

Writing guides

Formal letter (Part 1)

How should I approach the task?

You recently won a competition organised by a satellite TV company. Unfortunately, there are a number of problems with the prize you have received. Read the original advertisement for the competition, on which you have made some notes. Then, using the information in your notes, write to the television company explaining the situation and asking them to resolve the problems.

Write a letter of between 120 and 150 words in an appropriate style.

travel and learn learn and travel

enter

THE GREAT WORLDWIDE TV COMPETITION

You could win a Language-learner's pack containing

- a travel video
- two audio cassettes
- a textbook

poor picture quality

one cassette broken

not sent

If I win a Language-learner's pack, please send me the pack for: (tick language of your choice)

- | | | | |
|---------|-------------------------------------|----------|--------------------------|
| French | <input type="checkbox"/> | German | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| English | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Japanese | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Russian | <input type="checkbox"/> | Spanish | <input type="checkbox"/> |

All you have to do is finish this sentence in not more than fifteen words:

I enjoy WWTV's Travel and Learn show because ...

Russian pack sent!

What is the purpose of the letter? The task will tell you exactly what you have to do. This may include: asking for or giving information; initiating action or responding to a request; giving feedback on suggestions; making complaints, suggestions, or corrections.

Who will read it? Probably someone who you do not know well, if at all. This may be a named individual, or an unnamed representative of an organisation, possibly a person in a position of authority or responsibility.

What style should I use? Be polite. Use indirect expressions, formal linking phrases and set phrases wherever appropriate. Avoid being too familiar, or using contractions and colloquial language.

What information should I include? In a transactional letter you will need to read all the information you are given. This will include the task itself, plus one or more additional texts, such as letters, memos, adverts, and hand-written notes. You must respond to all the questions and points in the texts or notes.

How should I structure a formal letter?

Begin a formal letter in one of these ways:

- *Dear Mr/Mrs/Miss/Ms Lodge* – use the person's title and surname if you know it.
- *Dear Sir/Madam* if you don't know the person's name or whether they are a man or a woman.

Say why you are writing. Clearly state the subject or context.

Organise all the essential information from the task prompts in a clear and logical way in the main paragraphs of the letter. You may need to add some extra ideas of your own.

Say how you expect the other person to respond to your letter if this is appropriate.

Finish your letter in one of these ways:

Yours sincerely, if you have started your letter with the name of the person you are writing to.

Yours faithfully, if you have started your letter *Dear Sir/Madam*.

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am writing to complain about the prize I was sent for winning your 'Travel and Learn' competition for language learners.

Firstly, the language pack you sent was for learners of Russian, not English. In addition to this, the textbook mentioned in the advert was missing and one of the two audio cassettes was broken and impossible to play.

Furthermore, I watched the Russian video and I am afraid to say that the picture quality was very poor. I hope this is not typical of your videos.

Naturally, I am still interested in learning English, and I would be grateful if you could send me the correct pack. However, I am not prepared to return the Russian pack until I have received the replacement and checked the contents carefully. I also expect to receive a full refund for the cost of postage.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Yours faithfully,
(Name)

What phrases can I use?

Saying why you are writing	I am writing to complain about / enquire about / tell you about / suggest ... I would like to request further information about ... I would be most grateful if you could send me details of ... In response to your letter of <i>26 February</i> , I am writing to ...
Organising information	Firstly, ... Secondly, ... In addition, ... Furthermore, ... Lastly, ...
Asking for action	I would be grateful if you could ... It would be helpful if you would ... Please could you ...
Closing the letter	I look forward to hearing from you.

Informal letter (Part 1)

How should I approach the task?

You receive a letter from your British penfriend. Read their letter carefully and the notes you have made on it. Then, using the information in your notes, write a suitable reply, making alternative suggestions.

Write a letter of between 120 and 150 words in an appropriate style.

