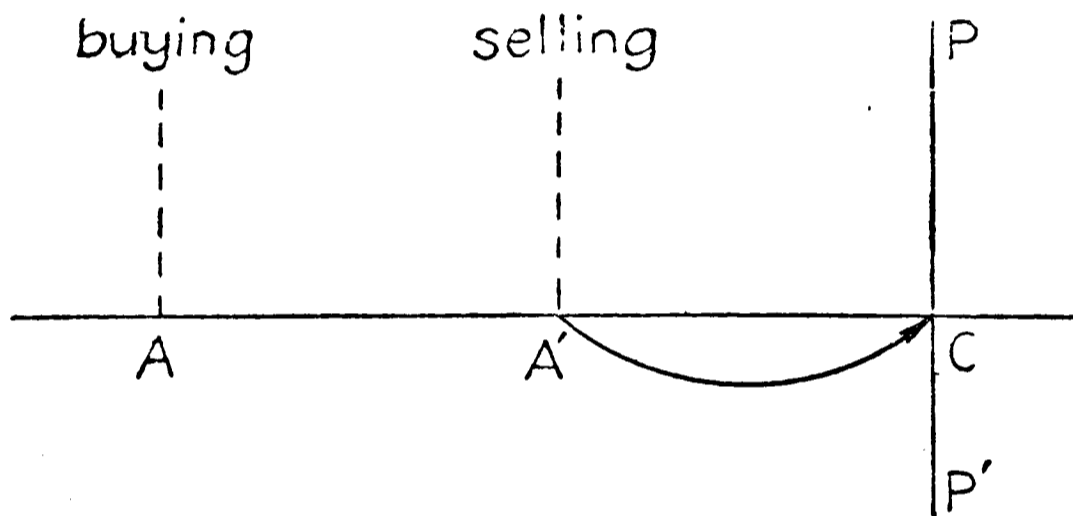


This is the figure for *has bought* in "He has bought a house." The curved line with an arrow-head connects the

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



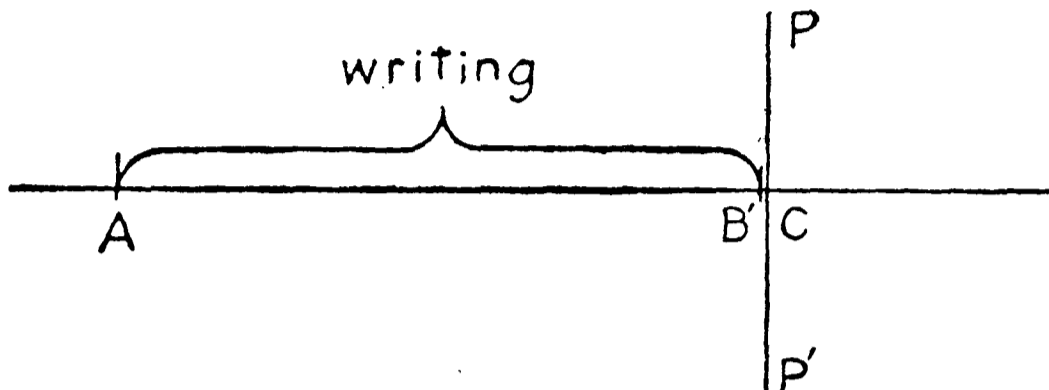
26.8 The next thing to do is to compare the present progressive with the present perfect progressive. Try to see how much the following two sentences differ.

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:

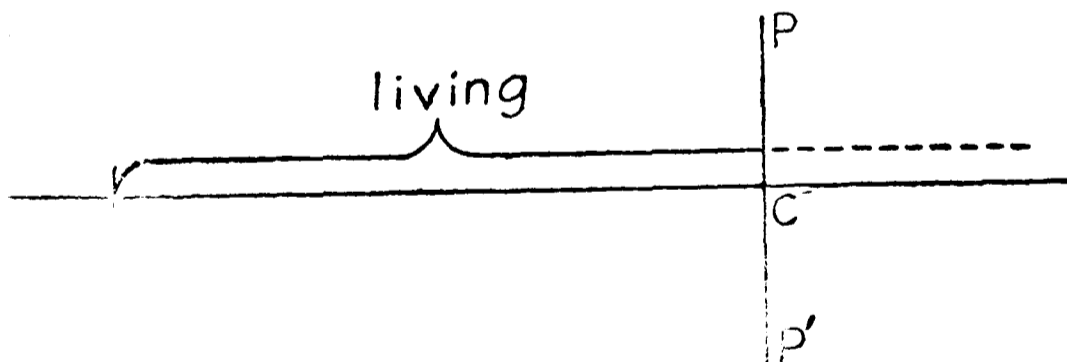
Fig. 8



Turn to §12.1 and compare Fig. 1 with the above 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 $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{lived} \\ \text{been living} \end{array} \right\}$ here for two months.

26.3 Now, let us have a grand review of all the verb forms learned so far. Study the following sentences and try to discern the different shades of meaning of the various

forms of verb *to work*. In case difficulties arise, 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 great 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? (§12.8)
7. He is now working so hard that he forgoes even his favorite sports. (§12.6)
8. Don't speak to 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 11

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 promise easily and—(*break*) his word 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 financiers' 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*. Where *was* or *is* cannot be replaced by *remained* or *remains*, *closed* forms a passive verb phrase with verb *to be*; where it can be done, *closed* is a predicate adjective.

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 new 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:

1a. He has gone = 他走了 or 他已經走了.

b. He is gone = 他走了 or 他不在這兒了.

In sentence 1a, *has gone* is present perfect. In sentence 1b, *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 delicate one. Mark it in the following sentences.

2a. A: Tell him to get out of here.

B: He *has gone*.

b. A: Where is he? In the other room?

B: No, he *is gone*.

3a. You *should have gone* (somewhere or to do something).

b. You *should be gone*. (Why are you staying?)

他走了剛一會兒 is “He’s *gone* but a little while”; 不要去得太久了 is “Don’t be *gone* too long.” The perfect is out of place here.

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, *lost* in 5, and possibly *begun* in 6 imply passive meanings 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, When the matter has been settled), then it is *settled*.
When you have done the work (or, When 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 very much. I am very (or, much) *pleased* with everything here. (Note that *very* modifies *pleased*.)
This book *interests* many. Many are *interested* in it.
His words *encouraged* me. I *was encouraged*.
4. The rain *was soaking*. I *was soaked* to the bone.
The story is *touching*. Everybody is *touched*.
His pronunciation is *shocking*. They are *shocked* at his pronunciation. (Not "by his pronunciation")
You can easily be *pleasing* if you are *pleased*.
Anything is *pleasing* to the eye if you are quite *pleased* at seeing it.
If you are *interested* in someone 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*, *cut*, *finished*, *cleaned* are all objective complements. Consult App. V, 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 *b*, on the other hand, the agents of the actions are a matter 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 it was sent by himself or by somebody else.

EXERCISE 12

I. 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 my chief. 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.

II. Change each of the verbs in parentheses 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 coworkers 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 tomorrow. 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 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 fundamental 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 won't 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 avoid 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.

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CHAPTER III

INTER-RELATIONS OF PAST AND FUTURE EVENTS

31 The Signs of the Future

31.1 There was a time when the English language did not know any special signs of the future. Then, the present indefinite was also the future indefinite, and the future time was expressed, if necessary, by some adverb or adverbial phrase. This practice survives even now—

1. He *comes* soon.
2. I *leave* for Shanghai tomorrow.
3. My brother *starts* next week.
4. *Does* the exhibition *open* tomorrow?
5. Then we *are* off.
6. May *comes*, and away *go* all your winter clothes to the store-room.
7. He *meets* you at the club at four and you *come* here together, *don't* you?

This crude device, however, has long become inadequate; now *shall* and *will* are the most common signs of the future.

31.2 Historically, *shall* implies necessity or obligation and *will*, volition or determination. Such implications, however, have worn thin. Now both of them are used with the first person and *will* with the second and third persons to express simple futurity.

1. I *will* (or *shall*) be here tomorrow. Tell him to come.
2. We *will* (or *shall*) start tomorrow; I *will* (or *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 services?

31.3 *Shall* is used with the second and third persons to express the speaker's decision, promise, assurance, etc.

1. They *shall* be rewarded(, I assure you).
2. It *shall* be done in due time , don't worry).
3. It *shan't* be long , you can rest assured).
4. They *shan't* escape (=They won't be able to).
5. He who does it *shall* be doomed.
6. You *shall* find him an entirely new man.

31.4 *Shall* is now very rarely used to give command, especially when negative. It is generally replaced by *must*.

1. You *shall* (or *must*) return not later than five o'clock.
2. You *must* (rarely *shall*) not waste your time.
3. It *must* (rarely *shall*) be done. (Cf. sentence 2, §31.3)
4. You *must* (rarely *shall*) not see him. ("You *shan't* see him" means "You won't be able to see him," cf. sentence 4, §31.3)

31.5 But *will* sometimes still retains the meaning of volition or determination—

1. I *will* starve (=I am determined 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).
5. He *will* not join us (=He doesn't want to).

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

- 1a. I *will* starve *if I need to*.
- 2a. I *assure you* we *will* try our best.
- 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 *have tried to persuade him to join us*; but he *will* not.

Or, other devices of clear statement are often necessary.

- 1b. I *am willing* to starve.
- 2b. *We promise* to try our best.
- 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.

Note that, in colloquial English, *shall* and *will* are very often slurred into 'll, as *I'll, you'll*, etc. But *will* expressing volition always has a full, clear vowel [wil]; and *shall* expressing decision, etc., though sometimes somewhat obscured, is never slurred into a single [l] sound.* Note also that *shall* and *will*, when contracted with *n't*, become *shan't* and *won't*.

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?" "You *mustn't* let him know," 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 allowed* (or *permitted*) *to* for *may*, and *shall* (or *will*) *have to* for *should*, *ought to* and *must*. In using such expressions, be sure that *shall* is not used with the second and third persons.

1. I am sorry I *will* (or *shall*) *not 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.

Similarly—

6. We *will* (or *shall*) *be glad to* be of service to you.
7. They *will be delighted to* take the trip.
8. He *will be surprised to* find you here.
9. They *will be unable to* escape.

*In this connection, we may note that, strictly speaking, *I'll* is short for *I will* instead of *I shall*.

31.7 In an interrogative sentence, *shall* is the only auxiliary used with the first person (*will* is not used except in echoing a question that has just been put to the speaker as in sentence 2, §31.9 below). When thus asking a question, the speaker is either at a loss what to do or waiting for a decision by the person spoken to. For example:

1. What *shall* we do?
2. *Shall* I use a pencil?
3. When *shall* we see her?
4. *Shall* I send for her right now?
5. *Shall* we hand in our papers today?
6. *Shall* I go with him or stay?

When affirmation is expected, *may* (or *can*) is substituted for *shall*--

- 1a. *May* we do that?
- 2a. *May* I use a pencil?
- 3a. *May* we see her now?
- 4a. *May* I send for her right now?
- 5a. *May* I hand in my paper tomorrow?
- 6a. *May* I go with him?

Whether *shall* or *may* is used, the answer is *you shall*, *you shan't*, *you may* (or *can*), *you can't*, *you must*, or *you mustn't*, as the case may be.

31.8 Note how the following *shall we?* differ from that in sentences 3 and 5 above.

1. A: *Shall we* go for a walk?
B: I just want to do that, let's go.

This *we* includes the person spoken to and *shall we?* amounts to *shall I + with you?* or *will you + with me?*

As is shown above, *shall we?* and *let's* often go in pairs, which is an exception to the rules put down under §§21.9-21.12.

2. *Let's go for a walk, shall we?*
3. *Let's have a rubber of bridge, shall we?*
4. *Let's try our fortune, shall we?*
5. *Let's be gone, shall we?*

Note that, in spoken English, *let's* and *let us* are not the same; *us* in the former includes the person or persons spoken to and that in the latter often does not. *Let's go* (咱們去吧) is a suggestion for common action while *let us go* (讓我們去吧) is a request for permission to go.

31.9 With the second person, *will* is used in questions to mean either simple futurity or volition. When simple futurity is meant, *shall* may also be used.

1. *Will (or Shall) you be there too? (Simple futurity)*
2. A: *Will you do that for me?*
B: *Will I? Of course. (Volition)*
3. He's been waiting; *will you see him?*
4. *Will you bring me those books some time next week?*
5. We should like very much to have you. You *will* come, *won't* you?

31.10 With the third person, *shall* or *will* is used in interrogation according as which is expected in the answer.

1. A: *Will he succeed?*
B: Most probably he *will*. (Simply futurity)
2. Yes, he has the money, but *will* he give it to us? (Volition)
3. When *will* the cold wave be over?
4. A: *Shall he be pardoned?*
B: No he *shall* (or *must*) be punished.
5. A: *Shall she keep lying up?*
B: Yes; that's what the doctor says.

31.11 Auxiliaries are not the only signs of the future. Generally, futurity expressed by *shall*, *will*, *must*, *may*, etc. are vague. If the near future is meant, another formula is used—"going + infinitive."

Compare the following.

- 1a. I *will* tell him so (i.e., I may do it tomorrow or next week or still later).
- b. I am *going to* tell him all about it (before long).

More examples—

2. What *are you going to* do?
3. I think he *is going to* refuse.
4. We *are going to* study differential equations.
5. Who *is going to* be the captain?

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

1. Wait; he's *coming* in a minute.
2. I'm *going out* for a moment.
3. Please mind the baby for a moment; I *am running* over to get the milk.
4. I'm told you *are going* away. *Are you travelling* very far?
5. She's *leaving* in a few days.
6. I *must be going* now.

Compare sentence 6 with “I must go now.” In the latter the notion of necessity is prominent while the former means “I have stayed long enough,” “I don't want to be late for . . . ,” etc.

31.13 With other verbs, the present progressive may mean the immediate or near future.

1. I *am dining out* tonight. Immediate future
2. *Are you having* a birthday party? Immediate or near future)
3. He's not *playing* tennis today. Immediate future
4. He's *holding* a press conference next Monday, isn't he? (Near future)
5. When *are you taking* your holidays this year? (Near future)

31.14 Such progressive forms are sometimes used to give a command, make a request, extend an invitation, etc.

1. You *are staying*.
2. You *are having* dinner with us tomorrow.
3. Don't forget; you *are taking* part too.

31.15 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, determination, definite arrangement, etc.

1. Nobody knows if he *is to be* released.
2. We *are to meet* twice a week.
3. You *are to keep* it; not he.
4. What's *to be* done?
5. When *is the wedding to be*?
6. You *are to come* in first, and you *to follow* him.
7. *Am I to tell* you about my plans?

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

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

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

Note that this is the practice in current English. One hundred years ago, *shall* or *will* were often used as when Franklin wrote, "When you *shall* return to your country, you cannot fail of getting into some business that will in time enable you to pay all your debts."

31.18 Compare sentence 1 above with—

1. All will be well if you *will* take care.

Will is used for emphasis. "If you *will* take care" means "only if you are willing to."

And in—

2. The Chinese do not shrug their shoulders when they *feel* helpless.

Feel is not future but expresses the timeless present.

EXERCISE 13

I. Fill each of the blanks with any auxiliary as you see fit. When none is necessary, leave it blank and put the verb 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. —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. You—find it even more interesting than the other one.
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—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. F. Liu, I have often spoken of.
5. A: I am told you—leaving for Nanking tomorrow.
 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 — ~~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.
8. A: — I come again tomorrow?
 B: Oh, you — ; it is very important. We — make a thorough study of the draft. It — be ready early tomorrow morning. Come at eight, — you?
 A: I — not be so early. Let's say nine, — we?

II. Replace the following dashes with appropriate signs of the future other than *shall* or *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 classmates. 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?

31.19 *You will* has long been used to give command in official instructions and military orders. For example:

You will hold the positions 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*.

31.20 *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 the command is meant. But the really polite form is *would*

you? or *could you?* For example, sentence 1, A in Exercise 13 would be “*Would you* (or *Could you*) copy this for me?” if the speaker means to be polite. This will be fully discussed in §§44.5 and 44.8 in connexion with the subjunctive mood.

31.21 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.

One exception is “I shall hope,” which is future in form but present in meaning. The future form is used because it is less emphatic than the present. Compare the following:

3. I *hope* you will come.
4. I *shall hope* to see you at the club.

The first sentence is an invitation or persuasion while in the second the speaker is simply foreseeing what is going to happen. He does not *hope* at all; he only *expects* (cf. §14.5).

31.22 *Will* is often used to express a present habit, truth, or inference.

1. Whenever he comes uptown, he *will drop* in to see us.
2. Nobody *will be* pleased if he is unduly neglected.
3. It is too bad that I *will often forget* the name of a person immediately after he is introduced to me.
4. The hall *will seat* two thousand.
5. Supper *will be* ready by now.

6. The habit of asking questions of ourselves *will go* a long way to help educate ourselves.
7. In most cases the person who is wrong *will stick* to his opinion even after he has learned of his error.
8. The more distinctly we are aware of our wants and desires in reading, the more definite and permanent *will be* our learning. (Noah Porter)
9. The lower animals are even better physicians than we are: for when they are ill, they *will*, many of them, *suck* 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)
10. 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)
11. 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 forget* is future to *is introduced*, etc. (Cf. the present progressive under §26.3 and the present perfect under §26.4)

Note *often* in 3, which expresses habit. *Always* may be used in a similar way.

- 6a. The habit of asking questions of ourselves *will always* help educate ourselves.
- 7a. He *will always* stick to his opinion, right or wrong.
12. He *will always* say to a new friend, "Glad to meet you."
13. Boys *will always* be boys.
14. 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:

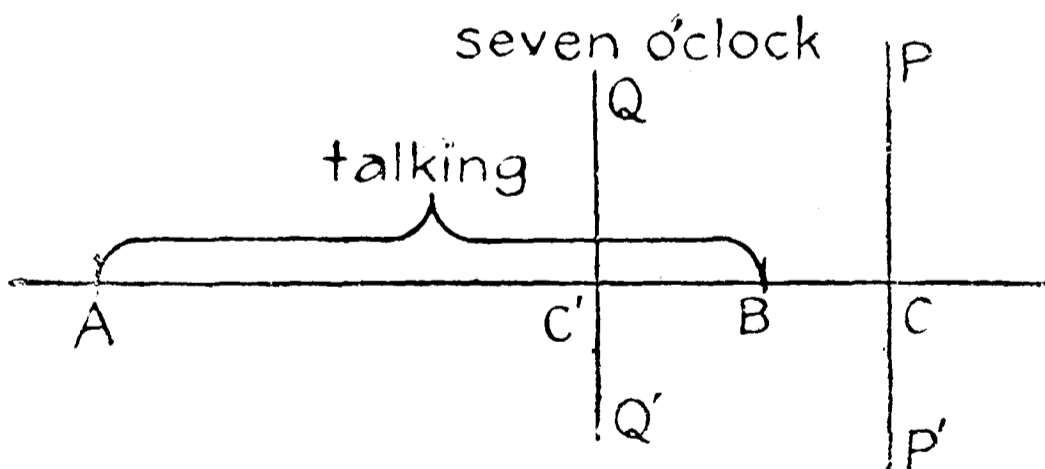
I am talking with Y. H.

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. 10 becomes Fig. 1. Grasp the full meaning of such a change.

32.3 In the foregoing example, the point of past time *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. *Last relay evening I had a talk with him. We were discussing the problem of aid to the impoverished fellow students.*
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.

32.4 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 flattering* him.
6. The boys used to talk much even when they *were taking* meals.
7. They liked to stroll into the wood when it *was raining*.

32.5 Do not use the past progressive unless some occasion really demands it. Many Chinese 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 background, while the second part relates the event that occurred in it.

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?

