Unit 1

The indefinite article a/an

We use a/an:

- with nouns when referring to an unspecified thing; it means any one. Bob has got a car and a bike. The car is green and the bike is blue.
- with singular countable nouns when we want to say what somebody/something is or what someone's job is. It is a cat. Mary is an engineer.
- with the verb have (got). I have got a motorbike.
- in certain expressions when we want to show how often we do something. I go to the gym twice a week.

We use a:

 before singular countable nouns which begin with a consonant sound (a union, a house).

We use an:

• before singular countable nouns which begin with a vowel sound (an hour, an army).

We don't use a/an:

- with uncountable or plural nouns. In these cases, we use some instead of a/an. I need some coffee and sugar. I will buy some envelopes.
- before an adjective if it is not followed by a noun.
 However, if the adjective is followed by a noun, we use a if the adjective begins with a consonant sound and an if the adjective begins with a vowel sound.
 It is a construction. It is huge. It is a huge construction.

It is **a** construction. It is huge. It is **a** huge construction.

This is Mary's house. It is impressive. It is **an** impressive house.

The definite article the

We use the:

- with nouns when talking about something specific. Bob has got a car and a bike. **The** car is green and **the** bike is blue.
- with nouns that are unique (the sun, the Earth, etc).
- with names of newspapers (the Guardian), cinemas (the Odeon), theatres (the Empire), museums/art galleries (the Louvre), ships (the Marie Celeste), organisations (the United Nations).
- with the names of rivers (the Thames), groups of islands (the Seychelles), mountain ranges (the Alps), deserts (the Sahara), oceans (the Atlantic), canals (the Panama canal), countries when they include words such as States, Kingdom, Republic (the UK), names or nouns with of (the Houses of Parliament), in geographical terms such as the Antarctic/Arctic/equator, the North of Ireland, the North/East/South/West.
- with the names of musical instruments and dances (the guitar, the salsa).

- with the names of families (the Browns) and nationalities ending in -sh, -ch or -ese (the French). Other nationalities can be used with or without the (the Egyptians/Egyptians).
- with titles (the Queen, the President) BUT not with titles including a proper name (Queen Victoria).
- with adjectives/adverbs in the superlative form (the best film I have ever seen) BUT when most is followed by a noun, it doesn't take the. Most people enjoy going to the cinema
- with the words day, morning, afternoon and evening.
 It was early in the morning when they left.
 - BUT: at night, at noon, at midnight, by day/night
- with historical periods/events (the last Ice Age, the Vietnam war). BUT: World War I
- with the words only, last and first (used as adjectives). She was **the** only one who didn't come.
- with the words station, cinema, theatre, library, shop, coast, sea(side), beach, country(side), city, jungle, world, ground, weather. Let's go to the cinema.

We do not use the:

- with uncountable and plural nouns when talking about something in general. Planes are a safe means of transport.
 Tea is a very popular drink.
- with proper nouns. Ann works as a librarian.
- with the names of sports, games, activities, days, months, celebrations, colours, drinks and meals. We had dinner with the Smiths on Friday.
- with languages, unless they are followed by the word language. Bob speaks Polish, French and English fluently.
 BUT: The French language is spoken in parts of Canada.
- with the names of countries which don't include the word State, Kingdom or Republic. Germany, India, Australia. BUT there are some exceptions: the Netherlands, the Gambia, the Vatican.
- with the names of streets (Oxford Street, Penny Lane).
 BUT: the M6, the A42, squares (Trafalgar Square), bridges (London Bridge) BUT: the Golden Gate Bridge, parks (Hyde Park), railway stations (Euston, King's Cross), mountains (Mount Everest), individual islands (Crete), lakes (Lake Baikal) and continents (Asia).
- with possessive adjectives or the possessive case. That is my pen.
- with the names of restaurants, shops, banks, hotels, etc which are named after the people who started them (Harrods, Mario's Restaurant).
- with the words bed, hospital, college, court, prison, school, university when we refer to the purpose for which they exist. The injured men had to be taken to hospital. BUT: We went to the hospital to visit Harry.
- with the word work (= place of work). I need to leave work by 10 o'clock.
- with the words home, mother, father, etc when we talk about our own home/parents.
- with by + means of transport (bus/ferry/train/car etc). We travelled to Paris by train.
- with the names of illnesses. He's got chicken pox. BUT: flu/the flu, measles/the measles, mumps/the mumps

Both/Neither

Both

 refers to two people, things or groups. It has a positive meaning and is followed by a plural verb. Both Anne and Lynn study at university.

Neither

refers to two people, things or groups. It has a negative meaning and is followed by a singular verb in the affirmative. Neither composition is descriptive enough. Neither of + plural noun phrase can be followed by either a singular or plural verb in the affirmative. Neither of the boys is/are good at school.

All/Either/Another/Several/None/Whole

All

- refers to more than two people, things or groups. It is followed by a plural verb. **All** of them are wonderful doctors.
- can go after the verb to be. They are **all** very unhappy about the whole situation.
- after the auxiliary verb, but before the main verb. They have all signed up.
- can be followed by day/morning/week/year. He has been reading a book **all** day.
- Both/All can go a) after the verb to be, or b) after an auxiliary verb but before the main verb. They are all/both exhausted.

Either

- refers to two people, things or groups and is followed by a singular countable noun. You may visit me on Saturday or Monday. Either day is fine by me. However, the phrase structure Either of + plural noun can be followed by either a singular or plural verb. Either shirt is fine. Either of the shirts is/are fine.
- We can use not ... either (of) instead of neither (of).
 Either can be used at the end of a negative sentence. "I have never met Harry." "I have never met him either."

Another

- means additional, an extra one. It is used with singular countable nouns. Shall I give you another glass of water?
- also means different/besides this/these. I honestly don't want to buy this dress in black. Can you show me another one?

Several

 is used to refer to an imprecise number of people or things that is not large but is greater than two. I have to write several reports tonight.

None

 None of refers to two or more people, groups or things and has a negative meaning. It is used with nouns or object pronouns and is followed by either a singular or a plural verb. None of the singers is/are American.

Whole

is used with singular countable nouns. We use a/the/this/my etc + whole + noun. Whole is not used with uncountable nouns. He ate the whole cake. He ate all of the cake. He spent all of his money on CDs. NOT: He spent the whole of his money on CDs.

Some/Any/No

Some, any and no are used with uncountable nouns and plural countable nouns, e.g. some tea, some tomatoes, etc.

- Some and its compounds (somebody, someone, something, somewhere) are normally used in affirmative sentences. There is some milk left in the bottle.
- Some and its compounds are also used in interrogative sentences when we expect a positive answer, for example when we make an offer or request. Would you like something to drink?
- Any and its compounds (anyone, anything, etc) are
 usually used in interrogative sentences. Has anyone
 talked to Bob today? Not any is used in negative
 sentences. There isn't any cheese in the fridge. Any and its
 compounds can also be used with negative words such
 as without, never, rarely. I have never talked to anyone
 like him before.
- When any and its compounds are used in affirmative sentences, there is a difference in meaning. We can go anywhere you like. (it doesn't matter where)
 Anyone could have done that. (it doesn't matter who)
- No and its compounds are used instead of not any in negative sentences. She said nothing. (= She didn't say anything.) There was nobody in the room. (= There wasn't anybody in the room.)

Note: We use a singular verb with compounds of some, any and no. There is nothing we can do.

Every/Each

Each and every are used with singular countable nouns. We normally use each when we refer to two people or things and every when we refer to three or more people or things. She was carrying a glass in each hand. Every house in the village has a red front door.