You won't believe this but I won first prize in a competition. I get a free flight to anywhere in Europe and £500 spending money!!! The only condition is that I have to use it in the next six months. I can't believe that my family are pleased about me going! What I'd really like to do is to come and see you. Would it be possible to stay with you? If not, could you book me into a cheap hostel? Can you get time off? - say a fortnight - as I'd really like to spend some time travelling around, and it would be much nicer if you could come as well. I thought of coming in June. Anyway write back soon and let me know what you think.

All the best

Nic

Important exams mid June!!

Sounds good!

No problem.

July better for me!

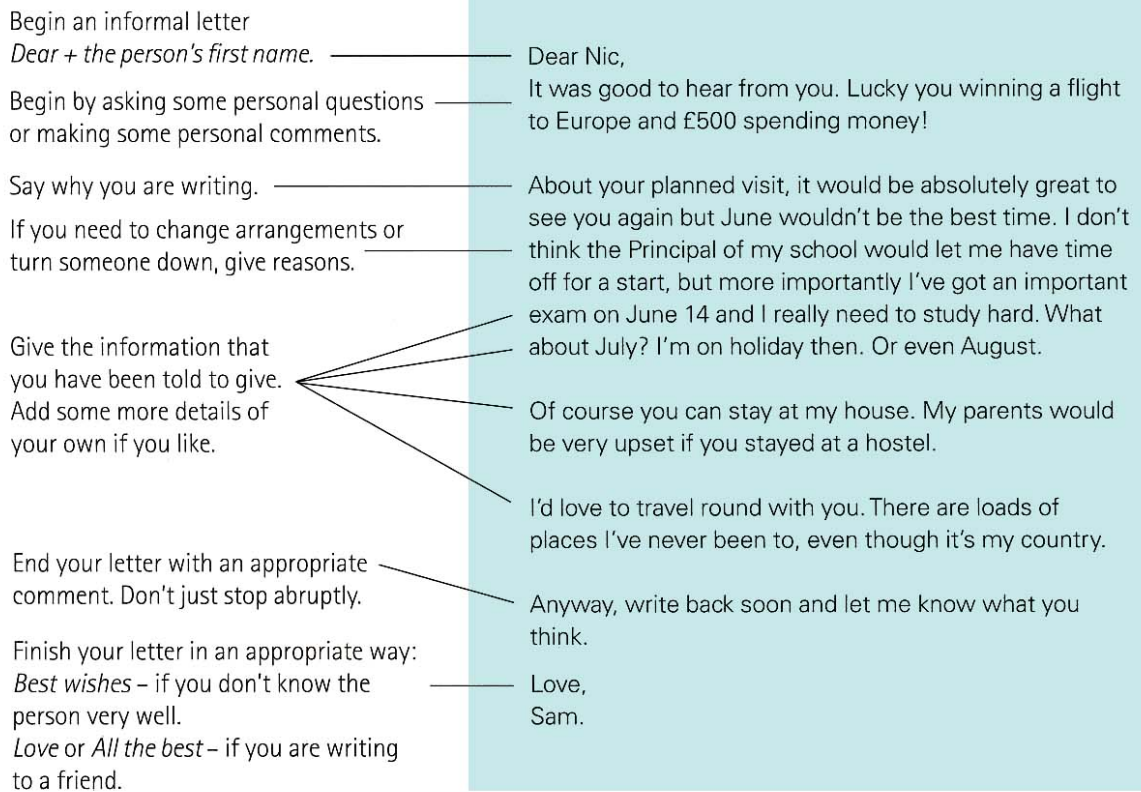
What is the purpose of the transactional letter? To respond to a request for action from somebody else, such as to give information or make suggestions. Alternatively, it could be to initiate action, for example, to request information or invite somebody to do something. The task will tell you exactly what you have to do.

Who will read it? The person or people you have been asked to write to.

What style should I use? An informal style. Slang and colloquial expressions are sometimes appropriate, for example, if you are writing to a friend, but not if you don't know the person. Contractions are always appropriate.

What information should I include? In a transactional letter you will need to read information which is included in a variety of texts, for example letters, memos, adverts, and your hand-written notes. You must answer all the questions in the texts or notes and make reference to any other comments.