32.10 The future progressive may sometimes be future without being progressive. Compare—

- 1a. They *will come* (but I don't know when).
- b. They *are coming* (they are on the way).
- c. They *will be coming* (before long).

Will come expresses a vague future; *are coming*, an immediate future (§31.12); and *will be coming*, a near future

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

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

32.13 Note the italicized verbs in the following.

1. Don't disturb if he *is sleeping*. (Future event)
2. Turn off the radio when we *are talking*. (Now)
3. He often whistles when he *is walking*. (Timeless present; cf. §26.3).

And in—

- 4a. Can you do that when the wind *is blowing*? (Now)
- b. Wait. I'll show you when the wind *blows*. (Future; cf. §31.17)
- 5a. You don't want to read when you *are eating*. (Now)
- b. You must stop reading when we *eat*. (Future)

EXERCISE 14

Fill in the blanks, putting in future signs where necessary.

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—(*go*) northward for the rest of the journey?
 B: No, we not—(*go*) northward long. We—(*have*) another turn at the M station. After that we—(*go*) westward again. We—(*continue*) to go in that direction till we—(*arrive, shall arrive, 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*) soaked 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, men——(*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*)."
6. A: Any news from them?
 B: Nothing.
 A: I wonder what they——(*do*) now.
 B: They——(*eat*), (*play*), (*sleep*) just as we——(*be*).
 A: But you forget working. I——(*be*) quite concerned about their projected business, an institute for economic research. They——(*be*) short of capital and——(*ask*) for help. But I——(*be*) able to send only a few billion dollars

solicited from my friends. I—(*hope*) they—(*start*) it now.

7. A: I—(*see*) him tomorrow.

B: You not—(*see*) him. He—(*go*) out. What you—(*want*) to see him for?

A: I—(*want*) to stop him doing the impossible. I—(*be*) afraid he—(*do*) something desperate.

B: Yes, you—(*be*) right. But you needn't wait till tomorrow. He and I—(*dine*) out with Benjamin tonight at the Makee's. If you not—(*go*) to other places, you—(*dine*) with us. We—(*have*) time to talk to him then. Come at six, —you?

A: Okay; I—(*see*) you.

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 between 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.
- 5a. The book *has been left* here for days.
- b. He did not know that the book *had been left* here 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 Figg. 6, 9 and 10.

33.2 Compare the following examples with those under §§26.2 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 till her husband *had come back*.
4. He would not even stir out of the house before he *had consulted* the fortune-teller.
5. Through it he *had passed* to reach the balcony each time he delivered a speech to the crowd.

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 were not enough 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 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 with *will* is sometimes used to express an inference (cf. §32.11).

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. You *will have heard* it, I suppose.
5. They *will have prepared* for anything.

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

33.11 When Lincoln said that "these dead *shall* not have died in vain," he was not inferring but meant that the American people should valiantly and solemnly take up the work left unfinished by "these dead" so that the "grea

task" remaining before them could finally be accomplished. This formula, *shall not have . . . in vain*, is worth noting.

33.12 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 15

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 persevering 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.

33.13 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 and found that his drawers and shelves had been tampered with.
3. He soon guessed what *had been happening*.

Use II:

4. They *had been going* up the long street, and now they turned to the right.
5. The explosion broke upon the silence in which we *had been admiring* the sunset.
6. Only then did he know that they *had been deceiving* him.

EXERCISE 16

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 sick-leave of 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 midnight. 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 days' 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 shrugging as if in convulsion.

6. 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*) 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—(*may*) 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 his ideal girl. But he not—(*make*) any girl friend; for he—(*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—(*retir*) entirely into himself. Now, he—(*be*) nervous, easily irritable, and perpetually—(*yearn*) for something which even he himself not—(*can specify*).

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

Use I:

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

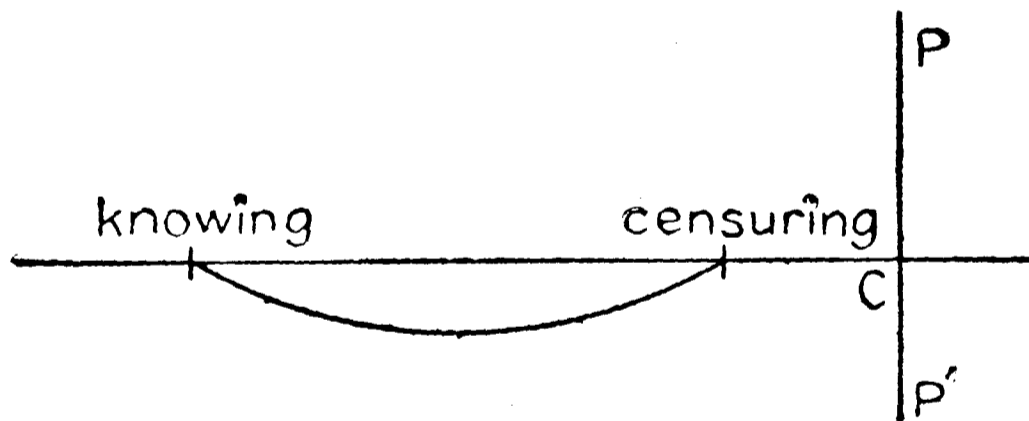
Here we have two verbs in the past indefinite; the speaker does no more than stating that two simple past events occurred. But the sentence shows beyond doubt that the event

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 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. 11



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. I thought I *shouldn't be seeing* you for some time.
7. Everybody believed that he *was not to live* much longer.

6. It seemed that the clouds *were about to disperse*.
9. Nobody doubted that he himself *was to suffer* for the consequences.
10. He was sorry that his dear friend *was going to part* from him.
11. Nobody had ever thought that he *was going to join* the army.
12. All were happy to know that he *was returning*.
13. Nobody knew when he *would come*.
14. He let nobody know why he *was going to dig* a hole in the ground.
15. 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 *had said* in sentence 4 and *had thought* in sentence 11).

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 §31.15) Compare the different signs of the past future in the following examples.

1. According to schedule, the train *was to arrive* before midnight, but as it used to be behind schedule, we were not at all certain whether it *would*.

2. They could not get the paper-mill started for lack of funds. 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.

And in independent clauses, *should* and *would* are not used as past future signs—

5. I *was about to start* (not *should* or *would start*) when the letter came, which made me change my plans.
6. That I *was only to find* (not *should* or *would find*) out later.

34.5 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 3, 4, 5 and 7 given under §24.1, *might throw* is future to *said*; *might accept*, to *thought*; *must* (or *had to*) *quit*, to *knew*; *should* (*ought to*, or *had to*) *continue*, to *doubted*.

34.6 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 pedlar *will be shot on* a false charge of treason.
- b. He was told that the poor pedlar *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.
- b. 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 sentences 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.

Compare the past indefinite verbs in the examples under §21.6 with the past future verbs above. Can you discover their similar uses?

EXERCISE 17

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 §46.8 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*) 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 (*refuse*) 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*).
7. He (*want*) a man that—(*be*) able to do the work well, that at the same time —(*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 or inference. *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 promise.
- b. Once he had given his promise, he *would* never *go back* upon it.
- 4a. The newly wrecked hall *used to seat* two thousand.
- b. That was a big hall; it *would seat* two thousand.

34.8 *Would* (either as a finite verb or as an auxiliary), is sometimes used idiomatically to mean wish. Thus used, it is either present or past but 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)
8. They are not so strong militarily as they *would* wish us to believe.
9. You *wouldn't* want to play all the time (cf. §15.8).

Note *would wish* in 8 and *wouldn't want* in 9; they are more emphatic than a single *wish* or *want*.

Were in 1 and *could utter* in 3 are subjunctive verb phrases, which will be fully discussed in §§42, 43 and 45.

34.9 Now some more comparisons may be made of the present, past, future and past future tenses.

1. *Are you staying* here till September?
2. I *am* here only for a week; I'll leave next Friday.

Are staying and *am* are at the same time present and future in substance.

- 3a. He thought the next day *would be* Sunday.
- b. He forgot the next day *was* Sunday.
- 4a. I left him a note as I *was leaving* that afternoon.
- b. I left him a note as I *started* that afternoon.

In 3a, the next day may or may not be Sunday, but in 3b, it is undoubtedly Sunday (cf. §21.7). Similarly, *was leaving* in 4a does not say whether I eventually left or not, but *started* in 4b expresses an actual fact.

It is interesting to note too that in 5*b* below—

5*a*. What *is* it you want to see me about?

5*b*. What *was* it you wanted to see me about?

was is used because the caller has been kept waiting for some time.

Compare further the following:

6*a*. When *are* they coming?

6*b*. When *were* they coming?

6*b* is used when the speaker has already been told the time but forgot it. It is the same as “When did you say they were coming?” (cf. §21.6). The question may also be something like this:

6*c*. Was it next Thursday they *were* coming?

And what is said in §§21.6–21.7 also applies to other forms than the indefinite—

7. You are working in a factory; I thought you *were studying in college* (*are studying* is meant).

8. I heard he *was soon leaving* for Moscow (*is leaving* is meant).

9. Some held out the hope that the Powers *might cooperate* during the peace now as they did during the war (*may cooperate* is meant).

10. I forgot I *had mailed* it (*have mailed* is meant).

11. He told me they $\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{have} \\ \textit{had} \end{array} \right\} \textit{been spying}$ on you.

12. He said the United Nations $\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{has} \\ \textit{had} \end{array} \right\} \textit{not entirely failed}$.

13. In your last letter you didn't tell me how mother *is getting on*.

In the last example, the viewpoint is suddenly shifted from the past to the present. Compare with sentences 4 and 5 under §23.14.

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 therefore 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:

<i>SUBSTANCE</i>	<i>FORM</i>
1) Supposition contrary to present fact	1) Past
2) Supposition contrary to past fact	2) Past perfect
<i>In principal clause of consequence</i>	
3) Supposed present event	3. } 4. } 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 did 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:

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

(2) 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.

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

(4) *Were* howling in sentence 7 follows rule 1 in the preceding table.

(5) *Could* have come in sentence 11 follows rule 5.

(6) 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.

(7) If *should* in sentence 5 is replaced by *would*, what difference will that make? How about substitution of *would* or *might* for *could* in 11 and 13?

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

42.5 Point (3) 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*. (You did help.)
2. Such things would not have come to pass *under more efficient leadership*. (The leadership was not efficient.)
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.*
11. What would a *victory of fascist Germany* have meant to civilization!

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 foresake 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.

42.8 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. 12

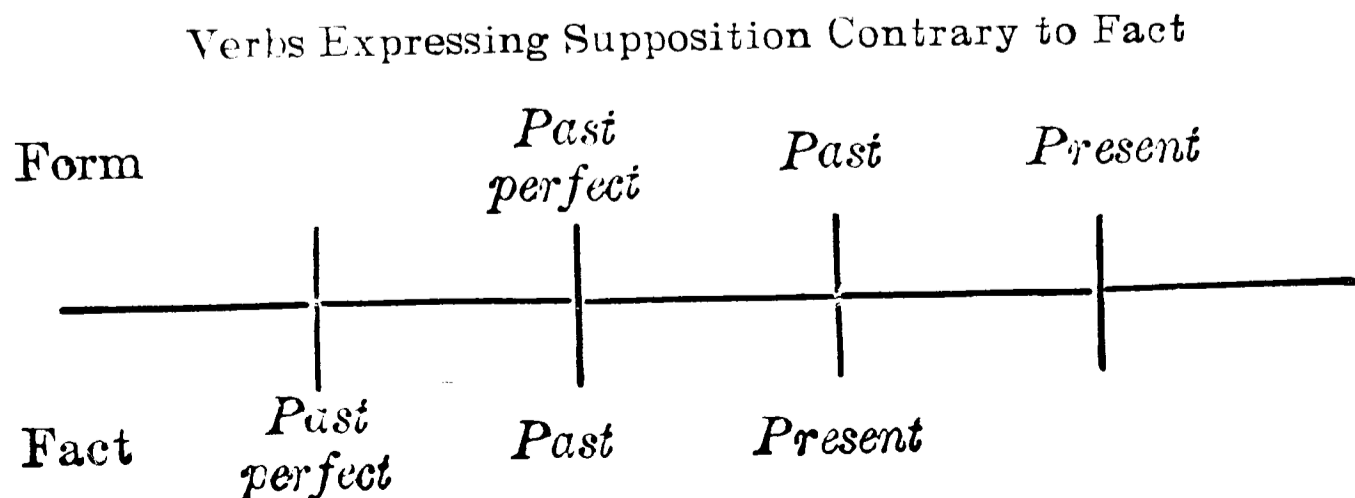
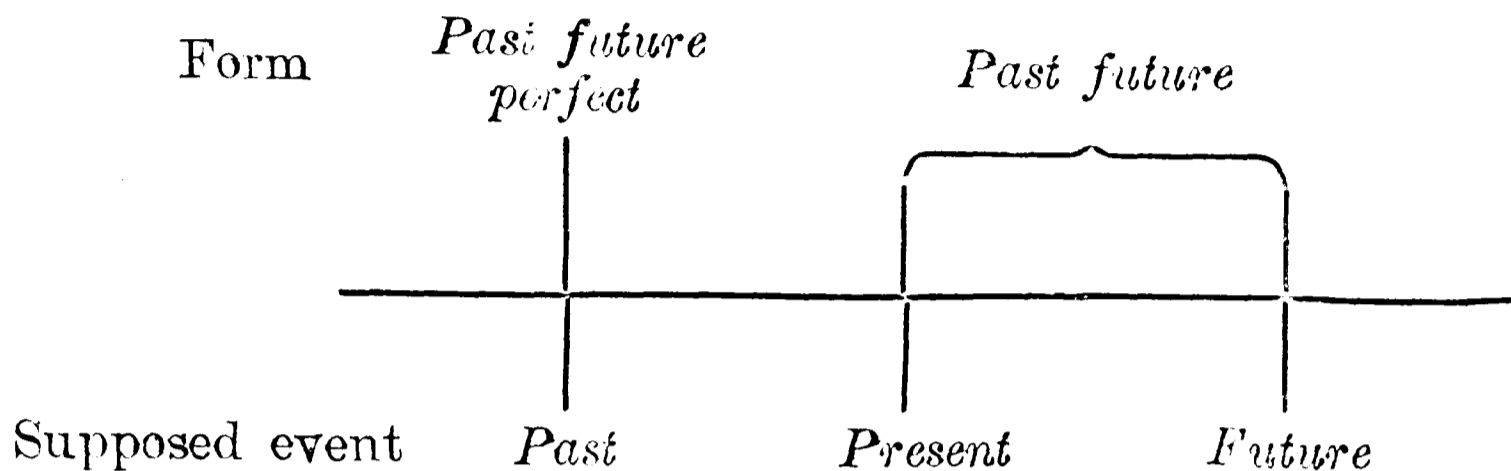


Fig. 13

Verbs in Principal Clause of Consequence



EXERCISE 18

I. 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.即使他在這兒,我們是不是(should we)就(then)站着不動(stand idle),讓他去做一切的(all the)工作呢? 自然不囉,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,他會成功的.但是他並沒有(hasn't got)正確的方法.
3. A: 你做好了嗎?
B: 沒有.我要(if)能够做,我老早(long ago)就做了.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,你就能够做.
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.

II. Supply an *if*-clause for sentences under §42.6 without altering its meaning.

III. 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 life and 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. And you have not behaved worthily as a friend of his. If you (*stand*) by him, he (*will encounter*) less difficulties. Oh, I wish I (*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.

43.3 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. Second, any of the past future signs may be used. Third, the past indefinite may also be used to mean future.

For example:

1. If she $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{should come,} \\ \textit{came,} \\ \textit{were coming,} \\ \textit{were to come,} \end{array} \right\}$ 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, determination, 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 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. I *would be* satisfied if he *would only work* hard.

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 each of the auxiliaries 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* §44.8).

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 clause.

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*.

EXERCISE 19

I. 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.

II. 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)，還有能稱爲成功的事情嗎？你沒有再去做 (try) 的勇氣 (courage) 嗎？假使你願意一次又一次地 (again and again) 去做的話，我相信你總 (sooner or later) 會成功的。
3. A: 假使我們那樣做，我們要受騙了 (Use passive voice).
B: 我不這麼想 (think so); 我相信 (believe in) 他忠實 (his integrity).
A: 你不知道他是一個甚麼樣的人。假使你知道他多一點 (better) 的話，你就不會這樣 (so) 想了。平常 (usually) 他是很和藹可親的 (amiable); 但是，只要 (once) 他的私利 (private interest) 一受到危險 (at stake)，他就很容易 (ready) 捨棄他的朋友們。你還是提防一點 (be on guard) 的好 (=It... better for you to...).
B: 你也許是對的，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，我也不會說甚麼話 (anything) 了。但是，他不值得。我知道他能幹。但是，只要 (if) 你肯去找，你就可以找到至少 (at least) 像他一樣能幹 (as capable as he) 的人 (somebody)。即使 (even if) 你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)。

III. Supply proper forms of the 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 principle.
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 tonight.
5. A: I (*be*) engaged; I (*have*) to attend a meeting tonight. 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 impossible 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:

2. (§43.4) If she knew this, she would be unable to restrain herself (she does not know this, or she will not know this).
9. (§43.4) 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).
6. (§42.3) 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.

43.8 Compare further each of the following sentences with that indicated in the parentheses following.

1. It would be a mistake if you $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{should think} \\ \text{thought} \end{array} \right\}$ them corrupt on such flimsy grounds. (2, §43.6)
2. He would certainly fail if you $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{did not help} \\ \text{were not to help} \end{array} \right\}$ him. (6, §43.6)
3. He would do it even if he $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{did it} \\ \text{were to do it} \end{array} \right\}$ alone. (8, §43.6)
4. I would give my life's blood if I $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{could be} \\ \text{should be} \end{array} \right\}$ sure of not offending you. (5, §42.6)

43.9 I distinguish supposition contrary to fact from that contrary to anticipation only because I think such a distinction will help you more than any other. It would be wrong to think of these two categories of thought as sharply differentiated. It is well to mark the distinction, but do not strain the point; be ready rather to allow for such cases where different shades of meaning overlap. Grammar is made for us, not we for grammar.

44 Three Rules of Omission

44.1 There are three rules of omission in connexion with supposition contrary to fact or anticipation.

(1) *If* is frequently omitted, and the first member of the verb phrase (or the finite verb *were*) is placed before the subject.

1. *Should I see* him, I would ask him to come.
2. *Were I* in your place, I would resign.
3. *Should he go* there, he would be utterly disappointed.
4. *Had he been* honest, he would not have done it.
5. *Could he go*, he would have gone.

6. *To the extent* post-war Japan were industrialized, she would thus afford strong military support to the power that controls her.

In sentence 6, *to the extent* (*that*) is equal to *if*.

44.2 (2) The principal clause may be omitted in various ways.

1. Ah, if she should seek a divorce!
2. Oh, if he were only here!
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 would you do if I should, etc.)?

44.3 (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 tomorrow (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 (if I were in a position to judge; or, *to think*=if we were to think).
2. I would never think of accepting the offer without consulting my father (unless I were unscrupulous; or, *without consulting*=unless I had consulted).
3. It would be too sad to tell the whole story (if I should do it; or, *to tell*=if I were to tell).
4. You should say what you mean; you would defeat your own purpose by equivocation (if I might pass judgment; or, *by equivocation*=if you should equivocate).
5. I should be very happy to have you tomorrow (if you were willing to come; or, *to have*=if I could have).
6. He looks kind and sympathetic; but he would not part with a cent of his to save a man's life (even if that were possible; or, *to save*=even it could save).

Either explanation 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 these 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 By studying the following sentences, learn the use of *could* and *might* in the subjunctive with the conditional clause understood, 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 **guess** ed 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.

