

Clauses for ESL Students

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ESL (English as a Second Language) students or English Language Learners (ELLs) may have difficulty using adverbial clauses correctly. For example, in adverbial clauses of time, *as* may replace both *when* and *while*, or *when* may replace both *as* and *while*. However, *while* is more or less special in meaning; it is not congruous with an action (dynamic) verb of brief action. It is not proper to say, "I was studying *while Xinyi arrived*." "I was quite happy *while Rita found my lost apple watch*." The verbs *arrive* and *find* (momentary verbs) denote brief action. From the above two sentences, *while* should replace *as* or *when*. It is also improper to say, "*The driver stopped the car until he saw a boy crossing the road*." *Stop* is a momentary verb (see 11.1). *It was not yet daylight, because the candle was burning*. *Because* cannot be used here, because *the candle was burning* does not mean *daylight*. Moreover, subordinate clauses cannot be complete sentences on their own, e.g. *When I was in Las Vegas* and *As I was nervous*. Therefore, a main clause must be added: *I met Xinyi when I was in Las Vegas*. *I was at a loss what to say as I was nervous*. But *I was in Las Vegas in 2005* and *I worked in West Career & Technical Academy* are independent clauses and complete sentences by themselves. The purpose of this article is to help ESL (English as a Second Language) students or English language learners (ELLs) how to express or use all kinds of clauses in the English language. In this article, adverbial clauses are introduced according to their meaning. They are classified into: 1) *Clauses of Reason or Cause*, 2) *Clauses of Comparison*, 3) *Clauses of Concession*, 4) *Clauses of Condition*, 5) *Clauses of Degree*, 6) *Clauses of Manner*, 7) *Clauses of Place*, 8) *Clauses of Proportion*, 9) *Clauses of Purpose*, 10) *Clauses of Result*, and 11) *Clauses of Time*. The writer described various examples of the clauses, including non-finite clauses, some adverbs (conjuncts), some adjectives, some prepositions, and prepositional phrases. The writer repeated many examples (on purpose) to summarize and illustrate the use of all clauses, on the basis of his teaching experience and extensive review of various literatures from different English grammar books, reference books, and the consultation of English dictionaries, in order for ESL students and ELLs students to further understand how to use them correctly. At the same time, the writer cited some incorrect sentences from his students' work. In this article, AmE means "American English," and BrE "British English". Asterisk * means "unacceptable". The question mark? means "questionable". / means "the choice of items."

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Adverbial Clauses of Cause/Reason and their Equivalents

Adverbial clauses of cause/reason are usually introduced by such subordinators or conjunctions as *as, and, because* (usually giving a direct cause), *considering that, for, not that ... but that ..., (just) in case, since, for the reason that, that, in that, on the ground that, seeing that, now (that), inasmuch as* (= in as much as), *insofar as* (= in so far as), *to the extent that, what with, etc.* The conjunction, *because*, has the most emphatic of all. In addition, some prepositions or prepositional phrases are also introduced in this chapter.

1.1 *Because*

Because means “for the reason that.”

*I was annoyed **because** I missed the bus.*

*He didn't go, **because** he knew they did not like him.*

***Because** she was sick, she stayed home for several days.*

***Because** Rita quarreled with the boss, she has resigned.*

In spoken English we can use *and* to show the cause-result relationship between the contents of the clauses shown above (also see 1.14). We can use two subordinate clauses that are linked by *and*, as in

*Xinyi asked to be transferred, **because** she was unhappy and **because** she saw no prospect of promotion.*

In such a case, the second *because* even the third one in the subordinate clause can be omitted, as in

*Rita asked to be transferred, **because** she was unhappy and (**because**) she saw no prospect of promotion, and (**because**) conditions were far better at the other office.*

But we cannot use two clauses introduced by *for*, as in

Rita asked to be transferred, **for she was unhappy and **for** she saw no prospect of promotion.*

1) *Because* is used for answering the *why*-question (*why?*), especially when the reason clause is given as a short answer, e.g.

A: *Why* were you absent?

B: ***Because*** I was sick.

A: *Why* did you go there?

B: ***Because*** my boss asked me to go.

A: *Why* don't you open the door?

B: ***Because*** I've brought the wrong key.

A *because*-clause is usually placed after the main clause, but sometimes it is placed before the main clause for the sake of emphasis, e.g.

*Lucy came early in the morning **because** she wanted to get everything ready before class began.*

***Because** it was cold, I did not go out that day.*

Also, a *because*-clause cannot be placed before the main clause as regards the speaker's reason for making the statement contained in the main clause (R.A. Close, 1975). This is only likely to happen in informal style, as in

*Xinyi left the office early, **because** I saw her leave.*

It is noted that when the main clause has the negative form, then a comma is usually used before the *because*-clause in writing in order to avoid ambiguity, e.g.

*He didn't buy it, **because** it was expensive.*

Let's compare the following:

A. *Rita didn't leave home, **because** she was afraid of her father.*

B. *Rita didn't leave home **because** she was afraid of her father.*

The meanings from the above sentences conveyed are respectively:

A'. *Because Rita was afraid of her father, she didn't leave home.*

B'. *Rita left home, but that wasn't because she was afraid of her father.*

(Rita left home because of something else.)

In the first (A) sentence, only the verb is negated, while in the second (B) sentence, the *because* clause is negated. More examples of the second (B) sentences:

*I did not resign **because** I disliked the job.*

(I resigned, but that was not because I disliked the job.)

*He did not ask for sick leave **because** he was sick.*

*Rita did not visit Las Vega **because** she wanted to see the sights there.*

2) It is noted that a *because*-clause is used adverbially; it cannot be used for a noun clause, as in

****Because another student lies** is no reason why you should.*

The reason he is absent from duty is **because he is sick. (bad English)*

Instead, we should say, "(The fact) that another student lies is no reason *why* you should." "The reason he is absent from duty is *that* he is sick." So is "The reason for my absence was *that* I was sick." Sometimes, *because* is pre-modified by some adverbs (intensifiers) to intensify its meaning, e.g.

Take a break *simply* because other people are doing it.
I came here *just* because I wanted to help you.
Rita got up early *only* because she wanted to catch the early train to London.

3) Meanwhile, *not... but* or *but* can be used with the *because*-clause, e.g.

I'm going on a trip tomorrow, because I have to, not because I want to.
He failed the math test, not because he was unable to solve the problem.
I stayed at home, not because I was tired, but because I didn't like to go.

1.2 (Just) in case

In case means “if” (AmE) or “as a way of being safe from something that might happen or might be true”, as in

“Mr. Marlowe, I am here just in case anything out of the ordinary happens,” said Gu.
Xinyi didn't come in case she didn't like to argue with you.
Yihan did not sit down in case her trousers got creased.
In case I am late, start without me. (AmE)

1.3 Since, as

Since and *as* can be used to introduce adverbial clauses of cause/reason. They are usually placed before the main clause, e.g.

As I have brought an umbrella with me, it doesn't matter whether it will rain or not.
As Yihan was in a hurry, she left her iPhone at home.
As I haven't seen the movie, I can't tell you what it is about.
I'll be forty next month, since you ask. (R Quirk, 2004)
Since the weather is bad, we'd stay home.
Since/As he is here, we'd like to talk to him.
Since the speaker can't come, we may as well cancel the meeting.
Since you are unable to answer perhaps, we should ask someone else. (R Quirk, 2004)
Since you insist, I will reconsider the matter.
Since I was in the same school as Rita, I know her very well.
Since you know the answer, why didn't you speak up?
**Since knowing the answer, why didn't you speak up?*
(We do not use the gerund after *since* when it expresses reason.)
Since leaving school, he's had several jobs.
(= Since he left school, he's had several jobs.)
(*Since* is a preposition and can be followed by a gerund when it expresses time. *Leaving* is a gerund.)

There is not much difference between the use of *since* and *as*. *Since* can mean “in consequence of the fact that.” When using *since* or *as*, we usually know something factual. *Since* is

tantamount to “*as it is the fact that ...*.” They are usually placed before the main clauses; *as* expresses less of the two for the cause. “*Since* calls more attention to the cause than *as* (Hornby, 1977). However, when the fact is known to the hearer or the speaker present to his or her mind, an *as*-clause may be put after the main clause. For example:

I came home late as I had to walk all the way home.

(The hearer may have known that the bus drivers went on strike.)

I cannot go now as it is raining cats and dogs.

(It was obvious that it was raining hard.)

John has made no progress at all, lazy as he is.

However, if we are not sure of something factual, we usually do not use *since*, but we use *because* instead, e.g.

Do you despise him *because he is backward*?

As could replace all the conjunctions such as *since*, *seeing (that)*, *now (that)*, *because*, as in

Since /*As I was in the same school as Xinyi, I know her very well.*

Now (that) /*As everyone is here, I think that we should start the meeting.*

Seeing (that) /*As everyone is here, I think that we should start the meeting.*

As/Because *I brought the wrong key, I was unable to open the door.*

It is noted that *because* is the most emphatical in meaning for the expression of cause or reason, *since* being less emphatical and *as* the least. Also see the use of *as* in such a way to express adverbial clauses of concession in Chapter 3. Moreover, *because* puts more emphasis on the reason, and *as* and *since* attach more importance to the result. In informal style, the subordinate clause expressing cause or reason would become a main clause followed by a co-ordinate clause beginning with *so* or *and so*:

As/Because *I brought the wrong key, I was unable to open the door.*

I brought the wrong key, so I was unable to open the door.

I brought the wrong key and so/therefore I was unable to open the door.

She was having great difficulty getting her car out, and so I had to move my car to let her out. (Sinclair, et al., 2011, p. 802)

Because of *the wrong key, I was unable to open the door.*

Generally speaking, a causal clause is not elliptical, but the following examples of occasional ellipsis may occur:

Because you won't (write to her), I am writing to Rita.

I must also be a mathematician, since my father is (one).

Since Marlowe can't (teach Spanish), Spendlove will teach Spanish.

It is to be noted that **being + past participles** cannot be used in the clauses introduced by *as* (R. A. Close, 1997):

*I am returning your letter **as** requested.*

(= I am returning your letter, as I was requested to do.)

I am returning your letter **as being requested.* (incorrect)

1.4 Some prepositions or prepositional phrases used to express cause or reason

*Some support charities **out of** duty, others **from** a sense of guilt.* (Leech et al., 1974)

(*From, out of* chiefly to express motive, *i.e.*, psychological reason.)

*She lost her job **because of** her rudeness to her boss.*

*He can't run very fast **on account of** his asthma.* (formal)

*Lucy jumped **for** joy.*

*The boy was scolded **for** being late.*

*I was angry with her **for** being late* (= because she was late).

*Rita was praised **for** her outspoken speech.*

*The car crashed **through** the driver's carelessness.*

1.5 *For* (followed by a clause)

The conjunction *for* (stating an indirect reason) is used in written English but occasionally in spoken English to introduce the cause or reason for something (afterthought) or some basis for inference or deduction, as in

*He found it increasingly difficult to read, **for** his eyes were failing.* (R Quirk, 2004)

*The ground was wet, **for** it rained last night.*

*My friend, Heishman, must be in the room now, **for** the light in her room is on.*

*He stood his ground firmly, **for** he was a brave man.* (Hornby, 1977)

The writer found the following sentences from the poster in an English teacher's classroom of West Career & Technical Academy as follows:

WATCH YOUR THOUGHTS,
FOR THEY BECOME WORDS.

WATCH YOUR WORDS,
FOR THEY BECOME ACTIONS.

WATCH YOUR ACTIONS,
FOR THEY BECOME HABITS.

WATCH YOUR HABITS,
FOR THEY BECOME CHARACTER.

WATCH YOUR CHARACTER,
FOR IT BECOMES YOUR DESTINY.

For in such cases are usually not the adverbial clause of reason or cause to express the cause relationship between what is stated in the main clause and what is stated in the subordinate clause. A *for*-clause is used to provide an afterthought or additional information for the main clause. It comes after the main clause, and “*For* clauses never come at the beginning of the sentence” (Swan, 1980). In the sentence *My friend, Heishman, must be in the room now, for the light in her room is on*, *for* cannot be replaced by *because*, because *the light is on* does not mean *she is in the room*, but in the sentence “*He didn’t come, because he was sick*”, *because* can be replaced by *for* in the this sentence with less emphatic for the cause in *He did not come, for he was sick*. The main information is “*He did not come.*” “*For he was sick*” is only additional information in utterance to the main clause, so we can say *The ground is wet, for/because it rained last night*. In such a case, *for* and *because* can be exchangeable, with *for* showing less emphatic in tone. As explained above, *for* is used to convey additional information or utterance to the main clause. *For* does not express the cause or reason for what is stated in the main clause. *Because* cannot be used for the following sentences. Only *for* can be used, e.g.

*It will rain, for (*because) the barometer is failing.*

*It is morning, for (*because) the birds are singing.*

*It was not yet daylight, for (*because) the candle was burning.*

Because cannot be used in the above sentences, because the temperature fails in the barometer, it does not cause the weather to rain, and the birds’ singing does not mean it is morning. Birds can chirp/sing at any time. Sinclair et al., (2017) mentioned that “*For* means the same as *because*. Its use in reason clauses is now considered to be old-fashioned.” The writer thinks the use of *for* shows less emphatic in tone, and it provides an afterthought or additional information to the main clauses. Where *because* is used, it can replace *for*; whereas when *for* is used, it cannot replace *because*. For example, “*Xinyi is in her office, for the light is on.*” Here *for* cannot replace *because*, because *the light is on in her office* is not the reason she is in the office. When *for/because* can be exchangeable in the clause, *for*-clause can be only placed after the main clause, but a *because*-clause can be placed before or after the main clause. Compare:

The ground is wet, because it rained last night.

Because it rained last night, the ground is wet.

The ground is wet, for it rained last night.

**For it rained last night, the ground is wet.*

It is noted that the clauses introduced by *since*, *as*, and *for* are usually not used in the emphatical construction *It ...that/who..., e.g.*

Since he needs money, he writes to them.

**It is since he needs money that he writes to them. (Gu, 1981)*

As I am ill, I cannot take part in sports meet.

It is as I am ill **that I cannot take part in sports meet.* (Gu, 1981)

*It must have rained last night, **for** the pavement is wet.*

It is for the pavement is wet **that it must have rained last night.*

There is no problem for the *because*-clause that is used in the emphatical construction *It ...that/who...* For example, “*I didn’t buy the car, because I was poor.*” We can say, “*It is because I was poor that I didn’t buy the car.*” But we do not use *which* in the emphatical sentence; we don’t say “*It is because I was poor which I didn’t buy the car.*” However, in informal English we can omit *that* as in “*It is because I was poor (that) I didn’t buy the car.*” As mentioned previously, a *for*-clause is placed after the main clause, but an *as*-clause or *because*-clause can be placed before or after the main clause as we can see the examples before. When we use *as* or *since* to introduce adverbial clauses of reason or cause, what is described in the main clause is a known fact or an obvious thing that we know, e.g. “*Since/As you are here, let’s start the work.*” When the clause is introduced by *because*, it indicates an unknown fact/thing. That is why we use a *why* to ask a question, e.g. “*Why are you late?*” “*Because I had a car accident.*” But from “*Why are you so late?*” we cannot answer: “*Since/As/For I had a car accident.*”

1.6 Other conjunctions to introduce adverbial clauses of cause or prepositional phrases used adverbially

Other compound conjunctions can be used to introduce adverbial clauses of cause. These compound conjunctions are *inasmuch as*, *in so far as*, *in that*, *now (that)*, *seeing (that)*, *considering (that)*, *etc.*

1.6.1 *inasmuch as* (used in formal English.)

*Anne is also guilty, **inasmuch as** she knew what the others were planning* (R Quirk, 2004).

*Forgive them, **inasmuch as** they are young* (R Quirk, 1978).

***Inasmuch as** you know the story, I will not tell it again.*

Note that the old-fashioned *inasmuch as*, in place of *in so far as*, can be found in formal English as well as in the literary and most dignified expression of its class.

1.6.2 *In that/ in so far as*

*Men differ from brutes **in that** they can think and speak.* (*In that* is used in formal English.)

*Our meeting was successful, **in that/ in so far as** our principal agreed to consider the matter.*

*The situation is rather complicated **in that** we have two managing directors.* (R Quirk, 2004)

1.6.3 Now (*that*)

Now and *now that* are used to say that a new situation is the reason for something present and future, but not past, as in

Now (that) he is absent, you'll have to do the work by yourself.

Now that there is Covid-19 everywhere, we'd better stay at home.

Now that is only a more formal substitute for *since*. In spoken English *that* can be omitted. *Now (that)* could replace *seeing (that)* or *since* when the tense in the clause is a present tense, but could not replace *since* in “*Since I was in the same school as Rita, I know her very well.*” We could not say “**Now (that) I was in the same school as Rita, I used to be with her every Tuesday in the library,*” because *now that* is followed by the past tense in this clause.

Since/As/Seeing that I was in the same school as Xinyi, I know her very well.

**Now that I was in the same school as Xinyi, I know her very well.*

(Because of the past tense, *was* is used in the clause in “*I was in the same school as Xinyi.*”)

Now (that) everyone is here, I think that we should start the meeting.

(=Seeing (that)/Since/As everyone is here, I think that we should start the meeting.)

1.6.4 Considering (*that*)

Considering that is only a more formal substitute for *since*:

Considering (that) his wife had just recovered from a car accident, he decided not to take her to the Christmas Party.

There is lots of choice and the food is yummy and not too pricey, considering that it was pretty good quality. TIMES, SUNDAY TIMES (2010)

Considering that you are no longer involved with this man, your response is a little extreme.

<https://www.collinsdictionary.com/us/dictionary/english/considering-that>

1.6.5 Seeing (*that*)

In spoken English, *that* can be omitted. *Seeing (that)* can replace *since* or *as*. It is used only in informal speech. It would be reasonable to restrict its meanings to “in view of the fact that”. Like the clauses introduced by *as* and *since*, it is usually placed before the main clause, as in

Seeing (that)/Since/As everyone is here, I think that we should start the meeting.

Seeing (that) it's raining cats and dogs, we won't go shopping today.

Seeing that the weather has improved, we shall be able to enjoy our game.

(R Quirk et al., 1972)

Seeing (that) I was in the same school as Xinyi, I know her very well.

(= Since I was in the same school as Xinyi, I know her very well.)

We cannot expect him to know the story seeing that he hasn't read it. (Zhang et al., 1984)

1.6.6 Some prepositions or prepositional phrases can also be used adverbially to express cause/reason. They include *according to*, *in consequence of*, *by dint of*, *by reason of*, *for reasons of*, *for some reason*, *by virtue of*, *in accordance with*, *because of*, *but for* (with subjunctive mood in main clause), *on account of*, *on the ground of*, *on the score of*, *due to*, *for fear of*, *in view of*, *out of* (expressing a motive for an action), *owing to*, *thanks to*, *with/in regard to*, *as regards*, *regarding*, *as a result of*, *for* (usually with nouns of feeling), *what with*, *from*, *through*, *with*, *etc.*, as in

*The annual IEP meeting was held **in accordance with** the law set by IDEA.*

(more formal than *according to*)

***According to** our records payment of \$56 is now overdue.*

***Because of** his inability to complete the work, he was fired.*

*Just **out of** curiosity, why did you take that job?*

*Some support charities **out of** duty, others **from** a sense of guilt. (Leech et al., 1974)*

***With regard to** future oil supplies, the situation is uncertain.*

*Yihan became ill **through** overwork.*

*The car crashed **through** the driver's carelessness. (Leech et al., 1974)*

*Lucy jumped **for** joy.*

*He is stupid **for** a child of his age.*

*Excuse me **for** coming late.*

*He's not bad **for** a youngster (i.e. considering he is a youngster).*

***With** so many students absent, the teacher decided not to teach new materials.*

***What with** all this work and so little sleep at nights, I don't think I can go on much longer.*

(=Because of all this work and so little sleep at nights, I don't think I can go)

***Regarding** your recent inquiry ... (formal used in business)*

*The main tower has been closed **for reasons of** safety.*

*He was found not guilty **by reason of** insanity.*

*We succeeded **by reason of** good organization. (Zhang et al., 1984)*

*They've decided to change all our job titles, **for some reason**.*

(for some reason especially spoken = for a reason that you do not know or cannot understand)

***As regards** environmental issues, the government will enforce existing regulations.*

As regards is used to introduce the (new) subject you are going to talk or write about in formal correspondence.

1.6.7 Due to, owing to, thanks to

*Their delay was **due to** the bad weather. (formal English)*

*His absence was **due to** the storm. (formal English)*

*His illness was **due to** bad food. (formal English)*

*The accident was largely **due to** human error. (formal English)*

*He arrived late **due to/owing to** the storm.*
*John was late **due to** an accident. (formal English)*
*Andy failed, **due to** carelessness.*
*Prices have risen **due to** an increase in demand.*
*We were late, **owing to** the snow. (informal English)*
*They delayed **owing to** the bad weather. (formal English)*
***Owing to** a lack of funds, the project will not continue next year. (formal English)*
*He arrived late **owing to/due to** the storm.*
*Trains are delayed **owing to** bad weather. (Abate, 1996)*
***Thanks to** the public's generosity, we've been able to build two new schools in the area.*
*All flights into China have been delayed **due to/owing to/because of** thick fog.*

Note that in spoken English, *because of* is often used. *Thanks to* is not used in formal English, and used especially to explain why or how something good has happened (e.g. ***Thanks to** your great help, I completed the work on time*). *Owing to* is less used in spoken English than *due to*, but both are slightly formal and are often used in official notices or public statements. Long, T.H. and Summers, Della (1979) stated, "You do not use *owing to* directly after the verb *to be*," Some people prefer to use *due to* rather than *owing to*, directly after the verb *to be*, but with other verbs as well. However, many educated people use them alternatively in spoken English or informal English, and *due to* and *owing to* are often used without considering the rule as well, especially in American English.

1.6.8 *That*

A noun clause introduced by *that* also expresses reason or cause to provide explanatory information about the main clause. In the main clause, certain adjectives (i.e. *angry, annoyed, glad, happy, nervous, sorry, surprised, worried, etc.*) are used referring to feelings and mental states in the construction of SVC (subject + verb + complement) and some verbs and past participles expressing feelings or emotion that is literary, not colloquial, that is, in such cases, the *that*-clause denotes the reason or cause involving a person's likeness, preference, satisfaction and their opposite, and *that* is often omitted in informal written English or spoken English, as in

*I am happy **that** I can meet you.*
 (= I am happy because I can meet you.)
*Xinyi was surprised (**that**) Gu didn't call her.*
Marlowe was glad his girlfriend had come. (That is omitted after glad.)
*I am sorry (**that**) I have kept you waiting.*
 (I am sorry because I have kept you waiting)
*I was surprised **that** he married that girl. (I was surprised because he married that girl.)*
*He was ashamed **that** she didn't return her call.*
*They're disappointed (**that**) you couldn't say a good-bye to them before you left the party.*
*Yihan's happy **that** Lucy is back.*

*I am glad (**that**) I can stay here tonight.*

*I am sorry (**that**) I didn't tell you the matter in advance.*

(= I am sorry because I didn't tell you the matter in advance.)

*If I find fault with you, it is **that** I want you to do better in future.* (Zhang et al., 1984)

*Xinyi rejoiced **that** her daughter's whole family came to visit her.*

(= Xinyi rejoiced because her daughter's whole family came to visit her.)

*I rejoiced **that** you are coming home.*

*I grieved **that** he had lost his dear child.*

In such a case, *that* is tantamount to *because* although *that* has less emphatic in tone. In the following construction of *not that ... but that...*, *that* is tantamount to the meaning of *because*, e.g.

*He always travelled third-class, **not that** he was so miserly, **but that** he wanted to go side by side with ordinary people.*

*Rita always travelled by bus, **not that** she wanted to save money, **but that** she could see sights through the bus window all the way.*

1.7 Prepositional phrases + *that*

There are some compound prepositional phrases + *that* constructions to introduce adverbial clauses of cause. They are *by reason that*, *for fear that*, *on the ground(s) that*, *on the understanding that*, *on the assumption that*, *on the pretense that*, *on the supposition that*, *on the pretense that*, *to the extent that*, etc.

1.7.1 For fear (*that*)

*She went to the room quiet **for fear (that)** she might wake her husband.*

*Rita is working hard **for fear** she should fail.*

1.7.2 On the ground(s) *that*

*He left early **on the ground that** he was sick.*

*Many critics have objected to the proposal **on the ground that** it would be too costly.*

1.7.3 By reason *that*, for a reason *that*, for the reason *that*

*He cannot be charged with murder **for the simple reason that** he was not in town when the crime was committed.*

*They reject scarcity pricing **for the reason that** water falls from the skies.*

<https://ludwig.guru/s/for+the+reason+that>

1.7.4 To the extent *that*

*He feels himself to be dependent **to the extent that** he is not free to make his own decisions.*

(Sinclair et al., 2017)

1.8 Compound prepositional phrases + *the fact that*

There are some compound prepositional phrases + *the fact that* constructions to introduce adverbial clauses of cause. They are *on account of the fact that*, *in view of the fact that*, *because of the fact that*, *due to/owing to the fact that*, *despite the fact that*, *in spite of the fact that*, etc.

1.8.1 *On account of the fact that*

On account of the fact that all the trains were delayed, the station was crowded with people.

1.8.2 *In view of the fact that*

We had to anchor *in view of the fact that* the tide ran against us.

1.8.3 *Because of the fact that*

Because of the fact that our principal is not here today, we will put off the meeting till tomorrow.

1.8.4 *Due to/owing to the fact that*

He failed the math test *due to/owing to the fact that* he did not study hard.

1.8.5 *Despite the fact that, in spite of the fact that*

He always works hard *in spite of the fact that* he is not in good health.

Dian went to China *despite the fact that* the doctor had told him to rest.

The above sentences are also regarded as appositive clauses introduced by a *that*-clause.

1.9 Cause or reason may be indicated by the use of the two nouns: *cause* or *reason*.

The cause of his death is still unknown to all.

The reason for his absence was illness.

The reason (why/that) he was absent was **that** he was sick.

The reason for the party is **because** it's Sue's birthday. (Bad English)

The reason for the party is **that** it's Sue's birthday.

Note we use *reason* why or *that* before a clause, but *why* or *that* is often omitted and use *that* in the predicative clause instead of *because* as shown in the sentence above. “*The reason he is absent from duty is because he is sick*” is bad English. Instead, we should say, “*The reason he is absent from duty is that he is sick.*”

1.10 None-finite and verbless clauses for the expression of cause or reason

When the *subject* + *be* is followed a noun phrase, adjective, or adverb, the *subject* + *be* can be deleted to form a verbless clause, as in

Extremely selfish, John never cared for his colleagues. (verbless clause)

(= Because John was extremely selfish, he never cared for his colleagues.)

An excellent mathematician, Dian taught the students very well.

(= Because/as he was an excellent mathematician, Dian taught the students very well.)

Utterly exhausted, Leilei fell fast asleep.

Leilei fell fast asleep, utterly exhausted.

(=As/Because Leilei was utterly exhausted, she fell fast asleep.)

1.11 Present participles used to express cause or reason

Being sick, Andy was unable to attend the meeting.

(Being) tired with the work (= Because/As/Since she was tired with the work), *Lucy sat down to rest.*

(Being) amiable and sincere, Andy is welcome everywhere.

(= Because/As/Since he is amiable and sincere, Andy is welcome everywhere.)

Being a professor, you should know how to solve problems.

Not being an expert, I cannot explain it.

Not being prepared for the tragic news, he fainted.

Being done in a hurry, the exercises were full of mistakes.

Living near the sea, they enjoy a healthy climate.

Meeting with cold reception at his son's house, the old man went away in a rage.

Not feeling well, Yihan decided to sit in the chair for a while.

Not having a telephone, I will have to write to her.

Not knowing what to say, Andy kept silent.

The little girl, not knowing what to do, began to cry. (placed after the subject.)

The participle *being* is omissible in an adverbial participial phrase. Perfect participles are also used just like the use in expression of time clauses, as in

Having lost his iPhone X, Andy had to buy another one.

(= Because/As Andy had lost my iPhone X, he had to buy another one.)

Having lived in Las Vegas since 2005, Xinyi knows the city very well.

(= Because/As Xinyi has lived in Las Vegas since 2005, she knows the city very well.)

The old man was hungry, not having eaten since yesterday.

The lady, *having lost most of her fortune*, *decided to sell her estates.*

Having been working for four hours in the lab, Lucy was very tired, but she refused to take a break.

(Perfect progressive tense used to express her continuation of her work)

1.12 The constructions, *-ing + as + subject + does/do/be, -ed + as + subject + be, noun as + subject, or verb + as + subject*

The constructions can be used to introduce adverbial clauses of cause, in which *as it is*, *as it does*, or *as we do* can be omitted without changing the meaning. They are also called *non-finite clauses* after the omission, as in

Standing as it does on high hill, the temple commands a fine view.

Sitting here in the sun as I am, I feel thoroughly content. (R. A. Close, 1977)

Wanting a ticket as I do, I shall apply for one at once.

Sitting at the back as we are, we can't hear a word. (R. A. Close, 1977)

Shouting loudly as they were, the boys got quite hoarse.

Living (as we do) in a remote village, we rarely have visitors.

Knowing him (as I do), I can tell you that he will not break his promise.

Sitting at the back as we are, we can't hear a word.

(=Because/As we are sitting at the back, we can't hear a word.)

Shouting loudly as they were, the boys got quite hoarse.

(=Because/As the boys shouted loudly, they got quite hoarse.)

Wanting a ticket as I do, I will apply for one at once. (R. A. Close, 1972)

(=Because/Since/As I want a ticket, I will apply for one at once.)

I feel it to be a rare occasion, ***occurring as it does*** only once in many years.

Realizing as I do that I shall be very much occupied in the afternoon, I must send off all these letters this morning.

Absorbed as he was in a mathematical problem, he did not notice my entering the room.

(Ge, 1962)

(=Because/As he was absorbed in a mathematical problem, he did not notice my entering the room.)

Written (as it is) in good English, the book is recommendable to all.

Situated as it was at the foot of the mountain, the house was very quiet since.

Unarmed as/that he was, he couldn't resist them for long.

(=Since he was unarmed, he couldn't....)

Unaccustomed as/that he was to public speaking, he acquitted himself rather ill in that speech.

(= Since he was unaccustomed to public speaking, he acquitted)

Child as/that he was, he could hardly with all his bravery be a match for the rogue in the fight.

(= Since he was a child, he could hardly)

Fool that I was, I believed every word she said.

Michael, ***fool as/that*** he was, completely ruined the dinner. (R Quirk et al., 1972)

(= "... since he was a fool, being a fool ...")

Object as you may, I still love you.

Change your mind as you will,

Search as they would, they could find nobody in the house. (Ge, 1962)

From the sentences above, we use an *as*-clause preceded by a present participle, a past participle, a bare infinitive, an adjective, or even a noun to emphasize the meaning of cause or reason.

1.13 Past participles used to express cause or reason

Having been experimented many times, this new medicine will be put into mass production.

Destroyed by Hurricane Sandy, the city had to be rebuilt.

(= Because/As the city was destroyed by *Hurricane Sandy*, the city had to be rebuilt.)

Taken by surprise, the enemy surrendered.

Tired with the work (= Because/As/Since he was tired with the work), *Andy sat down to rest*.

Lucy left the room, discouraged.

Delighted, the girls thought up many good ideas. (Zhang et al., 1979)

Moved by their speech, we were momentarily at a loss what to say.

Not/Never having been to China, I can't tell you what it looks like.

The children, *exhausted*, fell asleep immediately.

(= As/Because the children were exhausted, they fell asleep immediately.)

Not allowed to use a calculator, *Dian failed his math test last week*.

(= As/Because he was not allowed to use a calculator, *Dian failed his math test*....)

Never seen before, the machine working so fast surprised people at the exhibition.

Having been addressed (= Because/As/Since it had been addressed) to a wrong house, the letter never reached me.

Having been informed that his father was seriously ill, he left the office at once.

(=He left the office at once because/as/since he was informed his father was seriously ill.)

Having been laid up with a broken back for years, *Mary lost all hope of recovery*.

Having been challenged rudely in the street, *John was angry*. (R Quirk et al., 1972)

Not having been told what to say, *Yihan kept quiet*.

Xinyi, having been to Las Vegas many times, knows the city very well.

Kayla Yao, the professor of virology, *not having slept* a wink the whole night, felt very tired.

Rita, having been consoled by a large inheritance, wept few tears of remorse over her father's grave.

(= Since she had been consoled by a large inheritance, *Rita wept few tears of*)

It is to be noted that the last three sentences above have perfect tenses, which are inserted between the subject and the main verb. They are used to express reason rather than used as postmodifiers to modify the subjects: *Kayla Yao*, *Xinyi*, and *Rita*, respectively, because a present perfect tense is usually not used as a modifier.

1.14 A non-restrictive attributive clause used as a causal clause

A none-restrictive relative clause can be used to express cause in most cases as in the following examples:

Our driver, who (=because he) *had disregarded traffic rules*, received a ticket.