- The pronouns everyone, everybody, everything and the adverb everywhere are used in affirmative, interrogative and negative sentences, and are followed by a singular verb.
- We normally use every when we are thinking of people or things together, in a group, to mean all.

Every person in the room was talking (= all together).

We normally use **each** when we are thinking of people or things separately, one at a time.

She spoke to **each** person in turn (= one at a time).

- We use every to show how often something happens.
 The bus leaves every hour.
- We use every but not each with words and expressions such as almost, nearly, practically, and without exception. In winter, it snows almost every day.

A few/Few - A little/Little

A few and few are used with plural countable nouns. A little and little are used with uncountable nouns.

- A few means not many, but enough. We have a few hours before we meet them. Shall we go and get something to eat?
 Few means hardly any, almost none and can be used with very for emphasis. There were (very) few people on the platform.
- A little means not much, but enough. There is a little tea left would you like another cup?
- Little means hardly any, almost none and can be used with very for emphasis. There is (very) little butter left. I'll go and buy some.
- few/fewer/fewest
- little/less/least

A lot of/Lots of – Much – Many

- A lot of/lots of are used with both plural countable and uncountable nouns. They are normally used in affirmative sentences. The of is omitted when a lot/lots are not followed by a noun. Were there a lot/lots of people at the cinema? Yes, there were lots.
- Much and many are usually used in negative or interrogative sentences. Much is used with uncountable nouns and many is used with plural countable nouns. There aren't many people in the room. Did you spend much time on the project?
- How much and how many are used in questions and negations.

How much + uncountable noun → amount

How many + countable noun → number

How much sugar do you take?

How many cats does she have?

- Too much is used with uncountable nouns. It has a
 negative meaning and shows that there is more of
 something than is wanted or needed. I couldn't work,
 because the workmen were making too much noise.
- Too many is used with plural countable nouns. It has the same negative meaning as too much. It was very crowded. There were too many people there.
- We use many/much/some/any/most/(a) few/(a) little/ several/one/two, etc + of followed by the/that/this/ these/those and then a noun when talking about a specific group. Some of the houses in my neighbourhood are very cheap (houses in that neighbourhood).

But: Some houses are very cheap (houses in general).

Countable – Uncountable Nouns

 Countable nouns are those that can be counted (one box, two boxes, etc). Uncountable nouns are those that cannot be counted (water, bread, etc). Uncountable nouns take a singular verb and are not used with a/an.

Groups of uncountable nouns include:

- mass nouns (apple juice, butter, sugar)
- subjects of study (Chemistry, History, Maths)
- sports (football, rugby, cricket)

- languages (Italian, Japanese, Arabic)
- diseases (chicken pox, malaria, tuberculosis)
- natural phenomena (rain, snow, mist)
- collective nouns (luggage, money, furniture)
- certain other nouns (accommodation, anger, luck)

Too/Enough

Too

- has a negative meaning. It shows that something is more than enough, necessary or wanted. It is used in the following patterns:
 - a. too + adjective/adverb + to-infinitive. The whole situation is **too** good to be true!
 - b. too ... for somebody/something. This skirt is too small for me.
 - c. too ... for somebody/something + to-infinitive. This composition is **too** complicated for me to write.

Enough

- has a positive meaning. It shows that there is as much of something as is wanted or needed. It is used in the following patterns:
 - a. adjective/adverb + enough + to-infinitive
 I reckon she is old enough to look after herself.
 BUT: not + adjective/adverb + enough + to-infinitive (negative meaning)

Unfortunately, he did not do well **enough** to pass the exam.

b. enough + noun + to-infinitive

There's enough time to hand in your projects, so don't worry.

Unit 2

Present Simple and Present Continuous

We use the present simple for:

- facts and permanent states. Frank works as a lawyer.
- general truths and laws of nature. Water freezes at 0°C.
- habits and routines (with always, usually, etc). She usually goes to the market on Mondays.
- timetables and programmes (in the future). His train arrives at six o'clock next Tuesday.
- sporting commentaries, reviews and narrations.
 Beckham wins the ball, crosses and Owen scores.
- feelings and emotions. I love Moscow. It's a beautiful city.

The time expressions we use with the present simple are: usually, often, always, every day/week/month/year etc, in the morning/afternoon/evening, at night/the weekend, on Fridays, etc

We use the present continuous (to be + verb -ing):

- for actions taking place at or around the moment of speaking. Mary is doing the washing up.
- for temporary situations. We are decorating the living room this week.

- for fixed arrangements in the near future. I'm going out with Tony tonight.
- for currently changing and developing situations. The air is becoming more and more polluted.
- with adverbs such as always to express anger or irritation at a repeated action. She is always biting her nails.

The time expressions we use with the present continuous are: now, at the moment, at present, these days, nowadays, still, today, tonight, etc

Stative Verbs

Stative verbs are verbs which describe a state rather than an action, and so do not usually have a continuous tense. These verbs are:

- verbs of the senses (see, hear, smell, taste, feel, look, sound, seem, appear, etc). The material feels really hard.
- verbs of perception (know, believe, understand, realise, remember, forget, etc). I know where John is.
- verbs which express feelings and emotions (like, love, hate, enjoy, prefer, detest, desire, want, etc). Mary enjoys swimming.
- some other verbs (be, contain, include, belong, fit, need, matter, cost, own, want, owe, weigh, wish, have, keep, etc) That shirt he bought me doesn't fit very well.

Some of these verbs can be used in continuous tenses, but with a difference in meaning.

Present Simple	Present Continuous
THINK I think he's a very good lawyer. (= believe)	We are thinking about moving house. (= are considering)
HAVE He has a Porsche. (= own, possess)	I am having a great time. (= am experiencing) He is having a shower. (= is taking) We are having lunch. (= are eating)
SEE I can see the lighthouse from my house. (= it is visible) I see what he means. (= understand)	I'm seeing the dentist at ten o'clock. (= am meeting)
TASTE The cake tastes delicious. (= it is, has the flavour of)	Bill is tasting the soup to see if it needs more salt. (= is testing)
SMELL The pasta smells very good. (= has the aroma)	She is smelling the roses. (= is sniffing)
APPEAR He appears to know where he's going. (= seems to)	He is appearing in a play at the Rex. (= is performing)
FIT The shoes fit him perfectly. (= are the right size)	Tom is fitting a new lock on the front door. (= is attaching)

Note:

- The verb enjoy can be used in continuous tenses to express a specific preference.
 Bill really enjoys playing squash. (general preference)
 BUT: He's enjoying the party very much. (specific preference)
- The verbs look (when we refer to somebody's appearance), feel (experience a particular emotion), hurt and ache can be used in simple or continuous tenses with no difference in meaning.

I feel very happy. = I am feeling very happy.

Adverbs of Frequency

These include always, frequently, often, once, twice, sometimes, never, usually, ever, hardly ever, rarely, occasionally etc.

- Adverbs of frequency are normally placed before the main verb. He rarely walks to work. He hardly ever goes to the opera.
- However, adverbs of frequency are placed after the verb to be and after auxiliary verbs. Jane is often late for work.
 I have always wanted to go to Cracow.