Similarly, "I *say* you are wrong," "I *don't think* so," etc. are plain assertions, but "I *should say* you are not entirely right," "I *shouldn't think* so," etc. are used by considerate speakers.

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 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.

I should like to see you do it (why, they won't listen at all).

In the last example, *should like* expresses challenge or dissuasion.

I (or We) would like has come to be used to mean the same as *I (or we) should like*, though it is sometimes more emphatic.

EXERCISE 20

Supply proper forms of the 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 (*be*) concerned. Even so, it not (*be*) 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*) F. 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.
 B: Nothing like that (*can happen*). I (*be*) here all the time. Nobody (*can enter*) the room without my noticing it.
3. A: You (*can tell*) me what it (*be*)?
 B: S. T. (*get*) the questions before the examination (*take*) place. Dean Mei (*find*) it out.
 A: Then he (*be*) to be dismissed.
 B: He (*may dismiss*) already, (*be*) it not for his good record. He now (*place*) under 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 days, 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 sheets 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. (*pl. ase*) phone me.
6. A: I (*be*) rather disappointed. My son not (*h ed*) my advices.
- B: I (*say*) it (*be*) your own fault rather than his. Not (*persist*) in our talks. You as well (*leave*) him alone. Indeed, If you not (*tire*) 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* searching 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 explanations:

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. Second, 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, *addresses* 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 1-5 and 11 above.

- 1a. He spoke *as he would* if he were angry.
- 2a. She sings *as she would* if she had a cold.
- 3a. How could you reject your son *as you would* if he were a disgrace.
- 4a. She felt *as she would* if she should suffocate.
- 5a. He is in such a hurry to write his will *as he would* if he should die in a few days.
- 11a. You will try to appear *as you would* if you had been ill 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 Now let us take up the statement of uncertainty. Compare sentences *a*, *b* and *c* in each of the following groups of sentences:

- 1a. 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.)
- 2a. 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.
- 3a. 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?
- 4a. 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 §31.17. But *be* in 2*c*, *go* in 3*c* and *have* in 4*c* express a higher degree of uncertainty than *is*, *goes* and *has*. Indeed, the difference in degree is so slight that the subjunctive verbs are very seldom found in current English.

Be sometimes follows "I don't know," as in "I don't know if that *be* true." But in current English such *be* is rather rare; *is* is much more frequently used.

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 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{shall} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$ think differently.
2. In case he *have* no money, I $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{will} \\ \text{would} \end{array} \right\}$ lend him some.
3. If this *be* the case, I $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{will} \\ \text{would} \end{array} \right\}$ go immediately.
4. If he *know* it, then you $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{do} \\ \text{would} \end{array} \right\}$ not need to see him.
5. Provided he *mean* to do it well, everything $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{will} \\ \text{would} \end{array} \right\}$ be all right.
6. If you don't take care, you $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{will} \\ \text{would} \end{array} \right\}$ fall.
7. Suppose that he *return* you the money, what $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{will} \\ \text{would} \end{array} \right\}$ you do with it?
8. If it *come* to that, I $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{will} \\ \text{would} \end{array} \right\}$ fight it out.

45.7 There are cases where both the indicative and the subjunctive form 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 4*a*, and thus the conditional clause becomes the same as that in 4*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 the first *wrong* may be regarded as either indicative or subjunctive as you wish; *are* is certainly indicative; the last two *wrong*'s are subjunctive, the indicative form being *wrongs*.

45.9 What is discussed in §45.6 leads to what may be called the “loose” subjunctive, *i.e.* while the subjunctive is used in the conditional clause, the main clause remains indicative (or imperative). Thus:

1. If he *should come*, don't let him in.
2. I *will do* that even if it *should cost* me all I have.
3. *Should I happen* to find it, I will have it sent to you.
4. If he *should be discharged*, he *won't be* able to find other jobs easily.

Here, *should come*, *should cost*, *should happen*, *should be discharged* do not express supposition contrary to anticipation but uncertainty. They may be replaced by their present forms *come(s)*, *cost(s)*, *happen*, *be (or is) discharged*.

45.10 When a statement of uncertainty concerns the past, the rules put down under §43.3 apply—

1. If they *should succeed*, it *wouldn't be* themselves alone that would be benefited (*would be benefited* is past future .
2. If the debt *were not paid*, Shylock *would have* the right to a pound of flesh from Antonio's breast.
3. If he *were not coming back*, he *would be deprived* of his property.

4. Some of them were cold because they had long ago found that one *could not be* an owner unless one *were* cold (Steinbeck: *The Grapes of Wrath*).

45.11 Statement of wish refers to either present or future events, but the verb form is always of the subjunctive present.

1. Long *live* China.
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?

45.12 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.)
- 1 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.)
- 2 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.)

45.13 *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.

Compare *wish*, *hope*, *am hoping* (sentence 1b, §14.5) and *shall hope* (sentence 4, §31.21).

EXERCISE 21

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 almost (*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 (*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 that 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 twinkle 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. He is always praying *that* he might regain his throne.
7. Book your seats now *lest* you should miss the chance.
8. I shall see him first *lest* he should be unwilling to receive you.
9. 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.
10. *Lest* he should think that I had some selfish motive behind, I refused to put my name on it.

46.2 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. *Might* is used in 6 because the speaker entertains much doubt as to the possibility of his regaining the throne.

C. *Lest* is equivalent to (*so* or *in order*) *that . . . not*.

D. *Should* follows *lest*, whatever the tense of the principal verb.

E. *Lest* sometimes does not introduce a clause of purpose but equals to *for fear that* (see sentences 18, 19 and 20, §46.6).

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* (not *are*) *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* something 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 it *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.

Compare also—

4. Take care that the falling logs *don't hurt* you.

with 2 and 2a above. This sentence amounts to "Take care; don't let the falling logs hurt you."

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, and 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 re-organized*.
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 wear.
7. He will gladly die than that she *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*) *shut* his eyes to realities.
12. There is no reason why 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. I trembled $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{for fear that} \\ \text{lest} \end{array} \right\}$ they $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$ see me.
19. The little ones never go out of their nest $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{for fear that} \\ \text{lest} \end{array} \right\}$ some stranger $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$ hurt them.
20. He is very careful in his wording $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{for fear that} \\ \text{lest} \end{array} \right\}$ he $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might} \\ \text{should} \end{array} \right\}$ *be misinterpreted*.

Compare the foregoing verbs with *started* and *learned* under §21.9; the latter two may be regarded as subjunctive.

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 made* a big fortune by fraud.
2. Who would have thought that it *would rain*? (*Would rain* is indicative.)
3. Nobody knows who he *is*.
4. I don't 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 made* a big fortune 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 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.

46.8 Compare the use of *should* in the following pairs of 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* towards 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* in *b* indicative or subjunctive as you like, only if you have learned how to use it.

46.9 A noun clause of definite opinion is often used alone (with the conjunction *that* retained) as a form of exclamation.

1. Ah, *that* you *should* have suspected me too!
2. Oh, *that* he *should* never come back again!
3. O 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

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rary to fact (see sentence 6, §42.6), and *should* expresses independent definite opinion.

.11 Up to this point we have learned all the substantive verb forms that can in some way be classified. It remains to take up three of the idioms that are very usual.

Had rather, would rather, had better—These phrases are in form, but present or future in substance; they are usually 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, 不願活着做奴隸。
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 *to*, which is omitted after the preposition *than* (See §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 the same way, but they are not in frequent use in present English.

.12 A clause beginning with *whether*, *no matter what*, *rather who*, etc. may be changed into one with a substantive 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. Samuel Johnson; *be it ever so little*=however little it may ever be.)

46.13 *Should* is sometimes used to express surprise or destiny, as in "When I alighted from the street-car, whom *should* I see but Majorie." This sentence means "I was surprised to see Majorie" or "It was my destiny to see Majorie."

EXERCISE 22

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.

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A: He is here now.

B: (*Be*) he here already? It (*seem*) impossible that he (*come*) so early.

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! I (*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.

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.

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.

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.

A: (*Try*) as he may, he not (*succeed*).

B: Oh, not (*think*) 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.

10. He (*go*) to war with the understanding that his family (*be*) well cared for. But when he (*come*) back, what he (*find*) but that his family (*starve*) and his wife (*remarry*).
11. He (*go*) into the wood to collect mushrooms three days ago but still not (*return*). The whole village of three families (*go*) to find him. But (*hunt*) as they would, they (*can find*) no trace of him.

INTERLUDE

Old Friends in New Attire

In the foregoing four chapters, I have explained to you the various forms and uses of the English verb and have given you many exercises in order that you may, by working at them whole-heartedly, form good habits in speaking and writing. You have been with those verb forms for quite a long time. Therefore, they ought to have become quite intimate friends of yours.

But these old friends of yours very often put on some new suits 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 form 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 verb 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 verb.

Verbals are distinguished one kind from another by their form. (Look up App. IV 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 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 and usage; 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 the verbals, and the participle in particular, are petted by students learning to write. But they have so scanty knowledge about their pet that their efforts to achieve beauty and excellence often puts the teacher under a dilemma either to leave the misused verbals as they are or to rewrite the whole composition instead of correcting it.

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, forcibleness, 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, all rules leak and no definition is infallible. This is much more so in connexion with rhetoric. If the preceding 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 will give you exercises only at the end of each 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 lazybones 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 Ferryboat 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 prerequisite 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. Do you care *to be* rich?
5. He promised me never *to do it* again.
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 *to cheat*.
9. Little Jim had nothing to do except *wander* about in the thick wood.

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, a pronoun 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 or a pronoun.

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 had 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 flew 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, *it* 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 Sikang* 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 §31.15, “verb *to be* + infinitive” is a sign of the future or the past future. But sometimes it is *not*, but 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 persevering 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 bloodsucking 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 as the present progressive is also a future sign, so the progressive infinitive sometimes expresses futurity.

4. We'd better *be going*.
 5. It's so hot; I want *to be swimming*.

And it may also express the actual present even when the main verb is past.

6. I didn't expect it *to be raining* 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 *has 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).

You can see that a perfect infinitive may mean either perfect or past (cf. §24.6).

52.3 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* (=would have taken) was wrecked in the accident. (Eventually he did not take the train.
- 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, §33.8. 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. He's going *to sell* the house.
 d. We've got *to tell* him.
 e. Do you want *to teach*?
 f. He likes *to go to* cinemas.
 g. They seem *to understand* me.
- 2a. What is *to be done*?
 b. The question remains *to be solved*.
 c. His house is going *to be sold*.
 d. He's got *to be told*.
 e. Do you want *to be taught*?
 f. He doesn't like *to be seen* in public places.
 g. He seems *to be misunderstood* everywhere.
 h. This work's got *to be done*.
 i. 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 idiomatic exceptions to this rule. In "Don't blame him," *blame* is transitive, but we more often say, "He isn't *to blame*" (*blame* is intransitive) than "He isn't *to be blamed*." We also have "A lot remains *to do*," "Little remains *to say*," etc., though "A lot remains *to do done*," "Little remains *to be said*," etc. are also good. But "This house is *to be let*" is unidiomatic; we always say, "This house is *to let*."

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 notional object of the infinitive. But when a particular act is emphasized, with some sense of certainty, determination, necessity, etc., the passive voice is used (sentences 4).

3*d* is a question asked perhaps of a laundry-woman, and 4*d*, by a laundry-woman.

D. You may well note that *attend* in 3*e* and *think* in 3*f* are intransitive verbs made transitive by adding the pre-

positions *to* and *over* to them respectively. This makes it possible to use them in the passive voice in 4*e* and 4*f*.

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, definite arrangement, etc. (sentences 6*a* and *b*) or is modified by some adverb of degree (sentences 6*c*, *d*, *e* and *f*).

F. The use of *enough* in 5*e*, *sufficiently* in 5*f*, and *too* in 6*c*, *d*, *e* and *f* is to be discussed in §55.15 and §55.16.

52.6 Compare the following pairs of sentences.

- 1*a*. You *can't find* pickles like these anywhere else.
- b*. Pickles like these *are not to be found* (=cannot be found) anywhere else.
- 2*a*. He *could see* from his bed the green-lichen covered orchard outside.
- b*. The green-lichen covered orchard just outside and *to be seen* (=that could be seen) from his bed where he now lay was a silverly affair, sweetly spectral (Theodore Dreiser).

We seldom say "aren't to find" or "was to see" in place of *can't find* in 1*a* or *could see* in 2*a* respectively, but the passive infinitive in *b* are quite commonly used (cf. §51.3).

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. We say "a chair to sit on" or "a ball to play with," but never "a chair to be sat on" or "a ball to be played with." Such things can be mastered only by attentive reading and constant practice.

52.8 Compare the following.

- 1a. I am *depending on* you.
- b. You have nobody *to depend on* except yourself.
- 2a. We *write with* a pen.
- b. We use a pen *to write with*.

In sentences *a*, *on* and *with* are prepositions; in *b*, they become adverbs though notionally they are still prepositions governing their objects *nobody* and *pen*.

The formula, “*notional object + infinitive + notional preposition*,” is worth noting.

- 3. You have *nothing to sit on* on the ferryboat.
- 4. This is a suitable *subject to write on*.
- 5. Give her some *toys to play with*.
- 6. He is the *man to look to* for assistance.
- 7. There is *nothing to boast about*.
- 8. This is the meagre *income we've got to live on*.
- 9. Besides teaching, she has a *baby to look after* too.
- 10. You have this *money to pay* him *with*.
- 11. He says, “A preposition is not a fitting *word to end* a sentence *with*.”

Pay in 10 and *end* in 11 are transitive, but their use in connexion with the preposition (or adverb) is the same as the other intransitive verbs.

52.9 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 §53.6.

53 The Objective Complement and the Infinitival Nexus

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.

- 1*a.* The officer commanded **the soldiers** *to fire*.
- b.* They saw the *soldiers fire*.
- 2*a.* Everybody asked **him** *to sing*.
- b.* I have always heard *him sing*.
- 3*a.* Nobody could make **him** *do it*.
- b.* They expect *me to do it*.
- 4*a.* Ask **him** *to come*.
- b.* I wish *him to come*.
- 5*a.* 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.

On the other hand, in *b* 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 this group of words, rather than any portion of it, constitutes the object of the finite verb.

Such a group of words is called the infinitival nexus. It is composed of a substantive in the objective case followed by an infinitive, which is used as an adjective to modify the substantive.

An infinitival nexus 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 infinitival nexus may often be replaced by a clause without altering its meaning (cf, 1-5 below with 1*b*-5*b*, §53.1).

1. They saw *that the soldiers fired*.
2. I have always heard *how he sings*.
3. They expected *that I would do it*.
4. I hope *he will come*.
5. I found *that Mr. Li was speaking to the students*.
- 6*a*. I wish *his book to be published*.
- b*. I wish *that his book would be published*.
- 7*a*. I found *them to be quarrelling*.
- b*. I found *that they were quarrelling*.
- 8*a*. He wanted *his son to be well-educated*.
- b*. He intended *that his son should be well-educated*.
- 9*a*. Everybody knew *it to be false*.
- b*. Everybody knew *that it was false*.
- 10*a*. I thought *it to be him*.
- b*. I thought *that it was he*.
- 11*a*. He imagined *the chairman to be her*.
- b*. He imagined *that the chairman was she*.
- 12*a*. *Whom* did he take *me to be*?
- b*. *Who* did he think *I was*?

53.3 Note *him* in 10*a* and its change into *he* in 10*b*. Note similar changes with *her* and *whom* in 11 and 12. A

predicate substantive in an infinitive clause is always of objective case, the same case as the "subject" of the clause.

In 4, 8 and 12, the finite verb changes with the change of the infinitival nexus into a noun clause. Such changes are dictated by usage, which can be learned only by constant practice. A little more will be discussed under §55.23.

Generally, the infinitival nexus is more frequently used than the noun clause because the former is simpler and more natural. And *see* and *hear* are so often used with the infinitival nexus as in 1*b* and 2*b* under §53.1 that such forms as *that the soldiers fired* and *how he sings* in 1 and 2 above have become unidiomatic.

Note too that the verbs that take the infinitival nexus as object are those having no progressive form (§14).

53.4 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 him that he 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 6*b*-13*b*, §53.2, the principal verb takes only a noun clause as its object. This is why the infinitival nexus is regarded as a special construction.

53.5 Try to see the different meaning between the sentences in the following groups.

- 1*a.* 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.
- 2*a.* "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.
- 3*a.* 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* emphasize necessity, and *2b* emphasizes willingness. Sentences *c* are clear and simple.

53.6 The infinitival nexus may be used as an object of a preposition. The most frequently used preposition is *for*, of which examples have been given under §52.9, where, in *1b* and *4b*, the clause modifies an adjective; in *2b*, it is used as a subjective complement; and in *3b*, it modifies a noun.

More examples:

1. I should be sorry *for you to think so*.
2. They will have prepared *for anything to happen*.
3. There was nothing *for him to do*.
4. The colonel gave orders *for the prisoners of war to be sent to the headquarters*.
5. Many longed *for better days to come* when the last war was over.
6. I will ask *for dinner to be brought* to our own room.

In sentences 5 and 6, we may look at the construction from two different angles. From one angle, *for better days to come* is a modifier of *longed* and *for dinner to be brought*, an object of *ask*. From another, *longed for* and *ask for* take the rest of the infinitive clause as object.

53.7 Below are given infinitival nexus introduced by other prepositions than *for*.

1. They listened with interest *to the pedlar call musically*.
2. Everything depends *on him not to interfere*.
3. Do you think you can rely *on him to come*?
4. We are very much concerned *about your business to prosper*.
5. Everybody looked *at her come* into the room.

What is said at the end of §53.6 also applies here, with the only exception of sentence 4, where the infinitival nexus modifies the participle *concerned*.

53.8 There are certain idiomatic uses in connexion with *of*, in which one would hesitate to call what follows it as an infinitival nexus.

1. So kind *of you to do* that for me.
2. It would be wiser *of us not to be* irritated.
3. How careless *of him to have left* it in the street-car!
4. It is exceedingly cruel *of them to leave* so little *to the tenant* peasants.

Sentences 1 and 2 mean "You are so kind to do that for me" and "We would be wiser not to be irritated." It is grammatically correct to say "It is so kind for you to do that for me" and "It would be wiser for us not to be irritated," in which *for* introduces the infinitival nexus. But *of* is more idiomatic.

54 The Infinitival Nexus 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.

The expletive *it* may be omitted. In that case, the infinitive becomes the subject of the sentence.

- 1a. *To master* a foreign language is not easy.
- 2a. *To cry* over spilt milk is useless.

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3a. *To direct* the campaign may fall to your lot.

4a. *To become* an experienced teacher takes a long time.

Sentences *a* are not so good as the originals though they mean the same, for the retention of *it* very often contributes to better rhythm and smoothness of style. And such a clumsy sentence as 3a is the last thing to recommend.

54.2 What is said in the foregoing is especially so when the infinitive has a long trail of objects, complements, modifiers, etc., or when there are two or more 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.

54.3 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.

54.4 Look up sentences 1, 2 and 3, §51.1. There, the expletive is out of place. It needs no elaboration to see that nobody could understand such a sentence as "It is to learn to teach," for he does not know whether *it* stands for *to learn* or *to teach*. And in 2 and 3, both the subject and the complement are made up of so many words that the use of *it* would destroy the terse construction and good balance.

For the same reasons, those sentences cannot be turned into questions either with or without *it*. The only way to do that is to put at the beginning such expressions as “Is it true that . . .”, “Do you think that . . .,” etc.

54.5 Some students do not read with thorough understanding 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.

Compare 1, 2, 3 and 4 with—

5. You are *lucky to have* such a good house.

where “you” is the person who is lucky.