I, who (= Because I) do not know English, am, of course, blind to the synopsis, which (= because it) is in English. (Huang, 1985)

The glass of the window, which is broken, has to be replaced.

(“... which is broken,” = “because it is broken”)

Rita, who is ill, cannot come with me.

(“... who is ill,” = “because she is ill”)

The girl, who was upset by the activities of the ghost, decided to leave.

(= Because/As the girl was upset by the activities of the ghost, she decided to leave.)

(= Upset by the activities of the ghost, the girl decided to leave. (initial))

(= The girl, upset by the activities of the ghost, decided to leave. (middle))

(= The girl decided to leave, upset by the activities of the ghost. (final))

(= The girl was upset by the activities of the ghost and decided to leave.)

It is noted that “Unlike relative clauses, however, non-finite and verbless clauses can occur freely in initial, medial, or final positions” (R Quirk et al., 1972) as seen from above.

1.15 The Infinitive phrase used to express cause or reason

We can use infinitive phrases to express reason or cause; it looks the same as the expression of purpose. It depends on their implication or meaning from context. For example, *She wept to hear the news* (“to hear the news” expressing reason) and *She wept to obtain sympathy* (“to obtain sympathy “expressing purpose), as in

I am sorry to have kept you waiting. (reason)

She was a fool not to listen to me at that time. (reason)

Cf. She was a fool because she didn’t listen to me at that time.

Xinyi is sorry to have missed the show.

(= Xinyi is sorry because she missed the show.)

The girl wept for joy *to hear that her brother was still alive.* (reason)

Leilei stared at the floor, too nervous to reply.

(= Leilei stared at the floor, because she was too nervous to reply.)

I rejoiced to learn that my daughter was admitted into Rice University. (reason)

Lucy looked happy to hear the news. (reason)

Cf. Lucy looked happy because she heard the news.

We are happy to know that Yihan won the game. (reason)

1.16 With/Without + noun + infinitive phrases

With only five minutes to go, they were in a great hurry to complete the work.

With nobody to help Xinyi, she finished the work late.

With so much to do, Leilei had to work with her homework at weekend.

Without anyone to call her, Lucy might be late for the performance.

Without a thing to worry about, Xinyi continued to do her online trade.

1.17 We can use adjectives, past participles, especially ending in *-ed*, followed by an infinitive, an infinitive phrase, or a *that*-clause to express reason or cause (also see 1.15), as in

*I'm very **sorry to have hurt** her feelings before.*

(= I am very sorry because I hurt her feelings before.)

*I was **surprised to see** Yihan.*

(= I was surprised because I saw Yihan (which I never expected to see Yihan).)

*I am **pleased to meet** you.*

(= I am pleased *because/as I meet* you. (The two actions happen at the same time.)

*She was **disappointed to find** that all people left the party without saying a good-bye to her.*

*We feel much **honored to have** you come to visit our country.*

The *-ed* participles that are commonly used in such a case are: *annoyed, ashamed, astonished, bored, concerned, delighted, destined, determined, disappointed, disconcerted, disgusted, displeased, distressed, embarrassed, excited, fascinated, inclined, overjoyed, overwhelmed, perturbed, pleased, prepared, puzzled, qualified, surprised, worried, etc.*

A participle can be followed by a *that*-clause to express reason or cause, too, but sometimes the *that* can be omitted in informal occasions, as in

*I was **surprised Yihan noticed** me. (That is left out.)*

*I am **surprised that** Leilei will come to see me this afternoon.*

(= I am surprised because Leilei will come to see me this afternoon.)

*Marlowe **seemed pleased that** his greenhouse was prolific last year.*

*Rita was **upset that** her computers in the lab were out of order.*

*I was surprised **that she noticed** me.*

Past participles of this kind are: *alarmed, amazed, amused, annoyed, astonished, depressed, disappointed, distressed, disturbed, frightened, horrified, irritated, pleased, shocked, upset, etc.*

1.18 The absolute construction of participles used for cause/reason

We retain the subject of participles in the absolute construction because the subject in the main clause is different from that of the absolute construction.

1.19 Present participles or past participles

1.19.1 Present participles or with perfect forms

***So many students being absent** (=As/Because/Since so many students were absent), the field trip had to be put off.*

***There being nobody in the classroom**, Marlowe turned off all the lights.*

(= As/Because there was nobody in the classroom,)

*Our pace was slow, **the horses being tired**.*

(= Our pace was slow because the horses were tired.)

*The room was quiet, **the students neither talking nor laughing.***

(= The room was quiet because/as the students neither talked nor laughed.)

No further discussion arising, the meeting was brought to a close.

It being known that he was a fluent speaker of English, many people came to learn spoken English from him.

It being cold, Lucy put on her coat before she went out.

(= As/Because it was cold, Lucy put on her coat....)

He being absent, we'll have to put off the meeting.

(= As/Because he is absent, we'll have to put off the meeting.)

It being now pretty late, we took our candles and went upstairs.

Yihan being away, Andy had to do the work.

He, being in a hurry, began to run. (Construction of this kind is not often used.)

I having few friends, my business began to fail. (Evans et al., 1957)

The library having closed (= As/Because the library was/had been closed), ***I had to go home.***
(perfect form)

Nobody having any more to say (=As/Because nobody had any more to say), ***the meeting was closed.*** (perfect form)

The weather having improved (=As/Because the weather had been improved), ***the game was enjoyed by players and spectators alike.*** (perfect form)

All the guests having arrived (=As/Because all the guests had arrived), ***the meeting was declared open.*** (perfect form)

The lights having gone out, we couldn't see anything. (perfect form)

He began to shout, their reply not having come as quickly as he wanted.

(Sinclair, et al., 2011)

The question (having been) settled, the meeting adjourned.

She having finished the work (= As/After/When she had finished the work), ***there was nothing for us to do.***

The weather having improved, we enjoyed the remainder of the game. (Leech et al., 1974)

When she was fifty, she retired, her health having been impaired by years of overwork.

In such a construction, *having been* can be omitted in passive voice without changing the meaning. For example:

*The building (**having been**) painted white, it looks magnificent.*

*He proceeded to light his pipe. That **done**, he put on his woollen scarf and went out.*

1.19.2 Past participles

Her skirt caught on a nail, she could not move.

(Because/Since/As her skirt was caught on a nail, she could not move.)

His voice drowned out by the noise, the professor interrupted his lecture.

(Because/Since/As his voice was drowned out by the noise,)

His comrades all dragged away, he was left alone in the prison cell.

(= Because/As his comrades were all dragged away, he was left alone in the prison cell.)

Her leg badly wounded, she has to stay in bed.

(= Because/As her leg is badly wounded, she has to stay in bed.)

All our savings gone, we started looking for a job.

1.20 *What with*

Sometimes we use *what with* followed by a gerund or a noun phrase used to introduce causes/reason of something (usually a list of reasons that have made something happen or have made someone feel a particular way), especially something bad, as in

What with working too hard and (what with) taking too little care of himself, he became quite sick. (Zhang, et al., 1984)

(=He became quite sick because he worked too hard and took too little care of himself....)

What with all this work and so little sleep at nights, I don't think I can go on much longer.

(= Because of all this work and so little sleep at nights, I don't think I can go)

What with neighbors, relatives, and friends, the house was overflowing with people.

(=Because of neighbors, relatives, and friends there, the house was overflowing with people.)

1.21 *With, without + noun + past participle or gerund, etc.*

We can also use the construction *with* or *without + noun + past participle, a gerund, an infinitive, adjective, or prepositional phrases, etc.*, to express reason, as in

With him taken care of, the parents felt happy when they were working at weekend.

You must give me a true account, with nothing added and nothing removed.

I wouldn't dare go home without the job finished.

Without any food left in the house, Yihan had to buy more.

Without anyone noticing, I slipped through the window. (Noticing is a half gerund.)

With so many people helping me, I finished the work early. (Helping is a half gerund.)

The war was over without a shot being fired. (Being is a gerund.)

With the tree now tall, we get more shade. (Tall is an adjective.)

With so many students absent, the teacher decided not to teach new materials.

(Absent is an adjective.)

With so much to do, I will have to go back to my office. (To do is an infinitive.)

Without a thing to worry about, Xinyi began to have her vacation next week.

(To worry is an infinitive.)

China was the largest recipient of foreign direct investment in 2020 as the coronavirus outbreak spread across the world during the course of the year, with the Chinese economy having brought in \$163 billion in inflows.

--- <https://www.yahoo.com/finance/news/china-largest-recipient-fdi-2020-230232392.html>

It is noted that *without* has a negative meaning and it usually requires a non-assertive form like *anyone* or *any* as seen from some of the sentences above containing *without*. When *with* or *without* is omitted, the gerundial phrase becomes the absolute construction of participles, e.g.

So many people helping me, I finished the work early. (*Helping* is a participle.)

With so many people helping me, I finished the work early. (*Helping* is a half gerund.)

1.22 Verbless clauses to express reason or cause

Verbless clauses are usually placed before the main clause when it is used to express cause or reason, as in

Anxious for a quick decision, the chairman called for a vote. (Zhang et al., 1984)

(= Because/Since/As the chairman was anxious for a quick decision,)

Conscious she had passed the test, she ordered a gin and tonic.

(= Because/Since/As she was conscious she had passed the test,)

The heir to a fortune, his friend did not need to worry about the examination.

(= Because/Since/As he was the heir to a fortune, his friend)

2

Adverbial Clauses of Comparison

Adverbial clauses of comparison are usually introduced by *as ... as*, *so ...as*, *the same (...) as*, *more ... than*, *less ...than*, *the ... the ...*, etc. e.g.

2.1 As ... as

We can use adjectives or adverbs to express the two things that are the same in some way, as in

I am as tall as you (are).

He runs as fast as he can.

We study as hard as they (do).

Ziling hates him as much as I (hate him).

Ziling hates him as much as me.

(Ziling hates both – him and me.)

Come as soon as you can.

I agree with you as much as I agree with Meiqin.

Or: *I agree with you as much as with Meiqin.*

Or: *I agree with you as much as Meiqin*

I blame you as much as him. (I blame him.)

I blame you as much as he (= he does).

Marlowe has as many girlfriends as his brother (has).

It's as cold as ice.

It is to be noted that when the comparison is negative, the first *as* is often replaced by *so*, as in
She's not so/as old as she looks.

*Yihan's new house is **not so expensive as** the one she bought last year.*
*She's **not so/as** young **as** I thought.*
*You are **not so old as** I. (formal)*
(=You aren't as old as me. (informal))

As is often replaceable by *so* when the comparison is negative as shown above. As, however, may be used in a negative, too, especially when the sentence is to deny an assumed or suggested positive (Huang, 1985), as in

*Do you think I'll believe him? I am **not as foolish as** all that.*
*I am **not as old as** people would think (I am).*

It is to be noted that when an *as*-clause is followed by an object case or a noun, and their meanings are not clear, we use subject case and *do* forms are needed after *as* when the subject of the sentence is meant, as in,

*I like him **as much as** you. (Do I like both? Ambiguous)*
*I like him **as much as** I like you. (I like both.)*
*I like him **as much as** you like him. (Both of us like him.)*
*I like him **as much as** you do. (Both of us like him.)*

In an informal style, the first *as* is omitted, especially in AmE, as in

*They work hard **as** we do.*
*She's hard **as** nails. (Swan,1980)*

Note there are some sayings or idiomatic expressions from the pattern *as ... as* in the English language, e.g. *Enough is as good as a feast. A miss is as good as a mile. An inch is as good as an ell. Dying is as natural as living, etc.*; more idioms: *as black as coal, as black as thunder, as blind as a bat, as bold as lion, as busy as a bee, as cheap as dirt, as clear as crystal, as fat as a pig, as sleek as a cat, as white as snow, etc.*

2.2 As + adjective +a/an countable noun as

In this construction, countable noun plural or uncountable noun are not allowed to be used, as in

*It is **as beautiful a day as** it was yesterday.*
*He smokes **as expensive a cigarettes as** he can afford.*
*Marlowe will marry **as pretty a girl as** he can find.*
*This is **as good a coffee maker as** that one.*
They are **as beautiful girls as I thought.*
He smokes **as expensive cigarettes as he can afford.*
*?He told **as funny stories as** (R. Quirk et al., 1972)*
*?He bought **as hard wood as** ...*

When countable nouns premodified by *many* in *as ...as* construction, the following are acceptable:

*Jack has **as many** girlfriends **as** his brother (has).*

***As many** (of them) are at home **as** (are) abroad.*

But we can have *He smokes cigarettes that are as expensive as he can afford*, when an attributive clause is used to postmodify the countable noun plural or an uncountable noun. We can use some quantity words such as *twice*, *three times*, *half*, and other adverbs, i.e. *nearly*, etc., or phrases, i.e. *nothing like*, etc., before the first *as*, as in

*We got **twice as many people as** we expected.*

*She is **not half as smart as** I think she is.*

*She's **every bit as beautiful as** her sister. (Swan, 1980)*

*He's **just as strong as** ever.*

*"Is it \$20 for a taxi to the airport?" "No, **nothing like/near as much as** that."*

2.3 *Such* + (adjective) + countable or uncountable noun *as*

*He told **such a** (funny) story **as**...*

*He told **such** (funny) stories **as** ...*

*He bought **such hard wood as** ...*

The correlated words *such* and *as* may either be separate or go together. Thus:

*I don't like **such** a man **as** he (is).*

** I don't like **such** a man **as** him. (Here the nominative pronoun, *he*, is necessary.)*

*I don't like a man **such as** he (is).*

** I don't like a man **such as** him. (But the nominative pronoun, *he*, is necessary.)*

2.4 *The same (...)* *as*

We usually have the definite article, *the*, used with *same*, but sometimes in spoken English, *the* is omitted, i.e. *I have my pride, **same** as anyone else*. For example:

*Her name is **the same as** my mother's (name is).*

*I have **the same** opinion **as** you (have).*

*They do **the same** work **as** I (do). (Comparison is made of present tense.)*

*They are doing **the same** work **as** I did last month.*

We can use adverbs such as *nearly*, *almost*, *exactly*, *just*, *more or less*, *much*, *virtually*, etc., before *the same*, as in

*They are **virtually** the same as other single cells.*

*That is the **very** same tune I heard yesterday. (Schibsbye, 1979)*

(In informal English, *as* is omitted after *the same*.)

Note that when the comparison is made of different time, that is, each tense is different; the omission of the verb in the *as*-clause is usually disallowed. Compare:

*I have **the same** opinion **as** you (**have**). (Omission of **have** is permissible.)*

*They are doing **the same** work **as** I **did** last month. (Omission of **did** is not allowed.)*

*This is **the same** tune **as** we heard yesterday. (Schibsbye, 1979)*

It is considered better English to use *as* after *the same*, rather than *that* (although it is permissible when identity is indicated): *He was wearing the same coat and hat that he had on when we met him five years ago. As must be used when no verb follows: His car cost the same (amount) as mine. He gave the same answer as before.*

2.5 *As many ... as, as much ... as*

We use uncountable nouns after *much* and countable nouns after *many* or we do not use them, as in

*They will need **as many books as** you can for the whole year.*

***As many** girls **as** he knew were teachers (formal).*

(More commonly: “All the girls he knew were teachers.”)

*He didn't catch **as many as** he'd hoped.*

*I don't have **as much money as** you think.*

*We can use **as much time as** we can.*

*I eat **as much as** I can every day.*

*I can rest **as much as** possible.*

*Yihan took **as much** (butter) **as** she wanted.*

2.6 *Adjectives/Adverbs ... than*

We usually do not use *more* in the comparison if the adjective or adverb is mono-syllable, as in

*It's much **easier** to get a divorce **than** it used to be.*

*It is a much **better** school **than** yours.*

*Yihan's **nicer than** her three sisters.*

*You are much **taller than** I (formal)/me (informal).*

*Yihan walks **faster than** I (formal)*

*Dian walks **faster than** me. (Me is used in informal style.)*

*It is **hotter today than** yesterday.*

*Nothing could give the girl **greater** pleasure **than** what you have just told her.*

*Are you really fifty? You look **no older than** thirty-five. (No means “not at all”.)*

*Rita is **worse today than** (she was) yesterday.*

*I am **happier than** Dian (is).*

*He is **older than** me/I.*

*He is **elder than** me/I

*Leilei is **younger than** Xinyi (is).*

*You are much **taller than** I (am).*

Cf. You are much taller than me. (*Me* used in informal English)

*He's even **lazier than** me!*

*The delay was far **longer than** he claimed.*

*He's been working much **harder than** I (have).*

*He walks **faster than** she (walks).*

**Xinyi is more older than Rita.*

Cf. Xinyi is older than Rita, and more older than Kayla Yao.

*I worked **harder than** Xinyi (did).*

** I worked harder than Xinyi **didn't**.*

(Negation is not normally used in comparative clause.)

*He studies **harder than** anyone else.*

*Ziling works **harder than** any other employee in her IT company.*

It is to be noted that when the *than*-clause is followed by an object case or a noun, and their meanings are not clear, we use subject case or *do* forms after *than* when the subject of the sentence is meant (also see *as ... as* in 2.1), as in,

*I know you **better than** he.*

(= I know you better than he knows you.)

*I like him **better than** James does.*

(= I like him better than James likes him.)

*I like him **better than** (I like) James. (I like both.)*

*I know you **better than** him. (I know both.)*

(= I know you better than (I know) him.)

*She works **harder than** me. (informal)*

(= She works harder than I.)

(= She works harder than I do.)

*They work **harder than** they did last year.*

However, *than* can be treated either as a preposition or as a conjunction. When the verb in the main clause is either a linking verb or an intransitive verb, *than* is a conjunction if the subject case is used; it is a preposition when the object case is used. If the verb is transitive, *than* is a conjunction (Huang, 1985). For example:

*Rita is **taller than** he (is). (conjunction)*

*Xinyi works **harder than** I (do). (conjunction)*

*Rita is **taller than** him. (preposition)*

*Xinyi works **harder than** me. (preposition)*

*I know you **better than** he (knows you). (conjunction)*

*I know you **better than** (I know) him. (conjunction)*

When we use comparatives, we usually compare the same things or elements. For example, *I am happier than you (are)*. Here it means we both are happy. *You speak English better than I (speak English)*. We both speak English. The thing/element in the comparative clause is the same, but it does not mean we always have the same thing/element in the comparative clause as that in the main clause; they can be different – comparison between two events, as in

*The house is **longer** than its **height**.* (Here *length* and *height* are two different things.)

*It's **hotter** than **warm**.* (Here *hot* and *warm* are different things.)

It could be rephrased: “Warm” is an inadequate word to describe the present temperature.

*Rita is **cleverer** than Leilei is **pretty**.*

*The sea is **deeper than** the mountains are **high**.*

*The beast runs even **faster than** the bird **flies**.*

*The teacher speaks **more** quickly **than** the students can **take notes**.*

*Xinyi knows **more** about painting **than** Ziling does about golf.*

*He is a **better** man **than** I took him for.*

*The work is much **more** difficult **than** (it) is generally realized (it is).*

2.7 Less ... than ..., more ... than ..., less than, more than

*His new house is **less** expensive **than** the one he bought last year.*

*Xinyi's **less** old **than** she looks.*

*I am **less** tall **than** Marlowe.*

*That's much **less** important **than** it was.*

*Mary is **less** young **than** Heishman (is).*

*John is **more/less** stupid **than** Bob (is).*

*John behaves **more/less** politely **than** Bob (does).*

*We scored three **more** goals **than** they (formal)/them (informal).*

(= We scored three more goals than they scored.)

*She speaks English **more** fluently **than** I (formal)/me (informal).*

*Some children are a lot **more** difficult **than** others.*

*You're even **more** beautiful **than** before.*

*I am feeling much/a great deal/a lot **more** healthy **than** I was.* (Leech et al., 1974)

* *I am feeling very **more** healthy **than** I was.* (We do not use *very* before *more*.)

*He got **more than** it is possible to get today.* (*More* is used as object of “got”.)

*Dogs are **more** faithful animals **than** cats.* (Schibsbye, 1979)

*The actual sum is **no greater than** what he asked for.*

*John is **more** English **than** the English.* (R Quirk et al., 1972)

(Note that here *English* refers to the way he behaves rather than nationality.)

*You make me laugh **more than** anybody I know.*

*Nothing could give the girl **greater** pleasure **than** what you have just told her.*

*Are you really fifty? You look **no older than** thirty-five.* (*No* means “not at all”.)

*He is **no more** a genius **than** I am.*

*I like him **more than** she (does).* (I like him more than she likes him.)

*I like him **more than** (I like) her.* (I like both.)

***More** accidents occur in the home **than** on the roads.* (R Quirk et al., 1972)

***More** people own houses **than** used to years ago.* (R Quirk et al., 1972)

(?***More** people **than** used to years ago own houses.)

In “*more A than B*” construction, the element in A can be infinitive, adverbial clauses, besides nouns (or noun phrases), adjectives, or adverbs, etc. For example: *Leilei wrote articles for the magazine more/rather to show off than to obtain pecuniary reward. Helen married Henry more/rather because he was rich than because he was a celebrity.* But some adjectives and adverbs expressing an extreme degree and the extreme on a scale never take comparison or compared for degree. For example, we do not say **more utter, *more utterly, ?more absolute, ?more complete, ?more extreme, ?more perfect, ?more total, etc* (R Quirk et al., 1972). The question mark? shows divided usage. However, we hear people say or write such as “*That is more perfect than expected,*” etc. Perfect is perfect, so there is no reason to say more perfect.

*He showed less pity **to his victims** than any other blackmailer in the history of crime.*

(R Quirk et al., 1972)

?**He showed less pity than any other blackmailer in the history of crime **to his victims**.*

Because *to his victims* in the above sentence is very awkward, we do not use like this.

2.7.1 Sometimes we omit both subject and verb in such cases, as in

*Yihan feels better today than (**she was**) when I saw her yesterday.*

*This building is taller than (**it is**) wide.*

*The girl is more shy than (**she is**) unsocial.*

*Some people think much more about their rights than (**they do**) about their duties.*

(Hornby, 1977)

*Nobody did more for education in this country than (**did**) the late Mr. Green.* (Hornby, 1977)

It is worse than useless.

He is worse than bad. (R Quirk et al., 1972)

But not: **She is better than bad.*

It is noted that when the elements are adjectives in comparison, they should belong to the same category. From the last sentences above, *bad* and *useless* belong to the same negative sense. *Good* and *bad* have opposite meaning with positive and negative in sense. They do not belong to the same category.

2.7.2 Ellipsis of the object cannot take place unless the verb too is ellipsed or replaced by DO (R Quirk et al., 1972). Or the reduction process may involve substitution (the use of pronouns and the pro-predication DO as well as ellipsis). For example:

*Xinyi studies English **harder than** Rita studies English.* (*Study* is a transitive verb.)
(= Xinyi studies English harder than Rita studies it.)
(Keep the verb, *studies*, and the object, *it*.)
(= Xinyi studies English harder than Rita does. *Does* is used.)
(= Xinyi studies English harder than Rita. Keep the subject, *Rita*, without *studies it*.)
Xinyi studies English **harder than Rita studies.* (We do not omit the object.)

But if the verb is an intransitive verb followed by prepositional object, we can retain the verb without the object or omit the object together with the verb. If you want to keep the verb in *than*-clause, in such a case, there are several ways of expression, as in

*Sandy knows more about science **than** Jean knows.* (without the object)
Or: *Sandy knows more about science **than** Jean does.* (*do*-from used)
Or: *Sandy knows more about science **than** Jean.* (without the object and the verb)

We should show the subject of the sentence after *than* in order to avoid ambiguity, as in

*I like her better than **he**.* (We both like her.)
*I like her better than **him**.* (I like both, but I like her better than I like him.)

Do forms are needed after *than* when the subject of the sentence is meant:

*Sandy likes Ashley **more than** Casey.* (ambiguous)
*Marlowe is **more fond of his secretary than his girlfriend**.* (ambiguous)

The above sentences are ambiguous. Let's look at the first one. *Does Sandy like both? Or does Sandy like Ashley more than Casey likes Ashley?* If it means the latter, we usually use a *do* form: *Sandy likes Ashley more than Casey does* (= Casey also likes Ashley). We can re-write the second sentence: *Marlowe is more fond of his secretary than his girlfriend is* (if you mean *Marlowe and his girlfriend both are fond of his secretary*). When you omit *is*, it probably means *Marlowe is fond of both – his secretary and his girlfriend. He loves the dog more than his wife*. This is another ambiguous sentence. *Does he love both - the dog and his wife?* If it means both he and his wife love the dog, we add a *do* form after *than*-clause in *He loves the dog more than his wife does*. In *I love him more than she*, we both love him. In *I love him more than her*, I love both of them. If there is no ambiguity for the use of pronouns in meaning, either subject case or object case is used, e.g. *She speaks English better than him/he*. Either *him* (informal) or *he* (formal) is acceptable. Sometimes we omit both subject and verb in such cases, as in

*Rita feels **better** today **than** (she was) when I saw her yesterday.*
*The girl is **more** shy **than** (she is) unsocial.*
*Some people think much **more** about their rights **than** (they do) about their duties.*

(Hornby,1977)

*Nobody did **more** for education in this country **than** (did) the late Mr. Green.* (Hornby,1977)

2.7.3 When the comparative clause ends with a prepositional, the prepositional cannot be ellipted, as in

*He's a better man than I took him **for**.* (R Quirk et al., 1972)

When the main verb is not the same as the one in the *than*-clause, we can retain the verb in the *than*-clause, or we retain the infinitive sign *to* if it is followed by the infinitive as the object of the verb in the *than*-clause, but we keep *to be* when *be* is used in the main clause, as in

*You spent more money **than we intended that you should spend**.* (R Quirk et al., 1972)

(*Spent* and *intended* are different verbs. The object *money* is omitted after *spend* in the *than*-clause.)

(= You spent more money *than we intended that you should*.)

(= You spent more money *than we intended*.)

*Ogden played the piano **more** skillfully **than** his fellow-countryman conducted the orchestra.*

(R. Quirk et al., 1972)

*I felt **more** miserable **than** I can say (that) I felt.*

Or: I felt more miserable *than I can say*.

*Marlowe caught **more** fish **than** I expected (that) he would catch.*

Or: Marlowe caught more fish than I expected (that) he would.

Or: Marlowe caught more fish than I expected.

*Xinyi is a **greater** singer **than** people supposed (she is).*

*He gets more orders than we ever manage **to**.* (R Quirk et al., 1972)

*She enjoyed it much more than I expected her **to**.*

*I get up earlier than I ought **to*** (get up). (Here *to* has to be retained because of *ought to*.)

*Lucy was more beautiful than I imagined her **to be**.*

(Because *was* is used in the main clause, *to be* is kept in *than*-clause.)

*He is older than people suppose him **to be**.*

2.7.4 We sometimes omit the *than* part, and keep only *the more* part when necessary. For example, “*I feel better/worse. She is better. Her dress is more beautiful, etc.*”

R Quirk et al. (1972) stated “When the comparative clause contains an anticipatory *it* construction, not only is the whole nominal clause removed, but the *it* as well.” For example,

*You spent **more** money **than was intended**.*

He eats ***more than** (what) is good for him*.

*You arrived **earlier than** (it was) usual/necessary (for you to arrive).*

*They came **earlier than** (was) expected.* (Ge, 1965)

*We must not have **more** furniture in our room **than** (is) required for convenience.*

*The casualties were **heavier than (it) was reported (they were)**.*
*The work is much **more difficult than (it) is generally realized (it is)**.*

Ge (1962) pointed out that the *than* in the *than*-clause is used as subject of the verb. R. Quirk et al. (1972) stated, “This type of correlation with qualifiers can involve the comparative, in which case the item corresponding to a relative pronoun is *than*.” For example:

*I wish I could write English with **more freedom than is at present possible**.* (Ge, 1962)
*You seem to take a **keener** interest in the subject **than has been ever been shown before**.*
*He played the piano much **better than could have expected**.*
*We were kept waiting **longer than was absolutely necessary**.*
*The town offers **better** cultural advantages **than has been generally supposed**.*
*When he resumed reading he thought he had got **further on than was actually the case**.*
*That morning we drank **more** tea **than has been our custom**.*
*She found the house much **more** luxuriously furnished **than suited her purpose**.*
*He smoked **more/fewer** cigarettes **than** were normally available.*

Although the *than* is used in such cases as a relative pronoun, “...the comparative qualification relates not to the noun but to the degree of an adjective modifying it” (R Quirk et al., 1972): *He smokes more/less expensive cigarettes than he can afford*. Huang (1985) pointed out that “... the correlated words *more* and *than* practically have the meaning *in excess of what*, where *what* is a compound relative pronoun.” He gave us the examples: *Don’t use more words than (i.e. use words in excess of what) is necessary*. *He has more books than (i.e. has books in excess of what) he can read*. *John won’t do more than (i.e. do anything in excess of what) is required of him*. *This is more than (i.e. is in excess of what) we can tolerate*. Besides, if logic permits, *than* as a relative pronoun may be given a plural construction: *He smokes more cigarettes than (i.e. smokes cigarettes in excess of those which) he was rationed to*. *There were present more people than (i.e. were present people in excess of those who) were/was expected*.

2.7.5 We use *more A than B ...* construction to describe something not considering comparisons of degree and amount when we compare two qualities. We keep A as ordinary form. Huang (1985) called it “quasi-comparison”, as in

*That is **more** good **than** bad.* (Huang, 1985)
(=It is more accurate to say that he is good than that he is bad.)
*He was **more** like an animal **than** a human being.*
*They pulled him out of the water **more** dead **than** alive.*
*Yihan was **more** angry **than** frightened.*
*The girl is **more** shy than **unsocial**.* (*Shy* and *unsocial* are different things.)
*She is **more** mad **than** stupid.*
*I was **more** sad **than** angry.* (Eastwood, 2002)
Cf. I was sad rather than angry. (The same meaning as *I was not so much angry as sad*.)

Rita is **more** wise **than** honest.

This medicine does **more** good **than** harm.

Cf. It is good rather than harm.

*This medicine does better than harm.

The police pulled her out of the car **more** alive **than** dead.

Cf. She was alive rather than dead when the police pulled her out of the car.

She is **more** happy **than** sad.

Cf. She is happy rather than sad.

Xinyi is **more** mad **than** Rita is.

He is **more** scholar **than** teacher. (No indefinite article is used)

She is **more** good **than** bad.

= It is more accurate to say that she is good rather than that she is bad.

*She is better than good.

Rita is **more** proud **than** vain.

This window is **more** wide **than** high.

She is **more** hungry **than** thirsty.

*She is hungrier than thirsty.

*Leilei was **angrier** **than** frightened.

Lelei is **more** kind **than** intelligent.

2.7.6 Note that *more ... than* and *less... than* or *more than* and *less than* do not necessarily introduce comparative clauses when *than* (a preposition, R Quirk et al., 1972) is followed by a clear noun phrase of measures or degree (i.e. mile, pound, etc.) of comparison. They are not comparative clauses, "... *than*" construction acting like an adjective, as in

She weighs less than 100 pounds.

He weighs more than 150 pounds.

The car goes faster than 80 miles per hour.

There are more than fifty men in that house.

This suit cost me more than 250 dollars.

Rita has more than thirty employees in her company.

*More than one person has (*have – because of the subject, one person) protested against it.*

2.7.7 When *more than* is used adverbially, it expresses emphasis, and it is not comparative anymore. After the *than*-clause, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, and prepositional phrases can be used (also see 2.7.8 below), as in

You are more than welcome.

Rita is more than satisfied.

I am more than sad about it.

Cf. I am very sad about it.

Xinyi is more than happy about it.

(=Xinyi is happy about it to a degree that is not adequately expressed by the word *happy*.)
*Leilei was **more than** slightly hurt.*

2.7.8 *Than* followed by a noun clause or noun phrase, a noun, an adjective, an adverb, or an infinitive, as in

*He got more than (**what**) **he asked for.** (a noun clause)*

*She's lazier than **ever.** (*Ever* is an adverb.)*

(= She's lazier than she ever was.)

*He is taller than (*he was*) **last year.** (*Last year* is a noun phrase used adverbially.)*

*She'll enjoy more than (*she did*) **last week.***

*He knows better than **to go out** alone on such a night. (infinitive)*

He knew *better than **to mention** the subject to her.* (Hornby, 1977)

*I am wiser than **to believe that.** (infinitive)*

*Rita is wiser than **to waste** much time over such trifles.*

*You might do worse **than do as he does.** (bare infinitive)*

*I could hardly do less **than wait.** . (bare infinitive)*

*More people go to work **by bus** than (*go to work*) **by bicycle.** (prepositional phrase)*

*That is more than **fine:** it is excellent. (adjective)*

*She is more than **pretty:** she was beautiful. (adjective)*

*He was more than **clever:** he was a great artist. (adjective) L.X.H, 1982)*

*We have more than **enough.***

If contrast or emphasis is connoted by such infinitives, *to* must be repeated: *it was better to laugh than to cry.* (Schibsbye, 1979)

2.7.9 Sometimes the ellipsis of the whole *than*-clause occurs when no ambiguity arises, as in

*You are getting **slimmer** (*than you were*).*

*She is looking **better** (*than you were (looking)*).*

*That boy is getting **fatter.***

When we repeat the comparative thing, *than* is not allowed to be used in such cases, as in

*We are getting **better and better.***

We are getting better and better **than we were ten years ago.*

*We are **more and more** interested in it.*

We are more and more interested in it **than ever.* (Ge, 1965)

*The people became **less and less** superstitious.*

The people became **less and less superstitious **than** in the beginning of the century.*

In *better and better*, *more and more* or *less and less*, they connote the meaning of *than*.