Used to/Be used to/Get used to

- We use used to + infinitive to refer to past habits or states. In such cases, used to can be replaced by the past simple with no difference in meaning.
 - I **used to** smoke a lot. (I don't smoke any more.) I smoked a lot when I was younger.
 - **Note:** We use past simple and **NOT** used to for actions which happened at a definite time in the past.
 - Jane called me last night. NOT: Jane used to call me last night.
- we use be used to + noun/pronoun/-ing form.
 I am not used to loud noise. I am not accustomed to loud noise. (present)
 - Leo **is used to** working hard. He is accustomed to working hard. (present)
 - I was used to travelling a lot. I was accustomed to travelling a lot. (past)
- we use get used to + noun/pronoun/-ing form.
 - Mark is getting used to his new house. He is becoming accustomed to his new house. (present)
 - I had never lived in the countryside but I quickly **got used to** it. I became accustomed to it. (past)
 - He will soon **get used to** commuting by train. He will become accustomed to commuting by train. (future)

Unit 3

Infinitive

The to-infinitive is used:

- to express purpose. He left early to catch the 8 o'clock train.
- after certain verbs (agree, appear, decide, expect, hope, plan, promise, refuse, etc). They expect to start building next Monday.

- after would like, would prefer, would love, etc to express a specific preference. I would prefer to stay in tonight.
- after adjectives which describe feelings/emotions (happy, sad, glad, etc); express willingness/unwillingness (willing, eager, reluctant, etc); refer to a person's character (clever, kind, etc) and the adjectives lucky and fortunate. I was very happy to hear that Bill got promoted.

Note: With adjectives that refer to character we can also use an impersonal construction. It was kind of you **to let** me know.

- after too/enough. It is too cold to go out.
- to talk about an unexpected event, usually with only. I finally arrived at the airport only to find that my flight had been cancelled.
- with it + be + adjective/noun. It wasn't easy to find a new job.
- after be + first/second/next/last etc. He was the last person to talk to me.
- after verbs and expressions such as ask, learn, explain, decide, find out, want, want to know etc, when they are followed by a question word. She explained how to use the machine.

Note: why is followed by subject + verb, NOT an infinitive. I wonder why she didn't come.

 in the expressions to tell you the truth, to be honest, to sum up, to begin with etc. To tell you the truth, I did it on my own.

Note: If two to-infinitives are linked by and or or, the to of the second infinitive can be omitted. I would like to go and see for myself.

The infinitive without to is used:

- after modal verbs. Beth can play the piano well.
- after the verbs let, make, see, hear, and feel. They
 made him leave the room. BUT: we use the to-infinitive
 after be made, be heard, be seen, etc (passive form).
 He was made to leave the room.

Note: When see, hear and watch are followed by an -ing form, there is no change in the passive. He saw me reading the letter. I was seen reading the letter.

- after had better and would rather. We had better go on foot.
- help can be followed by either the to-infinitive or the infinitive without to. She helped me (to) fix the door handle.

-ing form

The -ing form is used:

- as a noun. Jogging is good for your health.
- after certain verbs: admit, appreciate, avoid, continue, deny, fancy, go (for activities), imagine, mind, miss, quit, save, suggest, practise, consider, prevent. He suggested going out.
- after love, like, enjoy, prefer, dislike, hate to express general preference. Jamie loves listening to rock music.
 BUT: for a specific preference (would like/would prefer/would love) we use a to-infinitive.

- after expressions such as be busy, it's no use, it's (no) good, it's (not) worth, what's the use of, can't help, there's no point in, can't stand, have difficulty (in), have trouble, etc. There is no point in talking to her; she won't believe you.
- after spend, waste or lose (time, money, etc). He spent a lot of money redecorating his flat.
- after the preposition to with verbs and expressions such as look forward to, be used to, in addition to, object to, prefer (doing sth to sth else). He prefers watching TV to listening to music.
- after other prepositions. He was thinking of moving house.
- after the verbs hear, listen to, notice, see, watch, and feel to describe an incomplete action. I heard Bill talking to Ann. (I only heard part of the conversation.)

BUT: we use the infinitive without to with hear, listen to, notice, see, watch, and feel to describe the complete action. I heard Bill tell the story. (I heard the whole story.)

Difference in meaning between the **to-infinitive** and **-ing form**

Some verbs can take either the **to-infinitive** or the **-ing form** with a change in meaning.

- forget + to-infinitive = not remember. He forgot to post the letters.
 - **forget + -ing form =** not recall. I'll never **forget travelling** around Japan.
- remember + to infinitive = not forget. Did you remember to lock the door?
 - remember + -ing form = recall. I remember seeing Ann at the meeting.
- mean + to-infinitive = intend to. I'm sorry, I never meant to hurt your feelings.
 - mean + -ing form = involve. If I lose my job, I'm afraid it will mean moving to a smaller flat.
- regret + to-infinitive = be sorry to (normally used in the present simple with verbs such as say, tell, inform). We regret to inform you that you have failed your exams.
 regret + -ing form = feel sorry about. I regret losing touch with my old school friends.
- try + to-infinitive = do one's best, attempt. She tried to tell you but you weren't listening.
 try + -ing form = do something as an experiment. Why don't you try adding some salt?
- stop + to-infinitive = stop temporarily in order to do something else. They stopped to have lunch.
 stop + -ing form = finish doing something. Will you stop complaining all the time?

Reported Speech - Statements

Reported speech is the exact meaning of what someone said, but not the exact words. We do not use quotation marks. The word **that** can either be used or omitted after the introductory verb (say, tell, suggest, etc).

She said (that) she wouldn't leave at 10 o'clock.

Say - Tell

- say + no personal object. He said he was very hungry.
- say + to + personal object. He said to us (that) he was very hungry.
- tell + personal object. He told us he was very hungry.

Expressions used with say, tell and ask.

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Say	hello, good morning/afternoon etc, something/ nothing, so, a prayer, a few words, no more, for certain/sure, etc
Tell	the truth, a lie, a story, a secret, a joke, the time, the difference, one from another, somebody one's name, somebody the way, somebody so, someone's fortune, etc
Ask	a question, a favour, the price, after somebody, the time, around, for something/somebody, etc

Reported Statements

- In reported speech, personal/possessive pronouns and possessive adjectives change according to the meaning of the sentence.
 - John said, "I'm having my car repaired." John said (that) he was having his car repaired.
- We can report someone's words either a long time after they were said (out-of-date reporting) or a short time after they were said (up-to-date reporting).

Up-to-date reporting

The tenses can either change or remain the same in reported speech.

Direct speech:

Tim said, "I still haven't called them."

Reported speech: Tim said (that) he still hasn't/hadn't called

them.

Out-of-date reporting

The introductory verb is in the past simple and the tenses change as follows:

Direct speech	Reported speech
	e → Past Simple
"My flight leaves at 3 o'clock."	He said (that) his flight left at 3 oʻclock.
Present Continuou	s → Past Continuous
"I am playing tennis this afternoon."	He said (that) he was playing tennis that afternoon.
Present Perfec	t → Past Perfect
"I have cleaned my room."	He said (that) he had cleaned his room.
Past Simple → Past S	Simple or Past Perfect
"I paid £12 for the video."	He said (that) he paid/had paid £12 for the video.

Direct speech	Reported speech
	st Continuous or Past Perfect
"I was driving to York."	He said that he was driving/ had been driving to York.
Future (will)	Conditional (would)
"I will tell you tomorrow."	He said that he would tell me the next day.

Certain words and time expressions change according to the meaning as follows:

now then, immediately

today that day

yesterday the day before, the previous day

tomorrow the next/following day

this week that week

last week the week before, the previous week next week → the week after, the following week

ago before here there come bring take

The verb tenses remain the same in reported speech when the introductory verb is in the present, future or present perfect.

Sam has (often) said, "Politicians are all the same." Sam has (often) said (that) politicians are all the same.

The verb tenses can either change or remain the same in reported speech when reporting a general truth or law of nature.

The teacher said, "Crete is an island."

The teacher said (that) Crete is/was an island.