Compare sentences *a* with 1, 2, 3 and 4 under §54.1. There, the infinitives may be regarded as infinitive clauses with *for anyone* (or *anybody*) left out.

54.6 Contrary to what is said about sentences 1, 2, 3 and 4 in the foregoing, the following sentences are good.

1. The house is *easy to find*.
2. He is *hard to deal with*.

Evidently, it is not the house, but to find it, that is easy; nor is it he, but to deal with him, that is hard. But these

sentences are different from 1, 2, 3 and 4 in that *the house* is the notional object of *to find*, and *he*, that of *to deal with*. To be logic, we should say, “To find the house is easy,” “To deal with him is hard,” but logic is impotent in the face of usage, which supports the original sentences (see *infra* §55.19).

There is a way to compromise usage with logic—resort to the expletive *it*. Thus:

- 1a. It is easy to find his house.
- 2a. It is hard to deal with him.

54.7 Compare the following sentences with those under §§54.5, 54.6.

- 1a. This question is *difficult for us to answer*.
- b. It is *difficult for us to answer* this question.
- 2a. Straight-forward advices are generally *disagreeable (for anybody) to listen to*.
- b. It is generally *disagreeable (for anybody) to listen to* straight forward advices.
- 3a. Really well-to-do and happy peasants are a far better *thing to find* than neon-lit cities that are fed on their fat.
- b. It is a far better *thing to find* really well-to-do and happy peasants than neon-lit cities that are fed on their fat.
- 4a. The plotting room is *fascinating to watch*.
- b. It is *fascinating to watch* the plotting room.

Sentences *a* are like 5 under §54.5 in that the complement actually tells something about the subject; and they are like 1 and 2 under §54.6 in that the subject is the notional object of the infinitive.

54.8 The infinitive clause introduced by *for* is seldom made a subject because it is often in some way related to some word or words in the predicate so that they are rather inseparable. This can be easily seen in sentences *a*, §54.5 and *1b* and *2b*, §54.7.

And in such a sentence—

It is *left for him* to wind up everything there.

the omission of *it* is out of the question. *Left* and *for him* are so closely related to each other that their separation would render the sentence meaningless.

54.9 On the other hand, the following sentences are good.

1. *For the common people to starve and the rich grow ever richer is a situation that will always breed discontent, unrest and revolt.*
2. *For anybody to have grievances against his misdeeds is an offense punishable at his caprice of the moment.*
3. *For them to be branded as evildoers is an outrage we must protest against.*

In cases like these, the expletive *it* is hardly ever used, for the copula serves as a pivot on which the subject and the complement, balance each other, and if the expletive *it* is added, it would destroy the balance by giving a tilt to the right. That will render the construction loose and the meaning ambiguous (cf. what is said about sentences 2 and 3 under §54.4).

Note especially sentence 2, which does not express the belief of the speaker but the habit of the person spoken of. If he should begin by saying, "It is an offense," it would convey to the hearer that the speaker himself mean it.

54.10 There are other cases where the expletive *it* is used for emphasis. Compare *a* with *b* in the following.

- 1a. *My advice is for you to admit your own mistakes and shortcomings.*
- b. *It is my advice for you to admit your own mistakes and shortcomings.*
- 2a. *His bad luck is to have broken his leg.*

- b.* *It is his bad luck to have broken his leg.*
- 3*a.* *I am to make a draft of the by-laws and regulations.*
- b.* *It is for me to make a draft of the by-laws and regulation.*
- 4*a.* *The people, not the handful of bureaucrats, are to decide what we are going to do.*
- b.* *It is for the people, not the handful of bureaucrats, to decide what we are going to do.*

Sometimes the *b* type sentence means differently from *a*.

- 5*a.* *The soldiers are not to fight the enemy alone.*
- b.* *It is not for the soldiers to fight the enemy alone.*

5*a* means there are other people who will help, while 5*b* means that we must do our part and must not leave the soldiers unassisted.

54.11 So much for the expletive as a subject. Now as an object of a verb or a preposition—

1. I left *it* to him *to verify* the figures.
2. We owe *it* to the combined strength of democratic forces all the world over to win the War of Resistance.
3. They will be hard put to *it to find* means to keep a balanced budget.

Note that *him* in 1 and *strength* in 2 are indirect objects.

In 1, *it* may be made the subject—

- 1*a.* *It was left for him to verify the figures.*

The change from *to him* in 1 to *for him* here is because *him* is here no longer an indirect object.

The infinitives in 1 and 2 can be made nouns. In that case, the expletive *it* is no longer needed.

- 1*b.* I left him the *work* to verify the figures.
- 2*b.* We owe our *victory* to the combined strength of democratic forces all the world over.

We cannot do the same with 3 because *hard put to it* is a fixed formula and is always followed by the infinitive.

54.12 As an object, the expletive *it* is most often used after factitive verbs, i.e., verbs taking an objective complement. In such cases, the complement always comes between *it* and its appositive (cf. sentences 1 and 2, §54.11).

1. He has *it* in his power *to do* good or evil, but he chooses the latter because his gang live by evil-doing.
2. He makes *it* a rule *to put* his self-interest before that of society.
3. I think *it* a pity *for him to have missed* the picture.
4. I find *it* almost impossible *to teach* English grammar well without co-ordination with reading.
5. You will find *it* a difficult task *to convince* him.
6. Many think *it* good luck *to be born* a son of a millionaire.
7. I look upon *it* as of great importance *for you to do* all the exercises in this book carefully.
8. He considers *it* always wrong *for anybody to disobey* his parents.
9. Mere self-preservation would make *it* imperative *for us to fight* to a man.

See how this object-expletive *it* becomes the subject in the following.

- 1a. *It is* in his power to do good or evil.
- 2a. *It is* his rule to put his self-interest before that of society.
- 3a. *It is* a pity for him to have missed the picture.
- 4a. *It is* almost impossible to teach English grammar well without co-ordination with reading.
- 5a. *It will be* a difficult task for you to convince him.
- 6a. According to some people, *it is* good luck to be born a son of a millionaire.
- 7a. *It is* of great importance for you to do all the exercises in this book carefully.
- 8a. *It is*, says he, always wrong for anybody to disobey his parents.
- 9a. *It is* imperative for us to fight to a man even for mere self-preservation.

54.13 An ordinary pronoun *it*, which has an antecedent, must not be taken for the expletive *it*.

1. I have not finished my work; $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{it} \text{ is very difficult (for me) to do.} \\ \text{I find } \textit{it} \text{ very difficult to do.} \end{array} \right.$
2. My brother bought me a hat, but $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{it was too small (for me)} \\ \text{to wear.} \\ \text{I found it too small to wear.} \end{array} \right.$
3. His writing is wanting in clearness; $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{it is harmful (for you) to imitate.} \\ \text{I regard it as harmful (for you) to imitate} \\ \text{you will find it harmful to imitate.} \end{array} \right.$

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*?

54.14 Do not strain your mind for the expletive *it* in writing or in speaking.

In the following—

- 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 There are various ways that the infinitive serves the same purposes as various kinds of clauses do (see sentences in parentheses, §52.2), but as has been said under §53.2, the

infinitive (or the infinitive clause) is simpler and more natural. In all examples given in this section, the infinitive is to be preferred unless otherwise explained.

55.2 First, the infinitive used as an object of a verb (see also §53.2) or a preposition—

- 1a. I regret *to have hurt* your feelings.
- b. I regret *that I should have hurt* your feelings.
- 2a. I don't remember *how to begin*.
- b. I don't remember *how I should begin*.
- 3a. He will tell you *when to start* work.
- b. He will tell you *when you shall start* work.
- 4a. I forget *whom to write* to.
- b. I forget *whom I should write* to.
- 5a. What could be more ridiculous *than for you grownups to quarrel* over trifles like children.
- b. What could be more ridiculous *than that you grownups should quarrel* over trifles like children.
- 6a. I will ask *for dinner to be brought* to our own room.
- b. I will ask *that dinner be brought* to our own room.
- 7a. We have decided *for the meeting to take* place at 2.
- b. We have decided *that the meeting take* place at 2.
- 8a. We count *on him not to know* it.
- b. We count *on the chance that he will not know* it.
- 9a. 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.

In 8a, *count* and *on* are inseparable in the phrase they form. That makes it necessary to insert *the chance* in 8b. For similar reasons, *the fact* is inserted in 9b.

55.3 The 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?", "Which *to take*?", "What *to do*?", "How *to play*?", etc. as "What shall I tell him?", "Which shall I take?", "What's to be done?", "How shall

we play?"', etc.

55.4 Second, the infinitive as a subjective complement (see also 1,2 and 7, § 52.2)—

- 1a. The *situation* appears *to be improving*.
- b. It appears (*that*) *the situation is improving*.
- 2a. The *letter* seemed *to have been tampered* with.
- b. It seemed (*that*) *the letter had been tampered* with.
- 3a. What I like best is *for ice-cream to be eaten* after supper in a warm cosy room in cold winter.
- b. What I like best is *that ice-cream be eaten* after supper in a warm cosy room in cold winter.
- 4a. The custom is *for the host to persuade* you to drink and you *to refuse* and *give* in only after much higgling.
- b. The custom is *that the host will persuade* you to drink and *you will refuse* and *give* in only after much higgling.
- 5a. He is the man *to look to* for assistance.
- b. He is the man *you may look to* for assistance.

55.5 Third, the infinitive and the adjective clause—

- 1a. He set that as an object *for himself to attain*.
- b. He set that as an object *that he himself was to attain* (= *should attain*).
- 2a. There was nothing left *for him to eat*.
- b. There was nothing left *that he could eat*.
- 3a. There was no house *to live in*.
- b. There was no house *which we could live in*.
- 4a. He has long given orders *for all opposing him to be killed* or *imprisoned*.
- b. He has long given orders *that all opposing him be killed* or *imprisoned*.

2b is quite uncommon.

3b is hardly ever used. Some would say, "There was no house in which to live," but it is very rare in current English.

55.6 It is interesting to compare the following.

- 1a. That's the only way *for us to do*.
- b. That's the only way *we can do*.

It is quite all right to regard *for us to do* as an adjective modifier of *way*, but in *5*, we cannot but say that *we can do* is an adverbial clause, for it means "that we can do" though we never say that unidiomatic way.

In fact, *we can do* can be substituted for *for us to do* only because *way* is often used as an adverb as in *this way, that way, etc.*

In such a sentence as this—

2. You are in no hurry *to see* him.

the infinitive must remain an infinitive, for *hurry* cannot serve such double purposes as *way* can.

The only way and *in no hurry* are notional adverbial modifiers of *for us to do* and *to see*.

55.7 Now let us take up the infinitive and the adverbial clause—

1a. I am sorry *to have kept* you waiting.

b. I am sorry (*that*) *I have kept* you waiting.

2a. He was surprised *to find* me there.

b. He was surprised *that he should find* me there.

3a. They were not sure *which way to choose*.

b. They were not sure *which way they should choose*.

4a. 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.

5a. Indeed, there are people so stupid *as to be proud* of their teaspoonfuls of brain.

b. Indeed, there are people so stupid *that they are proud* of their teaspoonfuls of brain.

6a. They speeded up loading and unloading (*so as*) *to relieve* congestion at the port.

b. They speeded up loading and unloading *so that they might relieve* congestion at the port.

- 7a. I come to school (*in order*) *to learn*.
 b. I come to school (*in order*) *that I may learn*.
 8a. He opened the window (*in order*) *to look out*.
 b. He opened the window (*in order*) *that he might look out*.
 9a. 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 *that the pupils may read* them.

Note that in 1*b* and 2*b*, the clauses are like noun clauses while in fact they are adverbial clauses.

Compare *way* in 3*a* and *b* with that in 1*a* and *b*, §55.6.

The clause of purpose (as in 6*b*, 7*b*, 8*b* and 9*b*) is to be avoided in imperatival sentences. "Let's go to see him" is a good command, so do not say, "Let's go so that we may see him," which is unnatural and awkward.

55.8 A noun clause is never used to replace an infinitive-subject. Such an infinitive refers to things in a general sense. Consequently, there is not only no need but very little possibility to name a special agent. Look up sentences 1, 2 and 3, §51.1, and you can clearly see the point.

That the infinitive may refer to things in general sense is the reason why it is often as good to use a gerund (see *infra* §71.1).

Note especially sentence 1, §51.1, in which the complement is also an infinitive. In spite of what is discussed under §55.4, *to learn* cannot be replaced by a clause for reasons as stated above.

Indeed, sentence 1 possesses a beauty of simplicity and balance that can be equaled by none other than—

Teaching is learning (see *infra* §71.1).

55.9 But if the subject is an infinitival nexus, then the subjunctive of definite opinion may be substituted for it. Sentences 1, 2 and 3 under §54.9 may be rewritten thus:

1. *That the common people should starve and the rich grow ever richer is a situation that will always breed discontent, unrest and revolt.*
2. *That anybody should have grievances against his misdeeds is an offense punishable at his caprice of the moment.*
3. *That they should be branded as evil-doers is an outrage we must protest against.*

55.10 An absolute infinitive, either alone (30, 31, §51.1; §51.6) or modifying an adjective (§51.5), are irreplaceable by any kind of clause.

55.11 As to the exclamatory infinitive, it is its meaning that settles the matter.

In 33, §51.1, *to think* implies a command. That is why the imperative *think* may be substituted for it—

Just think that he had never had a chance to attend school.

but 32 and 34 are not susceptible of like changes.

55.12 Then the infinitive (clause) used in apposition with the expletive *it* as subject—

- 1a. *It is a pity for you to have missed the picture.*
- b. *It is a pity that you should have missed the picture.*
- 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 in his power to do good or evil.*
- b. *It is in his power whether he should do good or evil.*
- 4a. *It is generally regarded as good luck to be born a son of a millionaire.*
- b. *It is generally regarded as good luck that one be born a son of a millionaire.*

2b is to be preferred for its simplicity if the bracketed part is left out (cf. §54.14).

The infinitives in 1-4, §54.1 and in 1, 2 and 2a, §54.2 cannot be replaced by clauses for reasons as stated under §55.8.

55.13 Whether the infinitive exemplified under §54.11 can be replaced by a noun clause is mainly a question of usage. Sentence 2 may have a noun clause instead of the infinitive—

1. We owe it to the combined strength of democratic forces all the world over *that we won* the War of Resistance.

but not 1 and 3.

On the other hand, some expressions are always followed by the noun clause instead of the infinitive—

2. You must *see to it that* they all come in time.
3. I *take it that* it will be fine.
4. How *comes it that* the boy hate his parents so much?

55.14 Most infinitives under §54.12 can be replaced by clauses. Below are given examples that correspond to the original sentences 1-3, and 6-9.

1. He has it in his power whether he would do good or evil.
2. He makes it a rule that his self-interest be placed before ~~that~~ of society.
3. I think it a pity that he should have missed the picture.
4. Many think it good luck that one be born a son of a millionaire.
5. I look upon it as of great importance that you do all the exercises in this book carefully.
6. He considers it always wrong that anybody should disobey his parents.
7. Mere self preservation would make it imperative that we fight to a man.

Sentences 4 and 5, §54.12, do not admit of like changes for reasons as stated under §55.8.

55.15 We may now take up the case of *too . . . to* (see 32, §51.1; 6*a-f*, §52.4).

- 1*a.* That stone is *too heavy* for a single person *to raise*.
- b.* That stone is *so heavy that* a single person *cannot raise* it.
- 2*a.* 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.
- 3*a.* They are not politically *too big to befriend*.
- b.* They are not politically *so big that* we *cannot befriend* them.
- 4*a.* I have been *too busy to call* on you.
- b.* I have been *so busy that* I *was not able to call* on you.
- 5*a.* 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.
- 6*a.* 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.
- 7*a.* We have *too little money to save*.
- b.* We have *so little money that* we *cannot save*.
- 8*a.* The situation is now *too grave to save*.
- b.* The situation is now *so grave that* nobody *can save* it.
- 9*a.* You speak *too quickly for* them *to follow*.
- b.* You speak *so quickly that* they *cannot follow*.
- 10*a.* He was *too deeply absorbed to hear* anything.
- b.* He was *so deeply absorbed that* he *could not hear* anything.

Sentences *b* are helps to the understanding of sentences *a*. The former are very rarely, if ever, used.

55.16 The above use of *too . . . to* must, however, be distinguished from that found in such sentences as—

1. I am only *too glad to do* that for you (=I am very much delighted to do that for you).
2. You are *too ready to find fault with* other persons (=You are very fond of finding fault with other persons).
3. It is *too kind of you to have told* me that (=You are very kind to have told me that).

Here, the infinitives *to do*, *to find* and *to have told* are modifiers of the adjectives *glad*, *ready* and *kind* instead of the adverb *too*.

55.17 Some other adverbs, like *enough* and *sufficiently*, are used much in the same way as *too* (see *5e* and *f*, §52.4).

- 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-operated* with him.
- b.* They were *fool enough so that* they *co-operated* with him.

The *b* type sentences are hardly ever used, especially 4, in which *fool* is not an adjective, but often used idiomatically with *enough* followed by the infinitive.

55.18 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.

55.19 It can be seen now that the infinitive possesses a high versatility. To sum up what has been exemplified so far, it may imply command (sentence 33, §51.1), simultaneity or futurity (§52.1), priority (§52.2), unrealized intention (§52.3), ability or possibility (§52.6; *5a*, §55.4; *2a*, *3a*, §55.5; *1a-1a*, *6a-10a*, §55.15), necessity (§51.3; *1a*, §55.5), definite

opinion (§54.9; 1a, 5a, 6a, §55.2; 3a, §55.4; 4a, §55.5; 1a, 2a, 4a, §55.7), habit (4a, §55.4), purpose (6a-9a, §55.7), or inference (5a, §55.15). This explains the use of *think* under §55.11; of the progressive verb in 1b-3b, §52.1; of the perfect and past verbs in parentheses that follow the sentences under §52.2; of the subjunctive *would* in parentheses in 1b, §52.3; of *can*, *could* or *may* in parentheses, §52.6; in 5b, §55.4; in 2b, 3b, §55.5; and in sentences b, 1-4, 6-9, §55.15, of *was to attain* (instead of *attained* or *would attain*) in 1b, §55.5; of *will* in 4b, §55.4; of the subjunctive under §§55.9, 55.12, 55.14 and in corresponding sentences b under §§55.2, 55.4, 55.7, 55.15; and of *must* in 5b, §55.15.

The rest needs some explanations.

A. It is possible to replace the progressive infinitives in 4 and 5 under §52.1 by clauses. Thus:

1. It's so hot; I *think I will be swimming*.
2. I didn't expect *that it would be raining now*.

With the finite verb undergoing change, 1 does not mean exactly the same as the original (see *infra* §55.23).

2 is a good sentence but not so good as the original, which is simpler.

Sentence 3 under §52.1 does not admit of like changes, for *had better* is idiomatically always followed by the infinitive.

B. Under §51.3, the infinitive alone does not express necessity, but in conjunction with verb *to be*. That rules out the clause question.

The same is true of all infinitive forming part of a future sign.

55.20 Besides, there are other implications of the infinitive that neither any auxiliary nor any mood can help

express. In that case, the infinitive is irreplaceable by any clause if the exact, original meaning is to be preserved.

Take for example—

1. We use a pen *to write* with.

in which *to write* is called an infinitive of purpose (see *infra* §56.1). An adverbial clause of purpose, however, cannot be used in its place as is done in sentences *b*, 6-9 under §55.7. The idea of writing and the idea of using a pen are so interdependent in the whole thought expressed by the sentence that *to write* cannot be taken apart without destroying the original thought. If we should say awkwardly—

- 1a. We use a pen *so that we may write*.

it does not mean the same as the original, for once the adverbial clause is introduced, the original single thought is cut into two separate, though related, thoughts. Sentence 1 does not mean that the purpose of using a pen is to write (which is what 1a means), but expresses a single thought very much like "A pen is used for writing," in which *used* is idiomatically followed by *for*.