Grammatically speaking, we can change the last two sentences, respectively, into "We are more

and more more interested in it than ever.” “The people became more and more less superstitious than in the beginning of the century (Ge, 1965). Practically speaking, we have never used that use; it is very awkward.

2.8 *Less than*

It is to be noted that when *less than* is used before an adjective, it expresses a negative idea. In such a case it is not a comparison, e.g. *Doctors have been less than successful in treating this condition.*

2.9 *The ..., the ...*

We also use *the ..., the ...* with comparatives. This construction indicates a parallel increase or decrease, as in

The sooner/the earlier you start, the sooner/the earlier you'll finish.

The more you read, the more you understand.

The longer the journey (is), the more expensive the ticket (is).

The further you travel, the more you pay.

The older you get, the more difficult it becomes to find a job.

The more you talk, the less people like you.

The longer you stay, the more she likes you.

The higher the ground, the cooler the air.

The greater the loss, the more persistent they were.

The more haste, the less speed.

The later you arrive, the worse is the food.

It is to be noted that the inversion of subject and verb may be used in the main clause as seen from the last sentence above. Besides, we have some fixed expression found in proverbs and common sayings, as in

The more, the merrier. (Roughly it means “The more there are of us, the merrier we are.”)

The more, the better.

The sooner the better.

The earlier the better.

Least said, soonest mended. (with the omission of the definite article, *the*)

More haste, less speed. (with the omission of the definite article, *the*)

We use *should* in the clauses of comparison when *than that* (Hornby, 1977) is used, as in

It is more important that the explanation should be clear than that it should cover every possible exception.

There is nothing I want more than that you should be happy and contented.

I am ready to do the work myself rather than that you should have to do it.

2.10 *Than what*

After *than*, *what* as the subject or object is omitted in educated English (also see the omission of *it* in 2.7.4):

*He won more immediate support in the conference **than might** have been expected.*

(Schibsbye, 1979)

*He accomplished more **than what was expected of him**.* (colloquial speech)

*She can run better **than what** I can.* (uneducated speech, Schibsbye, 1979)

*You have talked more than **is necessary**.*

*I have done more than **is required by the law**.*

*He eats more than **(what) is good for him**.*

*He eats more than **(what) he can digest**.*

*This is more than **(what) I can say**.*

*He got more than **(what) he asked for**.*

2.11 Comparison with noun phrases: *more of a, etc*

We often use noun phrases to modify gradable nouns (i.e. *success, fool, coward, etc.*) in the clauses of comparison with *more of a, as much of a, less of a, etc.*, as in

*He's **more of a sportsman than** his brother.*

*It was **as much of a success as** I expected (it would be).*

*She's **less of a fool than** I thought (she was).*

2.12 *Junior to, etc*

It is noted that a number of comparatives come from Latin such as *inferior, junior, posterior, prior, senior, and superior, etc.* We can use *much* in comparison, and if not, we can use *very*, if their meaning requires, but we do not use *than*, we use *to* instead in comparison, as in

*This wine is **very inferior** stuff.*

*This cloth is **much superior to** that. (*This cloth is superior *than* that.)*

*Yihan is **senior (junior) to** me.*

*His arrival was **prior to** my departure.*

*The machine is technically **inferior to** Western models.*

3

Adverbial Clauses of Concession

Adverbial clauses of concession (also called *contrast clauses* by some grammarians (i.e. Leech, et al., 1974). “Concessive clauses imply a contrast between two circumstances; i.e. that in the light of circumstance in the dependent clause, that in the main clause is surprising: *Although he hadn't eaten for days, he looked strong and healthy*” (R Quirk, et al. 1972). They are usually introduced by *admitting (that), although, and, as, despite the fact that, even if, even though* (slightly more emphatic than *though*), *for all, for all that, granted (that), granting (that), however, if, in spite of the fact that, much as (= although), no matter + wh-word (= it doesn't*

matter + *wh*-word), *not that* (usually used after a main clause, = although ... not), *notwithstanding*, *notwithstanding the fact that*, *only*, *or*, *regardless of the fact that*, *though*, *whereas*, *whether... (or)*, *while*, *whilst* (not used in AmE), *wh-word + ever* (= whatever, wherever, whenever, whoever, etc). The adverbial clause of concession may be placed before or after the main clause or sometimes after the subject of the main clause. Non-finites, some prepositions, or prepositional phrases, etc. are also introduced in this chapter.

3.1 *Although, though*

When the subordinate clause introduced by *although* is placed before the main clause, it emphasizes the meaning of the main clause, whereas the clause is placed after the main clause, it emphasizes the meaning of the subordinate clause, e.g.

Although Yihan joined the company only a year ago, she's already been promoted twice.

(=Yihan joined the company only a year ago, but she's already been promoted twice.)

Although the car is old it runs well. (Hornby,1997)

Although Rita has lived for ten years in Las Vegas, she never goes to casinos.

*They are generous **although** they are poor.* (R Quirk,1978)

*Their tent, **though** light as a feather, remained firm.*

It is noted that when adverbial clauses of concession denote fact or something factual, indicative mood is usually used in the subordinate clause; when something in reference to the present or future supposition, *were* or *were to do* form (subjunctive mood), or *should + infinitive* is used in the subordinate clause in formal style, e.g.

*He didn't light the fires **though/although it was cold.*** (indicative)

Although Ben is only ten, he plays the guitar beautifully. (indicative)

*Though he **stand /should stand** alone, he will never yield.* (*stand* - subjunctive)

Although and *though* have the same meaning, and they can be interchangeable, but *though* (= the conjunction, *but*) can be used as an adverb, which can be placed at the end of the clause. In such a case, *may* is possible to be used in an *although*-clause with a shift of emphasis as shown below.

May is used to introduce a concession: "I concede that ...", "I grant that ...," as in

Although James has lived for five years in France, he does not speak French well.

(Hornby, 1977)

*James **may** have lived for five years in France, **but** he does not speak French well.*

Although Ben is only ten, he plays the guitar beautifully.

*Ben **may** only be ten, **but** he plays the guitar beautifully.*

From the above sentences, Hornby (1977) pointed out that "Here the speaker puts more emphasis on the concession in the first part of the sentence and then draws attention the fact that, in spite of what has been conceded, Ben plays the guitar well."

*He didn't light the fires **though/although** it was cold.*

*I found my lost iPhone, **though** it was damaged.*

Cf. I found my lost iPhone. It was damaged, *though*. (*Though* used as adverb)

*I found my lost iPhone, **but** it was damaged.*

However, *although* is more emphatic in tone than *though* in the clause of concession. *Though* can be used together with *even*, but *although* can't. When *although* is used, *but* cannot be used in the main clause, but *yet* is used instead, e.g.

*He insisted on doing it **although** I wanted him not to.*

***Although** Kayla Yao is poor, she is **nevertheless** happy.*

*They were able to find a room **although/even though** they didn't have a reservation.*

***Although/Even though** the traffic held us up, we got to the airport on time.*

Note: *Even though* is more emphatic than *although*. (But not **Even although the traffic...*)

*He was tired, **but** he continued to work. (But denotes contrast.)*

*He was tired, **but** he continued to work, **though**. (But denotes contrast.)*

*He was tired, **but yet** he continued to work.*

Note *but* in the above sentence is the coordinator while *yet* is the conjunct.

He was tired, **but though he continued to work. (incorrect)*

****Although** he was tired, **but** he continued to work. (incorrect)*

***Although/Though** he was tired, **yet** he continued to work.*

(*Yet* is used to reinforce the concession in the second clause.)

*Rita will probably agree, **though** you never know. (Here *though* is equal to a weak *but*.)*

***Though** he is poor, he is satisfied with his condition.*

(Poverty is presupposed as given information.)

He is poor, **yet** he is satisfied with his condition. (Poverty is a fact.)

We can disuse *though* or *although* after we use *yet* in the main clause. From last two sentences, R Quirk et al. (1972) mentioned that "The major difference is that the second states his poverty as a fact, whereas in the first his poverty is presupposed as given information." The subject can be left out after **yet** in informal spoken English, as in

*They didn't like it, **yet** (they) said nothing.*

In reference to supposition (subjunctive), *though* is usually used rather than *although*, e.g.

***Though** the entire world **were** against me, I should still hold to my opinion.*

***Though** everyone **desert** you, I will not. (subjunctive in the subordinate clause)*

*Let's start as arranged **though** it **rain** tomorrow. (subjunctive in the subordinate clause)*

***Though** he **stand** /should stand alone, he will never yield.*

(*stand*, subjunctive in the subordinate clause)

Note that participles or a noun phrase can be used in an *although*-clause or *though*-clause, forming a verbless clause, as in

(Al)though impressing the examiners, he nevertheless failed. (R. A. Close, 1977)

Though never defeated in battle, they finally surrendered. (*ibid*)

(= Though they were never defeated in battle, they finally surrendered.)

(Al)though a lawyer by training, he became a great soldier (*ibid*)

(= (Al)though he was a lawyer by training, he became a great soldier.)

Though (she was) already middle-aged, Yihan was very pretty.

It is noted that when *though* is used as conjunct in informal style, it is placed at either the middle or the end, of the sentence, separated by a comma; whereas *although* cannot. In such cases, *though* means about the same as “nevertheless” or “all the same.” e.g.

He is poor. He is satisfied with his condition, though. (more formal)

(= He is poor – *though* he is satisfied with his condition.) (R Quirk et al., 1972)

Although/Though he is poor, he is satisfied with his condition.

*He is poor. *He is satisfied with his condition, although.*

(*Although* cannot be used like this because it is not a conjunct.)

He is a dangerous element; there is no reason, though, to shoot him.

Xinyi is very rich. She's made her money quite honestly, though.

Huang (1985) pointed that “...while *though* is a little more colloquial, *although* is felt to be stronger than *though*. So when emphasis is desired, *although* is used in preference to *though*.” “*Though* (not *although*) can mean *however* and be put at the end of the clause.” For example:

I haven't had the news verified; I think it's true, though.

He will probably agree; you never know, though.

He said he would come; he didn't, though.

I haven't had the news verified, but I think it's true, though.

But can be used this way together with *though*. The adverbial nature of this end is “evident”.

3.2 *Even if, even so, even though, for all, if, only, etc*

When *even if* or *even though* (more emphatic than *although*) is used to introduce adverbial clauses of concession, they usually have the same meaning to emphasize the concept of concession. However, *even though* emphasizes the idea of contrast between the two clauses (main clause and *if*-clause), and also implies “in that as well as every other circumstance” (R.A. Close 1975). *Even if* adds the idea of contrast to an *if*-clause and implies “under that as well as every other condition”, e.g.

Even if you lock the car, they will still tow it away.

I'll do it, even if it takes me all the afternoon.

I shouldn't have time to see him even if he were here. (*were* - subjunctive)

Even if she were to object, that would not change matters. (were - subjunctive)

*Rita wouldn't give me the money, **even if/even though** I begged her for it.*

***Even if** invited, I won't go.*

***Even if** the weather is bad tomorrow, we will still go shopping.*

***Even though**(*Even although) he sat next to me, we never said a word to each other.*

Note: *Even though* is slightly more emphatic than *although* or *though*.

***Even though** (or, **Though**) all the world were against me, I should still hold to my opinion.*

(Huang,1985)

*The statutes, **if** not good, are tolerable.*

***If** he is a little stupid, he is at any rate diligent. (Huang, 1985)*

*She's a very nice lady. **Even so**, I really don't like her.*

(*Even so* means *however* or *in spite of that*.)

***For all** her skill (= Despite her great skill), she has accomplished very little.*

***For all** (that) he had worked hard, he failed.*

***For all** his wealth, that man is not happy.*

(= Although he is wealthy, that man is not happy.)

***For all** you say, I still like her.*

(=Whatever you may say/No matter what you say/Say what you will about her, I still like her.)

Note that a present participle can be used in *even if* clause, as in

***Even if** telling him what to do next, you will still be unhappy.*

Note that *being* + *past participles* cannot be used in the clauses introduced by *if*, *(al)though*, and *even if* (R. A. Close,1977), as in

***Even if** (I am) invited, I won't go.*

*Even if *being invited*, I won't go. (incorrect)

(Al)though (I was) invited, I didn't go.

*(Al)though *being invited*, I didn't go. (incorrect)

The coordinate *only* shares (Huang,1985) “the contrastive meaning of the coordinator *but* and the concessive meaning of the subordinator *though*, and may be said to be equivalent to a weak *but* in the sense ‘it must, however, be added that’.” For example:

*The book is likely to be useful, **only** it's rather expensive.*

*Rita is always ready to promise help, **only** she never keeps her promises.*

*Xinyi makes good resolutions, **only** she never carries them out.*

3.3 As, that, though

Adverbial clauses of concession are introduced by *as*, *that*, and *though*. When the complement is an adjective, we can use *as* instead of *though* without changing the meaning. In formal style or

English literature, the complement or the adverbial (adjective or adverb or noun) is placed before the subject to express emphasis for the concession in an *as*-clause or *though*-clause, e.g.

Rich as he is, I don't envy him.

(= I don't envy him, even though he is rich.)

(= No matter how rich he is, I don't envy him.)

(= However rich he is, I don't envy him.)

Tall as he was, he couldn't reach the apples.

Stupid as it sounds, I believed Xinyi.

Good as she is, she will never be top of her class.

(= Although she is a good student, she will never be on top of her class.)

Unbelievable as it was, they actually welcomed me.

Difficult as the task was, they managed to accomplish it on time.

Clever though/as you may be (= Even though you are clever), *you cannot do that.*

Difficult as/though/*although the task was (Though the task was difficult), *they managed to accomplish it on time.* (Here *though* is not replaceable by *although*.)

Strange as it may seem, nobody was injured in the fire. (Leech et al., 1974)

(= Even though it may seem strange, nobody was injured in the fire.)

Harmless as this speech appeared to be, it acted on the traveler's distrust, like oil on fire.

Much as I like her, her losing temper with no reason really gets on my nerves.

(= Even though I like her very much, her losing temper with no reason really gets on my nerves.)

Much as we admire Shakespeare's comedies, we cannot agree that they are superior to his tragedies.

Much as I would like to help, your arrogance and dishonesty stop me.

Much as he admired her, he had no wish to marry her.

(= Although he admired her very much, he has no wish to marry her.)

Much as I would like to help, I have other work I must do.

(= Even though I would like to help very much,)

In the above sentence, the use of *much as* has stronger feeling or desire than that of *although*.

Much as I admire the film, I'll not go to see it again.

Much as I like Las Vegas, I can't live there, because it is scorching hot in summer.

Much as I would like to help, you won't be successful.

*Xinyi's team were unable to handle the tough condition, **hard though they tried.***

3.3.1 When the complement in the *as*-clause is placed before the subject, the indefinite article is not used, e.g.

Teacher as John is, he is not capable of teaching all subjects. (*A teacher as John is,)

(= Although John is a teacher, he is not capable of teaching all subjects.)

Child as he is, he knows a lot about math. (*A child as he is,)

(=Even though he is a child, he knows a lot about math.)

Fool that I was, I took his word for it. (No indefinite article *a* is used before *fool*.)
Coward as he was, he ran to attack the bad guy. (*A coward as he was,)
 (= Even though/Although he was a coward, he ran to attack the bad guy.)
Great character as my father was, he has long since lost touch with his own boyhood.
 (Schibsbye, 1979)
 (*A great character as my father was, he has)
Indefatigable amorist as he was, he fell violently in love with her.
 (*An Indefatigable amorist as he was, he fell)

Like the use of *as* in this case, *though* and *that* are used to introduce adverbial clauses of concession, too, as in

Strong man that he is, he has been severely put to test during the past few weeks.
 (= Though he is a strong man,) (No indefinite article *a* before *strong*.)
Clever though/as you may be (= Even though you are clever), you cannot do that.
Difficult as/though/*although the task was (Though the task was difficult), *they managed to accomplish it on time.* (Here *though* is not replaceable by *although*.)
Strange though/as it may seem, nobody was injured in the fire.
Young as/though she will always seem to me, she is...
Young though he is, he knows a lot about the world.
Astute business man though he was, Marlowe was capable of making mistakes.
 Note no article *an* is used before *astute* due to the inversion.
Strange thought it may seem, he's never been to Las Vegas.
Michael, fool as/that he was, completely ruined the dinner. (R quirk et al., 1972)
 (= Since he was a fool/Being a fool, Michael completely ruined the dinner.)

When *that* or *as* used in that position from the above sentences, it has the meaning of cause. The last sentence above is paraphrased as “*Since he was a fool/Being a fool, Michael completely ruined the dinner.*” Here *that* is the more common than *as* if a noun (e.g. *fool, character* and *amorist* above) is used, but *as* is the more common than *that* if an adjective or adverb or verb (also see some examples in 3.3.2) is used, as in

Child that he was, he knew what right thing was to do. (= Although he was a child,)
 (*Child* is a noun. No indefinite article *a* is used before *child*.)
Fool that I was, I took his word for it.
 (*Fool* is a noun. No indefinite article *a* is used before *fool*.)
Strong man that he is, he has been severely put to test during the past few weeks.
 (= Though he is a strong man,) (No indefinite article *a* before *strong man*.)
Much as I would like to help, you won't be successful. (*Much* is an adverb.)
Unbelievable as it was, they actually welcomed me. (*Unbelievable* is an adjective.)
Detest him as we may, we must acknowledge his greatness. (*Detest* is a verb.)

3.3.2 Sometimes in such clauses introduced by *as*, *though*, *or*, or the *verb + object + subject* construction, part or whole or the subject complement of the predicate is placed before the subject in formal style or English literature (but not with *that*), e.g.

Sneer unkindly though you may, *John is very popular.* (*Sneer* is a bare infinitive with adverb.)

(= Although you may sneer unkindly, John is very popular.)

Object as you may, *I will still do that.* (*Object* is a bare infinitive.)

Economize as he would, *the earnings from hack-work did not balance expenses.*

(*Economize* is a bare infinitive.)

Search as they would, *they could find nobody in the house.* (*Search* is a bare infinitive.)

Much as/though I admire him, *I cannot excuse his faults.* (*Much* is an adverb.)

Hard as/though they worked, *they could scarcely earn wages enough to make both ends meet.* (*Hard* is an adverb.)

Fail though I did, *I never gave up.* (*Fail* is a bare infinitive.)

Wait as he did, *however, Carrie did not come.* (Rayevska, 1976)

Change your mind as you will, *she will still love you very much.* (*Change* is a bare infinitive with object.)

Detest him as we may, *we must acknowledge his greatness.* (*Detest* is a bare infinitive with object.)

(= Even if we may detest him, we must acknowledge his greatness.)

Try as he does, *he will never succeed.* (*Try* is a bare infinitive.)

Try as she will, *she will never make it.*

Try as she may/might, *she will never complete the project.*

Try as you will, *you won't manage it.* (Hornby, 1977)

(= However hard you may try, you won't manage it.)

Strange though it may seem, *he's never been to Las Vegas.*

Moist as was his brow, tremble as did his hand once after the nameless fright, *he was still flushed with fumes of liquor.* (Rayevska, 1976)

Stupid as it sounds, *I believe her.* (*Stupid* is an adjective.)

Astute business man though he was, *Marlowe was capable of making mistakes.*

Be he friend or enemy, *the law regards him as a criminal.*

(No article is used before friend/enemy.)

*We cannot receive him, **be he who he may.***

Rain or shine, *we will go swimming.* (Also see 3.7.1)

Sink or swim, *I will try.*

3.4 Wh-word + -ever, no matter + wh-word

Whatever, *whoever*, *whomever* (used in literary), *whosever* (rare used), *however*, *whenever*, *wherever*, *whichever*, *while*, *whereas*, are used to introduce adverbial clauses of concession or condition. Some grammarians call such clauses as conditional-concessive clauses because they

are interwoven with each other in the introduction of adverbial clauses of condition or concession.

3.4.1 *May* or *might* + *infinitive* construction is preferred for the expression of adverbial clauses of concession in formal and literary style in addition to the use of plain verbs, as in

However annoying his behavior may be, we cannot get rid of him.

However he tries, he will never succeed.

However hard-working she is/may be, she will never be appreciated.

However much he may admire her, he is unlikely to ask her to be his wife.

(= Although he perhaps admires her very much, he is unlikely to ask her to be his wife.)

However often you ring, no one will answer.

(= Although/Even if you often ring, no one will answer.)

Wherever he is / he may be, he must be found.

Whoever he may be, he will be in jail if he commits a crime.

However hard he tries, he will never succeed.

Xinyi was lively and talkative, ***whereas*** Leilei was quiet and reserved.

Keep clam, ***whatever happens***.

I cannot see anyone ***whatever***.

(Here *whatever* is used in negation as a means of emphasis, i.e. *at all*.)

Whenever you ask him to go shopping with you, he won't go.

Whoever it is, we must know the result.

She was angry with ***whoever opposed her***. (a noun clause used as the object of *with*)

Whoever it is, I mean to have it. (Schibsbye, 1979)

Whoever's book it is, I will buy it. (colloquial)

Whoever it is, we must know the result.

However great the difficulties (are), you must complete the task in time.

However great the pitfalls (are), we must do our best to succeed. (R Quirk et al., 1972)

Whatever your problems (are), they can't be worse than mine.

Whatever his apartment (is), he is not the man to be preferred.

Whatever your problems (are), they can't be worse than mine.

It is noted that in the restricted circumstances where the subject is a noun phrase, the verb *be* can be omitted as seen from the last three sentences above.

Whatever faults you may have had, meanness was not one of them. (Hornby, 1977)

(=Although he perhaps has some faults, meanness was not one of them.)

Whatever you may say, no one will listen to you.

Whatever happens/may happen, you will be always glad that you tried to do your best.

(=Although there may be failure, disappointment, etc., you will be always glad that you tried to do your best.)

Whichever way you do it, it's hard work. (Sinclair et al., 2017)

Whichever you decide, I'm sure it will be just fine.

Whichever you buy, there is a six-month guarantee.

Take whichever hat suits you best. (“Whichever ...” is a noun clause used as object of *take*.)

We'll eat whichever restaurant has a free table.

Whatever happens, I will go.

Xinyi looks pretty, whatever she wears.

(= No matter what Xinyi wears, she looks pretty.)

Note that we use present tenses in the main clause and subordinate clauses for the truth as seen from the last sentence above. The sentence implies “Xinyi looks pretty even if she wears ugly clothes.”

3.4.2 *-soever*

Schibsbye (1979) pointed out “Forms with *-soever* instead of *-ever* belong to rhetorical language: *he welcomed **whosoever** came / you have no evidence **whatsoever** / my father's example has guided me through life more strongly than that of any other person **whatsoever**.*”
“*Even if you achieve gigantic successes in your work, there is no reason **whatsoever** to be conceited.*”

3.4.3 *No matter + wh-words*

When adverbial clauses introduced by *whenever* and *wherever*, they are also used to express adverbial clauses of time and place. In such cases, *no matter when ...* and *no matter where ...* may be used to emphasize the meaning of adverbial clauses of concession instead of the meaning of adverbial clauses of place. The verb *be* can be omitted from the clause. A clause beginning with *no matter* could also be placed after the main clause (see the last three sentences below). In spoken English, *no matter + wh-word* are often used, e.g.

No matter when I reminded him of the matter, he never paid attention to it.

(= Whenever I reminded him of the matter, he never paid attention to it.)

(= It doesn't matter when I reminded him of the matter, he never paid attention to it.)

No matter where I go (=Wherever I go), a group of people always follow me.

No matter what I did (= Whatever I did), no one paid any attention.

No matter when and how the invaders come, they will be wiped out clean.

No matter whether or not you like it, you'll have to do it.

It is true, no matter what you may say.

Don't believe the rumor, no matter who (= whoever) repeats it.

You are not responsible, no matter who caused the accident.

It is noted that in spoken English, *It doesn't matter/It doesn't make any difference who/what, etc.*, is used to introduce the adverbial clause of concession, e.g.

It doesn't matter what he may say, I am going to do it.

(= Whatever he may say, I am going to do it.)

(= No matter what he may say, I am going to do it.)

(= It doesn't make any difference what he may say, I am going to do it.)

It doesn't matter whether you like it or not, you'll have to do it.

(= No matter whether or not you like it, you'll have to do it.)

(= Whether or not you like it, you'll have to do it.)

It is to be noted that *wh*-words +*ever*, etc., are different in meaning from *wh*-words followed by *ever*. The former is used as one word to express concession as stated above, the latter *ever* is used separately from *wh*-words to express surprise, admiration, anger, or the other emotion. In such cases, *ever* can be replaced with the same meaning in informal occasions by *on earth*, *the hell*, *in the world*, *the devil*, etc., with a strong tone, as in

How ever did you talk to her like that? (It may express surprise or anger.)

Who ever was that guy talking to you so rudely just now? (expressing anger)

What ever do you say about him?

Why ever didn't you tell me you got divorced?

What on earth are you talking about?

How on earth did you manage to do that?

Who in the world is that fellow?

What the hell are you doing now? (expressing anger, upset, and unsatisfied tone)

3.5 In the construction of verb + *what* + subject

The following construction is used especially with *may*, *might*, *will*, and *would* when the verb is placed before the subject, as in

Come what may, we must remain calm.

(= Whatever may come or happen, we must remain calm.)

Come what may (=Whatever may happen), I will go.

Try what you will (would) there is no helping here.

Say what you will, I shall trust to my own judgement.

(= Whatever you may say, I shall trust to my own judgement.)

Say what you may (might) I shall have my own way.

Say what I would (= No matter what I would say), he refused to go.

3.6 *Whereas/while*

When *while* is used to introduce adverbial clauses of concession to show that you partly agree with, or accept something but not completely, the meaning is tantamount to that of an *although*-clause, it can be replaced by *whereas*, but the adverbial clause of concession introduced by *while* is usually placed before the main clause, e.g.

While you may be right, I can't altogether agree. (concession)

While he appreciated the honor, he could not accept the position. (concession)

While he was yet in unspeakable agonies, the dwarf renewed their conversation.

(Rayevska, 1976) (concession)

The air in the countryside is pure, while (= whereas) the atmosphere in the town is stale and polluted. (contrast)

I'm right-handed whereas/while Rita is left-handed.

(contrast, usually placed after the main clause)

The USA has immense mineral wealth, while/whereas Britain has comparatively little.

(R Quirk et al., 1972) (contrast)

Attention must be paid to the use of *while*. *While* is used as a conjunction to introduce adverbial clauses of time and concession; *while* can be also used as coordinator (the meaning of which is the same as that of *but*), it depending on the context. Compare:

While I understand what you say, I can't agree with you. (concession)

While I was reading, the light was off. (time)

While in applied physics we hold our own, in applied chemistry we have lost much ground. (contrast)

3.7 Whether ... or...

The clauses introduced by *whether ...or* or *whether ... or not...* or *whether or not ...* are also called alternative conditional-concessive clauses due to the fact that there are two or more condition-concession in the clauses to choose. Sometimes subjunctive mood is used in clauses. Verbless clauses are also introduced by a subordinator, as in

Whether he drives or (whether he) takes the train, he'll be here on time.

He said it didn't matter whether we stayed or not.

We'll resolutely wipe out the intruders whether they come from the land, the sea, or the air.

Whether I go home, or whether he go(es) with me, the result will be the same.

Whether he succeed(s), or fail(s), we shall have to do our part.

You will have to face the publicity, whether you want to or not. (R Quirk et al., 1972)

(= You will have to face the publicity even if you don't want to.)

The book will be ready for him whether he comes or not.

(=The book will be ready for him whether or not he comes.)

(= Even if he doesn't come, the book will be ready for him.)

I don't care whether or not (*if or not) your car breaks down.

Whether or not you like it, you'll have to do it.

Whether or not you like me, I will do it by myself.

It is noted that if we want to say that what happens would not be affected by either of two opposite situations, we use a clause beginning with *whether or not* (Sinclair et al., 2011) as seen from the last three sentences above.

It is to be noted that *whether* can be preceded by the expression *no matter* or *it doesn't matter*, as in

No matter whether or not you like it, you'll have to do it.

It doesn't matter whether you like it or not, you'll have to do it.

Whether by accident or by design, Leilei arrived too late to help us. (verbless clause)

Whether (he is) right or wrong, Xinyi always loses in an argument.

It is noted that *or not* with *whether* is optional if we only use the *whether*-clause as object of the main verb or object of preposition or the subject (noun clause), but we do not omit *or not* if it is used to modify the verb in the main clause for the purpose of condition-concession, as in,

I don't know whether (or not) he will come. (Optional: object clause for *know*)

They will allow you to go according to whether (or not) you will behave yourself.

(optional: object of prepositional phrase *according to*)

Whether (or not) you will come tomorrow doesn't matter to me.

(optional: noun clause as subject)

The sports meet is to be held next week whether or not it rains.

(It is a concession clause, so it is usually not omitted.)

3.7.1 In some constructions when the verbs, nouns, adjectives, or participles, are placed before the main clause, they are tantamount to the clauses of concession introduced by *whether ... or (not) ...*, e.g.

Be he friend or enemy, the law regards him as a criminal.(no indefinite article used)

(= Whether he is a friend or an enemy, the law regards him as a criminal.)

War or no war (=Whether there will be war or no wear), ***we must be prepared for the worst.***

Believe me or not, something is in my pocket.

(= *Whether you believe me or not, something is in my pocket.*)

Believe it or not (=No matter whether you believe it or not), ***“you cannot fool all of the people all of the time.”***

Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I give my hand and my heart to my people.

(=Whether I succeed or fail, whether I live or die, whether I survive or perish,)

English or non-English (=Whether it is English or non-English), ***you have to master a foreign language.***

Fine or rainy (=Whether it is fine or rainy), ***I must go.***

Right or not (Whether it is right or not), ***it is a fact.***

Waking or sleeping (=Whether I am waking or sleeping), ***the subject is always in my mind.***

3.7.2 It is to be noted that when the verb in a *whether*-clause is *be*, the subjunctive is sometimes used. We use the verb form rather than the third person singular, which is very formal, as in

We will go skiing tomorrow whether it be windy. (subjunctive)

All staff in the school, whether young or old, must be respected.

(they be/are omitted before young)

A fresh pepper, **whether red or green**, last about three weeks. (it be/is omitted)

We help all students, **whether juniors or seniors**, to succeed in the math competition. (they be/are omitted before junior)

Note that a participle can be used in a *whether* clause, as in

Whether coming or not, you will still get the bonus.

But **being** + **past participles** cannot be used in the clause introduced by *whether* (R. Close, 1977), as in

***Whether being invited or not**, I won't go. (incorrect)

But: **Whether invited or not**, I won't go. (correct)

3.8 **Granting that, granted that, notwithstanding**

The clauses introduced by *granting that* or *granted that* also express the meaning of concession, as in

Granting that / Granted that he has enough money to buy the house, it doesn't mean he's going to do so.

3.9 **Notwithstanding**

Notwithstanding (= Although) *he is being lionized*, he still keeps a level head.

Notwithstanding the fact that the president urged acceptance of the proposal, it was defeated by the voters.

I will go **notwithstanding** (that) he advised me not to.

Notwithstanding the rise in prices, Apple iPhones are still much in demand.

The government is determined to proceed with the housing policies, **notwithstanding** public opposition.

The EU nations embarked upon the trade agreement, a few exceptions **notwithstanding**.

He went, my advice **notwithstanding**.

Note that *notwithstanding* (very formal) is a participle used as a preposition, conjunction or an adverb. It can be placed before or after the main clause. It is also placed after a noun or a noun phrase as shown above, e.g. "... , a few exceptions *notwithstanding*." In such a construction, we think *notwithstanding* in "... , a few exceptions *notwithstanding*" is an absolute construction. Again, we have "*He went, my advice notwithstanding*." We can also say "*He went notwithstanding my advice*." "*I had advised him not to go; he went, notwithstanding*." "*I had advised him not to go; notwithstanding, he went*." In the last two sentences, *notwithstanding* is used as an adverb.

3.10 **Concession expressed in SVC or SVO construction**

Concession is expressed basically in subject + verb+ object (SVO) or subject +verb + complement (SVC) construction. In SVC, the subject and the verb (usually *be*) are omitted when the subjects are usually the same as those in the main clauses. Hence, they become verbless clauses, as in

Well or sick, calm or worried, she is always restrained in her expression.