How should I structure an informal letter?



What phrases can I use?

Letter openings

How are you? I'm fine.
Thanks for your letter. It was really nice to hear from you.
I'm sorry I haven't written for such a long time but ...

Saying why you are writing

You asked me to recommend some (places to stay in my country)
I've managed to find out some information about (language schools) for you.
About your planned visit,

Letter endings

Write back soon.
Look forward to seeing you soon.
Give my regards to your parents.

Article (Part 2)

How should I approach the task?

You have seen this announcement in an English-language magazine for young people of your age.

You Write – We Print

Family celebrations are often memorable occasions. Write an article describing a family celebration that you remember well. The three most interesting articles will be published in our next issue.

Write your magazine article in 120–180 words.

Who will read the article? Readers choose articles that interest them and ignore those that look dull.

What information should I include? You may have to describe personal experiences or express opinions and ideas which people of your age can identify with. What you write need not be true.

What is the purpose of the article? To inform readers about a particular topic in an entertaining way.

What style should I use? Magazine articles, especially for young adult readers, are often written in a light-hearted style. The title and opening paragraph should try to capture the readers' attention.

How should I structure an article?

A day to remember (1)

(2) Have all the members of your family ever met together in the same place at the same time? It happened to me quite recently and was a remarkable event. (3)

(4) The occasion I have in mind took place last summer. It was my grandparents fiftieth wedding anniversary, and my brother Tim decided to organise a surprise party for them. He phoned everyone in the family and told us his plan. Most importantly, we mustn't say anything to our grandparents.

(5) On the eve of the anniversary, we arrived at Tim's house at midday. By three o'clock, there were over a hundred people there, including cousins, uncles and aunts I hadn't seen for years. Everyone was excited as they waited for the 'happy couple' to arrive.

(5) My grandparents, who thought they were visiting my brother, arrived at four o'clock. you can imagine what happened when they found us all waiting for them. I have never seen anyone look so surprised and so happy.

(5) The celebrations went on until the next morning. (6) Now, we're looking forward to celebrating their sixtieth anniversary.

- (1) Think of an interesting title which will make people want to read your article.
- (2) Start your article in an interesting way. You could ask the reader a question or make a strong statement.
- (3) The first paragraph should involve the reader in some way. Try to end the paragraph in a way which makes the reader want to continue reading.
- (4) Build on the interest you have raised in the first paragraph. This may mean answering the question or telling the next part of the story.
- (5) Use each paragraph to mark the next stage of your article.
- (6) Finish the article in an interesting way. This could be humorous or thought-provoking.

What phrases can I use?

Addressing the reader directly

Have you ever ...?

What do you think about ...?

Making a strong statement

There's nothing worse than ...

You may not agree with me, but I think ...

Describing a personal experience

It happened to me when ...

This is what happened when ...

The occasion I have in mind ...

I'll never forget the time ...

Conversational expressions

You can imagine ...

If you ask me ...

Another thing is that ...

Essay (Part 2)

How should I approach the task?

You have had a class discussion about the way animals are treated in modern society. Your teacher has asked you to write an essay giving your opinion on the following question:

Should animals be used in scientific experiments to try out new drugs, medicines or beauty products?

Write your essay in 120–180 words.

What is the purpose of the essay? Essays are usually set by teachers for students. They give students the opportunity to express their opinions on subjects which may be controversial.

Who will read it? Probably only the teacher, but possibly other students in your class.

What style should I use? Essays are formal pieces of writing. Your opinions should be expressed in a clear and logical way. Use discourse markers to make clear how your different points are related.

What information should I include? A good essay includes clearly-stated opinions supported by well-chosen examples and convincing reasons.

How should I structure an essay?

(1) In many countries, experiments are carried out on animals to test drugs, medicines and beauty products like shampoo or shower gel. Scientists say they need to use animals, but many ordinary people believe these experiments are cruel. I will discuss both points of view and express my own opinion. (2)

(3) Scientists argue that cures for human diseases would not be found if animal experiments were banned. They claim that it is safer to test new medicines on animals before giving them to humans. They say that the animals they use do not suffer.