Reported Questions

- Reported questions are usually introduced with the verbs ask, inquire, wonder or the expression want to know.
- When the direct question begins with a question word (who, where, how, when, what, etc), the reported question is introduced with the same question word.

"What time is it, please?" (direct question)

He asked me what time it was. (reported question)

When the direct question begins with an auxiliary (be, do, have), or a modal verb (can, may, etc), then the reported question is introduced with if or whether. "Are there any apples left?" (direct question)

He asked me if/whether there were any apples left. (reported question)

In reported questions, the verb is in the affirmative. The question mark and words/expressions such as please, well, oh, etc are omitted. The verb tenses, pronouns and time expressions change as in statements.

"Can you tell me when the next train to Leeds is, please?" (direct question)

He asked me when the next train to Leeds was. (reported question)

Reported Orders

To report orders in reported speech, we use the introductory verbs **order** or **tell + sb + (not) to - infinitive**.

"Halt!" (direct order)

He ordered them to halt. (reported order)

"Stop arguing!" (direct order)

She told us to stop arguing. (reported order)

Unit 4

Present Perfect

We use the present perfect (have + past participle) for:

- an action that happened at an unstated time in the past. The emphasis is on the action, the time when it occurred is unimportant or unknown. I have washed the dishes. Ann has been to Portugal twice.
- an action which started in the past and continues up to the present, especially with stative verbs (see above) such as be, have, like, know, etc. I have known Bill for ten years.
- a recently completed action. I have typed the letters.
- personal experiences or changes. She has put on weight.

The time expressions we use with the present perfect are: for, since, already, always, just, ever, never, so far, today, this week/month etc, how long, lately, recently, still (in negations), etc

Present Perfect Continuous

We use the present perfect continuous (have + been + verb -ing):

- to put emphasis on the duration of an action which started in the past and continues up to the present. We have been painting the walls all morning.
- for an action which started in the past and lasted for some time. It may still be continuing or has finished already with the result visible in the present. He's tired because he has been working since 10 o'clock in the morning.
- to express anger, irritation or annoyance. He has been reading my newspaper without asking me.
- for repeated actions in the past continuing to the present. He has lost weight because he has been going to the gym every day after work.

The time expressions we use with the present perfect continuous are: for, since, how long, all day/morning/ month etc, lately, recently

Note: with the verbs live, work, teach and feel we can use the present perfect or the present perfect continuous with no difference in meaning. She has lived/has been living in Denver for the last ten years.

Unit 5

Adjectives

- Adjectives describe nouns, go before nouns and have the same form in the singular and plural. a huge tree/ huge trees
- Adjectives can also be used alone after the verbs be, look, smell, sound, feel, taste, seem, appear, become, get, stay, etc. He is handsome. It smells good.
- There are two kinds of adjectives: opinion adjectives (interesting, fantastic) which show what a person thinks of somebody or something, and fact adjectives (old, fat, short) which give us factual information about size, age, colour, origin, material, etc.
- There are also compound adjectives which are formed with:
 - a) present participles: long-lasting journey
 - b) past participles: broken-down car
 - c) cardinal numbers + nouns: a three-day trip NOT: a three days trip
 - d) well, badly + past participle: well-informed people

Order of adjectives

- Opinion adjectives go before fact adjectives.
 a beautiful Italian girl
- When there are two or more fact adjectives in a sentence, they usually go in the following order:
 size – age – shape – colour – origin – material - used for/be about – noun

a small, old, square, Chinese table

 We do not usually have a long list of adjectives before a single noun. A noun is usually described by one, two or three adjectives at the most.

Adverbs

- Adverbs usually describe verbs, adjectives, other adverbs or sentences.
- An adverb can be one word (quickly) or a phrase (in the afternoon). Adverbs can describe manner (how), place (where), time (when), frequency (how often), degree (to what extent), etc.

Formation of adverbs

- a. We usually form an adverb by adding -ly to the adjective. extreme-extremely
 BUT: elderly, cowardly, friendly, likely, deadly, lively, silly,
 - BUT: elderly, cowardly, friendly, likely, deadly, lively, silly, ugly, lovely, etc are adjectives. We use the words way/manner to form their adverbs. Bob had been very friendly to me. He greeted us in a friendly way/manner.
- Adjectives ending in -le drop the e and take -y. simple-simply
- Adjectives ending in consonant + y drop the y and take
 -ily. lucky-luckily
- d. Adjectives ending in -I take -Iy. actual-actually
- The adverbs loud(ly), cheap(ly), quick(ly), tight(ly), fair(ly), and slow(ly) are often used without -ly. She speaks loud.

 Some adverbs have the same form as adjectives such as: hard, fast, free, high, low, deep, early, late, long, near, straight, right, wrong. Also hourly, daily, weekly, monthly and yearly.

He runs fast. (adverb)/He is a fast runner.(adjective)

• The adverbs below have two forms, each with a different meaning: They buried the treasure deep underground. (= a long way down)

He is **deeply** depressed. (= very)

The club members can use the sauna free. (= without payment)

He was strolling in the corridors of the embassy **freely**. (= without limit or restriction)

He put the cookies too **high** for the children to reach. (= at/to a high level)

The film is **highly** recommended. (= very much)
She returned home **late** in the evening. (= not early)
She's made great progress **lately**. (= recently)
Which of these three shirts do you like **most**? (= superlative of much)

She was trying to explain to him that she's **mostly** interested in drama. (= mainly)

My house is **near** work. (= close)

The accused **nearly** collapsed when he heard the verdict. (= almost)

She speaks French **pretty** well. (= rather)

Mary was **prettily** dressed for the party. (= in a pretty way)
He has been studying **hard** for the exams. (= with a lot of effort) **Hardly** anyone did well in the exams. (= almost no one)
Note: hardly has a negative meaning and is often used

with: any, anything, anyone anywhere and ever.

Order of adverbs

 Adverbs usually go after verbs but before adjectives, other adverbs and participles.
 He walks slowly. (manner)

The film was absolutely amusing. (degree)

- Sometimes adverbs go before the main verb, eg. the adverbs of frequency (often, always, etc.)
 He often plays tennis at weekends.
- When there are two or more adverbs in the same sentence, they usually come in the following order: manner – place – time

The little child was playing happily in the garden all day yesterday.

- If there is a verb of movement (go, come, leave, etc) in the sentence, then the adverbs come in the following order: place – manner – time John went to school on foot this morning.
- Adverbs of place and time can go at the end of the sentence.

I'll go shopping tomorrow.(time)

Comparisons

As / Like

We use like:

with nouns/pronouns/-ing form to express similarity.
 She treats him like a servant. (He isn't a servant.)

• with feel, look, smell, taste. She looks like her sister.

We use **as** to say what somebody or something really is. He works **as a** waiter.

Comparatives and Superlatives

We use the **comparative** to compare one person or thing with another. We use the **superlative** to compare one person or thing with more than one person or thing of the same group. We often use than after a comparative and the before a superlative. He is **older than** me. He's **the oldest** person in the room.