(= Whether she is well or sick, whether she is calm or worried,)

A timid young man, John nevertheless jumped into the water and rescued the girl from drowning.

(= Even though John was a timid young man,) (SVC)

The rumor, *however incredible*, was believed by the natives. (SVC)

Xinyi looks pretty, whatever she wears. (No matter what she wears,....) (SVO)

Whatever you may say, no one will listen to you. (SVO)

3.11 Concession expressed in some attributive clauses and adverbial clauses of place and degree

Sometimes concession is also expressed in some attributive clauses, adverbial clauses of place or degree under special context, e.g.

Many boys who have had few advantages in their youth have done great things for their country.

(= Many boys, though they had few advantages in their youth, have done....)

He, who all his days had looked on naked Life, had never seen so much Life's nakedness before.

(= Although he had looked on naked Life all his days, he never seen so much of Life's nakedness before.)

Unfortunately, where we should expect gratitude, we often find the opposite.

(= Unfortunately, though we should expect gratitude, we often find the opposite.)

As bad as he is, he is not without merits.

(= Bad as he is /Though he is bad, he is not without merits.)

So rashly as he acted, he had some excuse.

(= Though he had acted so rashly, he had some excuse.)

3.12 Concession expressed in some coordinated structure

Concession is also expressed in some coordinated clauses (the adverb in parenthesis may be used to add to the effect of surprise.), e.g.

He got up very early, and (yet) he failed to catch the morning bus.

He tried and (yet) he failed.

He failed, and (nevertheless) he worked the harder. (Huang, 1982)

He was tired and (yet) he continued to work. (And yet may mean *though*, but it cannot be replaced by *although* here.)

He was very tired, and (yet) he would walk further.

(The adverb in parenthesis may be used to add to the effect of surprise.)

*He is quite old now, **and** he (**still**) works energetically.*

(The adverb in parenthesis may be used to add to the effect of surprise.)

*She failed, **and** (**nevertheless**) she worked the harder.*

*I brought the wrong key **and so/therefore** I was unable to open the door.*

R Quirk et al. (1972) pointed out “The use of *and* creates a special rhetorical effect, enhancing the impression that the second clause is unexpected” (also see 4.3). Huang (1982) pointed out that “and” can be replaced by “but” in every case without appreciably affecting the meaning, as in

*I cannot keep these trees alive **and** I have watered them well, too.*

(= I cannot keep trees alive though I have watered them well.)

*It was a difficult task, **but** we accomplished it.*

(= Though/Although it was a difficult task, we accomplished it.)

*He has a responsible job **but** he doesn't get paid much.*

(= Although he has a responsible job, (yet) he doesn't get paid much.)

***Not that** it matters, **but** how did you spend the money I gave you?*

*Who were you with last night? **Not that** I care, of course.*

*I have decided to leave, **not that** anyone will miss me. (Sinclair et al., 2017)*

(= I have decided to leave, although no one will miss me.)

*He's got a new girlfriend, **not that** I care.*

Sometimes, two or more three independent sentences separated by a semicolon are used instead of a coordinator to express concession, e.g.

Rita may have lived for three years in China; she does not speak Chinese well.

(= Although Rita had lived in China for three years, she does not speak Chinese well.)

3.13 Concession expressed in some construction with some preposition + *the fact that*

3.13.1 Concession can be expressed in some *propositions* + *the fact that* constructions, as in
Despite the fact that funds have been approved for the bridge, no contracts have been made for work on it.

Notwithstanding the fact that the president urged acceptance of the proposal, it was defeated by the voters.

*They accomplished the task **in spite of the fact** they encountered many setbacks.*

3.13.2 Concession can be expressed in some *propositions or prepositional phrases*, as in

*We will continue our project **in spite of** your objections.*

Despite/In spite of working hard, I failed my exams.

*We will continue our project **despite** your objections. (slightly more formal than *in spite of*)*

*We will continue our project **regardless of** your objections.*
*Birmingham is a big city. Warwick, **on the other hand**, is quite small. (Eastwood, 2002)*
*Warwick isn't a big city. **On the contrary**, is quite small.*
*We will continue our project **notwithstanding** your objections.*
 (more formal than *in spite of* or *despite*)
***Notwithstanding** the rise in prices, luxury goods are still much in demand.*
***After all** the advice I gave, he adopted a contrary course.*
***For all** his learning, he has no common sense. (Huang, 1985)*
***With** all her earnings, Mary is in debt.*

As mentioned before, **notwithstanding**, can be placed at the end of the sentence in formal English, as in

*The EU nations embarked upon the trade agreement, a few exceptions **notwithstanding**.*
 (=The EU nations embarked upon the trade agreement *notwithstanding* a few exceptions.)
*He went, my advice **notwithstanding**.*

In the above sentences, *notwithstanding* (meaning *in spite of*), is placed at the end of the sentence. It may be regarded as a present participle (not a preposition) being used as an absolute construction, because *notwithstanding* may be regarded as the compound word formed by *not* + *withstanding*. *Notwithstanding* is used as adverb in “*Many people told her not to try, but she went ahead notwithstanding*.”

3.14 Concession expressed in the present participles or past participle construction

The concession can be also expressed in the construction introduced by present participles or past participles. In such cases, they are regarded as the omission of the subject and the verb when the subject in the clause is the same as that in the main clause.

3.14.1 Present participles (or *-ing* forms or *-ing* clauses)

***Granting** the achievements to be great, we have no reason to be conceited.*
***Although working** (= Although he works) very hard, he still cannot make both ends meet.*
***Although having slept** for eight hours, I still felt tired.*
***Although knowing** Chinese, she attended the course.*
 *Although she was *knowing* Chinese, she attended the course.
***Though (being) well** over eighty, she can walk a mile faster than I can.*
***Although expecting** the news, I was shocked by it.*
*They talked **as if intending** to prevent war.*
***Even if still operating**, the factory was still unable to produce as many face masks as we needed during the coronavirus outbreaks.*

From the sentences above, we can retain the conjunctions such as *although, even though, as if, as though, even if* followed by a present participle. A state verb can have the present participle in non-finite, but it does not mean progressive. Therefore, we can say, “*Although **knowing** Chinese, she attended the course,*” but we do not say, “**Although she **was knowing** Chinese, she attended the course.*” The sentence is not acceptable because *know* is a state verb. State verbs are not normally allowed in the progressive form in finite clauses.

3.14.2 Past participles (or *-ed* forms)

We use a conjunction followed by a past participle, a noun phrase, or do not use a conjunction to indicate the concession. We usually have conjunctions such as *although, though, as if, as though, even if*, etc. as in

Although covered by insurance, Xinyi was annoyed by the accident.

Although/Even though (he was) tired, he kept on working.

Though warned (=Though he was warned) of the danger, Dian still went skating on the thin ice.

Though tortured many times by the enemy, he did not say a word about his secret.

Though (she was) already middle-aged, Yihan was very pretty.

Even though tortured many times, the agent never surrendered.

He threw himself down from his horse, as if shot (= as if he had been shot).

Even if invited, Andy won't go.

(= Even if Andy is invited,)

Although invited, I didn't go.

(= Although I was invited,)

Whether invited or not, I won't go.

Though beaten, we were not disgraced.

(= Though we were beaten, we were not disgraced.)

Though well over sixty, he can walk faster than I can.

(= Though he is well over sixty, he can walk faster than I can.)

Born of the same parents, he bears no resemblance to his brother. (without a conjunction)

(= Even though he was born of the same parents,)

Tired, he still worked. (without a conjunction)

3.14.3 Sometimes we use an *as*-clause preceded by a participle or a bare infinitive to emphasize the meaning of the concession and the *as* can be replaced by *that*. Such clauses are very formal in style (also see 3.3 and 3.3.2), as in

Naked as/that I was, I braved the storm.

(= Even though I was naked, I braved the storm.)

Unarmed as/though he was, he bravely went forward to meet his enemies.

(Leech et al.,1974)

Fail though I did,...

Object as you may, ...

Change your mind as you will, ... (R Quirk et al., 1972)

4

Adverbial Clauses of Condition

Adverbial clauses of condition are usually introduced by the conjunction *if*; besides, they are introduced by the words such as *provided, suppose, supposing, unless* (= if ...not, except if), *on condition, in case (that), in that case, on condition that, provided (that), providing (that), given (that), if only, so long as, otherwise* (a sentence adverb, expressing negative condition), *etc.*

Adverbial clauses of condition are classified into two categories: *adverbial clauses of real conditions* and *adverbial clauses of unreal conditions*. The use of the latter is also called *subjunctive mood*. Although it is not much related to conditionals, the writer will detail the use of subjunctive mood and introduce the clauses of condition, including some prepositions or prepositional phrases. All kinds of tenses are both used in main clauses as well as in subordinate clauses.

Adverbial clauses of condition usually have four types of usage: 1) *predictive conditionals*, 2) *whenever-type*, 3) *implicational conditionals*, and 4) *explanatory conditionals*. The *if*-clause can come before or after the main clause, and has its short answer, too. e.g.

If you give me some money (then) I'll help you escape. (R Quirk, et al., 1972)

(= Give me some money and (then) I'll help you escape.) (predicative conditional)

Oil floats if you pour it on water. (whenever-type)

If John told you that last night, he was lying. (implicational conditional)

If you're going out, it is raining. (explanatory conditional)

(= If you're going out, it is relevant to say that it is raining.)

A family is happy, if each member is (happy). (Ellipsis in the *if*-clause)

A: *Will there be a picnic tomorrow?*

B: *Yes, if it's fine/if it doesn't rain/if it isn't raining.* (short answer)

4.1 Predictive conditionals

The predictive conditionals have four types: *real present/future, unreal present, unreal future, and unreal past*. A model must occur in the main clause. F.R. Palmer (1972) pointed out that we can predict when will happen (real present), what might happen (unreal present) and what would have happened under different circumstances (unreal past) but not what did actually happen (real past). Thus a sentence such as the following does not predict: *If it rained, the match was cancelled.*

4.2 Real "predictive" present/future

If it rains, the sports meet will be cancelled.

(It will rain or it won't rain – suggesting a possible fact.)

He is here now, he will help you. (He may or may not be here now.)

When we are using *only if*, we can place the *only* in the main clause, as in

I will only come if Rita invites me.

(Cf. I will come only if Rita invites me.)

Will cannot be used in an *if*-clause to express pure futurity. Therefore, we do not say “**If he will be here, he will help you,*” instead, we use a simple present tense in reference to real present or future in “*If he is here, he will help you.*”

R Quirk et al. (1972) pointed out “*Be going to do* is not generally used in the main clause of conditional sentences....” We prefer to use *will/’ll* instead when it is used to express future of present intention or cause particularly with the word *never* in the clause, as in

If you leave now, you’ll never regret it. (R Quirk et al., 1972)

**If you leave now, you are never going to regret it.*

Note that *is/am/are going to* + infinitive is used in the main clause when an *if*-clauses are used, both indicating simple futurity. In such situation, *is/am/are going to* + infinitive is used to indicate a speaker’s personal reaction to that in the *if*-clause and the subject of the *if*-clause is usually a person, as in

If he comes, I’m going to leave. (indicating a threat) (F. R. Palmer, 1974)

If that naughty boy comes, there’s going to be trouble. (indicating an inevitable disaster)

If you’re practicing on the drums, I’m going out. (threat)

Well, if your friends left half an hour ago, they aren’t going to arrive in Las Vegas at noon.

In the real present, the subordinate clauses express the condition and the main clauses something to happen depending on the condition from the subordinate clause. F.R. Palmer (1974) stated “... the one that predicates that if one event takes place, another will follow.” In such cases, the subordinate clauses usually contain the present tense to express future meaning, and in the main clauses “a modal must occur” (F.R. Palmer, 1974). That is the normal way of using adverbial clauses of real condition (sentences with *’ll*, *will*, *shall* in main clauses, and present tense in the *if*-clause). In this type (real present), what is said in the main clause is contingent – something may or may not happen assumed by the speaker to be a real possibility. When an *if*-clause is placed before the main clause, *then* is sometimes placed at the beginning of the main clause, especially used in math, e.g.

If you can come tomorrow, then we will have a barbecue.

If $x^2 = 16$, then $x = 4$.

If two points lie on the same line, then they are collinear.

If a number is divisible by 9, then it is divisible by 3.

If it rains, the sports meet will be cancelled.

If you press the button, what will happen?
If you park your car here, lock it and leave the key here.
(Imperative is used in the main clause.)

Be going to may occur in the *if*-clause, but not *'ll*, *will*, *shall* when they refer to the future. *Can*, like *may* and *must*, is acceptable in the *if*-clause:

If it is going to rain, I'll take an umbrella. (Alexander et al., 1977)
Park your car here if you can find a space.
If you can come tomorrow, then we will have a barbecue.

In addition to *will* or *shall* used in the main clauses, we can use *be +ing*, *be going to*, *be to do* in the main clause to express future meaning. When *be to do* is used in *if*-clause, *must* is usually used in the main clause when it means “necessary”, as in

If you go to the beach tomorrow, we're taking a picnic lunch. (Zhang et al., 1984)
If she visits me next weekend, I'm going to order her some Chinese food.
Where are we to stay if we visit Las Vegas next month?
If you are to escape, you must leave me and go on alone. (Sinclair et al., 2017)
It's late, and if I am to get any sleep I must go.

Sometimes the present perfect tense is used in an *if*-clause when the action in the clause expresses something that will have done by a certain specific future time, or progressive tense is used in an *if*-clause to express future time, e.g.

I will return the book on Friday if I have read it.
If we have forgot to do our homework, our teacher gets very angry. (Alexander et al., 1977)
If I've finished my work by ten, I'll probably watch a movie on TV.
The police won't take your car away if you are sitting in it.
If we're having ten people to dinner, we'll need more chairs.
If you're going to the supermarket, please buy a dozen of eggs for me.
If you're going out, it is raining.
(= If you're going out, it is relevant to say that it is raining.)

It is noted that the present perfect tense used in the first three sentences above emphasizes the ideas “if I have finished reading the book by Friday.”, “if we come to class having forgotten it.” or “if I have finished my work by ten.”

4.3 And ... will or or ... will is used

In *predictive conditionals*, sometimes an imperative or normal sentence is used, instead of an *if*-clause, in *and ... will* or *or ... will*. In such cases, the first clause (expressing future time) is a condition of the second (the coordinate clause). The conjunction *and* (Leech et al., 1974) can

indicate condition, but only in limited contexts such as commanding, advising, etc. Usually, it is either in the imperative mood, or contains a modal verb, as in

*Take this medicine, **and (then)** you'll feel better.* (informal)

(= If you take this medicine, you'll feel better.)

*Give me some money **and (then)** I'll help you escape.*

(= If you give me some money (then) I'll help you escape.) (R Quirk, et al., 1972)

*We should give him some money **and (then)** he won't tell anybody what we did.*

(= If we (should) give him some money, he won't tell anybody what we did.)

*We should give the child some encouragement, **and then** he won't relapse into bad ways.*

(= If we give the child some encouragement, then he won't relapse into bad ways.)

*Move one step, **and** you are a dead man.* (=If you move one step, you will be a dead man.)

The second clause introduced by *and* from the last sentence above can have the simple present with future reference. Sometimes the first clause is a verbless clause. For example:

***Another three days**, and we will get at definite results in the experiment.*

***One more minute**, and the patient would have bled to death.*

***Any neglect on your part**, and the whole thing is spoilt.*

When you are giving somebody a warning, an order, or advice, you want to tell him/her what will happen if he/she does not do what you tell him/her to. You can use an imperative clause, introduced by *or* (indicating negative condition in limited contexts) and the clause containing a verb expressing future time. The first clause may imply a negative condition to the coordinate clause, as in

*Drop that knife, **or** you'll be killed.*

(= If you don't drop that knife, you'll be killed.)

*Hurry up, **or (else)** you will miss the bus.*

(The adverb *else* is used to reinforce the meaning of *or*.)

(= If you don't hurry up, you will miss the bus.)

*Give me your iPhone **or** I'll shoot you.*

(= If you don't give me your iPhone, I'll shoot you.)

*Don't move, **or** you will be killed.*

(= If you move, you will be killed.)

*Hands up, **or** you will be killed.*

*You'd better put your overcoat on, **or (else)** you'll catch a cold.*

(= Unless you put on your overcoat, you'll catch a cold.)

4.4 Unreal present

*If you **broke** your leg today, you **couldn't play** again this season.*

(Contrary to the present fact – I haven't broken my leg, I can play again this season.)

*If we **had** enough money, I **would buy** a radio toady.* (Leech et al., 1974)

(Contrary to the present fact: we don't have money.)

4.5 Unreal future

*If it **rained** tomorrow, I **would stay** at home.*

(Contrary to the future fact – *it won't rain tomorrow* according to the weather forecast.)

*If we **had** enough money, I **would buy** a radio tomorrow.*

4.6 Unreal past

*If you **had told** me early, I **wouldn't have visited** her.*

(Contrary to the past fact – *you didn't tell me, so I visited her.*)

The types of conditionals introduced by the *if*-clause which includes unreal past (see 4.27), unreal present (see 4.23), and unreal future (see 4.28), are called **subjunctive mood**, which is dealt with late in this section.

4.7 Real conditional clauses

Modal auxiliary verbs *will* or *shall* are usually not used in an *if*-clause when the cause expresses pure future meaning, e.g. “*If she comes (*If she will come) next Monday, what shall we do?*” and “*If Yihan comes (*If Yihan will come), she will bring me some food.*” But *will* can be used in the *if*-clause when it expresses “willingness/intension/insistence, etc.” or “the future contingency expresses in the *if*-clause determines a present decision” (R Quirk, et al., 1972). F.R. Palmer (1988) pointed out, “... the *will* ... apply to inanimate objects. This Jespersen ... disintinguishes as ‘power.’” For example:

*If you **will** take care of my car, I'll let you drive it.*

(= if you are willing to take care of my car, I'll let you drive it.)

*If you **will** get drunk every night, it's not surprising you feel ill.* (Swan,1980)

*If you **will** come this way, the manager will see you now.*

*If you **'ll help** me/if you **'ll be** so kind as to help me, we can finish by five.*

*If he **won't arrive** before nine, there's no point in ordering dinner for him.*

*If you **won't** (= refuse to) help us, all our plans will be ruined.*

*If it **will make** any difference, I'll gladly lend you some money.* (R Quirk, et al., 1972)

*If it **does/will do** me more good, I'll take a different medicine.* (Eastwood, 2002)

*If you **'d help** me/If you **'d be** so kind as to help me, we could finish by five.*

*If you **'will go** (if you insist on going) without telling me first, I won't protect you.*

(Will is always stressed.)

*If he **'would bet** (if he insisted on betting) on horse-races in 'spite of your warning, he **'deserved** to lose money. (Would, spite, and deserved are always stressed.) (Hornby, 1977)*

*I will go swimming, **if you will** (go swimming).* (Ellipsis in the *if*-clause)

*Some drugs **will** improve the condition.* (F.R. Palmer, 1988)

*The books **will** easily fit into this corner.*

4.8 Whenever-type

When the clause is introduced by *if*, the meaning of such an *if*-clauses is tantamount to that of the clauses introduced by *when*, *every time* or *whenever*. F.R Palmer (1974) stated “*If* may have a meaning close to *whenever* – to link two habitual actions.” In such cases, the present tense or past tense is used in both subordinate clauses and main clauses. We usually do not use modal auxiliary verbs such as *will* or *shall* in the main clause, because something happens without time restriction or depending on each other. “We can freely change tenses or phase” (F.R. Palmer, 1974). In such sentences, both present tenses are used. Some grammarians (Sinclair et al., 2017) called it the *zero conditional*. For example:

- Oil floats if you pour it on water.*
- Water boils if you heat it to 100°C.*
- If it rains a lot, the roads get muddy.*
- If you go to the movies, what kind of movie do you prefer to see?*
- If it rained, I went by car.*
- If Xinyi comes here, she brings us something to eat.*
- If Leilei was (*were) here, she’s now in the garden.*
- If he said that, he is a fool.*
- If John said that, he was (*were) stupid.*
- If it has rained in the deserts, the flowers blossom.*
- If it was too cold, we stayed indoors. (Alexander et al., 1977)*
- If it rains, we don’t go outside.*
- We stay in school if it rains.*
- If John comes, Mary leaves. (F.R. Palmer, 1987)*

Alexander et al. (1977) pointed out that “PRESENT TENSE in both clauses; *if* replaceable by *when* in this case. PAST TENSE in both CLAUSE.” R.A. Close (1975) called this type of conditional clause “Neutral Type” because same tenses are used in both clauses, and the conditional clauses of such kinds are usually not restricted by the time reference and the tense in both clauses. In such a case, *if* can be replaced by *when* or *sometimes*, as in

- If/When the wind blows from the north, that room is very cold.*
- Sometimes the wind blows from the north, that room is very cold.*
- If/When the wind blew from the west, he moved into the other room.*
- If you heat the ice, it turns to water.*
- If we mix red with yellow, we get orange.*
- If you drop a stone in water, it sinks. (Alexander et al., 1977)*
- If methane is cooled and compressed, it liquefies.*

There is no problem if *will* is added to the main clauses in the above sentences. More examples:

- If lightning flashes, thunder will follow (= follows).*
- If you drop a stone in water, it will sink.*

The only difference is that when we use *will* in the main clause, it indicates the condition – something that may or may happen in the *if*-clause; while *will* is not used in the main clause, it indicates a habitual action or a fact that something will happen in the *if*-clause. For example, “If Xinyi *comes* here, she *brings* us something to eat.” The fact is Xinyi definitely comes, so “When Xinyi comes here, she always brings food to us”, while from “If Xinyi comes here, she will bring us something to eat”, we don’t know whether Xinyi will come or not.

4.9 Implicational conditionals

In implicational conditionals, what is stated in the main clause depends on what is stated/shown in the subordinate clauses. They are not related closely to each other (condition vs. hypothesis). A simple present/past tense is usually used in the subordinate clause and any tense sequence is possible in such sentences in the main clauses, based on their exact meaning intended and hypotheses and the speaker’s point of view. F.R. Palmer (1974) stated “The condition is a simple implication – the truth of the one clause following from the truth of the other.” “This also accounts for the jocular type of sentence.” The following examples illustrate something of the variety and mixture of time and tense forms permitted, e.g.

*If John **told** you that last night, he **was lying**.*

(Simple past + Simple past) (Leech, 1978)

*If they **left** at nine, they **will** certainly be home by midnight.*

(Simple Past + will “future”) (Leech, 1978)

*If Leilei **is** here, she **is** in the garden.*

(= If it is true that she is here, then she is in the garden.)

*If she *were* here, she is in the garden. But: If she *were* here, she’d be in the garden.

If he *acts* like that, he *is* a fool.

(= If it is true that he should act like that, then I am right when I say that he is a fool.)

*It **was** certainly my brother you saw, if he **had** a large black dog with him.*

(If it is true that he had a large black dog with him,) (Alexander et al., 1977)

*If that **was** what he told you, he **was** telling lies.*

*If Tom **broke** his leg in the last match, he **won’t** play again this season.*

(=If it is true that he broke his leg in the last match,) (Alexander et al., 1977)

*If he **said** that, he **must** be a fool.*

*If you **saw** him yourself, surely you **can** tell us what he looks like.*

(= If, as you say, you did see him,)

*If you **spent** the night on the train, you probably **need** a rest.*

*If he **sent** the letter off on Friday, why **hasn’t** it **arrived** by now?* (Alexander et al., 1977)

(= If it is true that he sent it on Friday,)

*If David **is** a clever boy, I’ve **underestimated** him.*

*If he **has** a tape recorder, probably he **borrowed** it from his friend.*

If he’s the Prime Minister, I’m a Dutchman. (jocular)

If he’s Marconi, I’m Einstein. (jocular) (F.R. Palmer, 1974)

4.10 Explanatory conditionals

In explanatory conditionals, there seems to be no specifically related to each other between an *if*-clause and a main clause in meaning (condition vs. hypothesis). The *if*-clause is likely to be present tense, with no tense/time restriction in the main clause (F.R. Palmer, 1974), as in

*If you **want to know**, I see/have seen/shall see/saw/had seen him.*

(= If you want to know, it is relevant to say that I see/have seen)

*If you **want to know**, I **haven't seen** him.* (F.R. Palmer, 1987)

(= If you want to know, I'll tell you that I haven't seen him.)

(= If you want to know, it is relevant to say that I haven't seen him.)

*If you **like** watching NBA finals, the Brooklyn Nets **will be** playing the Los Angeles Lakers tonight.*

When we are talking about something that often happened in the past, we use the past tense or the past progressive in the conditional clause, but in the main clause, we use the past simple or a modal, as in

*If it **was snowing**, Xinyi and Leilei **stayed** indoors.*

*If the children **played** on the grass in the garden, it **was** fine.*

*If Rita **came**, I **would** offer her a glass of wine.*

4.11 Used in other occasions

Besides the *if*-clause being used to introduce the adverbial clause of condition, there are other constructions to introduce adverbial clauses of condition: *assuming (that)*, *given (that)*, *in case*, *providing (that)* (which means "if and only if"), *provided (that)* (which also means "if and only if" - R Quirk et al., 1972), *suppose*, *supposing*, *on (the) condition (that)*, *so/as long as*, *with the proviso that*, and some prepositions (e.g. *without*) and prepositional phrases (e.g. *in case of*, *in the event of*, *in the absence of*, etc) and conjunct (e.g. *otherwise*, *unless* = "if ...not" or "except on condition that"), etc., as in

***In the absence of** the manager (= If/While the manager is away), I shall be in charge.*

***In case** it rains, we won't be able to go there on foot.*

*Take these pills, **in case** you feel ill on the boat.*

*I'll lend you the money **on condition that** you return it within six month.* (Leech, et al., 1974)

*You can go out **on condition that** you wear an overcoat.*

*I will let you drive my car **on condition (that)** you have a valid license.*

(= I will let you drive my car provided (that)/providing (that) so long as/as long as you have a valid license.)

***In case of** fire, press the button.*

***In the event of his death**, she will inherit the money.*

*You can go out **as/so long as** you promise to be back before ten.*

***So long as** you persist in your old ways, I cannot give you any money.*

*He says he'll accept your offer **on condition that** you are sincere.*

Given (that) the voters approve the funds, we'll have a new park in our town.
If only it clears up, we'll go. (*If only* is more emphatic than *if* in meaning.)
Providing (that) there is no opposition, we shall hold the meeting here.
Provided (that) there is no opposition (= only if there is no opposition), we shall hold the meeting here. (Quirk, 1978)
Provided that no objection is raised, we shall hold the meeting here. (R. Quirk, et al., 1972)
 Sure you can borrow the car, **providing** you get it back to me before 10 o'clock.
 I don't mind Guy coming with us, **provided** he pays for his own meals. (Hornby, 1997)
 I should wear an overcoat if I were you; **otherwise**, you'll catch a cold. (Leech, et al., 1974)
 He was released from prison **with/on the proviso that** he doesn't leave the country.
 He left his unborn grandchild a trust fund **with the proviso that** he be named after the old man. (subjunctive mood used in the clause)

It is to be noted that *in case* specifies a future condition that may or may not arise. *On condition that* stipulates or lays down a condition to which a person must agree (Leech, et al., 1974). A clause introduced by *provided (that)* rather expresses a stipulation (i.e., a demand for the fulfilment of a condition) made by the person who in the main clause gives a conditional undertaking (Huang, 1985). For example: *Provided that (or, if) no objection is raised, we shall hold the meeting here. I will lend you my book, provided (or, if) you return it to me in three days.* *If* may always replace *provided (that)*, but not necessarily *vice versa*. For example: *If (not, Provided) you don't believe me, I can't help. He was lying if (not, provided) he told you that. What shall we do if (not, provided) a war should break out again?*

Suppose/Supposing(that) the plane doesn't arrive on time, we'll have to postpone the meeting.
Suppose/Supposing (that) I had an accident, who would pay? (future subjunctive mood)
Unless you tell him yourself, he'll lose faith in you completely.
 You won't catch the plane **unless** you hurry up (= if you don't hurry up).
 There will be a picnic, **unless** it rains (unless = if ...not).
Unless Lelei improves her work, she'll fail the exam.
 (= If Lelei doesn't improve her work, she'll fail the exam.)
Suppose/Supposing your friends **knew** how you're behaving here, what **would** they think?
 (subjunctive mood: Your friends do not know how you're behaving here.)
Suppose we were rich. (We aren't rich.)
Supposing I accepted this offer, what **would** you say?
Supposing my father saw me with you, what **might** he **think**?
Suppose/Supposing (that) you were left alone on a desert island, what **would** you do first/what is the first thing you **would** do? (Alexander et al., 1977)
Suppose/Supposing he had asked you for money, **would** you **have given** him any?
Just suppose someone **had seen** us (but they didn't see us). (Leech et al., 1974)

Note that after *suppose* or *supposing*, we can use a present tense for a possible future action. In such a case, indicative mood occurs rather than the subjunctive. The uncertainty of action is decreasing, e.g. ***Suppose/Supposing she does not come, what shall we do?*** The speaker thinks that she may or may not come. If the speaker says, “*Suppose/supposing she did not come*”, it means that *she is unlikely to come*. Huang (1985) pointed out that “Suppose” is used to express an imaginary condition. It is a substitute for the hypothetical “if”. “Supposing” is used for something possible. It is a substitute for the conditional “if”. It is used to state a pre-supposed condition on which a statement holds good or a similar condition that is to be assumed in giving an answer to a question, as in

Suppose you were to be sent abroad to study, which country would you like to go?
(imaginary)

Suppose the story was/were true. (Eastwood, 2022)
(*Were* is more formal than *was* here.)

Supposing no unforeseen delays occur, the work will perhaps take at least half a year.
(possible)

Supposing all who accepted the invitation actually come, will there be seats enough for them? (Huang, 1985)

It is also to be noted that even if *unless* means *if...not*, the negative world *unless* cannot be used as a substitute for *if ... not* in a hypothesis. Thus, the following are wrong: *If I were not* (*Unless I were) *a teacher, I would not concern myself with your morality. He wouldn't have been so very ill, if he hadn't* (*unless he had) *been so careless about his health*. But we can use *unless* after the main clause, as an afterthought. For example: *The horse won easily. No one could have overtaken it, unless it had fallen. *Unless it had fallen, it would have won* (Eastwood, 2002). R Quirk et al. (1972) pointed out that “...*unless* has more exclusive meaning of “only if ... not” or “except on condition that ...”

Normally, *on condition (that)* requires a human agent subject while the rest can be animate or inanimate subject, as in

The room always keeps cool as long as the AC is working properly.

4.12 Used to express politeness or polite request

Sometimes we use conditional clauses introduced by *if* to express polite request or show politeness or sound more tentative, therefore the following sentences do not indicate subjunctive mood, as in

I'd be grateful if you would come a little earlier in future. (Alexander et al., 1977)

It would help us if you would fill up the form in duplicate.

If you would care/like/prepare to take a seat, I'll let Lucy know you're here.

It would be nice if you helped me a little with the house work. (Swan, 1980)

Would it be all right if I came round at about seven?

4.13 Conditional clause used in the imperative mood followed by an *and*-clause

We often use an *and*-clause to express a conditional clause by the imperative mood (also see 4.3), as in

*Turn to the right **and** you will see the post office.*

*Study hard **and** you will make progress every day.*

(= If you study hard, you will make progress every day.)

*Spare the rod **and** spoil the child.* (Meaning “If a child is not punished, he will become undisciplined and unruly.”)

*One step more, **and** you are a dead man.* (Note “One step more” is a verbless clause” = If you move one more step, you are a dead man.)

4.14 A relative clause used to express a condition

Subjunctive mood sometimes occurs in a relative clause, it depending on its context. A relative clause (usually a defining one) may sometimes to convey the meaning of a condition, as in

*Anyone **who possesses a certificate** is eligible for the post.* (Huang, 1985)

(= Anyone is eligible for the post, if he/she possesses a certificate.)

*A country **that stopped closing so soon** **would** quickly **have** more coronavirus cases.*

(If a country stopped closing so soon, it would quickly have more coronavirus cases.)

4.15 None-finite verbs

In addition, non-finite verbs (present participles, past participles, and infinitives) can be used to express conditionals.

4.16 Present participles used to express condition

Heating water, you can change it into steam.

(= If you heat water, you can change it into steam.)

Meeting (=If we had met) anywhere else, we wouldn't have recognized each other.

(subjunctive mood)

You'd be warmer walking (=if you walked).

Turning to the left (=If/When you turn to the left), you will find the supermarket.

4.17 Past participles used to express condition

Cleared, this site would be very valuable.

(= If /When cleared or If/When this site is cleared, it would be very valuable.)

Criticized by his colleagues, he will feel unhappy.

Looked at politically, it is an important problem. (Zhang, 1979)

*What would she have done **confronted** (= if she had been confronted) with a similar situation?* (subjunctive mood)

Given due consideration (=If it is given due consideration), the question should be easy to settle.