To write is not some appendage that can be disjoined at will. In reality, it forms an integral part of the organic whole so that to substitute a clause for it will only disrupt the whole structure.

Or, look at the following.

2. The house is *easy to find*.
3. He is hard *to deal* with.

Grammatically, *to find* and *to deal* are adverbial modifiers of the predicate adjective, but notionally they serve as subjects and take the grammatical subjects as their objects. The various components of the thought are so complicatedly and

compactly interwoven into a sentence that you have only the choice of the whole thing or nothing at all.

Look up what is discussed under §54.6. *The house . . . to find* and *He . . . to deal with* are called split subjects. An infinitive that forms part of a split subject are generally not replaceable by a clause unless the expletive *it* may be supplied as in 1*b* and 2*b* under §55.4.

The English language abounds in split subjects, especially in connexion with the infinitive. Typical examples of the infinitive so used are found in §10.11; 12, 22, §51.1; 1*g*, 2*b*, 2*g*, 5*d*, 6*a*, 6*b*; §52.4; sentences *a*, 1-4, §54.7. Other forms are—

4. *He* happened *to be* there.
5. *I* fail *to see* any reason for his doing so.
6. The *ship* is believed *to have been salvaged*.
7. *She* has been *to see* the doctor.
8. The *exhibition* is not likely *to open* so soon.

Like *to write* in 1, the infinitive in the split subject forms a part of the main thought. In some cases, the split subject may be replaced by a clause as in—

- 4*a*. It happened that he was there.

But it consists of two separate thoughts instead of the original single thought.

Even in 1 and 2, §55.4, the single thought in *a* is broken into two in *b* though the latter construction also frequently occurs.

55.21 The difference between one single thought and two different thoughts is an important one. Indeed, the infinitive is one of the idiomatic devices that can help combine two separate thoughts into one single thought. Note how sentences *b* below combine the two thoughts in *a* with the

help of the infinitive.

- 1a. You have such a good house. You are lucky.
 b. You are lucky *to have* such a house.
- 2a. We can go; it's still not too late.
 b. It's still not too late *to go*.
- 3a. You venture out here. That's dangerous.
 b. It's dangerous for you *to venture* out here.
- 4a. I'm waiting for him. He's going to bring back the message.
 b. I'm waiting *for him to bring* back the message.
- 5a. The book is yours. You can do anything with it you are disposed to.
 b. The book is yours *to do* whatever you are disposed to.

Note the use of *too . . . to* in 2b. All sentences *a* under §55.15 are combinations of two thoughts.

The use of *yours to do* in 5b is idiomatic (see *infra* §71.4).

55.22 The infinitival nexus in 4b above is worth a further study. You can see that *for him* serves as a link between the two thoughts as expressed in 4a. On the one hand, *wait* is idiomatically followed by the preposition *for*; on the other, *for* takes *him to come* as its object. Thus the infinitival nexus is the one stone that helps us kill two birds.

In the following sentences, the infinitival nexus in *a* is cut into two in *b*. Consequently, the latter is unable to express what the former means.

- 1a. I'm waiting *for him to bring* back the message.
 b. I'm waiting for him, who is going to bring back the message.
- 2a. Many longed *for better days to come* when the last war was over.
 b. Many longed for better days that would come when the last war was over.
- 3a. They will have been prepared *for anything to happen*.
 b. They will have been prepared for anything that could happen.
- 4a. They listened with interest *to the pedlar call* musically.
 b. They listened with interest to the pedlar, who was calling musically.

- 5a. It is good *for us to rise* early in the morning.
 b. It is good for us *that we rise* early in the morning.
 6a. I should be sorry *for you to think* so.
 b. I should be sorry for you if you should think so.

55.23 On the other hand, there are implications in the finite verb that the infinitive cannot express. In that case the infinitive is out of place.

In—

1. I don't like the way *he smiles*.

smiles expresses repeated actions of the present. It does not admit of substitution by *for him to smile*, for *to smile* would imply futurity, definite opinion, or what not.

The same is true of *is* in—

2. Do you see that this *is* wrong?

Similarly, a noun clause can be replaced by an infinitive (clause) only when its finite verb expresses a definite opinion. If it expresses a plain fact, then the clause must remain a clause—

3. It is true that the Japanese captain *was captured* alive.
 4. My reason is that he *is* good-humored.
 5. It is of no importance whether it *will rain* or not.

55.24 It remains to take up a few idiomatic uses.

In—

- 1a. I wish *him to come*.

to come expresses futurity. We cannot use a clause in its stead as in—

- 1b. I wish he would come.

for *wish* is always followed by the subjunctive, which does not express futurity but supposition contrary to anticipation. If **we** do like the clause, we must change the main verb and

say instead—

1c. I hope he will come.

But 1c is still different from 1a in that *hope* expresses a weaker desire than *wish* (see 4, §53.2; but in 8 and 12, the change of the finite verb does not affect the original meaning).

Or, take this sentence—

2a. I want *to go*.

in which *to go* also expresses futurity. The *b* type is here out of the question as *want* does not take a clause as its object. The only alternative is—

2c. I think I will go.

But again *think* is weaker than *want* (cf. A, §55.19).

Note the italicized words in the following.

- 3a. The law *requires us to respect* private property rights.
- d. The law *says that* private property rights *be respected*.
- 4a. I suggested *to have* the class *suspended* till September.
- e. I suggested that the class *be suspended* till September.
- 5a. Do you care *to be* rich?
- f. Do you care *for* riches?
- 6a. Many long *to see* peace.
- f. Many long *for* peace.

Care and *long*, like *want*, *promise*, *pretend*, *have got* (= *have to*), etc., take only the infinitive as object; but they are different from the rest in that they can take a noun as an object when *for* is added.

55.25 The auxiliaries also have their infinitives. The following pairs of sentences show the point. (cf. §§24.7, 24.8).

- 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 their 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. Several hours later he woke again *to find* himself lying on the grass in the courtyard. (Result)
9. He is a fool *to believe* what this paper says. (Condition)
10. I would give my life's blood *to be sure* of not offending you. (Condition)
11. He proposed a picnic, he *to buy* the food and John *to bring* the Victrola and records. (Pre-arrangement)
12. They had everything pre-arranged, Su *to make* the motion, Kwei *to second* and the rest *to speak* in favor of it. (Pre-arrangement).

To buy, to bring, to make, to second and *to speak*, for want of a better name, may be called infinitives of pre-arrangement. That portion of sentences 11 and 12 after the comma may be called the absolute infinitive phrase (cf. the absolute participle phrase, §67.6).

56.2 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*.

- 1*a.* 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).
- 2*a.* The Japanese came forward to attack.
- b.* The Japanese came forward only to meet death at the accurately fired bullets of Chusan.

56.3 But do not think that *only* always introduces an infinitive of result. In the following sentences—

- 1. I am sure she will live *to be* ninety.
- 2. He waited only to see that the pulleys were in good order and then let go.

to be expresses result and *to see*, purpose. Meaning, not form, determines of what kind an infinitive is.

56.4 For the sake of emphasis, an infinitive of purpose (with or without *in order*) is frequently placed at the beginning 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.

Compare the above with the absolute infinitives under *k*, §51.1 and §51.5.

56.5 The infinitive of semblance is used in a similar way and demands the same kind of subject.

1. As though to testify 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; other examples are *let go*, *let out*, *let fall*, *see fit*, *make good*, etc.)
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. The best thing for you to do is to read much and thus get used to them.

56.9 Some infinitives go without the sign *to*, when used absolutely—

1. This means an unfavorable balance of more than CNO 30,000,000,000, *let* alone large-scale smuggling.
2. It's not a bad place *to live* in, *take* it all in all.

56.10 With co-ordinated 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 water-tower, *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.

56.11 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 the last four sentences. Why?

To may be added at the end of 9, but 10 and 11 generally go without it. In 12, it is never used.

56.12 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.

In spite of the out-of-date grammarians who are wont to condemn this practice, infinitives are often split not only to avoid ambiguity but also for smoothness of style, better rhythm, etc.

Compare the following two sentences.

- 1a. Come over here if you want to see it *clearly*.
- 1b. Nobody seems *to clearly see* his point.

In 1a, *clearly* is placed at the end for emphasis. In 1b *to see* is split in order that it may stand close enough both to its modifier *clearly* and its object *his point*. The split position of *clearly* is the most natural and contributes to good rhythm and balance.

To fully appreciate what has been discussed, you will have to read much. Suffice it to add the following examples.

2. You ought *to thoroughly understand* what you read.
3. *To fully enjoy* life, one must have some serious work to do.
4. They are too antagonistic in political faith *to really like* each other.
5. It is not easy *to accurately define* such a complicated matter.

56.13 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 23

I. Change the clauses of purpose in sentences 1–5 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).

II. Substitute infinitival *nexus* for the clauses of definite opinion in sentences 1–17 under §46.6, making other necessary changes with it.

III. Rewrite sentences 3–7, §54.12, in such a way that the part after the main verb be transformed into a noun clause with the expletive *it* as the subject and *verb to be* as the finite verb. Change the main verb if necessary.

IV. Write out the two separate thoughts contained in all sentences *a* under §55.15.

V. Change the italicized finite verbs into infinitives, making other changes, if necessary.

1. He is so inexperienced that he *cannot do that*.
2. I heard that the clock *struck* four.
3. I am sorry that I *must trouble* you again.
4. I will come again this evening so that I *may discuss* it with you.
5. I have bought it so that I *may wear* it.
6. The judge sentenced that he *be hanged*.
7. She found that the children *were playing*.
8. The fire-brigade rushed to the scene in order that it *may put* out the fire.
9. I thought that the composer *was* he.
10. It is my intention that she *be promoted* to more responsible positions.
11. He hurried off in order that he *might be* in time for the meeting.
12. He was so pessimistic that he *lost* interest in everything around him.
13. This student does not know even how he *should write* his own name in English.
14. They produced on me too deep an impression that I *cannot forget* it.
15. In order that you *may criticize*, you have to closely examine the object first.
16. I was surprised that I *found* that he had left.
17. That man is so much involved in debt that he *cannot be* upright.
18. As though he *were preparing* to fight, Ah Kwei rolled up his sleeves.
19. Take the book home so that you *may read* it.
20. It is shown that the population *is steadily increasing*.
21. In order that he *might appear* calm and composed, he took a book and pretended to read it.
22. His father has bought him a bicycle that he *may ride* it.
23. Nothing was left that I *could do*.
24. I will try and *meet* you there.

25. Nobody knew what he *should do*.
26. They imagined that the winner of the prize *was I*.
27. I came across that book in the library and directly found that it *was quite interesting*.
28. Who knows how or where it *should be kept*?
29. I expect that he *will come in a few days*.
30. This is a matter ~~so~~ important that it *should not be neglected*.
31. In order that you *may command*, you have first to condescend to learn from your followers.
32. You must learn how you *ought to behave* yourself.
33. It seems that he *has left* for Chungking.
34. He is so much absorbed in his useful work that he *does not care* for such trifles.
35. It is my intention that he *should be* well-educated.
36. Are these the plan and elevation of the building that *is to be constructed*?
37. He is so wise that he *will not be* misled.
38. Won't you come tomorrow and teach me how *I should ride*?
39. She returned in order that she *might receive* further instructions.
40. My intention is not so much that he *acquire* knowledge from books alone as that he should learn through useful work and contact with worthy people.
41. Could we get something that we *can eat*?
42. She shuddered even when she *thought* of that.
43. The signboard at the station says that we *should beware* of pickpockets.
44. I am sorry that I *come* late.
45. It does not seem that he *is coming*.
46. It is indeed bad luck that you *should have had* your money stolen.
47. I know of no other way I *may criticize* than borrow the words of Kuangtsu.
48. They don't know whom they *should obey*
49. He has many children whom he *must provide* food for.
50. It is now high time that you *learned* the uses of the verbals.
51. It seems that you *have come* from afar.
52. You have got too many things that you *can be* proud of.
53. He expected that he *could be* back for his mother's birthday.

54. I have no money with which I *can start*.
55. It seemed that they *had taken* me for an official.
56. It is good feat that they *should have hurled* back the enemy and inflicted heavy losses on it.
57. We are fighting in order that we *may liberate* ourselves.
58. You have a head with which you *can think*, a tongue with which you *can read and speak*, a hand with which you *can write*; why don't you use them?
59. There is a force of cultivated public opinion that he *can appeal* to.
60. I mean I *shall say* this.
61. Some people are so foolish that they *pretend* to know what they really do not.
62. I am glad that I *can hear* of your success.
63. Have you any more that you *want* to say?
64. Have you any more letters that *are* to be registered?
65. It seems strange that some trees *have* sex.
66. That student is so clever that he *must understand* everything I say.
67. That a son *should be* unconditionally filial and obedient to his father was an unviolable law of old China.
68. He knows so little that he *is not interested* in reading magazines.
69. I intend that he *should come* at once.
70. The children have many toy-locomotives and toy-airplanes with which they *can play*.
71. He would be blind who *doesn't see* that.
72. In order that you *may learn* to speak, you have to speak much.
73. It is only natural that he *should be* praised.
74. You will find that the article *is* easy to understand.
75. I don't know how I *should answer* him.
76. I find it advisable that I *should not think* too much of the little I know.
77. It is only natural that anybody *should make* mistakes.
78. I consider it worth our while that we *stay* here a few days more.
79. The only way we *can do* is to get more people interested in it.

80. We owe it to the men fighting for us that we *should do* all we can in the interest of peace.
81. That dum-dum bullets *should be fired* upon the students is a sin no beauty of words can help expiate.
82. They even found the night-cap he *would have worn* that night.
83. The long-awaited decree that the army *be demobilized* has not yet come.
84. This is the place where we *can pass* the night.
85. Up there, tiled roofs are the only thing that *can be seen*.

VI. 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.
13. 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 ferryboat 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 burned down the following year.
33. We were to win the game. Unfortunately, one of our full-backs 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.
41. You must be mad if you should go for a walk under the scorching sun.
42. He has nothing for which to care.
43. It should be easy for you to jump across.
44. Shall I tell you what I think I will do?
45. I think it rather good for you that you have had such trying experience.
46. Be quick. There is no time to be lost.
47. My work is just to copy what he has written faithfully.
48. For us to answer this question is difficult.
49. He is blind and has to have somebody who will read the daily paper to him.
50. It is never too late that we should not mend the pen even after the sheep is lost.
51. Cabbages like these **cannot** be found in the south.
52. I regard it as wrong that anybody should end his own life.
53. It is imperative for you to stop him.
54. The work is so difficult that he cannot do it.

55. I know you don't want, but you will have.
56. Your mother is very keen that you and your wife live with her.
57. I count upon you that you won't say a word about it.
58. I'm at a loss what I shall do.
59. He left home at 16 and never returned.
60. What have I done that offends you?
61. I have but to put my nose between the pages in order that I may be reminded of all sorts of things.
62. There is no one to whom I can appeal.
63. To master a foreign language is not easy.
64. They were waiting for the storm that would subside.
65. I went up to the door but found it impossible to open it.
66. It was impossible for them to stand his arrogance.
67. Think of it that he was to be put into a dungeon and cut from the rest of the world, not even to see a single human being again.

CHAPTER VI

THE PARTICIPLE

The participle performs three different functions: as 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 form and how the past participle helps to form the perfect and the passive form. Those 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. What are you planning to do in the *coming* summer vacation?
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*.
19. To the health of our *departing* friends.
20. He has a more *seeing* eye.

61.2 Note the explanations below.

A. A present participle expresses quality (*touching* in 1), activity (*running* in 2), what is actually going on at the time indicated by the principal verb (*gathering* in 3 or) futurity (*coming* in 11); a past participle, a condition (*withered* in 6), or both a condition and a passive meaning (*written* in 7); 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.

Generally speaking, the present participle implies the near or immediate future and the infinitive, the vague or distant future. Mark it in the following.

1. What will be things like in the *coming* year?
2. You are not aware of it now; you will feel it in the years *to come*.

B. "A *touching* story" means "a story that is *touching*." All restrictive verbal adjectives are replaceable by the adjectives.

tive clause.

C. A single participle usually precedes the substantive it modifies (sentences 1-8, 10, 19 and *boasting* in 18), but is placed after the latter if it is itself followed by other words closely connected with it (sentences 11 and 13-17).

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*. Try to see the difference between *the explanations following* and *the following-explanations*.

F. As to the bare past participle that follows instead of preceding the modified, the matter seems to defy any simple explanation. Generally we may say that it hangs rather loosely on the modified.

This is manifested in some cases by the fact that it is less restrictive and may be left out without affecting the meaning of the original sentences as in 9 and 18. This is because there are no corrections that are not *made*, nor any man that are not *seen*. These participles are restrictive only in that they are equivalent to the adjective clauses "that the teacher has made" and "that we have ever seen." We may compare them with, for example, *withered* in 6, which is restrictive in the sense that there are flowers that are not withered, i. e. blooming or full-blown. Instead of being a modifier that distinguish one condition from another, *made* and *seen* are put there for emphasis or to avoid ambiguity. That they follow the modified is to be explained by the fact that they are appendages.

Another case is the difference between “a *returned* student” and “a book *returned*.” In the former, *returned* expresses a condition while in the latter it implies activity in addition to condition. “A *returned* student” means “a student home from abroad,” *returned* being equivalent to a mere adjective (*home* is an adverb used as an adjective), but “a book *returned*” means “a book that has been returned” or “the borrower has returned.”

Other past participles follow the modified for no other reason than that they mean differently in the other position. This is true of adjectives too. For example, *present* means one thing in “the *present* time” and another in “the members *present*.” Similarly, “the guests *gone*” means “the guests that are gone” but in “a *gone* man,” *gone* means “hopeless.”

The following case is quite interesting.

1. *A lost battle* is a good subject for self-criticism.
2. *Battles lost* may lead to a war won.

In 1, *lost* and *battle* are closely joined with each other. In 2, *lost* stands much more apart. “*Battles lost*” is very much like “for battles to be lost,” “the losing of battles” or “that battles are lost.” The sentence is equivalent to—

2a. *The losing of battles* may lead to *the winning of a war*.

in which *losing* and *winning* are gerunds (see *infra* §75.1).

Sentence 10, §61.1, means “There’s wasting of much time.”

Other examples of such past participles are as in: *labor lost*, *books read*, *money paid*, *bills paid*, *company formed*, *problems discussed*, *acts committed*, *property left*, etc.

Such expressions also come by analogy with the participles used as objective complement (see *infra* §64.2)—

3. He has *no property left*.
4. You must have *the bill paid*.

As for *something interesting, nothing inspiring, anything encouraging, the time being, times past*, etc., they may be dismissed as idioms.

61.3 *Made* in 9, §61.1 may be combined with *ready* to form a compound adjective, which always precedes the modified as in *ready-made clothes*, etc.

Other examples of such compound adjectives are: *home-made, self-constituted, half-built, good-toned, heart-broken, long-drawn, widely-used, well-said, ill-advised, unwanted, foregone, crestfallen*, etc. Those formed with the present participle are: *hair-splitting, well-meaning, out-going, on-coming easy-going, high-sounding, far-reaching, land-owning, man-eating, bomb-carrying, sea-faring, nice-looking*, etc.

61.4 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.

61.5 Of the following sentences, *a* is clumsy but *b* is simple and rhythmical.

- 1a. Who is it *that 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?

61.6 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 sentence 2 below—

1. There is no *one* in the rank and file *wasting* a single bullet.
2. 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*.

61.7 In these sentences,

1. You are the *only* person *being* in a position to mediate.
2. He took the bottle *standing* on the table and drank it empty.

being ought to be, and *standing* 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 stood* in 2).