Formation of comparatives and superlatives from adjectives and adverbs:

- with one-syllable adjectives, we add -(e)r to form the comparative and -(e)st to form the superlative. close - closer - closest
 - Note: for one syllable adjectives ending in a vowel + a consonant, we double the consonant. big bigger biggest
- with two-syllable adjectives ending in -ly, -y, -w, we also add -er / -est. narrow narrower narrowest

 Note: for adjectives ending in a consonant + y, we replace the -y with an -i. tiny tinier tiniest
- with other two-syllable adjectives or adjectives with more than two syllables, comparatives and superlatives are formed with more/most. intelligent – more intelligent – most intelligent
- with adverbs that have the same form as their adjectives, we add -er/-est. hard - harder - hardest
- two-syllable or compound adverbs take more/most.
 slowly more slowly most slowly
 Note: clever, common, cruel, friendly, gentle, pleasant, polite, shallow, simple, stupid, quiet can form their comparatives and superlatives either with -er/-est or with more/most
- Irregular forms:

good – better – best / bad – worse – worst / much – more – most / little – less – least / far – farther/further – farthest/furthest / many/lots – more – most

Types of comparisons:

- as + adjective + as (to show that two people or things are similar in some way) In negative sentences we use not as/so ... as. This car is as expensive as that one.
- less + adjective + than (expresses the difference between two people or things) The opposite is more ... than. Ann is less rich than her sister.
- the least + adjective + of/in (compares one person or thing to two or more people or things in the same group) The opposite is the most ... of/in. She is the least hard working person in the company.
- much/a lot/far/a little/a bit/slightly + comparative (expresses the degree of difference between two people or things) Tony is slightly younger than Bob.
- comparative and comparative (to show that something is increasing or decreasing) It gets colder and colder every day.

- the + comparative ..., the + comparative (shows that two things change together, or that one thing depends on another thing). The more you talk, the less they listen.
- by far + the + superlative (emphasises the difference between one person or thing and two or more people or things in the same group). Last summer was by far the best summer lever had.

Present/Past Participles

We use **present participles** to describe something. *It was a* **boring** meeting. (How was the meeting? Boring.)

We use past participles to say how someone felt. We were bored. (How did we feel? Bored.)

Unit 6

Obligation/Duty/Necessity

Must: Expresses duty, strong obligation to do sth or that sth is essential. We generally use **must** when the speaker has decided that sth is necessary. *I must* pay the rent today.

Have to: Expresses strong necessity/obligation. We usually use have to when somebody other than the speaker has decided that sth is necessary. The lawyer said we have to sign the papers urgently.

Note: Must and have to have different meanings in questions. Do I have to wash the dishes now? (Is it necessary for me ...?) Must I wash the dishes now? (Do you insist that I ...?)

Should/Ought to: Expresses duty, weak obligation. These are less emphatic than **must/have to**. We **should** buy a new car soon.

Need: It is necessary to. Need I ask in writing?

Note: Need can be used as a modal verb or as a main verb with no change in meaning. **Need** I finish the essay today? (Do I need to finish the essay today?)

Absence of necessity

Needn't/Don't have to/Don't need to + present infinitive: It isn't necessary to do sth (in the present/future). You don't need to iron the clothes – I will do it.

Prohibition

Mustn't/Can't: It is forbidden to do sth; it is against the rules/law; you are not allowed to do sth. You mustn't/can't smoke in hospitals.

Logical Assumptions/Deductions

Must: Sure/Certain that sth is true.

Must is used in affirmative sentences and expresses positive logical beliefs. *You've been working all day, so you must be tired!*

Can't/couldn't: Certain that sth is not true/real.

Can't and couldn't are used in negations and express negative logical assumptions. That can't be Bill, since he's at work.

Possibility

Can + present infinitive: General possibility, sth is theoretically possible. Not used for a specific situation. For dessert you can have apple pie or ice cream.

Could/May/Might + present infinitive: It is possible/likely, perhaps. Used to show sth is possible in a specific situation. You should keep this ring, it may be valuable one day. Note: we can use can/could/might in questions BUT NOT may. Do you think that you can/could/might work on this?

Ability/Permission

Can: expresses ability in the present. He can play football.

Could: expresses ability in the past. I could work until late when I was younger.

Can/Could/May/Might ...?: we use the structures to ask permission to do something. Could and may are more polite than can. Might is formal.

Can I go out? (informal)

Could/May/Might you help me with this essay? (formal)

Unit 7

Past Simple

We use the past simple:

- for an action that occurred at a definite time (stated or implied) in the past. He posted the invitations yesterday.
- for actions that happened immediately after one another in the past. She locked the door and headed for her car.
- for habits or states which are now finished. Mr Smith worked as a gardener when he was younger.
 Note: Used to can also be used instead of the past simple for habits/repeated actions in the past.

The time expressions we use with the past simple are: yesterday, then, when, How long ago ...?, last night/week/month/year/Friday/October etc, three days/weeks etc ago, in

Past Continuous

We use the past continuous:

- of or an action which was in progress when another action interrupted it. We use the past continuous for the action in progress (the longer action), and the past simple for the action which interrupted it (shorter action). We were swimming when it started to rain.
- for two or more simultaneous actions in the past. Bill was watching TV in the living room while Tony was having a shower.

- for an action which was in progress at a stated time in the past. We don't mention when the action started or finished. At 8 o'clock yesterday I was having dinner with Mark.
- to describe the atmosphere, setting etc and to give background information to a story. The birds were singing and the sun was shining as we were walking towards the cabin.

Note: When there are two past continuous forms in a sentence with the same subject, we can avoid repetition by just using the present participle (-ing form) and leaving out the verb to be. He was riding his bike; he was whistling a tune. = He was riding his bike, whistling a tune.

The time expressions we use with the past continuous are: while, when, as, all morning/evening/day/week etc

Past Perfect

We use the past perfect (had + past participle):

- for an action which happened before another past action or before a stated time in the past. Ann had finished cooking by six o'clock.
- for an action which finished in the past, and whose result was visible at a later point in the past. He had broken his leg a month ago and he still couldn't walk properly.
- for a general situation in the past. Everything had seemed normal at first.

The time expressions we use with the past perfect are: before, after, already, just, for, since, till/until, when, by the time, never etc

Past Perfect Continuous

We use the past perfect continuous:

- to put emphasis on the duration of an action which started and finished in the past, before another action or stated time in the past, usually with for or since. He had been walking for about an hour before he reached his destination.
- for an action which lasted for some time in the past and whose result was visible in the past. He had been painting and his clothes were covered in paint.

The time expressions we use with the past perfect continuous are: for, since, how long, before, until etc

Time expressions to talk about the past:

Bill

ago (= back in time from now) is used with the past simple. *I did the ironing about an hour ago.*

since (= from a starting point in the past) is used with the present perfect (simple and continuous). I haven't seen Bill since he moved to Rome.

for (= over a period of time) is used with the present perfect (simple and continuous). They've been listening to CDs for hours.

already is used in statements and questions (to show surprise). I have already spoken to Ann. Have you done your homework already?

yet is used with the present perfect in questions and negations. Have you finished your essay yet? I haven't finished cooking yet.

Absence of necessity

Needn't + bare perfect infinitive: it was not necessary to do sth, but it was done. You needn't have informed Mr. Jones. I had already done so. (It was not necessary but you did it.)

Didn't need to/Didn't have to + infinitive: it was not necessary to do sth. An action did not happen in the past because we knew then that it was not necessary. You didn't need to pay the bill. (It wasn't necessary, so you didn't pay it.)

Possibility

Could/Might/Would + perfect infinitive: sth was possible, but it did not happen. Yesterday you were driving like mad! You could have had an accident. (but luckily you didn't)

Criticism

Could/Should/Might/Ought to + perfect infinitive: it would have been better if you had You should have asked for my help (but you didn't).

Obligation

Must + perfect infinitive: assumption about an action in the past. You must have already finished these exercises.

Logical Assumptions

Must/Can't + perfect infinitive: positive (must) and negative (can't) logical assumptions about the past.

You must have broken your leg! You can't have studied hard.

Unit 8

The Passive

We form the passive with the verb **to be** in the appropriate tense and the **past participle** of the main verb. Only transitive verbs (verbs which take an object) can be used in the passive. (*live* does not have a passive form.)