Given *more time, Kayla Yao would have done much better.* (subjunctive mood)

Given (= Considering) *their inexperience, they've done a good job.*

Heated (= if it is heated), *water changes into steam.*

Taken daily, *Vitamin C can help to reduce your catching cold.*

(= If Vitamin C is taken daily, it can help to reduce your catching cold.)

United, *we stand; divided, we fall.*

(= If/When we are united, we stand; if/when we are divided, we fall.)

Note when a participle, a preposition phrase, or an adjective can be used after *if* or *unless*, it become a verbless clause, as in

*I will gladly come to visit you **if invited*** (=if I am invited).

*The book will be returned to Kayla Yao **if found*** (= if it is found).

*We won't attack **unless attacked*** (= unless we are attacked).

*We'll counterattack **if attacked*** (= if we are attacked).

*Cars are allowed to be parked here **unless expressly forbidden**.*

*Don't come **unless told to*** (= unless you are told to come).

Unless (you are) *arriving by coach, please let the secretary know.* (R. A. Close, 1977)

*I won't come **unless** (I am) invited properly.* (R. A. Close, 1977)

If ready, *please let me know.* (=If you are ready, ...)

*The virus will be killed **if kept*** (= if it is kept) *in a close container.*

*And, **if true**, what was the director's responsibility?* (= if it was true.)

Once in, *you couldn't get out.*

(= Once/If you were in, you couldn't get out.)

If in trouble, *please ask me and I can help you.* (“in trouble”, a prepositional phrase)

(= If you are in trouble, please ask me and I can help you.)

If in doubt, *ask at your local library.* (“in doubt”, a prepositional phrase)

If (it is) possible, *the dog should be washed every day.* (adjective)

*Please fill in the blanks with proper words **if necessary**.* (adjective)

(= Please fill in the blanks with proper words if it is necessary.)

*Please leave early **if possible**.* (adjective)

(= Please leave early if (it is) possible.)

Note that *being + past participles* cannot be used in the clauses introduced by *if* and *unless*, as in

I won't come unless **being invited.* (incorrect)

But: *I won't come unless invited.*

* *I will be happy to come to your house **if being invited**.* (incorrect)

But: *I will be happy to come to your house if invited.*

4.18 The infinitive with *to* or without *to* used to express condition

The infinitive can be used to express condition. In such a case, the infinitive is usually placed before the main clause, as in

To hear him speak, you would think he owned the whole world.

(= If you should hear him speak, you would think he owned the whole world.)

To be kind to the enemy is to be cruel to the people. (Zhang et al., 1984)

(= If you are kind to the enemy, you are cruel to the people.)

You have to be strong to lift a table like that. (R Quirk, et al., 1972)

He'd be stupid not to accept that offer.

To have followed their meal in detail would have given him some indication of their states of mind. (Rayevsko,1976)

(= If she had followed their meal..., it would have given him...).

To record of Mr. Dombey that he was not in his way affected by this intelligence, would be to do him an injustice.

(=If we record of Mr. Dombey that...)

No one would believe, to look at her, that she was over thirty. (Rayevsko,1976)

(=if one looked at her...)

Make me (=If you make me) *go there alone, I'll die.* (imperative mood)

Strip him of his uniform, and he would have soon picked his side. (imperative mood)

4.19 Participles used to express conditionals in absolute construction

4.20 Present participles used to express condition in absolute constructions

Weather permitting, we will go for a walk in the park.

(= If weather permits, we will go for a walk in the park.)

All being well (=If all is well), *we will complete the work by tomorrow.*

4.21 Past Participles used to express condition in absolute constructions

Everything taken into consideration, his work is well done.

(= If everything is taken into consideration, his work is well done.)

Everything considered (= If everything is considered), *the city is the most exciting of the world.*

4.22 The adverbial clause of unreal condition (Subjunctive Mood)

Besides what is described above, we deal with other predictive conditionals: unreal present, unreal future, and unreal past. A modal verb must occur in the main clause, too. In English, the subjunctive mood is fairly uncommon (esp. in comparison with other languages such as French and Spanish), mainly because most of the functions of the subjunctive are covered by modal verbs such as *might, could, should, and would, etc.* In fact, in English the subjunctive is often indistinguishable from the ordinary *indicative mood* since its form in most contexts is identical. It is distinctive only in the third person singular, where the normal indicative -s ending is absent

e.g. *The report recommends that he face the tribunal*, where *he face* rather than *he faces*, and in the verb “to be” (*I were* rather than *I was*), and *they be* rather than *they are* in “*It is important that they be aware of the provisions of the act.*” In modern English, the subjunctive mood still exists but is regarded in many contexts as optional. The use of the subjunctive tends to convey a more formal tone, but there are few people who would regard its absence as wrong. Today, it survives mostly in fixed expressions, as in *be that as it may*; *far be it from me*; *as it were* (= so to speak); *lest we forget*; *God help you*; *perish the thought*; and *come what may, etc.* R Quirk et al. (1972) pointed out that “The subjunctive is not an important category in contemporary English and is normally replaced by other constructions.” However, the writer thinks it is still necessary for ESL students whose native language is not English to explore the use of subjunctive. They might feel it difficult how to use the subjunctive when they speak or write English. If he does not understand the use of subjunctive, he might misunderstand the meaning of what is spoken or written.

The subjunctive mood (thought-mood), as it is nowadays used, expresses a hypothetical meaning, *i.e.*, to suppose something unreal/untrue, imaginary, impossible, or otherwise contrary to facts (present, past, and future). Therefore, it is used to express thoughts (as distinguished from facts). It expresses wishes, doubts, suggestions, suppositions, imagination, uncertainty, unlikeliness or something contrary to past facts, present facts or possible future facts. In the main sentences of unreal conditional statements *should* is used in the 1st person, *would* in the 2nd and 3rd person: *I should not have been surprised if he had talked to her* and *If you went there, you would feel sorry, etc.* Details are discussed below of how to use subjunctive mood introduced by an *if*-clause.

4.23 *If + past tense, should/would... + do*

Subjunctive mood is frequently used in an unreal conditional clause which express a supposition either doubtful or contrary to the fact. The simple past tense is used in an *if*-clause and *should/would ...+ do* form is used in the main clause (see the following table).

| | |
|--|----------------------------------|
| In the Subordinate Clause (<i>if</i> -clause) | In the Main (or Result) Clause |
| the simple past tense (<i>were/was/did</i>) | <i>should/would ...+ do</i> form |

Doubtful or contrary to the present fact or future possibility, e.g.

If I were you, I would/should study much harder.

(The fact is: I am not you. It is contrary to the present fact.)

If I were you, I should/would give up smoking.

(The fact is that I am not you, and past tense to show present time.)

If he were here now, he would not let the matter end this way.

(The fact is: He is not here now. It is contrary to the present fact.)

If I were/was rich, I would buy a house. (*Was* in *If I was* is considered informal.)

(The fact is: I'm not rich. It is contrary to the present fact.)

*If she **were/was** to do something like that, we'd be unhappy.*

(The fact is: She won't do something like that. It is contrary to the future fact. *Was* is considered informal.)

*How nice it **would be** if I **were** there now.*

(The fact is: I'm not there now – It is contrary to the present fact.)

*If I **had** the tool at hand, I **should/would** help you to repair the bicycle now.*

(But I do not have the tool at hand, so I cannot help you to repair the bicycle now.)

*If you really **loved** me, you'd buy me everything I want* (“...but I assume that you do not love me”). (Leech, 1978)

*If I **had** money (now, or in future), I'd buy you an iPhone.*

(But I do not have money now or in future, so I won't buy you an iPhone.)

*If I **wrote** a letter to my brother **now**, he **would receive** it the day after tomorrow.*

(But I'm not writing the letter now, so he won't receive it the day after tomorrow.)

*Tom **would** come if you **asked** him.* (A non-fact: Tom has not been asked.)

If it **rained** tomorrow, the sports meet **would** have to be cancelled (but I don't expect it will rain).

***Even if it rained** cats and dogs, I **wouldn't/shouldn't** stay here all day long.*

*Lucy **could** do well if she **tried**.*

(The fact is: she doesn't try or won't try.)

Cf. She can do well if she tries.

*I don't have a phone with me. If there **were** one with me, I **could call** her now.*

*If Yihan **tried**, she **might do** very well.*

*If you **were** on vacation now, you'd be **having** a wonderful time.*

*We can't swim here. If we **did**, we **might both be drowned**.*

*What **would** you do if you **were** all alone on a desert island?*

*If you **were** a bird, you **could fly**.*

***Did** you **pay** more attention (=If you paid more attention), you would learn more.*

*If it **weren't** for the rain (= if it weren't raining/But for the rain), I'd certainly go out now.*

(The fact is: It's raining now. Here *if it weren't for* = but for. *But for the rain, I'd...*)

If an event is thought of as unlikely, we use a past tense form in an *if*-clause and *would* or *should* is used in the main clause, e.g. “If it **rained** tomorrow, I **would** stay at home, etc. In spoken English we sometimes drop “*If I were you*” in “*I should go talk to her*” and “*I shouldn't worry*”, etc. In formal English, *were* is always used in an *if*-clause for all persons to express subjunctive mood as seen in the first five sentences above. However, in colloquial English, *was* is used instead of *were* for the first and the third person singular, e.g. *If I was the landlord, I would kick her out*. But *were* is often used in *if I were you* or *if he/she were you* or *as it were*. *I were* and *she/he were* emphasize their untrue character more than *I was* and *he/she was*.

- 1) Supposition contrary to the fact referring to no particular time, e.g.
*If there **were** no water, there **would be** no life on earth.*
*No matter how perfect the bird's wing is, it **could** never **lift** the bird if it **were** not supported by air.*
- 2) Used in the sentence of rejection concession, e.g.
*Even if I **were** there, I **shouldn't be** able to solve the problem by myself.*
 (In fact, I am not there. This is contrary to the present fact.)

4.24 The Subjunctive Present Tense

The subjunctive present tense form has the original form of a verb for all its persons. By “the original form of a verb for all its persons” is meant that the third person singular will not take an –s ending and that the verb “be” is not inflected in different persons. The present subjunctive mood appears to be used more in AmE than in BrE. This tense has been used:

To indicate doubt or uncertainty about a condition or concession, e.g.

*If he **be** an honest man, he will return you the money.* (formal)

(= If he **should** be an honest man, he will)

*If this rumor **be** true or not, we cannot remain here.* (Schibsbye, 1979)

(= If this rumor **should** be true or not, we cannot)

*If we **be** in time, we shall find him at home.* (formal)

(= If we **should** be in time, we shall)

*If he **work** hard, he can yet succeed.* (formal)

(= If he **should** work hard, he can yet succeed.)

*If it **rain** tomorrow, we'll change our plan.* (formal)

(= If it **should** rain tomorrow, we'll change our plan.)

*If an Association member **be** found guilty of misconduct, his membership shall be suspended and appropriate dues refunded.* (Leech, 1978)

*Even though it **be** true, I won't believe.* (formal)

(= Even though it **should** be true, I won't believe.)

*Though he is/**be** the President himself, he **shall hear** us.* (R Quirk, 1972)

*Though she **be** (subjunctive) the richest woman in town, she **would** not be satisfied.*

*Whatever **be** the reasons for it, we **cannot tolerate** this disloyalty.*

Whenever such forms occur, it is always possible to insert the word *should* in it as seen above. In all the above examples, we should now always substitute the indicative present form (except, perhaps, in very formal English). Thus:

*If he **is** an honest man, he **will** return you the money.* (real conditional)

(He may be an honest man.)

*If he **works** hard, he can yet succeed.* (real conditional)

(He may work hard.)

If it rains tomorrow, we'll change our plan. (real conditional)
If you be quick (=If you're quick), you'll see them. (real conditional)
If you don't be quick (= If you aren't quick), you'll miss them. (real conditional)
If he doesn't be a good boy (= If he isn't a good boy), I shan't give him anything.
(real conditional)

F. R. Palmer (1974) pointed out that "...there is a difference. *Be* is used to refer only to temporary states" in *If you be quick, you'll see them* and *If you don't be quick, you'll miss them*. **Don't be** or **Be** is only used in such cases (shown from the last three sentences above), so we don't say **He doesn't be sad*, **Does he be sad?* or **He does be sad*.

Shall is used in main clauses when present subjunctive mood is found in archaic or legalistic contexts, as in

If the server serve a fault twice, he shall lose a point. (Leech, 1978)
(Note that the subjunctive present tense (notably, the absence of the *s* ending in the third person singular) *serve* is used rather than *serves*.)
If it rain tomorrow, we shall have to cancel our outing. (Huang, 1985)

4.25 *Should* used in the *if*-clause to indicate real conditional

In the *if*-clause *should* is used in the adverbial clause of real condition not to express suppositions contrary to anticipation but uncertainty (emphasizing that something might or might not happen). That is, a more formal way of talking about a possible future situation is to use **should** in the conditional clause. They may be replaced by the present tense to become real conditional, e.g.

If it **should** rain again, the flowers will bloom.
If the wound **should** become inflamed, do not hesitate to call me. (Hornby, 1997)
If that should happen, you will be blamed.
If you should hear news of them, please let me know.
(You might hear news of them.)
If he should work hard, he can make more progress.
If it should rain tomorrow, we'll change our plan.
If you should see him, let me know. (F. R. Palmer, 1974)
Or: **Should** you see him, let me know.

When **should** is used in such sentences, Leech (1978) pointed out that "The effect of the theoretical *should* is to make the condition slightly more tentative and 'academic' than it would be with the ordinary Present Tense." Huang (1979) pointed out that "Here, we may, if we so desire, use the modal verb 'should' instead without any practical difference of meaning.... The sentence with 'should' is still indicative, of course. It should not have been called subjunctive, as it usually has." R.A. Close (1975) pointed out that "Something that may happen" is itself dependent on chance or some other unpredictable factor. The form "*if ... should*" is used more

theoretical suppositions. The forms “*if he be (not is)*” or “*if he come (not comes)*” are the same as “*if he should be*” or “*if he should come*” in their meaning. However, the form “*if he should come*” is different from “*if he comes*”. The former is considered as a possible fact or as a pure supposition or implies an uncertainty; the latter is considered as quite possible that *he will come*. As mentioned earlier, when a supposition is known to be untrue or unlikely or contrary to a fact, we can use the past form of the verb to indicate subjunctive mood, e.g. *If I knew her, If I were you* (i.e. I don’t know her, and I am not you). In formal style, when a subject-verb inversion is used, *should I/could (we, you, etc.)* is used (also see 2) in 4.29), as in

Should I be free tomorrow, I will come.

(=If I should be free tomorrow, I will come.)

Should you see my brother, tell him I am quite well.

(= If you should see my brother, tell him I am quite well.)

Should you be interested, I have a book on the subject you might like to see. (R Quirk, 1978)

If he should be an honest man, he will return you the money.

(He might be an honest man.)

I will go, should it be necessary.

Could I see you (=If I could see you), I would tell you the whole story.

4.26 ***Even though so long as, though,***

So long as a volume hold together, I am not much troubled as to its outer appearance.

(formal English) (Schibsbye, 1979)

Though everyone desert you, I will not. (formal English)

The above sentences are indicatives, and the verbs can be replaced with ***holds*** and ***deserts***. (Also see 4.24).

4.27 ***If + past perfect tense, should/would... + have done form***

Supposition is contrary to the past fact. The past perfect tense is used in the *if-clause* and *should/would... + have done* is used in the main clause. Besides *would*, we can also use *may*, *might*, *could*, etc.

| | |
|--|--|
| In the Subordinate Clause (<i>if-clause</i>) | In the Main (or Result) Clause |
| the past perfect tense (<i>had +done</i>) | <i>should/would ... + have done form</i> |

1) Contrary to the past fact, e.g.

If he had not missed many classes, he would have made great progress.

(The fact is: He missed many classes, so he did not make great progress.)

He might have come if we’d asked him. (Hornby, 1977)

(The fact is: We didn’t ask him.)

If you’d been at the conference, I should/would have seen you.

(The fact is: you were not at the conference, so I didn't see you. *Should* is used only for 1st persons, *I* or *we*)

You could have done it if you had tried. (Hornby, 1977)

If he'd taken his doctor's advice he might not have died.

(The fact is: He didn't take his doctor's advice, so he died or he might still be alive).

If I had dropped that computer, the boss would have been angry (but I didn't drop it).

She would have certainly come if you'd (= you had) asked her.

If you had looked at the map, we'd/should never have been so late.

(But you didn't look at the map, and we were late.) (Alexander et al., 1977)

If you had worked a little harder, you could/might have passed.

If you had been standing at the corner of the street, I could have given you a ride.

(=If you had been standing at the corner of the street, I would have been able to give you a ride.)

If it had not been for/But for your great help, I wouldn't have completed the work on time.

If he hadn't been evicted by his landlord, he wouldn't have been sleeping in the streets.

(The fact is: He was evicted and was sleeping in the streets.)

If you had told me that, I shouldn't have called her again.

Had we known it in time, (=If we had known it in time), we would have prevented the catastrophe.

If the police had caught us, we'd have had to make a clean breast of it. (Leech, 1978)

Leech (1978) pointed out that “*Could* in the “ability” sense does not occur in a hypothetical main clause when the main verb is a “state verb”, referring to a permanent accomplishment.” For example:

**If you'd had proper lessons, you could know English.*

If you'd had proper lessons, you would be able to know /would know how to speak English.

Evans et al. (1958) pointed out that “*Could* may be used with *have* in a conditional clause that is contrary to fact, This construction cannot be used with any other word except *could*.” For example:

If I could have found him, I would have told him.

Could I have gone, I would have made a lot of money. (=If I could have gone,)

If I could have warned you in time, I would have done. (Eastwood, 2002)

Could I have seen him before he left (=If I could have seen him before he left), *I am sure I should have been able to prevent him from taking such an unwise step.*

2) Used in the sentence of rejection concession, e.g.

Even if I had been there, I shouldn't/wouldn't have been able to solve the problem by myself.

(The fact is: I was not there, so I was unable to solve the problem by myself.)

- 3) In informal spoken English, an additional *have* is sometimes added into *if*-clauses referring to the past. This is not correct, but some people (even educated people) still use it in speech, as in

*If I'd **have** known I'd have told you.*
 (= If I had known, I'd have told you.)

Sometimes subjunctive mood is used in a main clause without an *if*-clause when the meaning is understood or clear from the context, as in

*A stranger **would not have found** her house.*
 (= If he were a stranger, he would have been unable to find her house.)
*Previously she **would have done** it.*
 (= If that had happened in the past, she would have done it.)
*I **shouldn't be** in too much of a hurry.* (F.R. Palmer, 1987)
*I **wouldn't risk** it.* (F.R. Palmer, 1987)
 (There is an implied “if I were you” (giving advice) from the last two sentences above.)

4.28 Future doubtful supposition

There are three tense forms expressing the future doubtful supposition (that may be contrary to a future fact):

1)

| In <i>if</i> -clause | In Main (Result) Clause |
|----------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>were to do</i> | <i>should/would ...+ do</i> |

Examples:

*If he **were to hear** of your marriage, he **would be surprised**.*
*If you **were to start** tomorrow afternoon, you **would/could/might/ought to/should be** in Las Vegas by evening.*
*If anyone **were to touch** that wire, he/she **would be killed** instantly.*
*If it **were to rain** tomorrow, the sports meet **would be postponed**. (hypothetical future)
*If I **was to touch** that wire, I **should/would be killed** instantly. (informal)
*If he **was to touch** that wire, he **would be killed** instantly. (informal)
*If he **were to have** more time tomorrow, he **would come** to help me with the work.****

The last sentence above indicates “But I think it is highly improbable that he will have more time tomorrow.” As mentioned previously, *was* could replace *were* in informal style with 1st and 3rd person singular subjects, but not in the following when subject-verb inversion is used:

***Were** this project to fail, it **would be** a great loss for us all.*
 (= If this project were/was to fail,, but not**Was* this project to fail,)

In *If I were you*, we always use *were* in formal English. If we say: “*If I was you*”, it is regarded as substandard English, but in other cases, *was* or *were* is possible, and *were* is still better than *was* in formal English. *Were* is used to emphasize its untrue character more than *was*, as in

*If I **were/was** to ask her for help, she would come.*

***Were** I to ask her for help, she would come.*

****Was** I to ask her for help, she would come.*

In real conditional clauses, only *was* is used, as in

*If he **was** here, he **was** in the garden.* (But not **If he **were** here, ...*)

2)

| In <i>if</i> -clause | In Main (Result) Clause |
|----------------------|--------------------------|
| <i>should do</i> | <i>should/would + do</i> |

For example:

*If he **should** have more time tomorrow, he **would** come to help me with the work.*

The above sentence indicates “But whether he will have more time tomorrow is dependent upon chance.” *Should* in such a case expresses a tentative condition in *if*-clauses (Leech, 1974).

3)

| In <i>if</i> -clause | In Main (Result) Clause |
|-----------------------|------------------------------------|
| <i>the past tense</i> | <i>should/would /*might...+ do</i> |

Note that we do not use *might* in the main clause, because *might* is a discourse oriented modal, which has no unreal form occurring “as unreal conditional ...” (F.R. Palmer, 1974), that is, *might* indicates the meaning of permission, as in

If you **finished early, you **might** go.*

Cf. If you finished early, I might let you go (= “... it’s possible that I would let you go).

But: If you finish early, you may/can go.

If you finished early, you could go.

Leech et al.(1974) pointed out that “*Would* in the verb of the main clause can be replaced by another past tense modal auxiliary:

*If we **had** enough money, I **could** (= would be able to) buy a tape-recorded toady.*

(Leech et al., 1974)

*If we **climbed** the hill, we **would/could/might** see the sunset.* (F.R. Palmer, 1974)

(unreal present predicative, *might* indicating the meaning of “probable.”)

*If he **had** more time tomorrow, he **would** come to help me with the work.*

Note that the sentence indicates “But I think it is improbable that he will have more time tomorrow.”

*If we **had** enough money, we **could** (would be able to) buy a house now.*

*If Xinyi **came** tomorrow, she **would** work in the garden.*

Note that *Xinyi’s coming tomorrow* is unlikely, it is an unreal conditional. In such a case, when it expresses unreal conditional, the past tense of a modal is used in the main clause as shown in the sentences above – “*If Xinyi came tomorrow, she would work in the garden.*” “*If Xinyi comes tomorrow, she will work in the garden.* We use “comes” here, so *her coming tomorrow* is likely. This is a real conditional clause. As described earlier, we can use either the past tense of a verb or *were to do* in the *if*-clause to express present or future unreal conditional, but the use of *were to do* indicates greater unreality, so “*If you were to tell her the story, she would take advantage of it*” indicates more unreality than “*If you told her the story, she would take advantage of it.*”

4.29 Different tenses used in unreal conditional sentences

In unreal conditional sentences, both the *if*-clause and the main clause (or result) clause in each sentence refer to two actions which happened at the same time or one after another. When the actions expressed in the two clauses do not take place at the same time, different tense forms (mixed time) are used. That is to say, an *if*-clause refers to conditional past time using the past perfect tense, but the main clause has the simple past tense. Details are discussed below:

- 1) Different tense forms are used in both clauses, e.g.

*If you **had not seen** that late movie last night, you **wouldn’t be** so tired now.*

We know the fact: *You saw the movie last night*, which is the past fact; because you saw the late movie last night, *you are feeling tired now*, which is the present fact. *If we hadn’t made adequate preparations before the rainy season* (contrary to the past fact), *we wouldn’t (shouldn’t) be able to start the project next week* (referring to doubtful supposition in the future). *I should not be here now if you hadn’t given me a ride in a car.* “I should not be here now” is contrary to the present fact: “I’m here now.” “You hadn’t given me a ride in a car” is contrary to the past fact: “You gave me a ride.” More examples:

*If you **hadn’t told** me about it I **should/might not know** (= I should still be unaware of) the fact.* (Hornby, 1977)

*If we **had caught** that plane, we’d **be dead** now.* (We are not dead now.)

(It’s said that the plane was crashed before we wanted to take it.)

*If you **hadn’t come** to our rescue, we **wouldn’t be sitting** here safely now.*

(Alexander, et al., 1977)

*If you **had broken** that law, you **would be** in jail now.*

*If it **had rained** last night, the roads **would be** wet.*

(It did not rain last night – contrary to the past fact; the roads are not wet now – contrary to the present fact.)

If you **hadn't forgotten** your passport, we **wouldn't be** in such a rush. (Eastwood, 2002)
If he **'d taken** his doctor's advice, he **might still be** alive. (He didn't take his doctor's advice and he is dead now.)

- 2) *Should* or *would* can be replaced by *could* or *might*, etc., as the sense requires, e.g.
If he **could** help me, he **would**. (He can't help me.)
If he **should** hear of your marriage, he **would be** surprised. (Hornby, 1977)
If he **might** come, he **would come** early. (He may not come.)

The conjunction *if* is frequently omitted before **were, should, could, had**, but not before the present forms of these verbs. In this case the subject of the clause stands after *had, were, should, could*. They are often used in literary. In the negative of clauses beginning **had, were** and **should**, there is no contraction form: instead of **Hadn't I known Rita, I would not live here now*, we must say *Had I not know Rita, I would not live here now*. For example:

Were I (= If I were) you, I **would help** her with the project.
Could he (= If he could) **lend me** \$500, I **would buy** an iPhone.
Had you (= If you had) **invited us**, we **would have come** to your party.
Had it not been for your great help, I **wouldn't have completed** the work on time.
Were it not for the expense, I **'d go to** Las Vegas.
(= *But for* the expense, I'd go to Las Vegas.)
Should it (= If it should) **rain tomorrow**, I **would stay** at home.
Were he (= If he were/was) **here**, he **would explain** the whole matter.
Had I been able to speak Spanish, I **would have enjoyed** the country much more.
Had you not been with me, I **couldn't have made** myself understood at all.
(= if you hadn't been with me, I couldn't have made myself understood at all.)
(Alexander et al., 1977)
***Weren't it for** the expense, I **'d go to** Las Vegas.
***Hadn't you been** with me, I **couldn't have made** myself understood at all.

As mentioned above, the verb *was* is not to be so inverted, so we do not usually say, “**Was he here, he would explain the whole matter*” or “**Was this project to fail, it would be a great loss for us all.*” We will use *were* instead: “**Were** he here, ...” and “**Were** this project to fail, ...”

- 3) *Should* is used in an *if*-clause (it is still indicative), but the indicative mood may be used in the main (or result) clause, e.g.

If he **should be** hard working, he **can fulfil** the plan on time
If he **should know** it, he **will tell** us.

Here *should be* and *should know* do not express supposition contrary to anticipation but a little uncertainty. In such a case, they may be replaced by the present tense *is* and *knows* respectively and the sentences with thus become real condition and they are indicative (also see 4.25).

4.30 Subjunctive mood used in other constructions

1) *As if, as though*

In an adverbial clause begins with *as if* or *as though*, when an unreal comparison is suggested, past tenses are used with present meaning, e.g.

It seems as if the dark overcast sky were going to fall.

(The falling of the sky is impossible.)

He walked as if he had been drunk.

(He was not drunk. He only looked like it when he walked.)

It looks as if it were going to rain. (In fact, it is not going to rain.)

He behaves as if/as though the house belonged to him. (Obviously it doesn't belong to him.)

It's not as though he were rich. (He is not rich.)

It's not as though he was rich. (informal)

It isn't as if he were poor.

She looks as if she were fainting.

The enemy acts as if he had known our plan already. We should change the plan.

Yihan behaves as if she owns/owned the place.

Note when *as if* or *as though* is used after these verbs (*appear, happen, look, seem, etc.*), a subjunctive mood is used if something is contrary to the past, present, or even future, as seen from the examples above, but when something you mention is true, an indicative mood is used (also see the last sentence above), e.g. "*He looks/walks as if he is drunk.*" He is probably drunk because you can see the way he walks. "*You look as if you've been running.*" The person may well have been running, because he is panting or sweating, so the indicative is used in the *as if* clause.

2) *But for* (= *if it weren't/wasn't for...* or *if it had not been for ...*)

In a sentence containing the phrasal preposition *but for ...* (= *if it weren't for, if it wasn't for, or if it had not been for ...*), it is used to express the meaning of subjunctive mood for present, future, or past, as in

But for your co-operation (= If it hadn't been for your co-operation), *our meeting wouldn't have been so successful.*

We could have arrived at 8 a.m. but for the rain.

(The fact is: We arrived later than 8 a.m. because of the rain.)

An accident would have occurred but for the timely discovery of the mistake.

(Because of the timely discovery of the mistake, no accident occurred.)

But for the fact that it is raining now, I'd go out.

(=If it weren't for the fact that it is raining now, I'd go out.)

(= If it were not raining now, I'd go out.)

But for his having helped us, we should not have been successful in this work.

(Rayevsko, 1976) (A gerundial form is used.)

- 3) ***If it were not for/ if it hadn't been for/if it wasn't for*** (informal)
 This construction is used to express something unlikely to happen at present, future or past, as in
If it weren't for your help, I wouldn't complete the work.
 (= Without your help/But for your help, I wouldn't complete the work.)
 (Contrary to the present fact: you are helping me now, I will complete the work soon.)
If it hadn't been for your help, I wouldn't have completed the work.
 (= Without your help/But for your help, I wouldn't have completed the work.)
 (Contrary to the past fact: you helped me, so I completed the work.)
- 4) ***For fear that, even though, even if, if only, if so, if not, in case, lest***
John hurried to the classroom lest (= for fear that) he should miss his classes.
He locked up the documents, lest they should be lost.
Go quietly lest anyone hear you. (Hear is subjective, mainly AmE.)
He took his raincoat with him lest (in case) it should rain.
 (Here *should* has the meaning of future possibility.)
They took their umbrellas with them lest it should rain. (But not *will* or *would*)
He ran away lest he should be seen.
Lest he hear about it = Lest he should hear, etc. (L.X.H, 1982)
They were in a panic lest they be overtaken by the police. (subjunctive)
They were in a panic lest the maid leave. (Leave is subjunctive) (Evens, et al., 1957)
 Note that the use of ***should*** is better before ***be overtaken*** and ***leave*** from the sentences above.
Make a note of my iPhone number in case you should send me text messages.
Take an umbrella with you in case it should rain. (mainly AmE)
Take an umbrella with you in case it rains. (mainly BrE)
Be quiet in case you (should) wake the baby.
Even though he were my brother, I would cast him out (“...but he is not my brother.”)
 (archaic).
Even though he were here, I should say the same thing.
Even if I was/were there, what could I do?
Xinyi wouldn't want a dog even if she had room to keep one.
If only (= I wish, or I do wish) I could remember her name!
If only the rain would stop! (= I wish the rain stopped!)
If only I knew! (Hornby, 1977)
If only I had known! (*If only* can be used to begin exclamations)
If only you would listen to reason!
If only I'd listened to my girlfriend!
If only he didn't snore!
If only I hadn't listened to my wife! (But I did listen to her.)
If only somebody had told us, we could have warned you.

(*If only* clause precedes the main clause.) (R Quirk, et al., 1972)

*If you'd **only** told me, I could have gone.* (*Only* can sometimes be placed in mid position.)

Note that *if only* is more emphatic than *wish* when it expresses regret or what the speaker wishes had happened or would happen. Sometimes we use a present tense in *if only* clause when we express a wish about the future. Such a use looks like a real conditional, e.g. *If only the train gets in on time, we'll catch the two o'clock bus* (Eastwood, 2002).

5) **Suppose/Supposing (that)**

Conditional clauses are also used in **suppose/supposing** in reference to past, present or future (also see 4.11).

6) **Without or with or what if**

In a sentence contains the prepositional phrase *without ...*, if unreal supposition is suggested, which means “*if it weren't/wasn't for*” or “*if it hadn't been for*”, as in

*Their success **would not have been possible without** effort.*

(The fact is that their success has been possible because of their effort.)

(= If it hadn't been for effort, their success would have been possible.)

(= But for effort, their success would not have been possible.)

***Without** your help, I **wouldn't have completed** the project on time.*

(=If you had not helped me/If it hadn't been for your help/But for your help, I wouldn't)

*We **could hardly live without** air.*

(The fact is that we can live because we have air.)

*I **wouldn't be able to chair** the meeting **without** your support tomorrow.*

***With** a bit time, we **could do** a proper job. (= If we had a bit more time, ...)*

***What if** your iPhone 15 **doesn't get** here in time?*

***What if** you **don't/didn't** have enough money to get home?*

(We can use either the present or the past for a possible future action in the last sentence above.)

4.31 **Modals (could, might, mightn't or couldn't)**

When *could, might, mightn't or couldn't* is followed by perfect tenses, it refers to the something occurring in the past with hypothetical implication, as in

*If my parents hadn't been poor I **could have gone** to university.* (Swan, 1980)

*You **might have been killed** if you had boarded that plane.*

4.32 **Mixed groups in conditional clauses**

Besides what is stated above, there are other mixed groups, using any tenses and aspects. They do not indicate subjunctive mood.