(4) On the other side of the argument, many people believe that animals feel pain as much as humans, and the mistreatment of innocent creatures, like monkeys or mice, for scientific research is cruel and immoral. They think human volunteers should be used instead.

(5) In my opinion, there is no justification for using animals to test beauty products. However, I believe that it may be necessary to use animals for testing drugs which may save human lives.

- (1) The first paragraph of your essay should introduce the subject and outline the main arguments related to it.
- (2) State what you intend to do in your essay.
- (3) The second paragraph should provide more detail in support of one side of the argument.
- (4) The third paragraph should present the other side of the argument.
- (5) The concluding paragraph should clearly express your own opinion.

What phrases can I use?

Stating an aim

I will discuss both points of view and express my own opinion.

Expressing personal opinions

In my opinion, ...

I (do) believe that ...

On balance, it seems to me that ...

Reporting other people's opinions

Scientists argue/claim/say that ...

Many people believe that ...

Expressions which introduce a contrast

On the other side of the argument, ...

However, ... , but ...

Review (Part 2)

How should I approach the task?

Do you like music concerts? If so, could you write us a review of a concert you've been to? Include information on the music, atmosphere, and venue and say whether you would recommend the concert to other people.

Write your review in between 120 and 180 words. The best reviews will be published next month.

Who will read the review? Your review will be read by readers of a magazine.

What is the purpose of the review? The review is intended to give information to the reader which will help them decide whether to attend the event themselves.

What style should I use? Use a style similar to an article which is likely to interest the reader.

What information should I include? Give essential information about the story, cast, band members, etc. Say what you liked and didn't like about the performances. Make a recommendation to the reader about whether or not they should go.

How should I structure a review?

(1) **Happy Shoppers** **Cardiff Coal Exchange**

(2) Happy Shoppers are four guys from Bristol. They became famous last year because their music was downloaded on the Internet. Yesterday, I saw them play live to a big audience at the Coal Exchange in Cardiff.

(3) On the plus side, the music was great. Happy Shoppers have an original sound, with elements of hip-hop and rock. Their music is very catchy, and people really enjoyed dancing along.

(3) On the other hand, the band didn't really entertain the audience as much as they could have. The singer never spoke between songs and didn't encourage the audience to sing along, which was a pity. Also, his voice was poor.

(4) Overall, I'd recommend going to see Happy Shoppers, especially if you like dancing. I'm sure they will learn how to entertain the audience more as they get more experience.

- (1) State the name of the film, play, concert, etc. at the start of the review.
- (2) Introduce the topic of the review in the first paragraph.
- (3) Give the positive and negative features in separate paragraphs.
- (4) Finish with a final recommendation.

What phrases can I use?

Giving background

This show stars ...

The play is directed by ...

The film is about ...

Expressions which introduce a contrast

On the plus side, ...

On the down side, ...

On the one hand, ...

On the other hand, ...

Recommending

Overall, I'd recommend ...

All in all, the film was ...

I wouldn't hesitate to recommend ...

I wouldn't encourage anyone to ...

Report (Part 2)

How should I approach the task?

A group of students from Australia is coming to stay in your town as part of an exchange programme. The director has asked you to write a brief report suggesting places the group should visit and activities they could take part in during their stay.

Write a report of between 120 and 180 words.

What's the purpose of the report? You may be asked to give information, evaluate something, or make suggestions and recommendations.

Who will read it? Usually the people who are asking for the report. This may be an official group or somebody in authority, like a boss or a college principal.

What style should I use? Be clear and avoid unnecessary detail. Give essential information and recommendations. An impersonal style is often appropriate, avoiding overuse of the pronoun 'I'.

What information should I include? Make a number of points in answer to the question. Give some description and explanation. Conclude with a personal recommendation.

How should I structure a report?