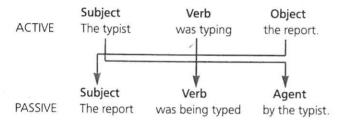
We use the passive:

 when the person or people who do the action are unknown, unimportant or obvious from the context. Bill's car was stolen. (We don't know who stole it.) The office is being redecorated. (It's unimportant who is doing it.) The burglar has been arrested. (It's obvious that the police arrested him.)

- when the action itself is more important than the person/people who do it, as in news headlines, newspaper articles, formal notices, advertisements, instructions, processes etc. The wedding ceremony will be held on October 15th.
- when we want to avoid taking responsibility for an action, or when we refer to an unpleasant event and we do not want to say who or what is to blame. Ten passengers were killed in the accident.

Changing from the active to the passive:

- the **object** of the active sentence becomes the **subject** in the passive sentence
- the active verb remains in the same tense but changes into a passive form
- the subject of the active sentence becomes the agent, and is either introduced with the preposition by or is omitted.



- Only transitive verbs (verbs that take an object) can be changed into the passive. Active: Bill lives in a flat. (intransitive verb) no passive form: Aflat is lived in by Bill.

 Note: some transitive verbs (have, exist, seem, fit, suit, resemble, lack, etc) cannot be changed into the passive. Roy has a BMW. NOT: A BMW is had by Roy.
- we can use the verb to get instead of the verb to be in everyday speech when we talk about things that happen by accident or unexpectedly. He got injured when he was playing squash. (instead of He was injured...)
- By + the agent is used to say who or what carries out an action. With + instrument/material/ingredient is used to say what the agent used. The cake was made by Lyn. It was made with fresh strawberries from the garden.
- The agent can be omitted when the subject is they, he, someone/somebody, people, one, etc. Somebody has watered the plants. = The plants have been watered.
- The agent is not omitted when it is a specific or important person, or when it is essential to the meaning of the sentence. The film was directed by Coppola.
- With verbs which can take two objects, such as bring, tell, send, show, teach, promise, buy, sell, read, offer, give, lend, etc, we can form two different passive sentences. Bob gave the parcel to me. (active)
 - I was given the parcel by Bob. (passive, more usual)
 The parcel was given to me by Bob. (passive, less usual)
- If in an active sentence a preposition follows a verb, then in the passive it is placed immediately after the verb. A bee stung Ann on the leg. Ann was stung on the leg by a bee.
- The verbs hear, help, see and make are followed by the bare infinitive in the active, but by the to-infinitive in the passive. She made me clean my room. I was made to clean my room.

- Let becomes be allowed to in the passive. The teacher let the children play in the playground. The children were allowed to play in the playground.
- To ask questions in the passive, we follow the same rules as for statements, keeping in mind that the verb is in the interrogative form. Have they answered the letter yet? Has the letter been answered (by them) yet?
- When we want to find out who or what performed an action, the passive question form is Who/What ... by? Who was the film directed by?

Causative Form

- we use have + object + past participle to say that we have arranged for someone to do something for us.
 The past participle has a passive meaning. Jackie had her hair dyed. (She didn't dye it herself.)
- Questions and negations of the verb have are formed with do/does (present simple) or did (past simple). Did you have your hair cut yesterday?
- We also use have something done to talk about an unpleasant experience that somebody had. Last night Neil had his car stolen. (= His car was stolen.)
- We can use the verb get instead of have in informal conversation. I'm going to get a new lock fitted.
 Note: the word order is very important. Tony had his bike repaired and Tony had repaired his bike have very different meanings. In the first case, Tony arranged for someone else to do the repairs, whereas in the second case he carried out the repairs himself.

	Regular active form	Causative form
Present Simple	She washes the dishes.	She has the dishes washed .
Present Continuous	She is washing the dishes.	She is having the dishes washed .
Past Simple	She washed the dishes.	She had the dishes washed .
Past Continuous	She was washing the dishes.	She was having the dishes washed .
Future Simple	She will wash the dishes.	She will have the dishes washed .
Future Continuous	She will be washing the dishes.	She will be having the dishes washed .
Present Perfect	She has washed the dishes.	She has had the dishes washed .
Present Perfect Continuous	She has been washing the dishes.	She has been having the dishes washed .
Past Perfect	She had washed the dishes.	She had had the dishes washed .
Past Perfect Continuous	She had been washing the dishes.	She had been having the dishes washed .
Infinitive	She should wash the dishes.	She should have the dishes washed .
-ing form	It's worth washing the dishes.	It's worth having the dishes washed .

Reported Commands/Requests/ Suggestions, etc

To report commands, requests, suggestions, instructions, etc, we use a special introductory verb followed by a to-infinitive, -ing form or that-clause, depending on the introductory verb.

	Introductor	y Direct speech	Panartada
	verb		Reported speech
	+ to infinitiv		
	agree	"Yes, I'll lend you my	He agreed to lend me
		car."	his car.
	*claim	"I'm working on this.	" He claimed to be
	*		working on it.
	*demand	"I want to leave now.	" He demanded to leave
	offer		then.
	orier	"Would you like me to	O He offered to help me.
	*promise	help you?"	
- [refuse	"I promise I'll call you	
	*threaten	"No, I won't do that."	The to we tridly
	tilleaten	"Stop talking or I'll giv	1
		you extra homework.	The state of the s
H	+ sb +		we didn't stop talking.
1	to-infinitive		
	advise	"Vousboulds	
	advise	"You should try to get fit."	1
	allow	"You can watch TV."	get fit.
1	anovi	Tou cuit watch TV.	He allowed me to
1	ask	"Please stop talking."	watch TV.
		r rease stop talking.	He asked me to stop
	beg	"Please, please, help	talking.
	9	me."	He begged me to help
1	command	"Cease fire!"	him.
		cease me:	He commanded them to cease fire.
1	encourage	"You should come with	
	J	us."	He encouraged me to go with them.
f	orbid	"You cannot play loud	He forbade me to play
		music at night."	loud music at night.
li	nvite	"Will you come to the	He invited me to go to
1		party?"	the party.
C	order	"Drop it!"	He ordered me to drop
		⁵ a	it.
*	remind	"Don't forget to lock	He reminded me to
		the door. "	lock the door.
*	warn	"Be careful with it."	He warned me to be
L			careful with it.
	-ing form		
a	ccuse sb of	"She told Ann	He accused her of telling
		everything."	everything to Ann.
~ (admit (to)	"Yes, I broke the vase."	He admitted to
			breaking/having
			broken the vase.
ap	ologise for	"I'm sorry I am late."	He apologised for
*1			being late.
	oast about/	"I'm an excellent cook."	He boasted of being
of *c		n C	an excellent cook.
sh	omplain (to) of/about	"I feel very tired."	He complained (to me)
70	oirabout		of feeling very tired.

Introductory verb	Direct speech	Reported speech
*deny *insist on *suggest	"I didn't steal the car!" "I am going to take you out." "Why don't we eat together tomorrow?"	He denied stealing/ having stolen the car. He insisted on taking me out. He suggested eating together the next day.
+ that clause explain	"It is faster to go by train."	He explained that it was faster to go by
inform sb	"You failed the test."	train. He informed me that I had failed the test.

* The verbs marked with an asterisk can also be followed by a that-clause in reported speech. He claimed that he didn't have any idea.

Note: to report negative commands and requests we usually use **not + to-infinitive**.

Direct: Mum said, "Don't touch the socket!"
Reported: Mum told us not to touch the socket.