Will is normally not used in an *if*-clause. It may be used, however, to express willingness or refusal, or make a request (which is not purely conditional), replaceable by *'ll*, not *shall*, with 2nd and 3rd person subject, and *would* is also used in this case (also see 4.7), as in

- If you **will** invite me, I will attend the party.* (willingness)
- If you **'ll** just **take** a seat, Mr. Roser will be with you in a moment.* (request)
- If you **'ll** help me, we could finish this job quickly.* (willingness/request)
(= Please help me, so that we may finish this job quickly.)
- If you **'d lend** me \$100, I could manage until pay day.* (request)
- If you **won't** (= refuse to) help us, all our plans will be ruined.* (R Quirk, 1972)
- If the car **won't start**, I'll have to ring the garage.* (refusal) (Eastwood, 2002)
- If you **wouldn't mind** waiting for a few minutes, I'll try to get my boss.* (request)
- If you **would care** to take a seat, I'll let my secretary know you're here.* (request)
- If you **'d just sign** here, please.* (request - without a main clause)
- If he **would agree**, we shall be happy.* (tentative) – the real conditional
- If you **could do** that, I shall leave early.* (F. R. Palmer, 1974)

The following sentence does not suggest willingness, as in

- I can lend you five dollars, if that **will help**.*
- I could lend you five dollars, if that **would help**.*

The above sentences simply mean *I can/could lend you five dollars. Will /Would that help?*

In *If the play will be cancelled, let's not go*, F. R. Palmer (1974) mentioned that “The suggestion is that we should not go if the play is going to be cancelled subsequent to our going. The cancellation is future to the going and *will* is retained.” “The meanings are ‘If, if we go, the play will be cancelled (when we arrive) let's not go’” (F.R. Palmer, 1987), so the above sentence is different from *If the play is cancelled, let's not go* because “the going or the decision not to go follows and results from the cancellation of the play.” It is a normal situation for the use of a real conditional clause.

In the 2nd and 3rd persons *will* and *would* in the affirmative and negative may indicate obstinate determination, the *will* and *would* always being stressed (Hornby, 1977) (Also see 4.7), as in

- If you **'will** eat so much pastry, you **'can't complain** if you get **'fat**.*
- If he **'will** go out without telling me first, he **won't get** my protection anymore.*
- If you **'would go** (insisted on going), that **was** unwise.*

Would is used in an *if*-clause, and *will* or *would* in the main clause, all of which expresses a more hesitant or a politer effect, as in

- a. *If you **would invite** me, I **will attend** the party.*
- b. *If you **would invite** me, I **would attend** the party.*

Sentence b above is “frequently used in business or official correspondence, where *should* is generally preferred with *I* or *we*, if only to prevent a repetition of *would*” (R.A. Close, 1975). *I should be grateful if you would let me know as soon as possible*. Again, this is not a subjunctive, but indicate mood to show courtesy, commonly used in a formal correspondence, which is more courteous than “*I shall be grateful if you will reply as soon as possible*.”

5

Adverbial Clauses of Degree

Adverbial clauses of degree are usually expressed by *to such an extent that*, *to the extent that*..., *to such a degree that* (= used to say that something has affected or influenced something so much that it causes something else to happen), *as far as ... is/are concerned*, etc. Besides, the present participles are also introduced in this section to express adverbials of degree, e.g.

*The temperature rose to **such an extent that** the firemen had to leave the burning building.*
(R Quirk, 1978)

*Violence increased **to the extent that** residents were afraid to leave their homes.*
(R Quirk, 2004)

The first sentence above is tantamount to *The temperature rose so high that the firemen had to leave the burning building*, in which *such ... that ...* is used to express the adverbial clause of result and has the expression of degree in meaning. So is the constructions of *so ... that ...*

More examples:

*The temperature rose to **such a high degree that** people could not work in the fields.*

*It's **such a good chance (that)** we mustn't miss it.*

Roughly = It's too good a chance to miss.

*These cities are **so small that** they cannot be shown in the map.*

*Donkey Queen is **so fit that** she may well win the race.* (Leech et al., 1974)

(Roughly = She is fit enough to win the race.)

1) “*As far as somebody or something ...*” (to the extent somebody or something is involved or affected) is used to express the degree of quality for some limitation, as in

***As far as I am concerned**, you can go anywhere you please.*

***As far as the accused are concerned**, it is up to the court to settle the question.*

*The rise in interest rates will be disastrous **as far as small firms are concerned**.*

*The car is fine **as far as the engine is concerned** but the bodywork needs a lot of attention.*

Hence, the constructions expressed by *so ... as...*, *such ... as...*, *as long as*, *as far as*, are also tantamount to the meaning of degree, e.g.

*His work was **so great as** to make him internationally famous.*

*This book is written in **such easy English as** most beginners can understand.*

*I have stood it **as long as** I can.*
*I followed him with my eyes **as far as** I could.*
*I can run **as fast as** I can.*

2) In *such ... as* construction, *as* is used as subject or object in the relative clause, “the *as* functioning equally as subject or object” (R Quirk, et al., 1972). In such a case, the *as* is used as a relative pronoun:

*Such girls **as** knew him were teachers.* (As is used as subject.)
*Such girls **as** he knew were teachers.* (As is used as object.)

It is to be noted that when a countable noun singular is used after *such*, we usually need an indefinite article *a* or *an*. For example, “I have never seen *such a boy* as behaves himself at the school.” However, the writer noticed the following sentence from *Post Probationary Contract Between Employee and Trustees, 2016 -2017 School Year of Clark County School District*:

The services of the employee are to commence at such time and are to be performed in such school or schools and in such position or positions and at such place or places as may be designated during the term of this Contract by the Superintendent or the Superintendent’s designated representatives.

In the sentence, *school*, *position*, and *place* are countable nouns. It would be better to insert *a* before them. Thus, “*The services of the employee are to commence at such time and are to be performed in such a school or schools and in such a position or positions and at such a place or places as may be designated ...*” But there is no indefinite article after *such* if it is used with the negative word, *no*, modifying a countable noun singular (in *such ... as/that* constructions). It is incorrect to say, “*There is *no such a girl* as you mentioned in our school.” “*There was *no such a thing* that he could win a million dollars in a minute.” (Also see 10.3.1.)

Sometimes *such ... as* is followed by an infinitive to express degree, e.g.

*She is not **such a fool as not to be able** to see the mistake she made.*

In such constructions *as/so far as* which means “(of progress) up to a specific point but not beyond.” The non-finite form is found to be used as follows:

*We’ve got **as far as collecting** our data but we haven’t analyzed it yet.*
*I have gone **as/so far as to collect** statistics for my investigation.*
*I have gone **as/so far as collecting** statistics for my investigation.*

3) Present participles used as an adverbial of degree to make an overstatement

Some present participles can be used like adverbs to modify adjectives or participles to emphasize their meaning, and in such a case the present participle is tantamount to the meaning of the adverb – *exceedingly*, *extremely*, or *very*, as in

*The summer weather in Las Vegas is often **blazing/burning/scorching** hot.*
*The soup is **boiling** hot.*
*His clothes were **dripping/soaking** wet when he came in.*
*The weather in December here is **biting/freezing/piercing** cold.*
*Don't eat **steaming** hot food. It will hurt your tongue.*
*The fierce lady was **raging/raving** mad when she left.*
*At noon, the snow on the mountain looks **dazzling** white.*
*Despite the **piercing** cold weather, Marlowe still went swimming.*
*There came a **groping dark** wilderness.*
*Don't be fooled by her **flattering sweet** words.*

The present participles used in these sentences above act like the function of an adverb.

6

Adverbial Clauses of Manner/Preference

Adverbial clauses or verbless clauses of manner/accompaniment (or attending/accompanying circumstance) are usually introduced by *as*, *as if*, *as though*, *like*, *much as* (with a fairly weak comparison), *just as* (with a strong comparison), *in a way (that)*, *in the way that*, *the way* (informal), *the same way as*, *the way (that)*, *rather than*, *sooner than*, *with*, *without*, *etc.*, and participles, adjectives, or noun phrases are also used to express manner/accompaniment, as in

*The upright man speaks **as** he thinks.*
*You must do the exercises **as** I show you.*
*I treated her **as** she deserved.*
*Next time I'll do **as** she says.*
*My girlfriend cooks turkey exactly **as** my mother did.*
 (= My girlfriend cooks turkey exactly in the way that my mother did.)
*They hunted him **as** a tiger stalks his prey. (R Quirk et al., 1972)*
 (= They hunted him in a manner similar to ...)
 (= As a tiger stalks his prey, (so) they hunted him.) (formal)
*Leave it **as** it is.*
*You must do **as** the boss has told you.*
*Please do exactly **as** your doctor says.*
*I was never allowed to do things **the way** I wanted to do them. (informal)*
*He was looking at her **in a way** she did not recognize.*
*We have to make it work **in the way that** we want it to. (formal) (Sinclair et al., 2017).*
*Do it (**in**) **the way (that)** I showed you just now.*
*She cooks turkey **in the way** my mother did. (formal)*
*Rita cooks turkey **the way** I like.*
*She cooks turkey **the way** my mother did. (informal) (Leech et al., 1974)*
***The way** you work, you must be a master carpenter.*

*He does not bother about trifles **the way** his elder brother does.*
*He cooks chickens **in the way** Yihan likes.*
*He cooks chickens **in a way** Yihan likes.*
*She cooks turkey **the same way as I do/ as me.** (Leech et al, 1974, p.92)*
*Rita dances **(in) the same way as I do.***
*It looks **as if** it were going to rain. (subjunctive mood)*
*She looks **as if** she is sick. (Indicative mood: She is not feeling well.)*
*She acted **as if** nothing had happened.*
*For a few moments, Xinyi sat **as if** stunned. (past participle)*
*Leilei ran off to the house **as if** escaping. (present participle)*
*Rita shook her head **as though** dazzled by her own vision.*
*Xinyi shivered **as though** with cold. (prepositional phrase)*
*Mary was behaving **as though** she hadn't grown up.*
As is known to all /As everyone knows, Marlowe produces more food this year than last year.
*I should thank you **rather than** that you thank me.*
***Rather than/Sooner than** travel by air, I'd prefer a month on a big liner.*
 (R Quirk et al., 1972) (bare infinitive)

6.1 Note that the use of *as* followed by the present tense, i.e. “*as you see*” expresses an adverbial clause of manner, but R Quirk et al. (1972) regard it as “comment clause,” which may occur initially, medially, or finally, and have a separate tone. For example:

As you see, I am doing well in the school.
The Smiths, as you probably know, are going to visit Las Vegas.
I'm a pacifist, as you know.
As you know, I am going to marry her.
As I understand (it), you will be leaving her.
One day I read, as was my habit, the page which one of the best of our English weeklies devotes to the consideration of current literature. (Schibsbye, 1979)
*As is generally assumed, she is always late for work. (Note the omission of **it** as subject)*
*As is known to all, USA is a superpower in the world. (Note the omission of **it** as subject)*

When the subject is omitted in the *as*-clause (*As is known to all, USA is a superpower in the world*), the *as* acts as a sentential relative pronoun, whose antecedent is the whole main clause. As seen previously, the clauses introduced by *as* are usually placed before or after the main clause or within, but *as* in the clause introduced by *as ... (so)...* construction is usually placed before the main clause, e.g.

As a man sows, so he shall reap.
As you make your own bed, so you must lie in it.
As the twig is bent, so the tree is inclined.

It is to be noted that if such an *as*-clause is placed at the beginning of the sentence, the correlative form *so* is used to introduce the main clause and sometimes it is omitted. Compare:

Leilei plays with her baby, as a small boy will handle his doll.

As a small boy will handle his doll, (so) Leilei plays with her baby.

The crane lifts a heavy weight, as a man does a basket.

As a man lifts a basket, (so) the crane does a heavy weight.

It is to be noted that clauses of manner sometimes show subject-verb inversion, as in *Klemperer's conducting of the third movement shows the extreme strength of his interpretation, as does his earlier recording of the Mass in C.*

The present owner is a keen art collector, as were several of his ancestors.

(R Quirk, et al., 1972)

6.2 *Like* or *as* is used as conjunction to express the meaning of (*in*) *the way (that)* or *in the same way as*. In such a case *like* (especially in AmE) is used as a conjunction in informal/colloquial English when it is followed by a clause, e.g.

Wood does not contract like steel does.

She's doing the work exactly like I want her to.

Xinyi behaved as/like she always does.

She cooks turkey as my mother did.

She cooks turkey like my mother. (formal, Leech et al., 1974)

You look like you've seen a ghost.

It looks like rain.

It looks like it's going to be a nice day.

It looks like we are going to have a thunderstorm. (*Like* for *as if* is substandard). (F.T. Wood 1981)

Rita started kissing me like we were on our honeymoon.

It looks like being a nice day. (Eastwood, 2002)

In formal English, *like* is a preposition and *as* a conjunction. That is, after *like* is followed by a noun and *as* a clause, but nowadays *like* can be followed by a clause (usually informal, especially in AmE). F.T. Wood (1981) pointed out that "It is permissible to use *like* instead of *as* when the words that follow it are felt to be descriptive of some characteristic or quality rather than to constitute a comparison of ways or methods." Then he gave the following examples:

I can't sing like I used to.

(The reference is to the quality of the singing rather than the manner.)

He writes just like his brother did when he was young.

(Descriptive of the style and appearance of the writing rather than the manner.)

In an adverbial clause beginning with *as if* or *as though* (there is no practical difference between them), a past tense or a past perfect tense is used with present or past meaning when an unreal comparison is suggested, e.g.

*It seems **as if** the dark overcast sky **were going to fall**.* (subjunctive mood)

(The falling of the sky is impossible.)

*Xinyi walked **as if** she **had been drunk**.* (subjunctive mood)

(Xinyi was not drunk. She only looked like it when she walked.)

*It looks **as if** it **were going to rain**.* (In fact, it is not going to rain.)

*He behaves **as if/as though** the house **belonged** to him.* (Obviously it doesn't belong to him.)

*It's not **as though** he **were/was** rich.* (subjunctive mood: He is not rich.)

*I treated her **as though** she **were** a stranger.* (subjunctive mood)

*It isn't **as if** he **were** poor.* (subjunctive mood)

*She looks **as if** she **were** fainting.* (subjunctive mood)

*The enemy acts **as if** he **had known** our plan already. We should change the plan.*

(subjunctive mood)

6.3 When *as if* or *as though* is used after these verbs (*appear, happen, look, seem, etc.*), non-finite forms, verbless clauses, or prepositional phrases are often used in the clauses introduced by *as*, *as if* and *as though*, where the ellipsis of subject and verb *be* usually occurs, as in

*Rita stood at the door **as if** waiting for someone.* (present participle)

(= Rita stood at the door as if she was waiting for someone.)

*Xinyi lay for several hours **as though** stunned.* (past participle)

(= Xinyi lay for several hours as though she was stunned.)

*Leilei hurriedly left the house **as though** angry.* (adjective)

(= Leilei hurriedly left the house as though she was/were angry.)

*He trembled with fear **as if** (he had been) **shivering from a severe attack of malaria**.* (Huang, 1985)

*English **(it is)** spoken in Australia is not quite the same as English **(it is)** spoken in London.* (Huang, 1985)

*The clouds disappeared **as if by** magic.* (prepositional phrase)

*The boy looked about **as if in** search of something.* (prepositional phrase)

*Kayla Yao paused a moment **as if to** collect herself for an effort.* (infinitive phrase)

It is noted that *were* is often used in *as if* or *as though* to indicate subjunctive mood; however, *present tense*, *future tense*, or *past (perfect) tense* is often used in such constructions:

*He walks **as if** he **were/was** drunk.* (*Were* used in subjunctive mood in formal English)

*It looks **as if** it **might snow/is** going to snow.*

*He was singing **as though** he **hadn't had/didn't** have care in the world.*

*It looks **as though** we **shall have to** do the work ourselves.*

It is to be noted that the following are idiomatic expressions to the manner clause with *as*:

*I thought my daughter Leilei could get better, but **as it is** (= in reality) she is getting worse.*

*Leave it **as it is** (= as it stands).*

*Send them **as they are** (= as they stand). (Huang, 1985)*

*You see, I am not, **as she is**, a very good swimmer.*

6.4 Manner/accompaniment (or attending/accompanying circumstance)

6.4.1 Present participles

A participial phrase showing accompaniment cannot well be converted into an adverbial clause. But beyond doubt, it has an adverbial function, and can be regarded as an adverb of manner, or of attending circumstances, so to speak. We usually use a participle for verbs such as *arrive*, *come*, *go*, *leave*, *lie*, *run*, *sit*, and *stand*, etc., to indicate accompaniment. For example:

*He **arrived puffing and panting**. (F.F. Palmer, 1974)*

Cf. He arrived *hot and miserable*.

*The birds **came hopping** round my window. (Hornby, 1977)*

*Please **fill** in this form, **giving** your name, address, etc.*

(The participial phrase here denotes how or in what manner the form is to be filled in.)

*They **left** for the fields, **shouldering** spades and hoes.*

(The participial phrase here denotes in what manner or in what circumstances they left for the fields.)

*She **lay smiling** at me.*

*The sunshine **came streaming** through the window.*

*People **ran screaming** for help when the earthquake broke out.*

*Leilei **sat** there, **reading** a newspaper.*

*They **sat** there, **talking** and **laughing**.*

*Xinyi **sat telling** me what happened last night. (accompaniment)*

*The sun **was setting, spilling** golden light on the low western hills.*

*The three ladies **shook** hands, **smiling** at one another.*

*They **were standing** there, **waiting** for the bus.*

*He rushed out, **even forgetting to take his overcoat**. (Zhang, et al., 1979)*

*Rita **stood talking** about the good old times. (= Rita stood and talked)*

*The children **stood** by the roadside, **watching** the parade.*

*The whole family **stood waving** in the road. (accompaniment)*

*Xinyi approached me, **smiling**.*

We must pay attention to the use of the present participle above. The logical subject of the present participle is the subject of the sentence. We do not say **Working in the field, my ankle was broken*. “Working” here is called a dangling participle, which is not allowed to be used, so

the logical subject of *working* is not the subject, *my ankle*, of the sentence. Instead, we can say, “*Working in the field, I broke my ankle* or *When/While working in the field, I broke my ankle.*” However, the dangling participle (unattached *-ing* participial construction) is sometimes used, especially in science articles or newspapers as long as we do not misunderstand the meaning from contexts. Evens et al. (1957) stated that “Frequently, an unattached participle is meant to apply indefinitely to anyone or everyone, as in *facing north, there is a large mountain on the right side* and *looking at the subject dispassionately, what evidence is there?*. This is the idiomatic way of making statements of this kind and any other construction would be unnatural and cumbersome.”

6.4.2 Past participles

The past participle can be used to express accompaniment/manner to the main verbs, as in

*Rita came back, utterly **exhausted**.*

(= Rita came back **and** was utterly exhausted.)

***Overjoyed**, Xinyi dashed out of the house.*

*He continued to walk up and down, **lost in thought**.*

*He drove the damaged car home **undismayed**.* (R Quirk, et al., 1972)

*The girl lay **trapped** in the car wreckage for three days after the accident.*

*Leilei returned home **overjoyed**.*

*Kayla Yao sat in the chair **exhausted**.*

*Xinyi sat in a chair, **lost in thought**.*

*Rita sat at the corner of the library, **absorbed in a book**.*

***Surrounded by** a group of students, Professor Kayla Yao sat in a chair, answering each student’s math questions.*

When adjective or noun phrases are used to express accompanying circumstance or accompaniment, they can be verbless clauses, as in

*Rita was talking to me, **her iPhone in her hand**.* (noun phrase)

(= Rita was talking to me. Her iPhone was in her hand.)

*Marlowe went away, **his hat in his hand**.* (noun phrase)

*The impatient man stood very straight, **his body absolutely stiff with fury**.*

(= *The impatient man stood very straight. His body was absolutely stiff with fury.*)

*Leilei came in, **her face pale**.*

(= Leilei came in. Her face was pale.)

*The children were waiting, **their eyes on the coming bus**.*

We can also use prepositional phrases introduced by *with* or *without* to express accompanying circumstances, as in

*A small boy, (**with**) **his satchel trailing behind him**, ran past.*

***With a book in hand**, Xinyi left the room.*

Without anyone noticing, I slipped through the window. (Noticing is a half gerund.)
Without a tear on her face, the girl watched him led away.

6.5 Present participles used to express attendant circumstances/accompaniment (manner)

We use present participles in the absolute to express accompaniment, as in

We went sight-seeing yesterday afternoon, Xinyi acting as guide.
Our office was on the third floor, its windows overlooking the cast-iron bridge.
A little girl walked past, her doll dragging behind her on the pavement.
Off we started, the late arrivals remaining behind.
We walked in a file, he leading the way.
We all went home, she remaining behind (= and she remained behind).
I saw a lot of people in the room, some talking, and some listening.
In the room I saw three men, two of them smoking a pipe.
Mr. Roser lapsed into silence, his mind working.
We were walking side by side, I still humming my little tune.
We all set out, he remaining behind.
They smoked the joint in silence, her sitting, him standing. (her or him used colloquially)
We should do well together, me being a good cook. (me used colloquially)
The embarrassed young man stared at me, his face reddening. (Sinclair, et al., 2011)
He groaned and fell to the floor, blood streaming from his nose.
That fierce lady looked at the ground, her face burning with shame.
They were watching the acrobatic show, their eyes (being) wide open.
Heishman approached me, her face smiling.

6.6 Past participles to express accompanying circumstance or accompaniment (manner)

We use past participles in the absolute construction to express accompaniment (manner), as in

Many students were moving to and fro, most of them muffled in their coats.
The little boy lay there, perfectly content, his head cradled in his mother's arm.
It is estimated that more than 20,000 are infected, 500 of them disabled for life.
Yihan sat forward in the chair, (with) her eyes fixed on her face.

We can also use the construction *with or without + noun + past participle* to express *cause or reason, time, circumstance, or accompaniment, etc.*, according to the context, as in

The hero walked to the execution ground, with his head held high. (accompaniment)
He whipped out a gun with a silencer attached. (accompaniment)
Rita lay on her back, with her legs drawn up. (accompaniment)
With the tree grown tall, we get much shade. (reason/cause)
Xinyi and Leilei sat in the room with the curtain drawn. (accompaniment)

*I wouldn't dare go home **without the job finished**.* (reason/cause)

***Without him taken care of**, the child was left alone at home.* (reason/cause)

*The war was over **without a shot being fired**.* (accompanying circumstance)

It is to be noted that in the absolute construction, besides the present participle, we can also use perfect tense or passive voice. If the logical subject is a personal pronoun, we usually use a subject case rather than object case although an object case is used in colloquial English or regarded as non-standard, etc., as in

*Members of the family occupied the spare bedrooms, **the remaining guests having been booked in at neighboring hotels**.* (R Quirk et al., 1972)

***She having finished the work**, there was nothing for us to do.* (reason or time)

6.7 By doing something or by means of

*In case something bad happens, you can save your life **by pressing the button**.*

*You can stop the machine **by pressing the button**.*

*She gained entry into the building **by means of a bribe to the guard**.*

7

Adverbial Clauses of Place

Adverbial clauses of place are usually introduced by *where, wherever, etc.* They can be placed before or after the main clause e.g.

***Where the ancients knew nothing**, we know a little.*

***Where there is life**, there is hope.*

*I will go **where they go**.*

*I found spots of paint **everywhere I looked**.* (Zhang et al., 1981)

*I know **where he is staying**.* (a noun clause used as object, not adverbial clause of place)

(Cf. I know at which place he is staying.) (an attributive clause)

(Cf. I know the place at which he is staying.) (an attributive clause, but the object of *know*)

*You must come to a full stop **wherever you see a stop sign**.*

*I will follow **you wherever you go**.*

The adverbial clause of place can also be used to indicate abstract meaning, e.g.

***Where there is a will, there is a way**.* (idiom)

***Where(ver) you find high wages, you will generally find high prices**.*

The compound words formed by *-where*, used as a suffix can be used to introduce the adverbial clause of place, e.g.

We'll go **anywhere** you direct us.

***Everywhere** she went, she was kindly received.*

The adverbial clause of place can be found in verbless clauses or some sayings, e.g.

*Fill the blanks **where** necessary.*

***Wherever** feasible, the illustrations have been taken from standard literature.*

***Where(ver) known**, such facts have been reported. (R Quirk et al., 1972)*

***Where(ver) possible**, all moving parts should be tested.*

Least said, soonest mended.

(= Where there is least said, there things are soonest mended.)

8

Adverbial Clauses of Proportion

Adverbial clauses of proportion (or parallelism) are an extension of the category of comparative clauses (also see *adverbial clauses of comparison* in 2), because they rather express a proportionality or degree between two circumstances. They are usually introduced by *as*, *the ... the* (*the* here is a conjunction, and not the definite article), *according as*, *in proportion as*, *as ... so*, *what*, *etc.*

8.1 Examples of such clauses

*Prices vary (directly) **as** inflation (i.e. as inflation varies).*

*A varies directly **as** B. If A is 50 when B is 5, what is the value of A when B is 7?*

*The volume of a gas varies inversely **as** the pressure applied to it (i.e. as the pressure applied to it varies).*

*Cost varies inversely **as** the number purchased. If 15 can be purchased for \$225, how much would 42 cost?*

*Water is to fish **as** (or, **what**) air is to man.*

*One is to two **as** (or, **what**) three is to six.*

***As** time went on, things got worse and worse. (Leech et al., 1974)*

***As** food nourishes the blood, **so** does reading nourish the mind.*

***As** a man makes his bed **so** must he lie.*

***As** men sow, **so** they will reap (or, so will they reap).*

***As** the desert is like a sea, **so** is the camel like a ship.*

***As** is the teacher, **so** is the pupil.*

*Rita is unusually smart, **as** is her daughter.*

***As** you treat me, **so** I will treat you.*

***As** you go farther north, (so)the winters become longer and more severe.*

***As** time went on, (so) their hopes began to wane.*

***As** the road got narrower, (so) we were unable to drive further.*

*Yihan is unusually tall, **as** are her brothers.*

*We treated them on the spot or sent them to a hospital **according as** the wounds were light or heavy.*

*You will be praised or blamed **according as** your work is good or bad.*

*Generally speaking, a man will succeed **in proportion as** he exerts himself.*

Note that sometimes the verbs are left out after *as* or *so* from some sayings or idiomatic expression, e.g. *As the tree, so the fruit. As the call, so the echo*, etc. The second proportionality in *as... (so)...* could also be expressed in another form, *the ...the ...* followed by the comparative forms (also see 2.9):

As the road got narrower, (so) we were unable to drive further.

*The narrower the road got, **the** more difficult we could drive.*

*The **more** you argue with Rita, **the less** she loves you.*

*The **farther** north you go, **the longer and the more severe** the winters become.*

*The **more** food you eat, **the better**.*

(= The more food you eat, the better it will be to you.)

*The **sooner** you go, **the sooner** you will be back.*

*The **more** learned a man is, **the more** modest he usually is.*

*The **earlier** (you get up tomorrow), **the better** (it will be).*

*We'll have to begin our journey early tomorrow; in fact, **the earlier, the better**.*

8.2 Idiomatic expressions

Note that we can omit the subject and verb of the second or both of the clauses if their meaning is obvious:

*The **quicker, the better**.*

*The **happier, the better**.*

*The **more, the better**.*

*The **more haste, the less speed**.*

***More haste, less speed.** (The definite article is omitted.)*

*The **sooner, the better**.*

*The **more, the merrier**.*

... etc.

9

Adverbial Clause of Purpose

Adverbial clauses of purpose are usually introduced by *that, in order that, so that, lest, in case, for fear (that), so (that), so as to do, (in order) to do, etc.*; in addition, we can use non-finite forms, some prepositions, or prepositional phrases to express purpose.

9.1 *So that*

In *so that* clauses, we can use the simple present or *may, might, shall/should* (used more often than other modals), *will, would, can, or could* (colloquial), as in

*We hid it carefully **so that** no one **should** see it. (Hornby, 1977)*

*They advertised the concert **so that** everyone **should** know about it.*

Tie the dog up **so that** he shall not run about and make trouble.
 Rita always comes to the school early **so that** she can prepare the lesson before class begins.
 He spoke so clearly (i.e. as clearly as he did) **so that** everyone **could** understand. (purpose)
 (R.A. Close, 1975)
 I stepped aside **so that** she **might/could** go in. (Hornby, 1977)
 Let the dog loose **so that** it can/may have a run.
 You should keep milk in a fridge **so that** it stays fresh. (Eastwood, 2002)
 I wrote it in my diary **so that** I wouldn't forget.

It is to be noted that *so that ... not* can be replaced formerly by the rather archaic *lest* or informally by *in case* or *for fear (that)*, as in

*Rita went to the airport in a taxi **in case** (or, for fear (that), or more formerly, lest) she should miss the plane.*

We can use two subordinate clauses that are linked by *and*, as in

*Rita saved money so that she could buy another house **and** so that she would have enough money for her old age. (purpose)*

So that here is used to express purpose, but if we use *so that* to express result, we cannot use *and* to link two clauses, as in

Rita saved money so that she was able to buy another house **and so that she had enough money for her old age. (result)*

Sometimes the adverbial clause of purpose introduced by *so that* can be placed before the main clause, as in

***So that they might not miss the train**, they were hurrying. (purpose)*
 (=They were hurrying so that they might not miss the train.)

***So that everyone could/should/would hear the announcement**, we turned the radio up to the maximum volume. (purpose) (R.A. Close, 1975)*

But when *so that* is used to introduce adverbial clause of result, it cannot be placed before the main clause, as in

*Nothing more was heard of him, **so that people thought that he was dead**. (result)*

**So that people thought that he was dead, nothing more was heard of him.*

*We turned the radio up, **so that everyone heard the announcement**. (result)*

(R.A. Close, 1975)

*We turned the radio up **so that everyone could hear the announcement**.*

(ambiguity – purpose or result) (R.A. Close, 1975)

In the adverbial clause of purpose introduced by *so that*, the *so that* clause can be used in the emphatical sentence introduced by *it ... that/who...* construction to emphasize the meaning of the adverbial clause of purpose, whereas when the *so that* clause is used to introduce adverbial clauses of result, it cannot be used in the emphatical sentence (Gu,1981), e.g.

*We travelled all day **so that we might reach safely by nightfall.*** (adverbial clause of purpose)
It was *so that we might reach safely by nightfall* **that** we travelled all day.
She had overslept, *so that she was late for her work.* (adverbial clause of result)
***It** was *so that she was late for her work* **that** she had overslept.

In spoken or in informal English, *so* is also used to introduce adverbial clauses of purpose, e.g.

*We'll sit nearer the front **so** we can see her better.*
*The vase had been put on top of the cupboard **so** it wouldn't get broken.* (Hornby, 1997)
*They shut the window, **so (that)** the neighbors wouldn't/shouldn't/couldn't hear the radio.*
(purpose) (R.A. Close, 1975)

It is noted that when *so that* and *so* are also used to introduce adverbial clauses of result, a comma is usually used to separate the clause from the preceding main clause. If the comma is not used, confusion in meaning will arise in the use of *so that* and *so* when they are used to express adverbial clauses of purpose in written English. In spoken English, there is a pause before a *so that* clause or a *so* clause. Moreover, sometimes there is no comma used in adverbial clauses introduced by *so that* or *so* to express result. In such cases, they are usually not followed by modal auxiliary verbs; otherwise, they are usually adverbial clauses of purpose, e.g.

*I went to the lecture early **so that** I got a good seat.* (result)
*He turned on the light **so that** I saw what it was.* (result)
*Turn on the light **so that** we may see what it is.* (purpose)
*I'm going to the conference early **so that** I'll get a good seat.* (purpose)
*The car simply did not start, **so (that)** I couldn't get to work.* (result)

But generally speaking, we use *so that* for purpose and *so* for result. The clause introduced by *so that* can be replaced by *so as to* followed by the infinitive, as in

*Rita worked all afternoon **so that** she could get her work done on time.*
(= Rita worked all afternoon **so as to** get her work done on time.)

9.2 In order that

In order that (more formal) is usually used in formal English and suggests a more deliberate purpose, less common than *so that*. The modal auxiliaries *should* or *may* (past tense *might*) is often used. In colloquial style, *can* or *could* is also used, as in

*We eat **so that** we may live; but some people seem to live **in order that** they **may** eat.*

In order that there should be no misunderstanding, we propose to issue these instructions to every employee, in writing. (R.A. Close, 1975)

I did that in order that everyone should be satisfied. (Hornby, 1977)

They climbed to the top of the building in order that they could get a bird's-eye view of the city.

Let the dog loose so that it can/may have a run.

I stepped aside so that she might/could go in. (Hornby, 1977)

Note that *in order that* can be also used in the emphatical sentence, as in

They donated five million dollars in order that a hospital would be built for the treatment of patients with coronavirus.

It was in order that a hospital would be built for the treatment of patients with coronavirus that they donated five million dollars.

9.3 That

In more formal or literary, ***that*** used alone to introduce adverbial clauses of purpose is not seen very often in contemporary English. In such cases, *may* and *might* are preferred to *can* and *could* (Hornby, 1977), which is usually replaced by *so that* or *in order that*, e.g.