Introduction (1)

This report will consider what a group of exchange students from Australia could do while they are staying in our town. Several visits and other activities will be suggested.

Places to visit (2)

Since our town is well-known as a cultural centre, many foreign visitors find the following particularly interesting places to visit:

- the cathedral
- the palace
- our market, which is famous as a place where local craftsmen sell traditional products.

Activities (2)

In the past students from abroad have said they would like to meet and do things with students here. For this reason, joint activities

between our visitors and our college students should be considered. The following could be organised:

- a sports competition
- an arts or music event

Recommendations (2)

As our Australian visitors will be staying for some time, I suggest a variety of visits and activities are planned. (3)

During their first week, they could visit historical sites and go to the market. Later, a tennis competition involving local students could be held.

Finally, during their last week, our visitors could be invited to take part in a musical evening at our college.

- (1) Use clear headings to help the reader see how the report is organised. *Introduction* and *Recommendations* or *Conclusion* are often appropriate.
- (2) Give each section in the report its own paragraph. Use numbers or bullets to make them stand out. Where appropriate, divide sections into paragraphs.
- (3) Use your conclusion to summarise briefly. Make sure that you express your personal recommendation if this is asked for in the question. Make points clearly and directly.

What phrases can I use?

Stating aims

The aim of this report is to ...
This report will consider / examine / compare ...
This report is intended to ...

Giving reasons

Since / As (our town is well-known), ...
For this reason / these reasons ...

Making suggestions or recommendations

In view of this, I (would) recommend / suggest (that) ...
We / I suggest (that) ...
They / We could ...

Set Book (Part 2)

How should I prepare to write about the set book?

Get to know the book

- Read it several times.
- Watch a film version. Make notes about the differences.

The story

- Write a short summary of each chapter.
- Make a list of the main events.

The characters

- Make a list of the main characters. Make notes about their appearance and personality. What adjectives could you use to describe them?
- Make notes about the most important relationships in the book.

The time and place

- Make notes about where and when the story is set.
- If it is set in the past, think about any differences there are with the modern world.

Your opinion

- Write notes about why you like the book. Think about adjectives to describe the story, e.g. exciting, unusual, etc.
- Write about your favourite part. What happens? Why do you like it?
- Write about anything you don't like about the book.

How should I approach the task?

Here are examples of each possible task type.

5a A J Cronin – *The Citadel*

You have received a letter from a friend asking about books you would recommend reading. Write a **letter** to your friend, explaining what you liked or disliked about *The Citadel*. Describe your favourite or least favourite part.

5b Jules Verne – *Around the World in Eighty Days*

Phileas Fogg and Passepartout travel around the world together experiencing various adventures on the way. Write an **essay** saying which character learns most from their journey.

What is the purpose of the task? You may be required to express an argument in an essay or an article, or to give your opinion of the book in a letter, a report or a review.

Who will read it? An essay or a report would be written for your teacher or for someone in authority. An informal letter is likely to be to a friend. An article or review would be read by the readers of a magazine.

What style should I use? Follow the notes given on writing styles in the relevant Writing Guides.

What information should I include? In each case, only include information about the book which is relevant to the question. Don't be tempted to retell the story or to give unnecessary details.

How should I structure my answer?

5a A J Cronin – *The Citadel*

Dear Ben

(1) Thanks for your last letter. It's always great to hear from you!

(2) I want to tell you about a really good book I've read. (3) It's called *The Citadel*. I like it because it shows the difficult decisions people face in real life situations. It's about a doctor who works first in a mining area. While there, he starts with strong moral ideas about helping poor people get good health care. Later, when he and his wife move to London, he uses his medical skills to make money from richer patients. (4) These developments make the story really interesting.

(2) My favourite part of the story is the part where the doctor, Manson, helps to save the life of a miner trapped underground. (4) It shows the qualities of bravery and intelligence that a good doctor should have. It also illustrates the terrible working conditions in the early twentieth century.

Read the book! It's fantastic!

See you soon.