61.8 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*.

61.9 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 hillside.
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.
6. We began to translate that book *without either* or us *knowing* that the other was doing the same.

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 murderer," 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.

The explanatory verbal adjective is less closely connected with the modified than the restrictive one. It expresses a subordinate thought apart from the main thought.

The question of subordinate thought in connexion with the participle is even more important than with the infinitive. Give attention to it.

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, for 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 expresses a subordinate thought concerning the subject of the sentence without limiting or restricting it.

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 schoolmaster 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 veranda, *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 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 marital relations.
21. The river, *dashing* along between its own banks, brings down mud and sand, thereby *raising* its own bed in the lower course.
22. *Catching* hold of the students roughly, the policemen trucked them to the station.
23. He found that another planet has four moons, *showing* that it was like the earth, which also has a moon.

In 23, *showing* does not refer to the subject *planet* but to the fact of its having four moons. It is like the explanatory adjective clause that refers to a whole clause instead of a substantive. Sentence 23 may be rewritten thus:

- 23a. He found that another planet has four moons, which shows that it was like the earth, which also has a moon.

62.4 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.

D. A present participle that expresses a previous event precedes the main verb (18–20 and 22, §62.3) and that expresses a subsequent event follows it (13, §62.3).

62.5 Subordinate thought expressed by the explanatory verbal adjective becomes a part of the main thought or an independent thought by changing the verbal adjective into a finite verb.

1. I stood amazed *and did not know what to do.*
2. The schoolmaster remained standing. He leant backward and was supported by the thick walking-stick held in his hand.
3. She alone remained at home; she was cleaning the kitchen and washing clothes.
4. The gun was loaded with bullets but never used. It has been lying all the while in the drawer.
5. The river dashed along between its own banks. It brings down mud and sand. Thereby it raises its own bed in the lower course.

Compare these with sentences 1, 3, 12, 15 and 21, §32.3, which are more descriptive by distinguishing the subordinate thought from the main thought.

62.6 Compare sentences 10–12, §32.3 with the following.

1. They went to the veranda *to take* cold drinks.
2. She sat down on the window-sill *to look* out.
3. She alone remained at home *to clean* the kitchen and *wash* clothes.

The infinitives express result or purpose.

62.7 Compare further the following with sentence 14 under §32.3.

1. His 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 sen-

tence. 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 *résumé* 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.

62.8 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 two entirely different actions. Change the two *saying*'s into finite verbs, place *and* before them, and you will see the point clearly.

62.9 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. §61.6).

But the case is different with—

3. He must have a hand in it, *being* the secretary of the organization.

where *being* is a verbal adverb meaning "as he is" (see *infra* 27, §65.2).

63 The Verbal Adjective Used as a Predicate Adjective

Used predicatively, the verbal adjective may stand either as a predicate adjective or as an adjective complement.

Used as a predicate adjective, it has been treated in §§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. This problem is *puzzling*.
- b. This problem is *to puzzle* many people.
- 2a. I am *determined*.
- b. I am *to determine* what I shall do.
- 3a. You can rest *assured*.
- b. You can rest (in order) *to recuperate*.
- 4a. He remained *sitting*.
- b. He remained (in order) *to look* after the office.
- 5a. He went on *telling* the story (in order) *to keep* her amused.
- b. He went on *to tell* me what he presumed I should know.

In 1 and 2, both the participle and the infinitive are subjective complements, but **while** the participle expresses quality or state, the infinitive forms a part of the formula “verb *to be* + infinitive” (§31.14).

The infinitives in 3b, 4b and 5b and *to keep* in 5a are not complements at all; they are adverbial modifiers expressing purpose or result. 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 though for brevity's sake, *to be* is very often left out.

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.
6. We went *wandering* down the valley.
7. What do you come *bothering* him for

Formerly, *a-* (a shortened form of *on*) was inserted between the verb and the participle as in *go a-fishing*, *burst out a-laughing*, *set a-going*, *fall a-doing*, *fall a-thinking*, etc., but it is now generally dropped. This use of the participle is idiomatic and it most frequently follows the verb of motion. It means that the action of picnicking, fishing, hunting, wandering, or bothering is long and continuous.

Compare the following.

- 8a. Lin, the pao-chang, went *to collect* "free contributions" from the peasants.
 b. Lin, the pao-chang, went (about the country) *collecting* "free contributions" from the peasants.

To collect expresses the purpose of *went* while *collecting* expresses continuous action.

The current form of *fall a-thinking* is *fall to thinking*, in which *thinking* is a gerund (see *infra* 9, §73.1).

63.4 Compare the following.

1. They *are playing* cricket in the garden.
2. They are in the garden *playing* cricket.

The first sentence answers the question "What are they doing?" The second does not, but answers "Where are they?", *playing cricket* being added because the speaker feels that *are in the garden* does not tell much and something must be said about their activities.

Playing in 2 does not express an afterthought distinct from the main thought (that is why *are playing* is often mistaken for a present progressive verb); it is so closely connected with the rest of the sentence that no comma may be used to separate the former from the latter. And in spite of *are* being the main verb, it is *playing cricket* that is uppermost in the mind of the speaker.

Certainly, *playing* cannot be regarded as an explanatory verbal adjective.

Compare sentence 2 with the following.

3. Ho Chih-chang left home *young* but returned *gray-headed*.
4. He began his career *an engineer* but ended *a bureaucrat*.

Like *young*, *gray-headed*, *engineer* and *bureaucrat* here, *playing* also tells something about the subject and is inseparable from the single thought expressed by the sentence as a whole.

We are quite justified in calling *playing* a predicate adjective.

Further examples—

5. He is upstairs *reading*.
6. At that time Richard **was** abroad *fighting*.
7. Behind the cloud is the sun still *shining*. (Longfellow)
8. He was in the forest *cutting* wood to sell in the town.
9. I know you will be there *swimming* with the waterproof watch on your wrist.
10. There were only a few truck-loads of students *shouting* slogans *denouncing* the big demonstration two days before.

Note the difference between *shouting* and *denouncing* in 10. The latter is an explanatory verbal adjective.

The main verb, too, may be progressive itself—

11. We'll be sitting here *talking* forever. (Why don't we go for a walk or to see the exhibition?)
12. He is staying here *awaiting* your definite answer.

If *talking forever* in 11 is omitted, the sentence will become senseless. A similar omission in 12 would make much change in meaning as *awaiting your answer* is what engages the attention of the speaker.

It is interesting to note, too, that *will be sitting* and *is staying* may not be regarded as progressive verbs at all (consult §17.6) and sitting and staying are omissible. In that case, the main verb becomes a copula as in sentences 1–10.

The past participle can also be so used though not so frequently met—

13. They all lay on the ground totally *exhausted*.
14. He left the meeting *crestfallen*.
15. He was born *deformed*.
16. The gallant city still faces *undismayed* one of the heaviest onslaughts this war has witnessed.

64 The Objective Complement and the Participial Nexus

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 the participles as their objective complement instead of the infinitive (see also examples under §27.7)—

1. Charles I *had* his head *cut* by the Roundheads.
2. He *had* no property *left* when he died.
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 3*a* under §53.1 and see the difference between *do* and *understood*.

Learn to distinguish the objective complement from the restrictive verbal adjective. For example, in 1, *cut* does not restrict *head* though it says something about the latter. We cannot say, "Charles I had his head which was cut by the Roundheads."

64.3 Examine further the following.

- 1*a*. I *wish* his book *to be published*.
- b*. I *will have* his book *published*.
- 2*a*. 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.
5. 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 construction of (*saw*) *the soldiers fire*, (*heard*) *him sing*, etc., is called an "infinitival nexus," there is no reason why we should not give the name of "participial nexus" to that of (*saw*) *the soldiers firing*, (*heard*) *him singing*, etc.

64.6 More examples of the participial nexus.

1. They saw a *truck standing* in the middle of the road.
2. I have seen *him working* hard.
3. Is the *boss scolding* you any reason for you to scold your wife?
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 moonlight I saw a *man coming* towards me.
8. The worst thing about him is *vanity coupled* with hypocrisy.
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 admitted *himself mistaken*.
15. I must see *it done* without delay.
16. I am so 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!
25. I don't want *any more* of these people *coming* into my house.

Note that *the boss scolding you* is the subject in 3 and *vanity coupled with hypocrisy*, the subjective complement in 8.

Participial nexus introduced by *of* are very common.

Compare these sentences with those under §61.9. There, *the thought of her lost son always floating before her*, *their faces bathed in perspiration*, etc. are participial nexus introduced by *with* or *without*.

Compare 25 with 2a, §64.3. *Coming* in 25 is not a complement of *want* but a part of the participial nexus *any more of these people coming*.

Compare *fighting* in 24 with *wasting* in 1 and *who would waste* in 2, §61.6. You can see that, while the participial nexus is an entity by itself, which no inserted expression can break up, the explanatory verbal adjective cannot stand too far away from the noun or pronoun it modifies.

64.7 Certain verbs demand the insertion of an *as* before the participle in the participial nexus.

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 of the 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 treated *me as being* one of themselves.

A comparison may be made of sentence 9 with 10*a*, 11*a*, 12*a* under §53.2. Note the different positions of the personal pronouns.

64.8 Sometimes, the presence or absence of *as* makes a different meaning. This sentence—

1. He spoke of the factory *being equipped* with American-made machinery.

says a fact while sentence 3 above gives an opinion.

Sentence 5 above may be similarly compared with this—

2. Just imagine our troops *fighting* against such heavy odds.

64.9 Or *being* (alone or with the preceding *as*) may be left out without altering the original meaning. Sentences 3, 4, 7, 8 and 9, §64.7, may be shortened thus—

1. He spoke of the factory *as the best equipped* in the whole of the Far East.
2. She fancied her clothes *made* of silk.
3. The report tells of the road *as littered* with wrecked cars and lorries.
4. Many thought the article *written* by him.
5. They treated me *as one* of themselves.

In 5, the participial nexus disappears altogether. *One* may be taken as the objective complement of *regarded* or the object of *as*, which is like a preposition.

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 walked 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, meaning that he kept on relating. 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 his going into the courtyard instead of stating any additional, distinct thought. *Creeping* here is a verbal adverb.

65.2 Verbal adverbs are of many kinds.

1. We waited and waited until darkness came *creeping* over the vast 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 he had spent with her, *working* and *reading* together, *discussing* problems of philosophy and topics of current interest, and once in a while *boating* in the lake under the moonlight.
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.

THE PARTICIPLE

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 finish d* his words, he walked away sedately.
10. *Having bargained* with the pedlar for half an hour, he 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 lake front, 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, *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. *Addict d* 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. *Slamming* 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 eyebrow, 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.
24. There is the bat, which, *classified* as a quadruped, does fly.
25. And there is the whale, which, *swimming* like a fish, is a mammal.
26. He is far happier *doing* the present job than any other even with higher pay.

27. He must have a hand in it, *being* the secretary of the organization.

65.3 Study these participles with the help of the following.

1a. How did darkness come? It came *creeping*.

7a. *As I was then 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.

19a. *Climb* up that small hill; you will *thus* be able to see the river beyond.

b. *Climb* up that small hill *and* you will be able to see the river beyond.

c. *If you climb* up that small hill, you will be able to see the river beyond.

24a. There is the bat, which, *though it is classified* as a quadruped, does fly.

These sentences explain why *creeping* may be called a verbal adverb of manner; *living*, of cause; *having finished*, of time; *climbing*, of means or condition; and *classified*, of concession. 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. The verbal adverb of manner is a device that combines two separate thoughts into a single thought (cf. the infinitive, §§55.20, 55.21). No clause can fulfil that requirement.

B. All the other kinds have the same function as some adverbial clause. In everyday speech they occur less frequently than the clause. In writing and formal speech, however, they are very often employed, especially in the long compound-complex sentence, where the verbal adverb helps achieve terseness and avoid awkwardness.

Patrick Henry once asked his fellows in the Virginia Convention—

1. 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.

C. Compare the following sentence with 8 under §35.2.

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, §35.2, *slamming* and *pulling*, but not *having slammed* 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). The following sentences *a* are all wrong.

- 1a. Being born blind, *you cannot* make him appreciate the meaning of colour.

- b. Being born blind, *he* cannot be made to appreciate the meaning of colour.
- 2a. Having given my answer which he thought satisfactory, *he* rose and bid me good-bye.
- b. After I had given my answer which he thought satisfactory, *he* rose and bid me good-bye.
- c. Having been given (Having got my answer which he thought satisfactory), *he* rose and bid me good-bye.
- 3a. Having taken our lunch, the *journey* was resumed.
- b. Having taken our lunch, *we* resumed our journey.
- 4a. Sustaining her with his right *arm*, *she* was led out.
- b. Sustaining her with his right *arm*, *he* led her out.
- 5a. Stepping upon the platform, the *people* gave him an applause.
- b. As he stepped (or was stepping) upon the platform, the *people* gave him an applause.
- c. Stepping upon the platform, *he* was given an applause.
- 6a. He is now very weak, *caused* by an attack of malaria.
- b. He is now very weak, *for he was recently attacked* by malaria.
- c. He is now very weak *on account of* an attack of malaria.

65.6 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* may regard the present as nothing but an imaginary line or plane that divides up the past and the future.

This is why *to transfer* is called an absolute infinitive.

65.7 Certain participles are, however, exceptions to this rule.

1. *Judging* (or *Judged*) 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 *granting*, *providing*, *during*, *pending*, etc., have been so often used in this way that they are now regarded as prepositions rather than as participles.

In this connexion, the following is worth noting.

7a. *Considering* all things, his is a very reasonable estimate.

b. All things *considered*, his is a very reasonable estimate.

All things considered is called an absolute participle phrase (see *infra* §66.6), in which *considered* is a full participle, passive both in form and meaning.

On the other hand, *provided*, *granted*, *given*, etc., are used like *regarding*, *concerning*, etc., as in—

8. *Given* this situation, what would you advise me to do?

9. I will give it free *provided* that they make proper use of it.

These participles are not full participles; they are like prepositions (if *that* is left out in 9, *provided* becomes a conjunction).

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 The Participle and Ellipsis

66.1 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.
- 5a. The bat, though it is a quadruped, does fly.
 b. The bat, though a quadruped, does fly.

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.

§6.2 If the subjective complement is a participle or if the verb is other than a mere copula, then we shall have, in the *b* type sentence, a participle connected with the principal nexus 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.
9. He stood *as if unconcerned*.

Generally, subordinate clauses that express time, condition, concession, and semblance may be shortened in the way as is shown above.

Compare 6 above with 7, §65.2.

65.3 In—

After cutting some of the wires, we crept in and took the enemy by surprise (= After we had cut, etc. . .)

cutting is generally regarded as a gerund, for *after* may be used as a preposition (see *infra* 2 and 5, §73.17).

66.4 The following sentences *a*, however, are exceptions to the general rule.

- 1*a*. Insert a dash only *when really needed*.
- b*. Insert a dash only *when it is really needed*.
- 2*a*. Do not put in any punctuation marks *unless required*.
- b*. Do not put in any punctuation marks *unless they are required*.
- 3*a*. Give it me *when finished*.
- b*. Give it me *when it is finished*.

In *b* the subject of the subordinate clause is not the same as that in the principal clause, but the meaning is unmistakable. *When needed*, *unless required* and *when finished* may be classed with *if possible*, *if any*, *when necessary*, etc.

66.5 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*.

- 1*a*. I stumbled over a brick *walking* in the dark.
- b*. I stumbled over a brick *while walking* in the dark.
- 2*a*. *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.

- 1*c*. I stumbled over a brick *fallen* perhaps from the wall.
- 2*c*. *Being* a mere boy, *he cannot be held* legally responsible for his acts.

In 1*c*, *fallen* follows *brick*, which it modifies. In 1*a*, *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 1*b*.

In 2*a*, *being* is unable to express the meaning of concession, and so must be replaced by *though* as in 2*b*. But *being* in 2*c* is good because it is a verbal adverb of cause.

66.6 When the subordinate clause contains a subject different from that of the principal nexus, it may be shortened in a different way—with the subject retained, the conjunction left out, and the verb changed into a participle. It is called an absolute participle phrase.

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 will 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.
15. *It being* Sunday, all were off work.
16. *There being* no boat, we had to swim across.

The expletive *it* in 15 may be omitted. That is exceptional.

66.7 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 expressed in the form of a compound sentence. In 6 and 7 above, the absolute participle phrases express afterthoughts.

66.8 Compare the following with 3, 6, 8, 10, 13 and 14 under §56.6.

1. *Having done* their day's work, they went home.
2. Many were at the station to see the soldiers off, *waving* their handkerchiefs high.
3. *Coming* to a steep hill-side, we were compelled to dismount.
4. *Seeing* them hard up, my father lent them some money.
5. *Having harvested* their wheat crop, the farmers sow rice in the field.
6. *Having concurred* in the essential points, they undertook to make a draft of the final agreement.

These sentences show that the absolute participle phrase is a substitute either for the explanatory verbal adjective or the verbal adverb when the notional subject of the latter is not the same as the subject of the main clause.

66.9 *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 §55.7)

67 Thought Subordination

67.1 Compare the infinitives under §§55.20 and 55.21 with the explanatory verbal adjective, the verbal adverb

(except that of manner) and the absolute participle phrase. You can see that while the infinitive often helps combine two separate thoughts into one, the participle is often used to express a separate thought subordinate to the main thought.

There are, of course, infinitives that express a subordinate thought—the appositional infinitive, the infinitive of result (sentence 8, §56.1) and the absolute infinitive phrase (sentences 11 and 12, §56.1). And conversely, there are the restrictive verbal adjective, and the participle used as a subjective or an objective complement that are part and parcel of one single thought. All these notwithstanding, the most important difference between these two kinds of verbals lies in the presence or absence of a subordinate thought.

Compare the infinitive of cause in 1 and 2, §55.1, with the participle of cause in 14, 15, 17 and 18, §65.2, by distinguishing one single thought from two thoughts.

A similar distinction exists between the infinitive and the participle of condition as exemplified in 9 and 10, §56.1, and 19 and 21, §65.2.

Sentence 9 may be rewritten thus:

1. *Believing* what this paper says, he is a fool.

But the introduction of the participle directly breaks the original single thought into two separate thoughts. In fact, the interchangeableness between the infinitive and the participle in such a sentence comes from the idiomatic formula “He . . . who . . .”—

2. He is a fool who believes what this paper says.
in which the adjective clause is in reality an adverbial clause of condition.

67.2 Now let us further discuss the participle as a means of expressing a subordinate thought.

In this connexion, a very common mistake is to use a participle where no subordinate thought exists. All sentences *a* below are bad. The participle should be replaced by a finite verb as in *b*.

- 1a.* Our teacher teaches well, giving us a great many exercises.
- b.* Our teacher teaches well; he gives us a great many exercises.
- 2a.* He reads widely, writing well.
- b.* He reads widely and writes well.
- 3a.* He teaches Chinese, learning English.
- b.* He teaches Chinese and learns English.
- 4a.* He is a painter, having studied in France.
- b.* He is a painter. He has studied in France.

67.3 Then there is what is called upside-down subordination i.e., a finite verb is used to express a subordinate thought and a participle, the main thought as in—

- 1. He felt the house shake, immediately running into the garden.
- 2. He has lived long in London, speaking the standard South-of-England English.

There are various ways to restore the order.

- 1a.* No sooner did he feel the house shake than he ran into the garden.
- b.* Feeling the house shake, he immediately ran into the garden.
- c.* He felt the house shake. So he immediately ran into the garden.
- 2a.* As he lived long in London, he speaks the standard South of-England English.
- b.* Having lived long in London, he speaks the standard South-of-England English.
- c.* He lived long in London. That's why he speaks the standard South-of-England English.