They died that we might live. (They fought and died so that we might live in safety.)
(Hornby, 1977)

He took medicine on time that (so that / in order that) he might get well soon.

9.4 For fear that, lest

When *lest* is used to introduce adverbial clauses of purpose, it is usually used in formal style with negative meaning. We use either the subjunctive or modal; it rarely uses indicative present or indicative past. It is usually superseded by such constructions as *for fear that* (combining the idea of purpose with that of “afraid that”), *so that ... not*, *in order that ... not*, e.g.

I hid the book lest he should see it.(Zhang et al., 1981)

(= I hid the book *for fear that* he should see it.)

(= I hid the book *so that* he should *not* see it.)

(= I hid the book *in order that* he should *not* see it.)

Lest/In case the wall should collapse, they evacuated the building. (R Quirk, et al., 1972)

We elected this memorial, lest our children (should) forget.

I obeyed her lest she should be angry.

I'll be kind to her lest she decide to leave me. (Subjunctive mood is used in the clause.)

I fear lest she decide to leave me. (Subjunctive mood is used in the clause.)

She pulled away from the window lest anyone see them.

(Subjunctive mood, *see*, is used in the clause.)

He paused, afraid lest he say too much. (*say* - subjunctive mood used in the clause)

Shut the window for fear (that) it may rain.

R.A. Close (1975) pointed out that FOR FEAR THAT combines the idea of purpose with that of 'afraid that':

*We issued these instructions in writing, **for fear that** a spoken message might be misunderstood.*

The formal LEST could replace *for fear that*; but *for fear that* would not replace *lest* in

*We elected this memorial, **lest** our children (should) forget.*

nor

*We issued these instructions in writing, **lest** a spoken message (should) be misunderstood.*

We elected this memorial *for fear that* our children (should) forget. (R. A. Close, 1975)

9.5 In case

In case used to introduce adverbial clauses of purpose usually appears in informal style, e.g.

*He left early **in case** he should miss the train.*

(= He left early so that he should not miss the train.)

*Take your coat **in case** it rains/(**just**) **in case** it should rain.*

***In case** they wanted to study, they brought books with them.*

9.6 Other constructions expressing purpose

Besides adverbial clauses of purpose shown above, there are other constructions that can be used to express purpose: *for*, *with a view to*, *for the purpose of*, etc., as in

*She came here **for the purpose of** borrowing money from me.*

*Rita bought the land in Las Vegas **for the purpose of** building a house on it.*

(= ... so that she might build a house on it).

***My purpose** was to teach her a good lesson.*

*She came to my house **with a view to** borrowing money from me.*

*Rita went there, **with a view to/for the purpose of** ascertaining who was her boyfriend's new love.*

9.7 For with a noun to express the purpose of an action

Purpose is also expressed by the use of *for* followed by a noun, a gerund, or an infinitive with a logic subject, as in

*What do you use that tool **for**?*

*We use a hammer **for** knocking in nails.*

*That tool is used **for** loosening screws.*

*I was angry with her **for** being late (= because she was late).*

*I left a big space **for** her to get in.*

*We go out **for** some fresh air every morning.*

*A saw is a tool **for** cutting wood. (general)*

Cf. *I used this saw **to** cut wood.* (We use the infinitive to talk about a specific need or action.)

I used this saw **for cutting wood. (not general)*

9.8 Non-finite used as adverbial of purpose

The non-finite form with the infinitive expressing purpose can be switched to adverbial clauses of purpose, e.g.

Not to wake the sleeping child, the nurses whispered.

In order not to wake the sleeping child, the nurses whispered.

The nurses whispered so as not to wake the sleeping child.

The first three sentences above have the same meaning; they are tantamount to the following adverbial clauses of purpose:

(= The nurses whispered *in order that they should not wake the sleeping child.*)

(= The nurses whispered *so that they should not wake the sleeping child.*)

(= The nurses whispered *so they should not wake the sleeping child.*)

(= The nurses whispered *in case they should wake the sleeping child.*)

(= The nurses whispered *lest they (should) wake the sleeping child.*)

An adverbial of purpose and result is usually indistinguishable, so they are treated together. An adverbial of purpose can, however, usually be expanded into *in order to*. When the idea of result is also present, the infinitive is often preceded by *so (...) as to* phrase.

9.9 Infinitive used as purpose

He came to see the performance. (purpose)

To get a good seat, you'd like to arrive early. (purpose)

Xinyi left early to catch the last train. (purpose)

To improve the railway service, they are electrifying the main lines.

If everyone is to hear you, you must speak up.

(*If ...is/are to do ...* can express purpose. Also see 9.9.3)

We ran forward (in order) to welcome the guests. (purpose)

He works hard in order to/so as to give his family a holiday by the sea every year.

(Hornby, 1977)

In order to accomplish this project, they worked very hard day and night.

(purpose, *in order to* more formal than the infinitive, *to*)

The door was wide open to admit fresh air. (purpose)

She spoke so loudly as to be heard by all in the great hall.

These students studied so hard as to excel in school.

The little boy ran off so as not to be caught. (purpose, Hornby 1997)

They stopped to have a rest. (purpose)

Xinyi was in a great hurry in order not to be late for the party.

Rita came early every morning in order to complete her work before class began. (purpose)

You must do what the doctor tells you so as to get well quickly.

I shall go on working late today so as to be free tomorrow. (purpose and result)

I turned down the radio so as not to disturb you.

Cf. I turned down the radio *so that* I did not disturb you.

It is to be noted that if the logical subject of the infinitive is not the same as that subject of the sentence, it has to be expressed in the form of a *for*-phrase, as in

I bought three tickets (*in order*) *for all our three children to see the movie.*

(The logical subject of *to see the movie* is not the same as the subject, *I*.)

I bought the ticket *to see the movie.* (The logical subject of *to see the movie* is the same as the subject of the sentence, *I*, that is, “I wanted to see the movie”.)

When the infinitive is used to express purpose, it can be also used in the emphatical sentence, e.g. “It was *to help me yesterday* that he came” from “He came to help me yesterday.”

The infinitive can be used to express purpose or result. In order to avoid ambiguity, *in order to* or *so as to* is used when the infinitive expresses purpose. For example, *He came into the room in order to disturb me.* Without using “*in order to*”, the meaning of the sentence is confusing. When we say, “*He came into the room to disturb me*”, the sentence can express either purpose or result.

9.9.1 It is noted that when the infinitive is used to express purpose, the whole infinitive clause can be transposed or moved to the initial position (e.g. *To go to New York, I caught the train*) for the purpose of emphasis, although sometimes rather unnaturally:

I caught the train *to go to New York.* (purpose)

To go to New York, I caught the train. (purpose)

I ran *to catch the train.* (purpose)

To catch the train, I ran. (purpose)

To get a good seat, you’d like to arrive early. (purpose)

In order to catch the plane, we got up early. (purpose)

Cf. We got up early *so that* we could catch the plane.

9.9.2 **So as (to)** cannot be placed before the main clause, we do not say:

**So as not to be caught,* the little boy ran off.

Cf. The little boy ran off so as not to be caught.

**So as to catch the bus,* the man ran as fast as he could.

Cf. The man ran as fast as he could so as to catch the bus.

Moreover, the logical subject of the infinitive is usually the subject of the main clause. *I caught the train to go to New York* in which the logical subject of *to go to New York* is the subject, *I*. In order to avoid ambiguity in meaning, *for + logical subject + to do* construction is used, as in

I stopped for him to speak to me. (He spoke to me.)

Cf. I stopped *to speak to him*. (I spoke to him.)
*The teacher opened the door **for children to come in**.*
*Textbooks are made **for students to learn from**.*
***For us to start early**, the landlord will have to open the gate at 2:00 am.*
***For a machine to run fast**, he adjusted the speed.*

9.9.3 In informal English, we use *and* rather than *to* in the cases of *come/go to do* construction; the *and* functions as purpose, too.

***Go and get** some water for me. (= Go (to) get some)*
***“Come and see me** when you come back,” he said.*

Usually when *come* or *go* is used in imperative sentences (but not limited) or indicative sentences or interrogative questions, bare infinitives are often used (Gu,1984). For example:

*Come **dance** with us!* (*and* is omitted, especially in AmE after the verbs *come* or *go*.)
*Come **fly** Korea. Come spend a few pleasant hours as our guests.* (*Time*, April 14, 1980, p.3)
There will be pageants, parades, festivals, even royal tours. Come **celebrate** with us.
(*Newsweek*, April 21, 1980, p.13)
***Go take** a look outside.* (Eastwood, 2002)
*Let’s **go find** us a drink.* (Gu, 1984)
*Let’s **go find** something to eat.* (*ibid*)
*You’d better **go see** a doctor about that cut.* (*ibid*)
*I’d like to **go hear** a concert this afternoon.* (*ibid*)
*I think I’ll **go lie** down for a while.* (*ibid*)
*Will you **come join** us?*
*Do you want to **go look** at yourself?*

When *go* or *come* is in past tense, the verb after *and* does not express purpose, but expresses result, e.g. *We went and met him at the airport.*

The infinitives, for example, can be used to express purposes in *If ... be to ...*, as in

If everyone is to hear you, you must speak up.
(The infinitive *be to do* used in an *if*-clause expresses purpose.)

9.10 Present participle used for purpose

*Chamberlain and his like pursued an appeasement policy toward Hitler, vainly **attempting** to divert the disaster eastward.*

*I went/was out **shopping**.*
*She often goes **swimming** at weekend.*

9.11 Some clauses expressing purposes

Sometimes (Zhang et al., 1981) we use relative clauses, coordinate clauses, or clauses of reason to express purpose. For example:

*Envoys were sent **who should promote friendly relations with other countries.***

(= Envoys were sent so that friendly relations might be promoted.)

*They asked him ... **because they might accuse him.***

(= They asked him ... so that they might accuse him.)

9.12 Semicolons used to express purpose

Sometimes we do not use subordinators. Instead, we use a semicolon to separate two clauses to express purpose:

We are modernizing our armed forces; they are to protect our economic construction.

(= We are modernizing our armed forces *so that* they may protect our economic construction.)

She supports political scums everywhere; they are to act as her lackeys.

(= She supports political scums everywhere *so that* they may act as her lackeys.)

10

Adverbial Clauses of Result

Adverbial clauses of result are usually introduced by *and, so, and so, so... that, such ... that, so that, that, with the result that, so ... as to do, such... as to do, etc.* *So that* introduced in the result clause appears the same as the clause of purpose. In fact, the two types of clauses may overlap both in meaning and in form. As mentioned previously, in the purpose clause, it usually contains a modal verb, while in the result clause may have an ordinary verb form without any modal auxiliary because result clauses are factual. You will see the difference between the two in **10.4**. In this section, some conjuncts (i.e. *therefore, otherwise, etc.*) or other constructions are also introduced.

10.1 *And, and so, so, therefore, otherwise, else, or else*

The coordinator *and* may have the meaning of result or consequence, in which case some such adverbs as *so, therefore, consequently, hence, etc.* may be added to advantage. The adverb indicated in parentheses in each of the sentences below may be inserted to bring out the meaning of *and* more explicitly or reinforcement. For example:

*Smith was shot in the chest **and** died.*

*He has bought a novel, **and** he is reading it with great interest.*

*She was having great difficulty getting her car out, **and so** I had to move my car to let her out. (Sinclair et al., 2017)*

*Rita fell sick, **and** she had (**therefore**) to be sent to hospital.*

*He confessed and repented his crime, **and** (**hence**) he got a commutation of his penalty.*

*It began to rain, **and** (**then**) we went home. (Then is a mere chronological sequence to the first clause.)*

*Xinyi washed the dishes, **and (then)** she put them in the sideboard. (Then is a mere chronological sequence to the first clause.)*

*Lucy has quarreled with the boss **and** she has resigned.*

*Andy was sick **and** he stayed home for several days.*

We use *so* to express a result (usually used in spoken English), as in

*Rita was late for the math exam, (and) **so** she failed it.*

*It hasn't been raining for a long time in Las Vegas, **so** the ground is very dry and dusty.*

*I don't use the language much, **so** I tend to forget it.*

We usually use a comma in written English after the main clause in such result clauses. Note that the subject can be omitted after *so* in informal spoken English, e.g. “*They were tired, so (they) left early.*” (R Quirk et al., 1972)

The adverb *therefore* (meaning “as a result of something that has just been mentioned”) is a little formal. It goes in front or after the subject, as in

*The dollar has gone down against the yen, **therefore** Japanese goods are more expensive for Americans.*

*After six months in Las Vegas, she ran out of money. She **therefore** had to look for a job.*

*I **therefore** decided to return the next year.*

*She has been out of work for ages. She is **therefore** broke.*

We can use *or else* and *otherwise* (meaning “if not”) to express a result of something (bad) would happen if something does not happen, as in

*Your book must be here, **or else** you've lost it.*

*You have to roll the clothes very tightly **or else** they won't all fit in the rucksack.*

*You must pay 1000 dollars **or else** go to prison. (followed by an infinitive)*

*You'll have to go now, **otherwise** you'll miss your bus.*

*Put the cup back on the bottle, **otherwise** the juice will spill.*

*Do as you're told, **otherwise** you'll be in trouble.*

10.2 *So ... that*

In the construction of *so ... that*, *that* is a correlative conjunction, and *so* is an adverb expressing “degree” is followed by adjectives or adverbs, participles, countable noun singular, *many* followed by countable nouns, *much* followed by uncountable noun, and *that* is used to introduce the adverbial clauses of result, e.g.

1) *so* + adjectives +(a countable noun singular) *that*-clause

*She was **so** angry **that** she left the room without saying a word. (Angry is adjective.)*

*It was **so** hot (**that**) we were unable to go out. (That can be omitted in informal English.)*

*It was **so** hot (**that**) I couldn't sleep. (R.A. Close, 1977)*

*I couldn't sleep, it was **so** hot.* (colloquial)

*He made **so** remarkable a speech **that** he was elected.* (R.A. Close, 1975)

(*so* + adjective + a countable noun singular + *that* ...)

(= He made a speech so remarkable that he was elected.)

*He made a *so remarkable speech* that he was elected.

*They are *so pretty girls* that their parents love them very much.

(*So* cannot be followed by countable nouns plural.)

*They are girls **so** pretty **that** their parents love them very much.* (*So* used here is awkward.)

It is noted that *so* + *adjective* construction is placed at the beginning of the sentence for the purpose of emphasis, but a verb-subject inversion is used when *so* + adjective is placed before the subject:

***So** successful have they been **that** they are moving to Bond Street.* (Sinclair et al., 2011)

***So** hot was the summer weather in Las Vegas **that** I couldn't stand it.*

(= The summer weather was so hot in Las Vegas that I couldn't stand it.)

*He told **so** funny a story **that** ...* (R Quirk et al., 1972)

*He told **as** funny a story **as** ...*

He told **so funny stories **that** ...* (*So* is not followed by countable nouns.)

?*He told **as** funny stories **as** ...*

He bought **so hard wood **that** ...* (*So* is not followed by uncountable nouns.)

?*He bought **as** hard wood **as** ...*

As seen above, a plural noun or an uncountable noun is not used after the adjective in the construction of *so* + *adjective*, but we use *such* instead (also see 10.3).

2) *so* + adverb + *that*-clause

*John spoke **so** loudly **that** everyone could hear what he said.*

*She polished the floor **so** hard **that** you could see your face in it.* (Leech et al., 1974)

***So** badly was he injured **that** he was unable to move.*

(*So* + *adverb* construction is placed at the beginning of the sentence for the purpose of emphasis, but not *that*-clause.)

*He spoke **so** eloquently **that** we were all moved to tears.* (*Eloquently* is adverb.)

3) *so* + determiner + noun + *that*-clause

In this construction, *so* + *many* + countable nouns, and *so* + *much* + uncountable noun, as in

*There are **so many** people in the room **that** we couldn't get in.*

(*Many people* is a noun phrase.)

*That lady had **so many** children (**that**) she didn't know what to do.*

*There were **so many** people you could hardly get in the room.* (*That* is omitted after *people*.)

*There was **so much** ink in the bottle **that** I spilled it.* (*Much ink* is a noun phrase.)

*Rita lost **so much money** in the slot machine **that** her boyfriend didn't feel happy.*
***So many people** went to vote for him **that** he won the election.*
***So many people** came to the party **that** we ran out of liquor.*
**So many people that we ran out of liquor came to the party.*
(That is not the relative pronoun but a correlative of adverbial clause.)

4) **so** + participles + that-clause

*The book is **so written that** it gives a quite wrong idea of the facts.*
(Written is a past participle.) (Zhang et al., 1984)
*I was **so thrilled** by the present **that** I forgot to thank you.*

As mentioned in 1) above, the subject-verb inversion is sometimes used when *so* is placed at the beginning of the main clause in formal (especially literary) English.

Compare:

***So badly was he injured that** he had to stay home for several months before his recovery.*
*Cf. He was injured **so badly that** he had to stay home for several months before his recovery.*
***So strange was his appearance that** no one recognized him. (R Quirk et al., 1972)*
*Cf. His appearance was **so strange that** no one recognized him.*

In colloquial English or spoken English, *that* is omitted with or without comma (in written expression) in *so ... that ...* construction, e.g.

*He was **so** tired (,) (**that**) he could hardly stand.*
*You walk **so** fast (**that**) I can't keep pace with you.*
*It was **so** hot, I couldn't sleep well.*
*It was **so** hot (**that**) I couldn't sleep.*

A comma seems required after the omission of *that*. The result clause without the conjunction *that* may even take front position, that is, a result clause could be placed before the main clause in informal English, as in

*I couldn't sleep well, it was **so** hot. (Hornby, 1977)*
*I could see our principal in the parade, the visibility was **so** good.*

From the above sentences, the result clause comes before the main clause (in colloquial style), *it was so hot*. Thus, the *so*-clause has become an afterthought.

5) It is to be noted that in the *so ... that* construction, a verb can be used after *so*, besides adjectives or adverbs, as in

*A good writer or speaker will **so** form his sentence **that** his reader or listener is kept in suspense until the end of it.*
*Let's **so** plan our work **that** it will be finished by the end of the month.*

*A good commander **so** directs his campaign **that** the enemy is always taken unawares.* (Huang, 1985)

*He **so** adores his daughters **that** he keeps buying them expensive toys.* (Hornby, 1997)

*I **so** enjoyed it (or I enjoyed it so much) **that** I'm determined to go again.*

(R Quirk, et al., 1972)

10.3 *Such ... that*

Such can be followed by a countable noun singular, countable noun plural as well as by uncountable noun. In *such ... that ...* construction, *such* is a determiner, the function of which is tantamount to that of adjective; *that* is a correlative conjunction. The *that*-clause is not a relative clause used to post-modify the noun after *such*, but is used to represent the clause of result, e.g.

*He told us **such** a funny story **that** we all laughed.*

(*Story* is not the antecedent of *that*-clause, *we all laughed*, but the clause expresses the result.)

(= The story he told us was *so* funny *that* we all laughed.)

*It was **such** a terrible experience **that** I will never forget it.*

(= The experience was so terrible that I will never forget it.)

*The animal was **such** a nuisance **that** we let it escape.*

*My house looks **such** a mess (**that**) I couldn't invite anyone in.*

(*That* can be omitted in informal English.)

*They are **such** pretty girls **that** their parents love them very much.*

*He told **such** a (funny) story **that** ...* (*Such* is followed by a countable noun singular.)

*He told **such** (funny) stories **that** ...* (*Such* is followed by countable nouns plural.)

*He bought **such** hard wood **that** ...* (*Such* is followed by an uncountable noun.)

In colloquial English or spoken English, *that* is omitted with or without comma (in written expression) in *such ... that ...* construction, e.g.

*John is **such** a smart boy (,) (**that**) he is loved by everyone.*

*We left in **such** a hurry (**that**) we forgot to lock the door.*

10.3.1 *Such + a countable noun singular in form + that*-clause:

He is **such** a nice boy **that** everyone likes him.

It was **such** a bad day **that** there were many car accidents in the city.

Xinyi left in **such** a hurry **that** she forgot to bring her iPhone with her.

Dian made **such** a (good) speech **that** he was elected unanimously.

Note that when a negation, *no*, is used in this pattern, the indefinite article, *a* or *an*, cannot be used, as in

*There is **no such** person **that** he could win a million dollars in a minute.*

There is **no such a person that he could win a million dollars in a minute. (Also see 2) in 5)*

Note ELL students often used an article before a countable noun in this construction.

(Cf. There is **not such a** person **that** he could win a million dollars in a minute.)

*There was **no such thing that** he could win a million dollars in a minute.*

There was **no such a thing that he could win a million dollars in a minute.*

*There was **not such a thing that** he could win a million dollars in a minute.*

10.3.2 **Such + countable noun plural in form + that-clause:**

*The students have **such** wonderful teachers in the school **that** they like their teachers very much.*

*He advanced **such** convincing arguments **that** he was elected unanimously.*

10.3.3 **Such + uncountable noun + that-clause:**

*His article is written in **such** easy English **that** my first grandson can read it without difficulty.*

*It was **such** bad weather **that** there were a lot of car accidents in the city.*

*He showed **such** (great) courage **that** he was elected unanimously.*

*She was in **such** bad health **that** she was obliged to quit the job.*

In formal English, especially in literary English, is sometimes found a subject-verb inversion for the purpose of emphasis. For example:

*To **such** lengths **did she go** in rehearsal **that** two actors walked out.*

In spoken English or less formal written English, we usually omit *that* after *so* or *such*. When the correlative *that* is absent/omitted from *so ... that*, *so that*, or *such ... that* construction, it is said to be “the character of an afterthought” and “often emotive” (R Quirk et al., 1972). For example:

*I could have punched him on the nose, I felt **so** wild (informal).*

*He had no need to make speeches, **so** impregnable was his position in the party.*

*He polished the floor **so** hard you could see your face in it.*

*There is **so** much fun (**that**) we will do it again.*

*I took no notice of him, **so** he flew into a rage. (R Quirk, et al., 1972)*

*They have **such** a large family (**that**) it must be difficult to support.*

When omitting *that*, we usually add a pause in speaking and a comma or semicolon in written expression, as in

*He made **such** a big mistake; we don't know how much money we have lost.*

When the modal auxiliary verb is not used, the *so/such ... (that)* construction has the more definitive meaning of result or outcome. For example:

*The dog was **so** fierce **that** we let it escape.*

*I so enjoyed it (or I enjoyed it so much) that I'm determined to go again.
He told us such a funny story that we all laughed.*

10.4 So (that)

So that construction is different in use from *so ... that ...* construction. English language learners often get confused in this regard. *So that* is a *compound* conjunction, whereas *so ... that* is a *correlative* conjunction. In the *so that* clause, the *that* can be omitted in informal English, e.g.

She had overslept, so that she was late for her work.

He won't listen to me, so that you'd better try talking to him yourself.

All necessary measures have been taken, so (that) we may expect to succeed.

We all arrived at eight, so (that) the meeting began promptly.

(Informal, when *that* is omitted.)

I took no notice of him, so (that) he flew into a rage. (Leech et al., 1974)

(= He flew into a rage *because* I took no notice of him.)

(= I took no notice of him, as a result, he flew into a rage.)

As mentioned previously, when *so that* and *so* are used to introduce adverbial clauses of result, a comma is usually used (in written expression) to separate the clause from the preceding main clause as seen from the above sentences. If the comma is not used, confusion in meaning will arise in the use of *so that* and *so* when they are used to express adverbial clauses of purpose in written English. In spoken English, there is a pause before *so that* or *so* is introduced. Moreover, sometimes there is no comma used in adverbial clauses introduced by *so that* or *so* to express result. In such cases, they are usually not followed by modal auxiliary verbs (but occasionally followed by a modal auxiliary verb), especially when something is or was done in a particular way to achieve a desired result; otherwise, they are usually adverbial clauses of purpose from contexts. A *so that* clause in expression of purpose can be placed before the main clause, whereas a *so that* clause in expression of result cannot be placed at the beginning of the sentence, that is, before the main clause, as in

Turn on the light so that we may see what it is. (purpose)

I'm going to the conference early so that I'll get a good seat. (purpose)

So that I'll get a good seat, I'm going to the conference early. (purpose)

So that everyone could/should/would hear the announcement, we turned the radio up to the maximum volume. (purpose, R.A. Close, 1975)

Explain it so that a 10-year-old could understand it. (result, Sinclair et al., 2011)

I went to the lecture early so that I got a good seat. (result)

**So that I got a good seat, I went to the lecture early.* (result)

He turned on the light so that I saw what it was. (result)

**So that I saw what it was, he turned on the light.* (result)

Nothing more was heard of him, so that people thought that he was dead. (result)

**So that people thought that he was dead, nothing more was heard of him.* (result)

10.5 It ... that/who ... construction

In the adverbial clause of purpose introduced by *so that*, the *so that* clause can be used in the emphatical sentence introduced by *it ... that/who...* construction to emphasize the meaning of the adverbial clause of purpose, whereas when the *so that* clause is used to introduce adverbial clauses of result, it cannot be used in the emphatical sentence (Gu,1981), as in

*We travelled all day **so that** we might reach safely by nightfall.* (adverbial clause of purpose)

It was *so that we might reach safely by nightfall **that** we travelled all day.*

She had overslept, ***so that** she was late for her work.* (adverbial clause of result)

***It** was *so that she was late for her work **that** she had overslept.*

10.6 Such that

Such that construction can be also used to introduce the adverbial clause of result with the meaning of *so great*, in which *such* is a pronoun rather than a determiner, and sometimes *such* is placed at the beginning of a sentence, followed by *be*. It usually appears in SVC construction, e.g.

His diligence was ***such that** he made tremendous progress.* (Zhang et al., 1984)

Such was his anxiety ***that** he couldn't stop trembling.*

(= His anxiety was such that he couldn't stop trembling.)

Such was her beauty ***that** they could only stare.* (Sinclair et al., 2011)

(= Her beauty was **such that** they could only stare.)

Such is the power of suggestion ***that** within a very few minutes she fell asleep.*

It is to be noted that the *so (such) ... that not* construction may be converted into the *too ... to* construction. Thus, the two sentences of each of the following pairs are equivalent:

*They were **so** weak **that** they could **not** battle against the blizzard.*

*They were **too** weak **to** battle against the blizzard.*

*I am **so** old **that** I **cannot** work full time.*

*I am **too** old **to** work full time.*

*The snow was **so** deep **that** the sledges could **not** go over it.*

*The snow was **too** deep for the sledges **to** go over it.* (A *for* phrase is used because the subjects in the two clauses are different.) (Huang, 1985)

*It was **such** a fierce blizzard **that** they could **not** continue the journey.*

*It was **too** fierce a blizzard for them **to** continue the journey.* (Huang, 1985)

The *so ... that* construction may also be converted into a *so ... as to* construction, provided the subjects of the two clauses are the same, as in

*He was **so** angry **that** he beat his son.*

*He was **so** angry **as to** beat his son.* (Huang, 1985)

10.7 That

That alone can be used to express adverbial clauses of result whether it is in the form of interrogative sentences or affirmative sentences, e.g.

*Have you finished all your assignment **that** you are sitting idle here?*

*There must be something wrong **that** he hasn't arrived yet.*

*What have I done **that** you should be so angry with me? (Zhang et al., 1984)*

*I must be getting pretty absent-minded **that** I forgot to bring my ticket.*

Sometimes the negation is used not only in the main clause but also in the adverbial clause. This double negation still denotes the affirmation of result, e.g.

*He never played with children **that** a quarrel did not follow.*

(Cf. He never played with the children without quarrelling with them.)

*Hardly a week passed **that** he did not get another new idea.*

(Cf. Every week he got some new idea.)

From the above sentences, the conjunction *that* can be used together with *but that* or *but* alone, then *negation* is not used in the adverbial clause, e.g.

*He never played with children **but that/but** a quarrel followed.*

*Hardly a week passed **but that/but** he got another new idea.*

It is to be noted that when *that* is used, usually following a main clause that is either a negative (not positive) exclamation or a rhetorical question. Huang (1985) pointed out that the *that* can be paraphrased as *so that ... not*, implicitly at least, if not explicitly. The modal auxiliary verb *should* is usually used in the expression of obligation or surprise. For example:

*I am not a cow that you **should** expect me to eat grass! (negative exclamation)*

Cf. I am not a cow, *so that* you should *not* expect me to eat grass.

*Am I a cow that you **should** offer me grass? (a rhetorical question)*

Cf. Of course, I am not a cow, *so that* you should *not* offer me grass.

*I am not a child that you **should** cheat me!*

Cf. I am not a child, *so that* you should *not* cheat me.

*Am I a child that you **should** cheat me?*

Cf. Of course, I am not a child, *so that* you should *not* cheat me.

I have done nothing that you should blame me so much!

Cf. I have done nothing, *so that* you should *not* blame me so much.

*What have I done that you **should** blame me so much?*

Cf. Of course, I have done nothing, *so that* you should *not* blame me so much.

10.8 *With the result that, etc*

With the result that can be used to introduce the adverbial clause of result, e.g.

*He made some serious mistakes in his work, **with the result that** he failed the test.*

*Nothing more was heard of him, **with the result that** people thought he was dead.*

*He spoke for an hour and a half **with the result that** the other speakers had no chance to say anything.*

It is noted that **with the result that** is tantamount to **as a result ...**, e.g.

*He made some serious mistakes in his work, **with the result that** he failed the test.*

(= He made some serious mistakes in his work. As a result, he failed the test.)

*Nothing more was heard of him, **with the result that** people thought he was dead.*

(= Nothing more was heard of him. As a result, people thought he was dead.)

10.9 The infinitive used to express result

The non-finite forms, *so ... as to do*, *in such ... as to do*, *such(...) as to*, *enough to do*, *enough of a ...to do*, *only to...*, *to ...*, *sufficiently ... to*, *too ... to do*, *too much of a ... to do*, etc., can be used to express result, e.g.

*You were **so stupid as to** lend her \$100. She would never give it back to you.*

*His satires were **so brilliant as to** make even his victims laugh. (R Quirk et al., 1972)*

*John was **such a selfish person / so selfish as not to** be able to think of other people's interests.*

*She was **in such bad health as to** be obliged to resign.*

*He was foolish **enough**, despite warnings, **to sail** the boat alone. (R Quirk et al., 1972)*

*You are not old **enough to sign** the paper.*

*Lucy is old **enough to drive** a car.*

*He's **enough of a man/a coward/a fool to tell** the truth.*

(= He is so manly/cowardly/foolish that he tells the truth.)

*That boy is fool **enough to believe** what a stranger told him.*

(No indefinite article is used before a noun: *That boy is *a fool* enough to believe what a stranger told him.)

(= That boy is so foolish that he believes what a stranger told him.)

*She was fool **enough to tell him everything**. (No indefinite article is used before a noun.)*

*He is not man **enough to confess his mistake**. (No indefinite article is used before a noun.)*

*John was man/coward/fool **enough to agree**. (No indefinite article used before a noun)*

(R. Quirk, et al., 1972)

(= John was manly/cowardly/foolish enough to agree.)

(= John was enough of a man/a coward/a fool to agree.)

*She's too young **to understand**.*

*He's **too much of a coward to tell** the truth.*

(= He's so cowardly that he does not tell the truth.)

*He's **enough of a coward to do** that. (R Quirk, et al., 1972)*

*Leilei ran **too** quickly for me **to catch** her.*

*Xinyi's presentation was **so good as to** make her employees feel happy.*

*Rita arrived at the house **only to** find her computer stolen.*

*I went to the post office (**only**) to find it was closed.*
*Kayla Yao is **sufficiently** smart to pass her AP test.*
*She was **too** weak to get up.*
*We have **too** few people to carry out the big project.*
*John was **too** selfish to care for other people's interests.*
*I am **such** a fool as to believe what she told me.*
*Her unknown illness is **such as** to cause great anxiety.*
*He is old **enough** to know how to handle the issue.*
*The wood is strong **enough** to carry the weight.*
*Heishman is old **enough** to do some work.*
*The grass isn't long **enough** (to cut). (The infinitive can be omitted if the context allows.)*
*She is rich **enough** (to own a car). (The infinitive can be omitted if the context allows.)*
*The grass is **too short** (to cut). (The infinitive can be omitted if the context allows.)*
*He is **too** young to know anything.*
*He is **too** old to do any work.*
 (The negative force of **too** is usually followed by non-assertive like *any* or *anything*.)
*It's **too** late for the pubs to be open.*
 (Too can be followed by *for ... to do* construction.)
*It was **too** late for us to attend the meeting.*

10.9.1 Too ... to do, to do

In *too ... to do* construction, when *it* is the object of the infinitive, this *it* is also the subject of the main clause, the pronoun can be omitted or when there is no object of the infinitive, the understood object is the subject of the main clause:

1) Too ... to do

*It moves **too** quickly for people to see.* (R Quirk, et al., 1972)

(=It moves too quickly for people to see *it*.)

Or: It moves too quickly *to see*. (Here *to see* is passive in meaning.)

(= It moves too quickly *to be seen*.) (We usually use active voice in such a case.)