In conversation we use a mixture of statements, commands and questions. When we turn them into reported speech, we use and, as, adding that, and he/she added that, because, but, since, etc. Words such as oh!, oh dear, well, etc are omitted in reported speech. Direct: "Oh! That's a nice skirt," Ann said to me. "It suits you perfectly."

Reported: Ann said that it was a nice skirt and added that it suited me perfectly.

Unit 9

Future Simple

We use the future simple (will + bare infinitive) for:

- decisions made at the moment of speaking. It's cold. I'll close the window.
- predictions about the future, based on what we think, believe or imagine, using the verbs think, believe, expect, etc; the expressions be sure, be afraid, etc; and the adverbs probably, certainly, perhaps, etc. He will probably tell you later.
- promises, threats, warnings, requests, hopes and offers.
 Will you help me tidy the room?
- actions, events, situations which will definitely happen in the future and which we can't control. Bob will be thirty years old in May.

Be going to

We use be going to:

 for plans, intentions or ambitions for the future. He's going to be a lawyer when he finishes university.

- actions we have already decided to do in the near future. Steve is qoing to spend his holidays in Spain.
- predictions based on what we can see or what we know, especially when there is evidence that something will happen. Look at the dark clouds. It's going to rain.

The time expressions we use with the future simple and be going to are: tomorrow, the day after tomorrow, tonight, soon, next week/month/year/summer etc, in a week/month etc

Future Continuous

We use the future continuous (will be + verb -ing):

- for actions which will be in progress at a stated future time. This time next month, I'll be lying on the beach.
- for actions which will definitely happen in the future as the result of a routine or arrangement. We will be visiting the Smiths at the weekend.
- when we ask politely about someone's plans for the near future. Will you be finishing the report soon?

Future Perfect

We use the future perfect (will have + past particle)
for actions that will have finished before a stated time
in the future. We will have moved house by the end of
June.

The time expressions we use with the future perfect are: before, by, by then, by the time, until/till (only in negative sentences)

Future Perfect Continuous

We use the future perfect continuous (will have been + verb -ing) to emphasise the duration of an action up to a certain time in the future. The future perfect continuous is used with: by ... for. By the end of May, John will have been working here for ten years.

Time clauses when talking about the future:

When we use words and expressions such as while, before, after, until/till, as, when, whenever, once, as soon as, as long as, by the time, etc to introduce time clauses, we use the present simple or present perfect, NOT future forms.

By the time we **get** there the film will have ended. (NOT: **By the time** we **will get** there...)

We also use the present simple and present perfect, NOT future forms, after words and expressions such as unless, if, suppose/supposing, in case, etc. Take a raincoat in case it rains later. (NOT: ... in case it will rain later.)

We use future forms with:

 when, when it is used as a question word. When will you be going skiing? if/whether – after expressions which show uncertainty/ ignorance etc, such as I don't know, I doubt, I wonder, I'm not sure, etc. I don't know whether he will pass his exams.

Type 0/1 Conditionals

Type 0 conditionals are used to express a general truth or a scientific fact. In this type of conditional we can use **when** instead of **if**.

Type 1 conditionals are used to express a real or very probable situation in the present or future.

If-clause		Main Clause
If + present simple	\rightarrow	future simple, imperative, can/ must/may etc + bare infinitive

When the hypothesis comes before the main clause, we separate them with a comma. When the main clause comes before the if-clause, then we do not use a comma to separate them.

Note: with type 1 conditionals we can use unless + affirmative verb (= if + negative verb). I will not be able to come unless Bill gives me a lift. (= If Bill does not give me a lift, ...)

Type 2 and 3 Conditionals

• Conditionals Type 2 (unreal present) are used to express imaginary situations which are contrary to facts in the present, and therefore are unlikely to happen in the present or the future. We can use either was or were for I, he, she, it, in the if-clause. We can also use the structure If I were you ... to give advice.

If-clause	Main Clause
If + past simple/past continuous	would/could/might + present bare infinitive
If I knew how to do it, I would	-
If I were you, I would tell he	

 Conditionals Type 3 (unreal past) are used to express imaginary situations which are contrary to facts in the past. They are also used to express regrets or criticism.

Main Clause
would/could/might + perfect bare infinitive

If they had asked me, I would have helped.

If I hadn't been working today, we would have gone to the

Mixed Conditionals

We can form mixed conditionals, if the context permits it, by combining an if-clause from one type with a main clause from another.

If-clause	Main Clause
Type 2	Type 1
If he came back late last night,	he won't be on time for work today.
Type 2 If you were polite,	Type 3 you wouldn't have talked to him like that.
Type 3 If he hadn't missed the bus,	Type 2 he would be here now.

Wishes

• We can use wish /if only to express a wish.

Verb Tense		Use
+ past simple/ past continuous	I wish I was on holiday now. (but I'm not) If only I were going with them. (but I'm not)	to say that we would like something to be different about a present situation
+ past perfect	I wish I had passed the exams. (but I didn't) If only she hadn't lied to me. (but she did)	to express regret about something which happened or didn't happen in the past
+ subject + would + bare inf.	I wish you would stop talking. If only it would stop snowing.	to express: a polite imperative. a desire for a situation or person's behaviour to change

- Note: If only is used in exactly the same way as wish but it is more emphatic or more dramatic.
 - we can use were instead of was after wish and if only. I wish I were/was on holiday now.

The Unreal Past

The past simple can be used to refer to the present when we talk about imaginary, unreal or impossible situations which are contrary to facts in the present.

The past perfect can be used to refer to imaginary, unreal or impossible situations which are contrary to facts in the past. The past simple is used with:

- type 2 Conditionals If he had money, he would move
- suppose/supposing Suppose/Supposing he lied to you, what would you do?
- wish/if only I wish/If only I had more space.

- would rather (present) I'd rather you left now.
- as if/as though Ronald acts as if/as though he owned
- it's (about/high) time It's (about/high) time you went to bed.

The past perfect is used with:

- type 3 Conditionals If he hadn't been so rude, he wouldn't have been punished.
- suppose/supposing Suppose/Supposing you had been in a position to help, would you have done so?
- wish/if only / wish/If only I hadn't lied.
- would rather (past) I'd rather you had not told the truth
- as if/as though He spoke about Strauss as though/as if he had been a personal friend.

Had Better/ Would Rather

Had better (= it would be good to) is used to give strong or urgent advice. Had better cannot be used in the past or the comparative.

 had better + bare infinitive → immediate future You had better ask for help.

Would rather (= would prefer to) expresses preference. When the subject of would rather is also the subject of the following verb, we use the following constructions:

- would rather + present bare infinitive → present/future. I'd rather tell you now.
- would rather + perfect bare infinitive → past I went out last night but I'd rather have stayed in.
- would rather + bare infinitive + than + bare infinitive Since it's such a beautiful day, I'd rather go to the park than watch TV.

When the subject of would rather is different from the subject of the following verb, we use the following constructions:

- would rather + past tense → present/future I'd rather Ann worked with you.
- would rather + past perfect → past I'd rather we had left earlier, then we wouldn't have been caught in the rush hour traffic.

Unit 10

Relative Clauses

Relative clauses are introduced with either a relative pronoun or a relative adverb.

Relative pronouns

We use:

- i. who(m)/that to refer to people.
- ii. which/that to refer to things.
- iii. whose with people, animals and objects to show possession (instead of a possessive adjective).

- Who, which and that can be omitted when they are the object of the relative clause. He's the man (who) I am working for.
- Whom can be used instead of who when it is the object of the relative clause. Whom is always used instead of who or that after a preposition. That's the girl to whom Bill got engaged.
- Who, which and that are not omitted when they are the subject of a relative clause. The man who owns that shop is my cousin.
- Whose is never omitted. That's the man whose daughter aot married to my neighbour.