Some students prefer 1 and 2 to *1c* and *2c* simply because they are *fond* of the participle.

And in the following pairs of sentences, *b* and *c* are decidedly better than *a*.

- 3a. Some students, taking the ferryboat, cross the river, enjoying the pleasant journey onward.
b. Some students take the ferryboat and, crossing the river, enjoy the pleasant journey onward.
- 4a. She took the boy home, giving him a good thrashing.
b. Taking the boy home, she gave him a good thrashing.
c. She took the boy home and gave him a good thrashing.

67.4 The participle should not be connected with the main verb by *and*. Do not say, "I was amazed, and not knowing what to do" or "She sat on the window-sill and looking out." Leave out that co-ordinate conjunction. This is also a very common mistake.

67.5 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 bedroom.
b. Saying "Excuse me," he retired to his bedroom.
- 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 the surging billows in their small boat, (*looking* is a gerund; see *infra* §72.2).
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.
- 7a. Sailing east, they reached Cape Verde two days later.
- b. They sailed east, reaching Cape Verde two days later.

EXERCISE 24

I. Change the restrictive verbal adjectives in the examples given under §61.1 into adjective clauses.

II. Do the same with §61.10.

III. Replace the participial nexus under §64.6 by noun clauses.

IV. Do the same with §64.7.

V. Using the examples given under §65.3 as patterns, 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.

VI. Rewrite the examples under §66.2 in such a way that the participles become a part of the finite verb in a subordinate clause.

VII. Do the same with §66.6.

VIII. 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 afloat 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.
25. What are you planning to do in the winter vacation to be coming?
26. They are trying to salvage the ships to have been sunk during the war.
27. That remains to be unsettled.
28. You are free going now.

29. Everybody burst out to laugh.
30. They were busy to dig trenches.

IX. 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 anteroom, 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 thirsty.
11. He studied the strangers' faces while 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. I didn't see it. I was then in the backyard and *was making* bee-hives.
17. Nobody in the whole village recognized him, his hair *having turned* snow-white and the expression of his face *being* entirely altered.

18. Now I *sum up* the points I have mentioned and draw this conclusion of mine.
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," when it *is 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 only glimmering in the darkness.
28. *Being* too proud and selfish, he has no bosom friends.
29. The boy *gave* way to his grief and began to weep piteously.
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 experienced* 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 whether fresh reserves *can be sent* to the front in time.
38. They sit there all day and *kill* their time by mahjong games.
39. Though he *writes* piously, he acts profanely.
40. Dark clothes, which *absorbs* the rays of the sun, are too warm in summer.
41. The spokesman of the Supreme Headquarters, *reviewing* the war situation, pointed out the great losses of the enemy at sea.

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. *Caring* for immediate enjoyment only, he has never taken up any serious work.
47. We sat talking, *forgetting* that he was waiting for us.
48. I move that the matter be laid on the table until it *is called* up.
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.

X. 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 shouted, 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. Prospect of the enemy forces which may find their way out is now more remote than ever.
9. That afternoon he was seen to be roaming about with a distracted air.
10. They passed each other without a single word that was spoken.
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 to be playing 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 us several weeks 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. She went begging from door to door, with a baby in her breast and another that held her hand.
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 permeated 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 playmates.
43. He took the chair, putting his hands over the fire to warm them.
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 was 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 loyalty, filial piety, etc., and uses a great many beautiful expressions, being at heart selfish and rotten.
53. Wasted time is still more regrettable than wasted money.
54. We knew him to be a hypocrite, keeping away from him.
55. While sitting before the fireplace, 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 three 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 toes.
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.
73. The enemy lost three sunken ships and at least four severely damaged ones.
74. I know you will be there and playing bridge.
75. He is proud of the fact that his degree was taken at Harvard.
76. You will be held responsible for committed acts by your subordinates.
77. Considered his age, he knows quite a lot.
78. The other day I was sitting at breakfast table and was talking to a freshman.
79. The boys have gone to birdnest.
80. She is far happier as she is living with her daughter and son-in-law than with her son and daughter-in-law.
81. He had no property that was left to his family.
82. They regard you as the only one being able to speak to him.
83. He wouldn't hear of that is possible.
84. Having come from Denmark, they preserved much of the Danish custom.
85. He came home and was utterly exhausted.
86. Cate likes to go to feed the rabbits.
87. The Government lodged a protest against forces that were gathering on the border.

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 when used as a noun is called a gerund.

There are present and perfect gerunds but no past gerunds. Passive meaning of the gerund is expressed, when necessary, by the passive form (but see *infra* §§72.7 and 73.11).

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.
- 3a. *To be taught* by a good teacher is a blessing.

The first three examples given under §51.1 can be rewritten 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 prerequisite 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 or necessity 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.
3. *To live* is to work.
4. With a perseverant person, *to fail* is to succeed.

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 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 sole 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 (*your*, in 5b, §55.20, is not a modifier of *to do*). 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 idiomatic as *swimming* in 1. A bare gerund is to be preferred to a bare infinitive (but see §71.2, sentences 5–8 below).

71.5 On the other hand, the infinitives in sentences 10–12, §71.1, 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 understanding.
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.
9. *To live* is *to work*.

Here, the copulas are not signs of equality, but a sense of

result, necessity or the future is implied in the infinitives. Do not use gerunds in such cases.

71.6 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 (cf. 4-6, §51.3):

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.*

71.7 Sometimes, for the sake of emphasis, a gerund used as a subject is made a predicate substantive by supplying the expletive *it* (cf. §54.10).

- 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.

Compare the above with—

5. What is *shivering* for?
6. Why is *swimming* a good sport?

where *shivering* and *swimming* are gerunds too.

In the *b* type sentences, usage favors the gerund instead of the infinitive, for the gerund is more like a noun than the infinitive (see *infra* §72.2).

71.8 Used as appositives, the gerund and the infinitive are interchangeable. Sentences 16–18 §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, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to teach} \\ \text{teaching} \end{array} \right\}$ 42 hours a week.
5. Many admire his special ability, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to learn} \\ \text{learning} \end{array} \right\}$ three different foreign languages at the same time.
6. Their work, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to mingle} \\ \text{mingling} \end{array} \right\}$ with the peasants, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to teach} \\ \text{teaching} \end{array} \right\}$ them, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to learn} \\ \text{learning} \end{array} \right\}$ from them and $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to organize} \\ \text{organizing} \end{array} \right\}$ them, demands a great deal of skill, patience, perseverance and self-denial

71.9 The gerund may stand in apposition with the expletive *it* either as a subject or an object.

1. It's useless *crying* over spilt milk.
2. It's no good *indulging* in empty talks.
3. It's not the least use *asking* a wolf to give up the lamb it is going to devour.
4. It is hardly worth while *making* plans without putting them into practice.
5. It'll be fine *having* him too.
6. It was a nightmare *cutting* out jungle trench during the final stage.

7. It's tricky business *lifting* the plane with its full load of bombs.
8. It's dangerous *your venturing* out here.
9. It is his bad luck *having* broken his leg.
10. I call it abominable *sin cheating* the people.
11. It is a far better thing *finding* really well-to-do and happy peasants than neonlit cities that are fed on their fat.
12. Many think it good luck *being born* a son of a millionaire.
13. I think it unintentional his *letting* out the secret.
14. At last he found it impracticable *trying* to eat and keep the pudding.
15. Do you think it any use *planting* seeds without watering them?

All these gerunds may be replaced by infinitives. Compare them with those under §§71.1 and 71.4.

Some prefer *your venturing* in 8 and *his letting* in 13 to *for you to venture* and *for him to let*, for the latter are simpler.

On the other hand, when the infinitive implies the meaning of futurity, result, necessity, etc., then the gerund may not be used as in 3*a*, 4*a* §54.4; 1*b* §54.7; 1*b*, 3*b*, 4*b*, 5*b*, §54.10; 1, §54.11; 1, 9, 1*a*, 9*a*, §54.12. In other cases, usage demands the infinitive as in 2, 3, §54.11.

This use of the gerund is recent development. When in doubt, you had better put in the infinitive.

On the other hand, *no good*, *no use* and *useless* are very often followed by the gerund. And there are cases where the gerund is preferred. In 14, *trying to eat and keep* is used to avoid saying "to try to eat and keep" in which the consecutive infinitives sound rather unpleasing (cf. D, §65.4). And some prefer *your venturing* in 8 and *his letting* in 13 to *for you to venture* and *for him to let* because the former are simpler.

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.

Consequently, the following verbs are generally followed by the infinitive: *care, agree, choose, consent, pretend, promise, undertake, mean, intend, expect, decide, long, hope, attempt, ask, beg, chance, manage, trouble, learn, dare, need, etc.*

The past form of *happen* falls into this category. So do *have got, should like* and *would like*, the two latter are different from the bare verb *like* (see *infra* §72.5).

Care, agree and *long* do not even take a noun as its object unless followed by a preposition (*care for, agree on, long for*).

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.
9. The unthinking simply cannot avoid *believing* such a story.

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.

Other verbs used with the gerund are: *postpone, miss, mind, fancy, excuse, have done, give up, leave off, feel like, etc.*

72.3 There are some important comparisons to be made. Sentences *a* and *b* below mean the same thing.

- 1a. Would you *care to come*?
- b. Would you *mind coming*?

though *mind* is negative in meaning.

And *help* means differently in *a* and *b* in the following.

- 2a. That can *help win* the war.
- b. I *couldn't help doing* that.

Try may be followed by either with a different meaning.

- 3a. He *tried to borrow* money, but no one would lend him.
- b. He *tried borrowing* money. From that time on, he sank ever deeper into indebtedness.

To borrow implies purpose; he may fail in doing so. On the other hand, *tried borrowing* expresses a fact, i.e. he did borrow some money.

Stop is especially worth nothing. It is more often misused than the other verbs.

- 4a. 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).
 5a. He never stops *thinking* (= He is always 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*, *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 the more clearly in such a sentence as the following.

6. He stopped *talking* (*in order*) *to reflect*.

72.4 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 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to have} \\ \text{having} \end{array} \right\}$ torn your clothes by accident.
 2. He denied $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to have} \\ \text{having} \end{array} \right\}$ borrowed my fountain pen.
 3. I remember $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to have} \\ \text{having} \end{array} \right\}$ seen him somewhere.

The perfect gerund in 2 and 3 above may give place to the present gerund.

- 2a. He denied *borrowing* my fountain pen.
 3a. 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-erund 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 midnight we began $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to attack.} \\ \text{attacking.} \end{array} \right\}$
6. Will you teach me $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{(how) to swim?} \\ \text{(swimming?)} \end{array} \right\}$
7. I prefer $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to stay.} \\ \text{staying.} \end{array} \right\}$

Other such verbs are: *start, continue, discontinue, neglect, omit, hate, detest, regret, deny, remember, forget, can't afford, etc.*

72.6 But sometimes there is a difference in meaning between the infinitive and the gerund. For reasons as explained under §72.2, the gerund generally has no determinate subject (1, 2, 3, below), and in case it has one, it generally refers to the past instead of the future (4, 5, below; cf. 2, 3, 2a, and 3a, §72.4).

Note the explanations in parentheses in the following.

- 1a. I don't like *to talk* too much (my talking).
- b. I don't like *talking* too much (the act of talking in general, i.e. anybody's talking).
- 2a. I hate *to make* a fuss over a trifle (myself).
- b. I hate (such a thing as) *making* a fuss over a trifle.
- 3a. He means *to sell* the business (he means he will sell).
- b. He means *selling* the business (only the context will tell who will sell).
- 4a. Don't forget *to come* (tonight, tomorrow, etc.).
- b. You forget *coming* here (the other day).

- 5a. I must remember *to see* him (tomorrow).
 b. I remember *seeing* him (some time before).

But *a* and *b* below mean the same thing—

- 6a. The pain in his ankle makes it difficult *for him to walk*.
 b. The pain in his ankle makes *walking* difficult.

That walking means “his walking” is unmistakable.

72.7 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).

Compare these gerunds with the infinitives in 3a and 5a, §72.6. The active infinitive and the active gerund are used to mean the passive in different ways.

72.8 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* describes the manner 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 it.

Notionally, “enjoy working” expresses a disposition while

“enjoy ourselves collecting” tells of some activity with respect to some point of time.

73 The Gerund Phrase

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 to 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 (see third paragraph, §63.3)
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 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.

For simplicity's sake, a prepositional phrase containing a gerund is called a gerund phrase.

The perfect gerund is used in 13 for emphasis. *Coming*

n 3 and *seeing* in 12 are substitutes for *having come* and *having seen* (consult 2a and 3a, §72.4).

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 followed by the infinitive when used to express futurity (see §31.16). The gerund is used where a noun or a pronoun would be also appropriate—

3. How do you think about *turning* it up side down.
4. He is busy about *buying* and *selling* greenbacks.

As to *but*, read the following.

5. He can do nothing *but talk*.
6. I enjoy *doing* anything *but talking* with him.

The infinitive is affirmative and the gerund negative. Moreover, *talking* is used in 4 to keep balance with *doing*.

In—

7. His acts were anything *but pleasing* to his father.

pleasing may be regarded as a participle. In that case, *but* must be a conjunction instead of a preposition.

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.
9. During the busy days, they were set to working around the clock.
10. I made that motion with a view to lessening the evils of rape.

Such use of the gerund is idiomatic, for *look forward*, *object to*, *prefer . . . to* (not *prefer to*, see §73.4), *stoop to*, etc. take nouns as objects.

In 1 and 7, the gerund has a possessive modifier. This absolutely rules out the infinitive.

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?
- c. Don't you prefer depending upon yourself to courting the favours 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 *to* is more idiomatic.

73.5 The choice between the infinitive and the gerund phrase 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. If the preposition has a special meaning which the infinitive cannot express, then the latter is out of place. *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.

B. On the other hand, if the infinitive has implications that the gerund is unable to express, then the former may not be replaced by the latter. For examples, see 19–29, §55.1; 3–6, §52.4.

Otherwise, we have to take up specific cases and idioms.

73.6 As a modifier of a substantive, the infinitive and the gerund phrase are generally interchangeable with, however, a slight difference in meaning. The notion of activity (which often involves futurity, cause, purpose or result) is prominent in the infinitive while the gerund phrase defines the word it modifies. In “a chance to see,” *to see* implies futurity, but in “a chance of seeing,” *of seeing* answers “What chance?”

Note this in the following.

1. I got a chance $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{of seeing} \\ \text{to see} \end{array} \right\}$ him.
2. There is no need $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{of his doing} \\ \text{for him to do} \end{array} \right\}$ that.
3. You made a mistake $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{in believing} \\ \text{to believe} \end{array} \right\}$ him.
4. There is no other way $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{of learning} \\ \text{to learn} \end{array} \right\}$ English than attentive reading coupled with constant practice.

5. They ~~simply~~ couldn't find means $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{of supporting} \\ \text{(to support)} \end{array} \right\}$ their families
6. I have no plan $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{of making} \\ \text{(to make)} \end{array} \right\}$ any trip.
7. He gave us every assurance $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{of using} \\ \text{(to use)} \end{array} \right\}$ his influence $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{(to} \\ \text{secure} \end{array} \right\}$ their help.
8. His intention $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{of quitting} \\ \text{(to quit)} \end{array} \right\}$ was strengthened by a higher post offered elsewhere.
9. 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.

Which verbal is used depends upon whether the speaker means activity or intends to define.

But compare—

- 10a. If you don't *like the trouble of solving* problems, you may as well give up studying mathematics.
- b. If you really want to learn mathematics, you will have to *take the trouble to solve* problems.

Here, the infinitive and the gerund phrase are not interchangeable.

And compare them with 3a and b, §72.3.

73.7 Idioms ending with a preposition are followed by the gerund such as *think of, used to, prevent from, clever at, capable of, assist in, far from, keep from, tired of, in despair of, on the verge of, with the view of, etc.*

Compare a and b below.

- 1a. I am *thinking of doing* it over again.
b. I *want to do* it over again.
- 2a. He's got *used to playing* tennis with his left hand (*used* is a predicate adjective).
b. He *used to play* tennis (*used* is a finite verb).
- 3a. Some students are *capable of being taught* by a poor teacher.
b. I will give all that I am *able to muster*.

73.8 Sometimes, however, the infinitive can be used by dropping the preposition—

1. He is afraid $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{of stating} \\ \text{to state} \end{array} \right\}$ it in plain language.
2. I am contented $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{with having} \\ \text{to have} \end{array} \right\}$ this much.
3. Everybody was surprised $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{at finding} \\ \text{to find} \end{array} \right\}$ him in such an 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.” But the gerund is more often used than the infinitive when passive as in “He was so glad *at being presented* with such rare souvenirs” or “They are afraid *of being punished*.” Moreover, some adjectives are followed by a different preposition when the gerund is passive. For example, *of* is used in “He is proud *of being* first in English” but it is replaced by *at* in “The little girl was proud *at being asked* to sing before so many guests” (Here, *at* indicates occasion, which *of* is unable to express).

Such like things are dictated by usage. Extensive reading and attentive listening can help you much more than any further random examples.

In this connexion, it is interesting to note that in such sentences as “Why is Spring so late in coming?”, *to come*

cannot be substituted for *in coming*; the former is unsuitable because it implies action. As Spring has not yet come it is only natural to use a gerund, which is more a noun than a verb.

73.9 Something may well be said about such idioms as *prevent from*, etc.

Compare *a* and *b* in the following.

- 1a. He *encouraged* them to do that.
- b.* He *prevented* them from doing that.
- 2a. Who *asked* him to come?
- b.* Who *kept* him from coming?
- 3a. He *wanted* to talk.
- b.* He *desist.ed* from talking.

73.10 Compare the following.

- 1a. She is sure to *succeed*.
- b.* She is sure of *succeeding*.

In 1a, *she . . . to succeed* is a split subject (see §55.19). To be grammatically and notionally consistent, the sentence should be "She to succeed is sure" which is equivalent to "It is sure (that) she will succeed."

In *b*, the subject is not split; *she* is the person that is sure. Sure of what? Of her succeeding. She is sure (that) she will succeed.

1a expresses the opinion of the speaker while 1b expresses that of the subject.

If we substitute the first person for *she* as subject—

- 2a. **We** are sure to succeed (=It is sure we will succeed).
- b.* We are sure of succeeding (=We are sure we will succeed).

then the difference between these two kinds of verbals is like that discussed under §73.6.

73.11 Compare the following with the examples under

§72.7.

1. That is *past arguing* about.
2. Is this *worth discussing* at all? (*worth*, thus used, may be taken as a preposition.)
3. That all-out advance constitutes the greatest cause of Hitler's *undoing*.
4. If you have complaints *about* your own *bringing* up, see to it that your children have little to complain when grown up.

73.12 Note the use of *not . . . without* in 12, §73.1 and compare the following sentences with 4-6, §61.9.

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.
3. I began to translate that book *without knowing* that he was doing **the same**.

73.13 Compare the following gerund phrases with the verbal adverbs in sentences 1-6 under §65.2.

1. The whole army came over *by skiing*.
2. You are mistaken *in making* bricks without straw.
3. He spends too much time *in reading* and too little *in acting*.
4. She followed the man without his knowledge *by keeping* at a certain distance.
5. The demonstrator showed his skill of diving *by making* several turns in the air.
6. I could not make the people across the river hear me even *by straining* my voice to the utmost.

The difference lies here: While the verbal adverb describes the manner, the gerund phrase names the means (1, 2, 5, 6) or the circumstance (3, 4).

Note especially the contrast of *in reading* with *in acting* in 2.

Compare further the following with 1.

- 1a. Think of it; the whole army came *skiing* across.

Here, the writer intends to describe.

And compare *a* with *b* in the following.

- 6a. I spent the whole afternoon *cricketing*.