When the pronoun is not the subject of the main clause in the infinitive, we do not omit it, as in

*It (=The weather) is **too** hot to eat **it**.*

Here the *it* in the main clause means the weather and the other *it* used as the object of the infinitive *to eat*. And this *it* may mean any food. The sentence may have the meaning of “*The weather is too hot for anyone to eat.*”

Just like *so ... that* construction, in *too ... to do* construction, we can only use a singular countable noun after an adjective if the meaning requires. Let's consider the following:

*She is **too** stupid a girl to solve such a simple math problem.*

(A *girl* is a singular countable noun)

They are **too lazy students to do any academic work.* (*Students* is a plural noun)

It is **too bad food to eat.* (*Food* is an uncountable noun)

But we can say, “*It is food (which is) too bad to eat.*” The *too ... to ...* construction can be also used without negating the infinitive, as in

*I will be only **too pleased to** get home.*

(= I will be very pleased to get home.)

*It's **too kind of you to** have told me that news.*

(=You are very kind to have told me that news.)

2) *To do ...*

*I ran all the way **to find that he had gone.*** (F.R. Palmer, 1974)

*Xinyi went abroad **never to return.*** (The infinitive expresses result.)

*He must be deaf **not to hear that.*** (result)

*That night there was a storm and I woke **to hear the rain lashing the window panes.***

*He lived **to be ninety.*** (result)

*The miserable old days have gone **never to return.*** (result)

*She grew up **to be a pretty young lady.*** (result)

*The peasants worked hard (so as) **to live.*** (result)

*I shall go on working late today **so as to be free tomorrow.*** (purpose and result)

*Would you be **so kind as to lend me your pen?*** (result, expressing politeness)

When we express “an unhappy thing” after the main verb, (*only*) *to do* is usually used. Again see the following examples:

*She woke early (**only**) **to find** it was raining.*

*She hurried back **only to find** her mother dying in a hospital.*

*He got to the airport **only to be told** the airplane had taken off.*

*I ran all the way **to find that Xinyi had gone.*** (result)

*He went home **to find his friend Rita waiting for him.*** (result)

*He went home (**only**) **to find his iPhone stolen.*** (result)

*The drunken man awoke **to find himself in a ditch.***

Therefore, “*iPhone stolen*” is bad news, and so is *only to find her mother dying in a hospital*, etc. It is noted that in *too...to...* construction, it has negative meaning for the infinitive, e.g. *The rock is too heavy for me to lift*, which means *the rock is very heavy and I am unable to lift it*, but this is not always the case.

10.9.2 It is to be noted that in the *so ... as to* construction, a verb can be used after *so*, besides adjective or adverb (also see *so ... that* in 5), **10.2**), as in

*A good writer or speaker will **so** form his sentence **as to** keep his reader or listener in suspense until the end of it. (Form is a verb.)*

*Let's **so** plan our work **as to** finish it by the end of the month. (Plan is a verb)*

*A good commander **so** directs his campaign **as always to** take the enemy unawares. (Huang, 1985)*

Note that in the constructions of *so ... (that)* and *such ... (that)*, are linked to the words, *too* and *enough*, by paraphrase relation. For example:

*The supersonic plane flies **so fast that** it can beat the speed record.*

*The supersonic plane flies **fast enough to beat** the speed record.*

*It's **too good** a chance **to miss**.*

*It's **such a good chance that** we mustn't miss it. (R Quirk, et al., 1972)*

10.10 Participles used to express result

If we want to say that someone did or experienced one thing before another, we mention the first thing in a clause containing *having* and an *-ed* participle. Often this kind of construction shows that the second event was a result of the first one (Sinclair et al., 2011), as in

*I did not feel terribly shocked, **having expected him to take the easiest way out**.*

***Having admitted he was wrong**, my husband suddenly fell silent.*

10.11 Prepositional phrases used to express result

We can use the following to express result: *as a result* (followed by a clause), *as a result of*, *and in consequence* (followed by a clause), *in consequence of*, *as a consequence*, *for this/that reason*, *on that account*, as in

*He didn't come to attend the meeting, **and as a result** an agreement was not reached.*

*The computer was incorrectly programmed, **and in consequence** the rocket crashed.*

(Eastwood, 2002)

*The machine didn't work very well **as a result of/in consequence of** a computer error.*

Besides, we usually use the following to express result: *hence*, *so*, *thus*, or *thereby*, *therefore*. A present participle alone is also used to express result, as in

*The dollar has gone down against the yen, **therefore**, Japanese goods are more expensive for Americans.*

*He's an extremely private person; **hence** his reluctance to give interview.*

*I heard a noise **so** I got out of bed and turned the light on.*

*Most of the evidence was destroyed in the fire. **Thus** it would be almost impossible to prove him guilty.*

*The movie star made a dramatic entrance, **attracting** everyone's attention.*

*Marlowe gave a penetrating analysis of some of the questions, **clarifying** much of the confusion.*

*They pumped waste into the river, **killing** all the fish.*

*Dr. Palmer wrote me a letter of recommendation, **so keeping** a promise he had made last month,*

*We hope the new machine will work faster, **thus reducing** our costs.*

*The train stopped suddenly, **thus causing** the delay.*

*Ms. Rine fell ill, **thus/thereby making** it necessary for us to find a substitute for her.*

*She picked up great support from the union, **thereby guaranteeing** that she would win the election.*

When *so*, *thus*, and *thereby* is used, a comma is usually inserted as seen from above. In such a case, a participle phrase is tantamount to a relative clause. The relative pronoun, *which*, represents the whole content of the main clause, and *which* acts as a sentential relative clause, as in

*The train stopped suddenly, **which caused** the delay.*

(The antecedent of *which* is “*the train stopped suddenly.*”)

*The train stopped suddenly, **thus causing/which caused** the delay.*

*Rita fell ill, **which made** it necessary for us to find a substitute for her.*

(The antecedent of *which* is “*Rita fell ill*”.)

10.12 Other expression

Sometimes in written expression, we use the semicolon (;) or *and* to join two independent clauses to show close relationship or use relative clauses to express result if the meaning requires, as in

The cat knocked over a can of cola; the soda foamed over the white carpet. (Hayes, 1996)

It was so hot; I couldn't sleep. (Zhang et al., 1984)

*I spoke angrily to Jack, **who** consequently strode away without answering me.*

*He didn't show up, **and** (therefore) we had to put off the meeting.*

*She saw the house on fire, **and** she called 911.*

From the last two sentences above, *and* is used in such a way as to indicate the clause is a consequence or result of the first one.

11

Adverbial Clauses of Time

Adverbial clauses of time or the temporal clauses are usually introduced by subordinators or the noun phrases of time. They are *after*, *as*, *as long as*, *as soon as*, *before*, *directly (that)*, *every time*, *the first time*, *the next time*, *the last time*, *immediately (that)*, *the(very)instant (that)*, *just as* (at that exact moment), *the (very) minute*, *the (very) moment*, *no sooner ... than*, *now (that)*, *once*, *scarcely (hardly) ... when (before)*, *ever since*, *since*, *so (as) long as*, *till*, *until*, *not ... until* (= not ... before), *when*, *whenever* (more emphatic than *when*), *while*, *whilst*, etc. When we

express something in reference to future time in the main clause, we usually use a future tense in the main clause and a present tense in the subordinate clause to refer to the future. For example, “We *will* leave the office *as soon as we complete* the work”, where we use *will* in the main clause and a present tense, *complete*, in the subordinate clause. Moreover, a present/past perfect tense, a simple past, or a present tense used in the main clause or in the subordinate clause when temporal clauses introduced by *before*, *after*, *until*, and *since*. For example, “It *had begun* to rain before I *got* home.” “It *began* to rain after I *had arrived* home.” “We *stayed* at home until the rain *had left off*.” “Please *don’t touch* it after you’ve *finished* repairing the tool.” But this is not always the case, because *after*, *before*, and *until* show in themselves which of the events has a priority. So, we can equally say: “It *began* to rain before I *arrived* home” and “We *stayed* at home until the rain *left off*,” etc. See more examples in the following sections.

11.1 *As, since, until, when, while, etc*

As/While I was walking in the street, I happened to meet my friend.

(*As* and *While* suggest something going on for a period of time when another action occurs.)

I stayed *while* the meeting lasted (ie for the duration of the meeting).

We chatted *whilst* the children played in the crèche.

(*Whilst* is not used in modern American English. Sinclair, et al., 2011)

It always rains *after* I’ve washed my car.

Rita called me *before* she visited me.

Call me *before* you come.

Just as we went out, it was raining cats and dogs.

(“It’s raining cats and dogs” is an idiom, which means it’s raining very hard.)

She has been determined to become a teacher *since* she was a pupil.

Xinyi always brought me something I liked *when* she visited me.

Until we know the facts, we can’t do anything about it.

I didn’t start the work *until* he came back.

The last time we met, Rita was in Las Vegas.

The next time I come here, I’m going to be better. (Sinclair, et al., 2011)

Now (that) you’ve grown up, you must stop this childish behavior.

When Rita comes, I will be in my office.

When (= Every time) I called her, she never answered my phone.

Whenever/Every time we met with difficulties, they came to help us.

It is to be noted that with *until* and *till*, a verb in the main clause often has to be accompanied by a negative when the verb is a momentary verb. For example, *Leilei didn’t begin to read until she was five years old*, but not **Leilei began to read until she was five years old*.

Sometimes it is not clear to see if it is an adverbial clause of time or something else.

Compare:

*He saw them **when they were in Las Vegas**.* (adverbial clause of time)

*He saw them **at the time(s) at which they were in Las Vegas**.* (an attributive clause)

*I wonder **when she was here**.* (*When she was here* is a noun clause used as the object of *wonder*, not the adverbial clause of time.)

*I wonder **at which time she was here**.*

Note that when we express future meaning in the subordinate clause, the present tense is normally used rather than the auxiliary verbs such as *will* or *shall* in certain types of adverbial clauses of time:

When the president **will arrive, the band will play the National Anthem.*

*When the president **arrives**, the band will play the National Anthem.*

(Note: *When the president **arrives*** is a subordinate clause, and *the band will play the National Anthem* is a main clause.)

Before the president **will arrive, the band will play the National Anthem.*

*Before the president **arrives**, the band will play the National Anthem.*

As soon as the president **will arrive, the band will play the National Anthem.*

*As soon as the president **arrives**, the band will play the National Anthem.*

Note that we can use a past continuous tense and a simple past tense when something happened, it depending on the context. If something happened and completed during another continuous action, we use a simple past tense for something that happened and the continuous tense as happening around another, as in

*Rita **was washing** her hair **when** the iPhone **rang**.*

*I **saw** a stranger beating that little boy **as/while/when** I **was waiting** at the bus station.*

In the first sentence above, we use a simple past in the *when*-clause for a complete action, *the ringing of the iPhone*, but *washing her hair* was still going on, so we use the continuous tense in the main clause. Or we can distinguish between the shorter action, *the ringing of the phone*, and the longer action, *washing her hair*. We use the continuous tense for a longer action and the shorter one for the simple past tense. When two actions happen at the same time, we use the past continuous tenses for both, as in

*Rita **was washing** her hair **while** her boyfriend **was mopping** the floor.*

When one complete action follows another, we use the past tense for both, as in

*The phone **rang** when Rita **left** her house.*

In a word, in adverbial clauses of time, *while* is usually followed by a continuous tense and *when* more or less followed by a simple tense, depending on the kinds of verb meaning. “As” may replace both “when” and “while”, or “when” may replace both “as” and “while.” However, “while” is more or less special in meaning; it is not congruous with an action (dynamic) verb of

brief action. It is not proper to say, “I was studying *while* Rita *arrived*.” “I was quite happy *while* Rita *found* my lost apple watch.” The verbs *arrive* and *find* denote brief action (they are momentary verbs). From the two sentences, “while” should replace “as” or “when” i.e. “I was studying *as/when* Rita *arrived*.” Besides, there are some other words such as *directly (that)*, *immediately (that)*, *the instant (that)*, *instantly* and noun phrases such as *by the time*, *the day*, *the first time*, *every time* (more emphatic than *when*), *the (very) instant (that)*, *the (very) minute (that)*, *the (very) moment (that)*, *next time*, *now (that)*, and some correlative subordinators: *no sooner ... than*, *hardly/scarcely/barely ... when*, *etc.*, are also used to introduce adverbial clauses of time, e.g.

*I've usually finished cooking **by the time** Rita comes back from work.*

*I got in touch with him **immediately** (=as soon as, directly, once) I received his text message.*

*My sister came **directly** (=as soon as) she got my call.*

*I wept **as soon as** (= the moment or the instant) I heard the bad news from Rita.*

***The first time** we went away he was somewhere between a kitten and a cat.*

(Schibsbye, 1979)

***Instantly** the button is pressed, the mine explodes.*

***As soon as/Immediately** you arrive in Las Vega, call me.*

*I'll tell you about the issue **the moment** you come.*

***The minute/The moment** you see Rita, please say hi to her.*

*We'll be married **the very moment** we find a house.* (Schibsbye, 1979)

*I'll tell him **the minute** he gets here.*

***The (very) moment/minute/instant (that)** I saw him, I recognized a friend.*

*I loved you **the instant** I saw you.*

***The instant** she saw him she knew he was her brother.*

*I'm going to see him **next time** he comes to Las Vegas.*

*He left Europe **the year** World War II broke out.*

*Mr. Martin had **no sooner** sat down **than** the principal began to talk to him.*

*Mr. Roser had **hardly** begun work **when** his wife called him.*

*I feel better **now (that)** I've talked to you.*

It is to be noted that *directly* and *immediately* are not often used as conjunctions in AmE.

As to *until* and *till*, there is a tendency to use *till* with a negative main clause and *until* with a positive one. Thus:

*Don't do anything further **till** you hear her from me. (not ... till)*

*Rita didn't do her work **till** she finished her coffee. (not ... till)*

*We'd better wait **until** she comes back.*

*Yihan lived in China **until** she was fifteen.*

***Until** I know the facts, I can do nothing further.*

11.2 When some correlative subordinators such as *no sooner ... than, hardly/scarcely/barely ... when* are used for adverbial clauses of time with a negative meaning, a subject-verb inversion is used when they are placed at the beginning of the sentence, e.g.

No sooner had she heard the news than she fainted.

Cf. She had *no sooner* heard the news *than* she fainted.

Hardly had they started to work when the trouble began.

Cf. They had *hardly* started to work *when* the trouble began.

Scarcely/Hardly had he entered the room when (before) the phone rang.

Cf. He had *scarcely* entered the room *when* the phone rang.

We had ***scarcely*** locked the door ***before*** we heard the roaring of the storm coming.

Barely had he arrived when he had to leave again.

Cf. He had *barely* arrived *when* he had to leave again.

Not until you hear from me should you do anything further.

Cf. You should *not* do anything further *until* you hear from me.

At no time did the company break the law.

Cf. The company did not break the law at any time.

Never in my life have I seen such bad behavior.

Cf. I have never seen such bad behavior in my life.

Seldom did I see Rita.

Cf. I seldom saw Rita.

Only in summer is it scorching hot in Las Vegas.

Cf. It is scorching hot only in summer in Las Vegas.

Not since his childhood had Jeff been back to the village. (Eastwood, 2022)

Cf. Jeff had not been back to the village since his childhood.

It is noted that while nearly all adverbial clauses of time can be placed either initial or end position, the constructions of *scarcely (hardly) when (before)*, and *no ... sooner than* are fixed and not transposable. For example:

When the sun had set, we left our fields.

Or: We left our fields when the sun had set.

Hardly had they reached the station when the rain poured down.

But not: **When the rain poured down, they had hardly reached the station.*

(This sentence can stand but it has another meaning.)

No sooner had they reached the station than the rain poured down.

But not: ****Than*** the rain poured down, they had ***no sooner*** reached the station.

As to *since*, the tense used in the main clause is the perfect tense and the tense in the *since*-clause the past tense. For example:

I have lived in USA since 1986.

Rita has worked in San Francisco since she moved in 2016.

Xinyi had mastered Greek since she was a youth.

We have been friends ever since we met at school.

It is five years since we last met.

It seems ages since we saw Rita last.

(From the last two sentences, we usually do not use a perfect tense in the main clause; instead, we use a simple tense because of the pronoun *it*.)

It is noted that the perfect tense is also possible in the *since*-clause, but there is difference in meaning between the simple past and the perfect tense.

For example:

Rita has never seen me since I have been sick.

Rita has never seen me since I was sick.

Here the perfect tense in the *since*-clause indicates the speaker has been sick up to the present, while the simple past tense is used in the second sentence above, it means that the speaker is no longer sick. More examples:

The house has been under repair several times since I have lived in it. (It means I am still living in it.)

The house has been under repair several times since I lived in it.

(It means I do not live in it anymore.)

Therefore, it is incorrect to say that “It is five years since I *have seen* Rita.” Instead, we say, “It is five years since I *saw* Rita.” That is, *I saw Rita five years ago*. But we should not get confused with the emphatic sentence: “It is five years ago *that* my brother left US”, which is correct. “It is five years ago *since* my brother left US”, which is wrong. It is noted that such subordinators as *after, before, when, not until* can be used in emphatic sentences of *it ... that ...* construction, as in

It was when I had finished my work that I went swimming with Rita.

Cf: When I had finished my work, I went swimming with Ria.

11.3 None-finite verbs or verbless forms used to express adverbials of time

The present and past participles can be used to express adverbials of time in various ways.

11.4 Present participles to express time

The present participles are usually placed before the main clause. The action in the main clause begins immediately after the action of the present participle finishes or begins at the same time with the action of the present participle; that is, more or less simultaneous. However, “when placed after the finite verb they are not limited in time in this way. Compare: *arriving in London at ten, I’ll go by train ...* and *I’ll go by train, arriving in London at ten.*” (K Schibsbye, 1979)

For example:

Coming up the steps, I fell over. (more or less simultaneous)
She hailed a taxi, leaving the building. (less simultaneous)
Turning on the light, I found what had happened in the room.
 (one action happening after another)
Rita hurt her hand playing the basketball. (At the same time)
Taking a deep breath, they dived into the water. (Zhang, et al., 1979)
 (one action happening after another)
Walking along the street, I met a friend.
 (= While/When/As I was walking along the street, I met a friend.)

The perfect tense is usually placed before the main clause to emphasize the action in the perfect participial phrase that finishes earlier than that in the main clause, as in

Having completed her project, Rita drove home.
 (= After/When Rita had completed/completed her project, she drove home.)
Having met my friend (=After/When I had met/met my friend), *I went with her to her house.*
Having been experimented many times, this new medicine will be put into mass production.
Having been invited to speak, I'll start making preparations tomorrow.
They left the lab, having spent two hours for the experiment.

As seen from above, the perfect participial form can be placed either at the beginning or at the end of the sentence. But normally, they are placed before the main clause. We use a perfect participle to emphasize the completion of the action which last for some time before another action happens. If the action is short before another action happens (or two actions are very close in time), we do not use a perfect participle. But when the first action is not short, we must use the perfect to indicate the duration of the first action. More examples:

Having completed the project, Rita went home.
 (It takes time to complete the project, and the action is not short, so a perfect participle is preferred.)
Having cut the hard wood into twenty pieces, Rita went back to her house.
 Not ***Cutting the hard wood into twenty pieces, Rita went back to her house.**
 (It is not a short time for her to cut the wood into twenty pieces, so a perfect is used.)
Having sat in the sun for one hour, we are very thirsty.
 (= We have sat in the sun for one hour and we are very thirsty.)
 (= After we have sat in the sun for one hour, we are very thirsty.)
Walking along the street, I met a friend of mine.
 (The actions of *walk* and *meet* happened at the same time, so a perfect participle is not necessarily used.)

When no ambiguity arises, either a perfect participle or a simple participle is used, as in
Having filled her glass, Rita took a long drink.

Filling her glass, Rita took a long drink.

When the two actions happen close to each other or at the same time, its function is tantamount to a compound sentence introduced by *and*, as in

Sitting down, Rita began to write her report.

(= Rita sat down *and* began to write her report.)

(= After/When Rita sat down, she began to write her report.)

Cf. Rita sat down, *beginning* to write her report.

*Rita picked up where she left off **and** talked for another five minutes.*

Cf. Rita picked up where she left off, talking for another five minutes.

11.5 We use a conjunction followed by a participle or a gerund to indicate the time reference when the subject of the main clause must be the same as that in the time clause. If their subjects in both clauses are not the same, we cannot drop the subject in the time clause. We usually have conjunctions: *after, as, before, on, since, when, while, etc.* Both actions happen nearly at the same time or one after another when *after, before, once, until, till, when, while, etc.*, are followed by the present participles, a gerund, a prepositional phrase, or an adjective according to their meaning, as in

Before entering the nozzle, the steam is at high pressure.

(*Entering* is a gerund with the same subject as that in the main clause.)

(= Before the steam enters the nozzle, it is at high pressure.)

After leaving the office, Yihan realized that she forgot to turn off the light.

(*Leaving* is a gerund with the same subject as that in the main clause.)

(= After Yihan left the office, she realized that she forgot to turn off the light.)

After having (=After she had) the meal, Rita went shopping.

(*Having* is a gerund whose understood subject is the same as that in the main clause.)

After staying (=After he stayed) at home for 24 days due to coronavirus, he had been in much better health. (Staying is a gerund with the same subject as that in the main clause.)

After having left the office, he went home by car. (perfect gerund, G. Leech, et al., 1974)

After having seen the test results, we decided to take it again. (DeCapua, 2017)

(= After we saw/had seen the test results, we decided to take it again.)

After/Since being invited, I have been told that the party was cancelled.

(*Being invited* is a gerund in passive with the same subject as that in the main clause.)

Before leaving (= Before he left) the room, Marlowe turned off all the lights.

Before having finished work, they decided to leave.

(= Before they finished/had finished work, they decided to leave.)

Since being in the army, he has been in much better health.

(*Being* is a gerund with the same subject as that in the main clause.)

(= Since he was/had been in the army, he has been in much better health.)

Since leaving (= Since I left) *school, I haven't seen Rita.*

(*Leaving* is a gerund with the same subject, *I*, as that in the main clause.)

*She's been quite different **since coming** from China.*

Since being (= Since he was) *in the school for ten years, he has known everyone.*

On/Upon being told *the party was cancelled, the girl burst into tears.*

(=As soon as she was told the party was cancelled, the girl burst into tears.)

*She is always listening to music **when doing her homework.***

(*Doing* is present participle with the same subject as that in the main clause.)

(= She is always listening to music when she is doing her homework.)

When landing, *the aircraft exploded.* (*Landing* is a present participle.)

(*Landing* is a present participle with the same subject, *the aircraft*, as that in the main clause.)

(= When the aircraft was landing, it exploded.)

While passing through the blades, *the steam is defected.* (*Passing* is a present participle.)

(= While the steam is passing through the blades, it is defected.)

When (= When/While/As I was) **going home**, *I met Xinyi.*

While walking (= While/As/When she was walking) *along the street, Rita answered her phone from Leilei.* (*Walking* is a present participle.)

While being flown (= While it was being flown) *by a champion amateur cyclist in 1963, the plane crashed on a field.*

*We read them **when** young; we remember them **when** old.*

(=We read them when we are young; we remember them when we are old.)

(“*When young*” and “*when old*” are verbless clauses.)

While at school, *she scarcely read a book.* (*At school* is a prepositional phrase.)

(=While she was at school, she scarcely read a book. “*While at school*” is a verbless clause.)

*These apples are sweet **when ripe*** (= when they are ripe).

(*When ripe* is a verbless clause and *ripe* is an adjective.)

*Steam or boil them **until just tender.*** (*Tender* is an adjective.) (Sinclair, et al., 2011)

*The oranges, **when (they are) ripe**, are picked and sorted.*

(*Ripe* is adjective; *when ripe* is a verbless clause.)

Whenever in difficulty, *you can count on our support.* (*In difficulty* is a prepositional phrase; *whenever in difficulty* is a verbless clause.)

(=Whenever you are in difficulty, you can count on our support.)

*She stayed with her friends **while in Las Vegas.*** (*In Las Vegas* is a prepositional phrase; *while in Las Vegas* is a verbless clause.)

When under threat, *they can become violent.* (*Under threat* is a prepositional phrase; *when under threat* is a verbless clause.)

When in difficulty, *call me.* (*In difficulty* is a prepositional phrase.)

(= When you are in difficulty, call me.)

When *in Rome, do as Rome does.* (*In Rome* is a prepositional phrase. This is an English idiom. *When in Rome* is a verbless clause.)

(= When you are in Rome, do as Rome does.)

11.6 We can use a phrase consisting of *once, until, till, when, whenever, while* or past participle or an adjective such as *necessary* or *possible*, as in

When/Whenever (*it is*) **necessary**, *he can be taken to the doctor.*

Use your reserve **when necessary**. (*Necessary* is adjective.)

(= Use your reserve when it is necessary.)

Once painted, *the house will look nicer.*

(= Once the house is painted, it will look nicer.)

It is noted that after the logical subject is omitted from the clauses introduced by *after, before*, and *since* when they are used to express time, the *-ing* form is a gerund rather than a present participle, because they (*after, before, since*) become prepositions rather than conjunctions, but when *since* is used to express reason, we cannot use *since* to be followed by a gerund. For example, “*Since you know the answer, why didn’t you speak up?*” It’s incorrect to say “**Since knowing the answer, why didn’t you speak up?*” Note that only when *since* is used to introduce the adverbial clause of time, it is the non-finite or verbless form allowed to be used as seen the sentence in 11.5 (*Since leaving* (= Since I left) *school, I haven’t seen Rita*). When *since* is used to introduce adverbial clauses of reason/cause, it is not allowed to be converted into non-finite or verbless form. We often see ESL students use such a wrong construction. Therefore, the following sentence with* is not acceptable:

Since *you are ill now, please go home.* (reason/cause)

**Since being ill now, please go home.* (reason/cause)

Since *arriving in this foreign country, I have tried my best to “do as the Romans do.”*

(= Since I arrived in this foreign country, ...) (time)

11.7 Past participles

The past participle can be also used to express time, but it has passive meaning because the subject of the main clause is also the logical object of the verb, as in

Asked *whether or not he would stay, he gave a non-committed answer.*

(= *When he was asked whether or not he would stay, ...*)

(= *When we/they/you/anyone asked him whether or not he would stay, ...*)

(*Him* is the logical object of *ask*, so passive is used in **Asked** *whether or not*....)

Thrown *to the floor, Dian regained his footing and rushed into the street.*

Once or twice, driven beyond endurance, Tom ran away from the plantation. (Zhang, 1979)

The papers were returned to us uncorrected.

United, *we stand; divided, we fall.*

(= *When/If we are united, we stand; when/if we are divided, we fall.*)

Cleared, the site will be valuable. (G Leech, et al., 1974)
(= When cleared/When it is cleared, the site will be valuable.)

We can also retain the conjunctions to distinguish their meanings, such as *once, until, unless, when, whenever, while, etc.*, followed by a past participle. For example, in *Once painted, the house will look nicer*, it is obvious it means “From the moment that the house is painted, it will look nicer.” When we don’t retain *once* there, it becomes “*Painted, the house will look nicer.*” It may have many meanings. It may mean “if it is painted, when it is painted, after it is painted, because it is painted.” More examples:

*I will like your house **if/when painted** white.*

(= I will like your house when/after/if it *is painted* white.)

Don’t speak **until spoken to**.

(= Don’t speak until you are spoken to.)

(= Don’t speak until someone speaks to you.)

*Please wait **until told to** proceed.*

*I will gladly come to visit you **when/whenever/if invited**.*

(= I will gladly come to visit you when/whenever/if I am *invited*.)

*(Once) **appointed** supreme commander, he took the stern measures expected of him.*

(R Quirk, et al., 1972)

***Once opened**, the contents should be consumed within four days.*

***Once convinced** about an idea, he pursued it relentlessly.*

***When finished** (= When it is finished), the project will be great.*

*Leilei used to look surprised **when praised**.*

In adverbial clauses of time introduced by *after, before* or *since, being + past participles* can be used, as in

***After being invited**, I have been told that the party was cancelled.* (R. A. Close, 1977)

***Since being invited**, I have been told that the party was cancelled.* (*ibid*)

***On being told** (=When she was told) **the party was cancelled**, she burst into tears.* (*ibid*)

We cannot omit *being* from each sentence above because they are prepositions. Therefore, we do not say, for example, “*After invited, I have told that the party was cancelled.*” But *being + past participles* cannot be used in the clauses introduced by *if, when, whenever, until, unless even if, (a)though, whether, as*, as in

*I will gladly come to your house **when/whenever/if (I am) invited**.*

*I will gladly come to your house when/whenever/if *being invited*. (incorrect)

*I won’t come **unless (I am) invited** properly.*

*I won’t come unless *being invited* properly. (incorrect)

Besides *when, while, as, etc.*, we can also use the preposition, *on, upon, or during*, to form a prepositional phrase to express the same way a finite clause does:

On/Upon *arrival in Las Vegas, please call me.*

Cf. *When you arrive in Las Vegas, please call me.*

On *arriving at the station, he found the bus had left.*

On *examining his chest, the doctor suspected cancer of the lungs.*

During *your absence, please put the note on the door.*

Cf. *While/When you are away from the office, please put the note on the door.*

On *completion of your work, please go next door to help other people.*

Cf. *When you complete your work, please go next door to help other people.*

Or followed by prepositional phrases or adjectives in *when, while, once, until or till* (also see 11.5 and 11.6), as in

When in difficulty, call me. (In difficulty is a prepositional phrase.)

(= *When you are in difficulty, call me.*)

Use your reserve when necessary. (Necessary is adjective.)

(= *Use your reserve when it is necessary.*)

11.8 Absolute construction

We retain the subject in the absolute construction of participles only when the subject in the main clause is different from that in the subordinate clause. For example, in “Having finished their work, the farmers went home”, the logical subject of *having finished their work* is the same as the subject in the main clause, that is, *the farmers*. The sentence is the same as *After/When/As soon as the farmers finished their work, they went home*. Details of the use of absolute construction are as follows.

11.9 Present participles used to express time

The meeting (being) over, everyone left happily.

(= *After/When the meeting was over, everyone left happily.*)

Spring coming on, the trees turn green.

(= *When/After spring comes on, the trees turn green.*)

The lights having gone out, we couldn't see anything.

(= *After/When the lights had gone out or After/When the lights went out, we couldn't see anything.*)

A hole having been dug, the men just disappeared.

(= *After/When a hole was dug/had been dug, the men just disappeared.*)

The sun having set (= When/After the sun set/had set), all of us went home.

Her aunt having left the room, I decided my passionate love for Celia.

(R Quirk et al., 1972)

The clock having struck twelve, everything was so still over the place at this time of night.

(= After the clock had struck twelve, everything was so still over the place at this time of night.)

John having watched Bob play, he left the stadium. (R Quirk et al., 1972)

(= After/When/As soon as John watched Bob play, he left the stadium.)

(= After having watched Bob play, John left the stadium.)

11.10 Past participles used to express time

Her coffee finished, Rita left without saying a good-bye to us.

(= After/When her coffee was finished/had been finished, Rita left without saying a good-bye to us.)

The test completed, he gave it to the teacher.

(= After/When the test was completed/had been completed, he gave it to the teacher.)

The work done, Xinyi went home.

(= After/When the work was done/had been done, Xinyi went home.)

Him/He taken care of (= When/As/After he was taken care of), we could leave without any worry. (time or reason)

(*Him* used in *him take care of* is informal or substandard. *Him* is the logical object of “take care of.”)

He having been taken care of, we could leave without any worry.

(Rarely used with perfect, especially when a logical subject is a pronoun.)

The report having been read (=After/When the report had been read), a lively discussion began.

Our house painted white, we'd like it better.

(= Our house being painted/having been painted white, we'd like it better.)

(= After/When our house is painted/has been painted white, we'd like it better.)

All things considered, we decided to move on.

(= All things having been considered, we decided to move on.)

(= After/When all things were considered/had been considered, we decided to move on.)

Kayla Yao having watched Emily play, she left the school.

(= After she watched Emily play, Kayla Yao left the school.)

(= After having watched/watching Emily play, Kayla Yao left the school.)

*We left the room and went home, **the job finished***. (R Quirk et al., 1972)

When a past participle is used in such a case, *being* or *having been* can be omitted without practical difference in meaning when they are in passive as seen from some examples above: *Her coffee (having been) finished, Rita left without saying a good-bye to us. All things (having been) considered, we decided to move on. Our house (being) painted white, we'd like it better, etc.*

Conclusion

Purposefully, the writer repeated many examples throughout the article to let ESL (English as a Second Language) students or ELLs (English language learners) further understand the use of various clauses, because repetition is the mother of learning. Language is a process of usage, which is always developing and changing. Grammar is made for language and not language for grammar. Therefore, the correct use of clauses is a matter of usage and cannot be explained by all rules. The goal of this article is that it will serve as a guide for ESL students, English language learners (ELLs), and their teachers. Any comment or critique is welcome of the article.

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