Relative adverbs

We use:

- when/that to refer to a time (and can be omitted)
 That was the year (when/that) we moved to Madrid.
- ii. where to refer to a place. The hotel where we spent our summer holidays is closing down.
- iii. why to give a reason, usually after the word reason (why can be omitted). That's the reason (why) he left town.

Identifying and Non-Identifying Relative Clauses

An identifying relative clause gives necessary information essential to the meaning of the main sentence. It is not put in commas and is introduced with who, which, that, whose, where, when or the reason (why). The man who bought our car lives next door.

A non-identifying relative clause gives extra information and is not essential to the meaning of the main sentence. It is put in commas and is introduced with who, whom, which, whose, where or when. The man, who was very impatient, left before the doctor came in.

Clauses of Purpose

Clauses of purpose are used to explain why somebody does something. They are introduced with the following words/ expressions:

- to-infinitive Colin went to the supermarket to buy some food.
- in order to/so as to + infinitive (formal) The manager requested that everyone work overtime in order to finish the project on time.
- so that + can/will (present/future reference) Take my number so that you can call me if you need any help.
- so that + could/would (past reference) He left at 3 o'clock so that he would be at the station in plenty of time.
- in case + present tense (present or future reference) Take an umbrella in case it rains.
- in case + past tense (past reference) She had packed some warm clothes in case it was cold there.
- Note: in case is never used with will or would.
 for + noun (expresses the purpose of an action) They went to Mario's for a snack.
- for + -ing form (expresses the purpose of something or its function) – Scissors are used for cutting paper.

 with a view to + -ing form – The Browns rented the old cottage with a view to spending their holidays there.

We can express negative purpose using:

- in order not to/so as not to + infinitive He made a list
 of the guests so as not to forget anyone.
- prevent + noun/pronoun (+from) + -ing form Bad weather prevented the ship from departing.

Clauses of Result

Clauses of result are used to express result. They are introduced with the following words/phrases:

as a result, therefore, consequently/as a consequence, so, so/such ... that, etc

- as a result/therefore/consequently/as a consequence The mayor had a serious accident and, as a result/therefore/
 consequently/as a consequence the opening of the new
 local sports centre was cancelled.
 - The mayor had a serious accident. As a result/therefore/consequently/as a consequence the opening of the new local sports centre was cancelled.
- so I was tired, so I went to bed early.
- such a/an + adjective + singular countable noun -John is such a good boy that everybody loves him.
- such + adjective + plural/uncountable noun They were such hospitable people that I will never forget them.

It was such heavy luggage that I couldn't lift it.

such a lot of + plural/uncountable noun
He has got such a lot of books that he has to buy a new
bookcase.

There was **such a lot of information** that I couldn't keep up with it.

- so + adjective/adverb
 He felt so embarrassed that he left without saying goodbye.
 The little boy ran so fast that nobody was able to catch him.
- so much/little + uncountable noun
 so many/few + plural noun
 There was so much noise that I couldn't hear him.
 I've got so little money that I can't buy him a present.
 There were so many customers in the shop that they had to queue.

He made so few mistakes that he will pass the exam.

Concession

Clauses of concession are used to express a contrast. They are introduced with the following words/phrases:

but, although/even though/though, in spite of/despite, however, while/whereas, yet, nevertheless, on the other hand

- It was hot but he was wearing a coat.
- although/even though/though + clause Even though is more emphatic than although. Though is informal and is often used in everyday speech. It can also be put at the end of a sentence.

Although/Even though/Though it was hot, he felt cold. He felt cold although/even though/though it was hot. It was hot. He felt cold, though.

- in spite of/despite + noun/-ing form In spite of/Despite his qualifications, he couldn't find a job. He couldn't find a job in spite of/despite (his) qualifications.
- in spite of/despite + the fact that + clause In spite of/Despite the fact that he had qualifications, he couldn't get a job.
- however/nevertheless

A comma is always used after however/nevertheless. She left early. However/Nevertheless, she missed her appointment.

- while/whereas She is short, while/whereas her brother is tall.
- yet (formal)/still It was December, yet it was quite warm. My car is old. Still, it is in very good condition.
- on the other hand Buses aren't comfortable to travel in. On the other hand, cars

Question Tags

- Question tags are formed with an auxiliary verb and the appropriate personal pronoun. They take the same auxiliary as in the statement or, if there isn't an auxiliary in the statement, they take do/does (present simple) or did (past simple).
- After affirmative statements we use a negative interrogative tag and after negative statements we use a positive interrogative tag. He works as a clerk, doesn't he?

She couldn't answer the question, could she?

Note:

- Let's has the tag shall we? Let's go out, shall we?
- Let me/him has the tag will you/won't you? You'll let me borrow your car, won't you?
- I have (possess) has the tag haven't I? BUT I have (used idiomatically) has the tag don't I? - He has a bike, hasn't he? He had dinner with Ann, didn't he?
- This/That is has the tag isn't it? This shop is very expensive, isn't it?
- I am has the tag aren't !? I am late, aren't !?
- A negative imperative has the question tag will you? Don't forget to post this, will you?

Rules for Punctuation

Capital Letters

A capital letter is used:

- to begin a sentence. This is a book.
- for days of the week, months and public holidays.
 Monday, January, New Year, etc
- for names of people and places. This is Bill Blake and he's from Surrey, England.
- for people's titles. Mr and Mrs Parker; Dr Brown; Professor Harris, etc
- for nationalities and languages. They are Spanish. He's fluent in Greek and Russian.

Note: The personal pronoun I is always a capital letter. *Bob and I are working late tonight.*

Full Stop (.)

A full stop is used:

 to end a sentence that is not a question or an exclamation. We're having a great time here in Barbados. We wish you were here.

Comma (,)

A comma is used:

- to separate words in a list. I need sugar, milk, flour and eggs.
- to separate a non-identifying relative clause (i.e. a clause giving extra information which is not essential to the meaning of the main clause) from the main clause.
 Ron, who is a singer, lives in Canada.
- after certain linking words/phrases (e.g. in addition to this, moreover, for example, however, in conclusion, etc). Moreover, Lyn is very impatient.
- when if-clauses begin sentences. If you have any questions, don't hesitate to ask.

Note: no comma is used, however, when the if-clause follows the main clause.

to separate question tags from the rest of the sentence.
 Mr Jones is your new neighbour, isn't he?

Question Mark (?)

A question mark is used:

• to end a direct question. Who is he?

Exclamation Mark (!)

An exclamation mark is used:

 to end an exclamatory sentence, i.e. a sentence showing admiration, surprise, joy, anger, etc. What lovely weather! How rude!

Quotation Marks (' ' or " ")

Quotation marks are used:

 in direct speech to report the exact words someone said. The train leaves at 11:45am,' said Tony. "What's your name?" he asked her.

Colon (:)

A colon is used:

• to introduce a list. There were three of us in the room: my brother, my friend Steve and me.

Brackets ()

Brackets are used:

• to separate extra information from the rest of the sentence. The most popular newspapers (i.e. The Guardian, The Observer, The Times, etc) can be found almost anywhere in the world.

Apostrophe (')

An apostrophe is used:

- in short forms to show that one or more letters or numbers have been left out. I'm (= I am) telling you ... He left for Spain in the winter of '01. (=2001)
- before or after the possessive -s to show ownership or the relationship between people.
 Bob's wife, my sister's daughter (singular noun + 's)

my grandparents' cottage (plural noun + ') men's suits (irregular plural + 's)