- b. They don't spend their week ends on excursions but *by playing* mah-jong.

(Note the co-ordinate construction of *on excursions* and *by playing*.)

- 7a. Some make a good living *painting* scrolls.

- b. They subsist on starvation wages *by toiling* 16 hours a day.

And compare 7a and b with the following.

- 8a. Who could enjoy himself *toiling* 16 hours a day?

- b. You can make a living *by painting* scrolls, too.

73.14 In cases like the following, however, there is hesitation in calling the italicized words participles or gerunds.

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 Ferryboat (=You are in no hurry to jump aboard the Ferryboat).
3. There could be no exculpation *killing* so many people without a just cause (=They could not atone for killing, etc.).
4. I have no trouble *taking* pills without water (=I can easily swallow down pills without water).

For there are other cases where a preposition or a possessive pronoun may intervene—

5. There is no harm (*in*) *playing* bridge once on a while.
6. There is no need (*his*) *bragging* about it.

These are idiomatic ways.

Sentences 5 and 6 may be compared with—

7. He had no idea (*of*) how that would turn out.

If *of* is omitted as is generally the practice, then the *how* clause can no more be regarded as a noun clause

Or, compare—

- 8a. He was disappointed *with* his son.
 b. He was disappointed *that* his son didn't want to become an official like himself.

It is unidiomatic to insert *with* between *disappointed* and *that* in *b*. We may well take the *that* clause as an adverbial one.

73.15 The gerund phrase 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 3-5, and 13, §73.1 respectively. The latter are of course simpler.

73.16 More examples of such gerund phrase.

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 (cf. §66.3).
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 The gerund phrase may be used in the above way 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 §§51.5, 56.4, 56.5, 65.6, 65.7 and 68.1.

74 The Gerund Used as an Adjective

74.1 The gerund may sometimes be used as an adjective instead of the gerund phrase. In such cases, 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?

The use of *bathing*, *drinking* and *reading* in *b* 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 to be preferred because they are simpler than the longer ones introduced by prepositions.

Another case is the difference between “a *returned* student” and “a book *returned*.” In the former, *returned* expresses a condition while in the latter it implies activity in addition to condition. “A *returned* student” means “a student home from abroad,” *returned* being equivalent to a mere adjective (*home* is an adverb used as an adjective), but “a book *returned*” means “a book that has been returned” or “the borrower has returned.”

Other past participles follow the modified for no other reason than that they mean differently in the other position. This is true of adjectives too. For example, *present* means one thing in “the *present* time” and another in “the members *present*.” Similarly, “the guests *gone*” means “the guests that are gone” but in “a *gone* man,” *gone* means “hopeless.”

The following case is quite interesting.

1. *A lost battle* is a good subject for self-criticism.
2. *Battles lost* may lead to a war won.

In 1, *lost* and *battle* are closely joined with each other. In 2, *lost* stands much more apart. “*Battles lost*” is very much like “for battles to be lost,” “the losing of battles” or “that battles are lost.” The sentence is equivalent to—

- 2a. *The losing of battles* may lead to the winning of a war.

in which *losing* and *winning* are gerunds (see *infra* §75.1).

Sentence 10, §61.1, means “There’s wasting of much time.”

Other examples of such past participles are as in: *labor lost*, *books read*, *money paid*, *bills paid*, *company formed*, *problems discussed*, *acts committed*, *property left*, etc.

Such expressions also come by analogy with the participles used as objective complement (see *infra* §64.2)—

a and *b* mean the same thing though *a* is more frequently used.

But the case is different with the following.

- 2*a*. I have no *drinking* water.
- b*. I have no water *to drink*.
- 3*a*. There is no *drinking* water.
- b*. There is no water *to drink*.
- 4*a*. 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 defines *water*, i. e. tells of the special use it is put to. "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)

74.5 Observe how the gerunds and the infinitives mean differently in the following groups of sentences.

- 1a. We have a good *bathing* place here.
 b. I have no place *to bathe* in.
 2a. This is a *reading* lesson.
 b. This is a lesson for you *to read*.
 3a. 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*.

But note the following.

- 5a. It is a *training* school.
 b. It is a school *to train* commandoes.
 c. It is a school *for training* commandoes.
 d. It is a *training* school *for* commandoes.

Generally, no word should come between the gerund and the noun it modifies when it precedes the latter.

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 occasionally.
 b. He likes *an occasional riding of* horses.
 4a. *Teaching* English is his profession.
 b. *The teaching of* English is his 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.

Anyway, it is certainly futile to ascertain whether *swimming* in "Swimming is a good exercise" is a gerund or a verbal noun. Such bare 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 meanings*, 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 in 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 in meaning has been brought about by the fact that *hearing* in 2 is passive in meaning (see §73.11).

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*.
6. We are looking forward to *his coming*.
7. The *shooting of* officers by their men will, of course, not occur under ordinary circumstances.
8. Too much sunshine may cause the *cracking of* such plate glass.

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 am sorry for *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 nexus with the gerund modified by a possessive pronoun—

- 1a. I heard *him* singing.
- b. Few people appreciated *his* singing.
- 2a. They found *him* writing at the desk.
- b. I like *his* writing so neatly.

In sentences *b*, it is not so much the person but the action of *singing* or *writing* that is important. Consequently, the

relatively unimportant person is represented by a possessive pronoun only.

You cannot miss the point by trying the clumsy and unidiomatic noun clause as in "Few people appreciated that she was singing" or "I like that he writes so neatly."

This notwithstanding, there *are* writers who would say, "I like *him writing* so neatly." This is one of those cases where non-formal grammarians would desist from laying down hard and fast rules. It seems, however, that most writers use the possessive pronoun, and the objective pronoun is hardly ever recommended.

This is true even in those cases where a noun clause may as well be substituted for the gerund—

- 3a. I mean *his leaving* school and *earning* a living as a workman.
- b. I mean *that he leave* school and *earn* a living as a workman.

Usage does not seem to favour *him leaving*.

More examples of the possessive pronouns, that are best not replaced by the objective ones—

4. Just neglect *his* saying anything about it.
5. I forgot *his* telling me so.
6. Please excuse *my* being in a hurry.
7. Do you mind *my* smoking?

75.7 The participial nexus, the gerund and the noun clause are all good after *don't doubt*—

1. I don't doubt *you being* able to do it.
2. I don't doubt *your being* able to do it.
3. I don't doubt *that you are* able to do it.

75.8 Either the participial nexus or the gerund may be used if governed by a preposition—

- 1a. Everything depends upon *it being* done without delay.
- b. Everything depends upon *its being* done without delay.

- 2a. I cannot conceive of *him saying* such things to her.
 b. I cannot conceive of *his saying* such things to her.
- 3a. There is no proof of *him having said* that.
 b. There is no proof of *his having said* that.
- 4a. He laughed at the idea of *you objecting* to the measure.
 b. He laughed at the idea of *your objecting* to the measure.
- 5a. I am certain of *him being* bribed.
 b. I am certain of *his being* bribed.
- 6a. 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.
- 7a. I cannot think of the *ship leaving* without his knowledge.
 b. I cannot think of the *ship's leaving* without his knowledge.
8. I am very happy to hear of your *mother's being* safe (Cf. sentence 16, §64.6).

75.9 Where it is not the usage to use 's with the noun, there the participial nexus is the only permissible construction. Sentences 17–25 under §64.6 are examples.

Or, resort may be sought in the preposition *of*—

1. They are ignorant of the coming *of* a new era, in which the past is definitely past.
2. The more the common people are awake, the more the reactionaries are relying on the winning *of* unjust wars.
3. They were unprepared on the breaking out *of* the war.

In 2, the gerund is passive in meaning. To discuss such an expression as “on the unjust war's being won” would be a mere waste of words.

In such cases, the *of*-construction is a good recourse even where 's is ordinarily commendable. In—

4. You have never heard of the shooting *of* officers by ~~their men~~? a good writer would avoid saying “~~of officers~~' being shot by their men.”

And compare—

5. He had no knowledge of *the leaving of the overloaded ship*.

with 7b, §75.8. While “the ship’s leaving” is idiomatic, “the overloaded ship’s leaving” would be rather awkward.

75.10 And it needs no elaboration to see that ’s is also out of place when there are two or more coordinated substantives, as in—

1. I remember *you and Julia riding* the see-saw.
2. They are talking about *the doctor and the patient falling* in love with each other.
3. He doesn’t like *his wife and his secretary being* together too often.
4. Why surprised **at** *young and old flocking* to the black market!

Note especially *young and old* in 4. Here we have adjectives used as nouns, where ’ is never used.

EXERCISE 25

I. Replace the gerund phrases in the sentences under §73.16 by adverbial clauses.

II. 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.

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10. *To borrow* books from the library is not at all the same *as to have* and *hold* them my own property and on my own shelf.
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.
22. We don't like *to be divided*.
23. It is mere chance for me *to take* up this job.
24. I remember *having heard* the street-boy crying the news of an appalling suicide.
25. It's a nuisance *to have* to clean the pipe so often.
26. I find it rather dull *to do* the same work year in and year out.
27. I think it not the least use *crying* for mercy.

III. Pick out the better or the more idiomatic one of the parallel expressions in each of the following sentences.

1. Is this a $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{fishing rod?} \\ \text{rod for fishing?} \end{array} \right.$
2. I had the pleasure $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to see} \\ \text{of seeing} \end{array} \right.$ you some years ago.
3. I am sorry $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to say} \\ \text{for saying} \end{array} \right.$ that you are wrong.
4. If I could compose poems, I should be able $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to give} \\ \text{of giving} \end{array} \right.$ fuller expression to my feelings.
5. He wants to have $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{folding doors} \\ \text{doors to fold} \end{array} \right.$ here.
6. I have no time $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to do} \\ \text{of doing} \end{array} \right.$ it.
7. It was only the next morning that I discovered that the night before I came within an inch $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to fall} \\ \text{of falling} \end{array} \right.$ 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 {to cheat
cheating} others.
11. I never thought {to study
of studying} any other foreign language than English.
12. It is {to enter
entering} into active life that will help {to kill
killing} the closet philosopher and {to gain
gaining} realistic views.
13. He is in the habit {to come
of coming} late.
14. The possibility {to open
of opening} a new front in Europe attracted the attention of many.
15. This is a {horse to ride.
horse for riding.
riding horse.
16. He is a little man who is accustomed to {make
making} merry over other people's misfortune.
17. Are you tired {to have
of having} read so much?
18. I don't know if what I have said is at all worth {to hear.
a hearing.
19. A *fait accompli* is something done and past {to argue
arguing} about.
20. Instead {to help
of helping} me, he unintentionally increased my difficulties.
21. The dictator himself knows well that ~~he~~ was on the verge {to be
of being} knocked out.
22. Nobody could help {to despise
despising} such a man.
23. He was caught in the very act {to steal.
of stealing.
24. He slipped away without any {one } {seeing
one's} {having seen} him.

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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.
27. They talk about the $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{book} \\ \text{book's} \end{array} \right\}$ being a best seller in 1948.
28. A pen is used $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to write.} \\ \text{for writing.} \end{array} \right\}$
29. I don't feel like $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to see} \\ \text{seeing} \end{array} \right\}$ anybody.
30. It's no use $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{for you to try} \\ \text{trying} \\ \text{your trying} \end{array} \right\}$ to deceive me.

IV. Substitute each of the expressions in italics by a gerund or a gerund phrase, 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* money to buy so many 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* (help).
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 . . . without).
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.

V. 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 him to laugh at his unfortunate neighbour.
6. Are you not glad at coming home again?
7. I said all that I knew with a view to prove his innocence.
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 could 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 duckling turned into a beautiful swan after enduring many hardships.
22. When the Lukouchiao 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 the 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. You forget 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 answered laughing at him.*
46. The schoolmaster 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 by buying books.
57. I have no trouble in getting on with him.
58. Stop to do it; it is not right.
59. Some complain to have not enough time; others leave no stone unturned in finding out various means killing 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.
64. The children go by skating to school along the sidewalk.
65. He is sure of turning up.
66. He felt exceedingly dull in doing the same monotonous work over and over again.
67. He tried to make both ends meet easing up on liquor.
68. I have had a very difficult time making both ends meet.
69. He insists on no one's knowing his plan.
70. Living is working.
71. As soon as the boss leaves, all start doing anything but to attend to their duties.
72. There is no need of both of your doing the same thing.
73. The time has come for the emigrant ship's sailing.
74. He was so glad to have been saved.
75. They simply talked her to marry him.
76. It is difficult to obtain being heard candidly in these circles.
77. We agree doing it tentatively.
78. I am thinking to quit this business.
79. The sport I like best is to swim and next, to skate.
80. He is desirous to be praised.
81. The garden wants being weeded.

82. He happened meeting John there.
83. Would you mind to come tomorrow?
84. He tried praying but could not concentrate on it.
85. He is not used to live in a flat.
86. I will not take the trouble of writing it.
87. It spells her being undone.
88. That will go a little way to pay off his debts (toward).
89. The tale loses much in the being told.
90. What is worth to do at all is worth to do well.
91. I dreamed of my grandfather and my taking a walk along the lake side.
92. There is no hurry to write your will now.

EXERCISE 26

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^t hand (*hold*) a letter and (*rest*) on his thigh. A clock, (*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 footsteps 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 4, Exercise 16.

EPILOGUE

How to Enjoy Your Pleasant Journey Onward

Here we are. Let us go ashore. Now you are through with the Ferryboat 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 streamlined 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 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 skilfully 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 it 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 may be answered either way or both ways (cf. §43.8; §55.6; §55.7; sentence 5, §64.9; §66.3; sentence 5, §73.2; sentence 2, §73.11; §73.13 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 3, it is 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? (cf. sentences 8a and b, §73.14.)

Let different people use different names. If we first called a dog a cat, then a dog is 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 on 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*; insert *those of* between *from* and *the*, or cross out *the magnates of* and change the verb *think* into *thinks*.
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 im-

part 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, assimilation and intonation, 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: *nā'tion, nǎ'tion-al, nǎ'tion-al-i-zā'tion, nǎ'tion-ǎl'i-ty; de-rīve', der'i-vā'tion, de-rīv'a-tive, 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 those six headings, but you must glance over them. At first, much time seems to be wasted, but by and by you will discover certain para-

lelism, 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. { de-rīve', der'ī-va'tion, de-rīv'a-tive.
con-serve', con'ser-va'tion, con-serv'a-tive.
de-ter'mine, de-ter'mi-na'tion, de-ter'min-a-tive.
2. { ex-ist', ex-ist'ence, ex-ist'ent.
re-pent', re-pent'ance, re-pent'ant.
3. { re'al, re'al-ize, re'al-i-za'tion, re'al-ly, un-re'al, re'al-ism,
re'al-ist, re'al-ist'ic.
nat'ur-al, nat'ur-al-ize, nat'ur-a-li-za'tion, nat'ur-al-ly,
un-nat'ur-al, nat'ur-al-ism, nat'ur-al-ist, nat'ur-al-ist'ic.
4. { pres'ent (n.), pre-sent' (v.), pres'en-ta'tion.
pro'test (n.), pro-test' (v.), prot'es-ta'tion.
5. { pro-ceed', pro'cess, pro-ces'sion, pro-ces'sion-al.
suc-ceed', suc-cess', suc-ces'sion, suc-ces'sion-al.
6. { die, dy'ing, died.
tie, ty'ing, tied.
7. { nā'tion, nā'tion-al.
nā'ture, nāt'ur-al.
type, typ'ic-al.
8. { plēase, plōas'ant.
knōw, knōwl'edge.
brēathe, breath.
nōse, nōs'tril.

These are some of the good scenery you must stop to enjoy.

The proper use of a 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 textbook; you must try to discern in your own readings why a loose sentence is used here and a periodic sentence 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 far 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·蓉市首稱第一. 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 that.

Good-bye! Good luck, my dear reader!

APPENDIX I

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 an *of*.

4. Progressive passive

$$= \left[\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{verb} \\ \text{to be} \end{array} \right) + \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{present} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right) \right] + \left[\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{verb} \\ \text{to be} \end{array} \right) + \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{past} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right) \right]$$
$$= \left[\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{verb} \\ \text{to be} \end{array} \right) + \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{present participle} \\ \text{OF verb to be} \end{array} \right) + \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{past} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right) \right]$$

Ex: **It**.....**is**.....**being**.....**written**.

5. Perfect passive

$$= \left[\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{verb} \\ \text{to have} \end{array} \right) + \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{past} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right) \right] + \left[\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{verb} \\ \text{to be} \end{array} \right) + \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{past} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right) \right]$$
$$= \left[\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{verb} \\ \text{to have} \end{array} \right) + \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{past participle} \\ \text{OF verb to be} \end{array} \right) + \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{past} \\ \text{participle} \end{array} \right) \right]$$

Ex: **It**.....**has**.....**been**.....**written**.

6. Perfect progressive

$$= \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{verb} \\ \text{(to have)} \end{array} \right] + \begin{array}{c} \text{past} \\ \text{(participle)} \end{array} \left] + \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{verb} \\ \text{(to be)} \end{array} \right] + \begin{array}{c} \text{present} \\ \text{(participle)} \end{array} \left]$$

$$= \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{verb} \\ \text{(to have)} \end{array} \right] + \begin{array}{c} \text{past participle} \\ \text{OF verb to be} \end{array} \left] + \begin{array}{c} \text{present} \\ \text{(participle)} \end{array} \left]$$

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 II)

APPENDIX II

Inflection Tables—Indicative Mood

ACTIVE

PASSIVE

Present Indefinite

I teach	I am taught
You teach	You are taught
He teaches	He is taught
We teach	We are taught
You teach	You are taught
They teach	They are taught

Present Progressive

I am teaching	I am being taught
You are teaching	You are being taught
He is teaching	He is being taught
We are teaching	We are being taught
You are teaching	You are being taught
They are teaching	They are being taught

Present Perfect

I have taught	I have been taught
You have taught	You have been taught
He has taught	He has been taught
We have taught	We have been taught
You have taught	You have been taught
They have 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
They will teach	They will be taught

Future Progressive

I shall be teaching	<i>wanting</i>
You will be teaching	<i>wanting</i>
He will be teaching	<i>wanting</i>
We shall be teaching	<i>wanting</i>
You will be teaching	<i>wanting</i>
They will be teaching	<i>wanting</i>

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	
He will have been teaching	
We shall have been teaching	
<i>You will have been teaching</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>wanting</i>
You would be teaching	<i>wanting</i>
He would be teaching	<i>wanting</i>
We should be teaching	<i>wanting</i>
You would be teaching	<i>wanting</i>
They would be teaching	<i>wanting</i>

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 III

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 IV

Inflection Tables—Verbals

1. The infinitive:

ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Simple	
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	
<i>wanting</i>	taught
Perfect	
having taught	having been taught

Note. The gerund has no past forms.

APPENDIX V

The Subjective and the Objective Complement

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 *pr* *strate*.
(*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 of *is lying*)
- 5. He lay *hidden in the bush*.
(*Hidden* is a predicate adjective; *in the bush* modifies *hidden*)

More examples of the subjective complement:

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*.

II. 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* tomorrow.

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 were 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 complement:

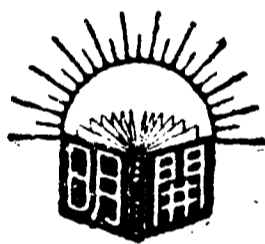
1. I found myself *short* of money.
2. They found themselves *in front* of a wide river.
3. They captured many Japanese soldiers *alive*.
4. He kept me *waiting* long.
5. She heard it incessantly *repeated* that nobody was ever so clever and so charming as she.
6. Don't think yourself *helpless*.
7. 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 those 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*.
31. Many fools think themselves *clever*.
32. Many learned men think themselves *knowing* too little.

III. 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 able to.
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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