Simon

- (1) Begin and end with suitable expressions.
- (2) Give each part of the question its own paragraph.
- (3) Refer to the book you want to talk about early on.
- (4) Give reasons for your opinions.

5b Jules Verne – *Around the World in Eighty Days*

(1) Phileas Fogg and Passepartout are unusual travelling companions. Their different experiences of travel provide the novel *Around the World in Eighty Days* with some of its most fascinating moments. (2) From these experiences, Fogg learns most, ending the journey a different person to how he started.

(3) When we meet the two characters, we learn that Passepartout has lived a very varied life. In this sense, he has more experience of the world than Fogg. Passepartout gets into many difficulties, such as when he is drugged in Hong Kong or kidnapped by indians in America. However, I think that, if the journey continued, he would carry on having experiences like these.

(4) On the other hand, Fogg breaks his usual lifestyle by accepting the bet to travel around the world. He starts off as a very typical Englishman, with a slightly cold exterior. By the end of the novel, however, he has fallen in love.

(2) To sum up, under the influence of a woman, Phileas Fogg learns to become a warmer and more sensitive character by the end of the story.

- (1) Introduce the subject of your composition in your first paragraph.
- (2) Refer back to the question in your introductory and concluding paragraphs.
- (3) Make a number of points for one side of the argument.
- (4) Make a number of points for the other side of the argument.

What words and phrases can I use?

Look at the vocabulary lists. Combine words to make sentences about the book or short story you have studied.

EXAMPLE

The main character is very sensitive.

The opening is exciting.

Nouns used in books

main character	villain	opening
minor characters	setting	ending
hero/heroine	plot	main event(s)

Adjectives to describe characters

Positive	Negative
kind	unkind/cruel
generous	mean
clever	stupid
sensitive	insensitive
brave	cowardly

Adjectives to describe the story

Positive	Negative
mysterious	ordinary
exciting	unexciting/dull
original	unoriginal
interesting	uninteresting/ boring

Story (Part 2)

How should I approach the task?

An English language magazine is running a short story competition for its readers. The story must begin with the following words:

It was the worst holiday I had ever had

Write your story for the competition in 120–180 words.

What is the purpose of the story? To entertain and interest the reader.

Who will read it? Your story may be for a competition or a magazine. The task may say who will read it, for example, your teacher or other foreign language students.

What style should I use? Use a neutral style – not formal but not too informal either. Use descriptive language: adjectives and adverbs make a story more dramatic.

What information should I include? A good story has an interesting beginning, a middle which maintains our interest and a definite end. You need to set the scene and choose two or three events to describe in detail.

How should I structure a story?

(1) It was the worst holiday I had ever had. (2) I had never been to a holiday camp before, but thought that it would be a good place to meet lots of people my own age. I was so wrong.

(3) The holiday was a total disaster from the start. The first thing that went wrong was that I had to share a room with a bad-tempered (4) seventy-five-year-old woman who went to bed early, snored loudly (4) all night and then complained unreasonably that I woke her up when I came back from the disco at 3 a.m.

(3) The next problem was that I was woken up four hours later by a cheerful (4) voice over an intercom saying, 'Good morning everybody! Time to get up and start the day!' It was impossible to go back to sleep as the announcement was followed by loud music and repeated every five minutes.

(5) At the end of the fortnight I was absolutely exhausted (4) and had not had much fun either. That was the last time I would go to a holiday camp.

- (1) Begin or end your story with the words given, if this is asked for in the task.
- (2) Include an introductory paragraph. Unless you are writing in the first person, introduce the main characters. Say where and when the events took place, and give any other important background information. Make your beginning interesting so that people will want to read on.
- (3) Write one or two middle paragraphs, where you develop the story. Use a new paragraph for a different event.
- (4) Add descriptive detail to make it more real.
- (5) Include a concluding paragraph, where you bring the story to an end.

What phrases can I use?

Ordering words and phrases

At first, ...

The first thing that happened was ...

Next, ...

After a while, ...

Then, ...

Eventually, ...

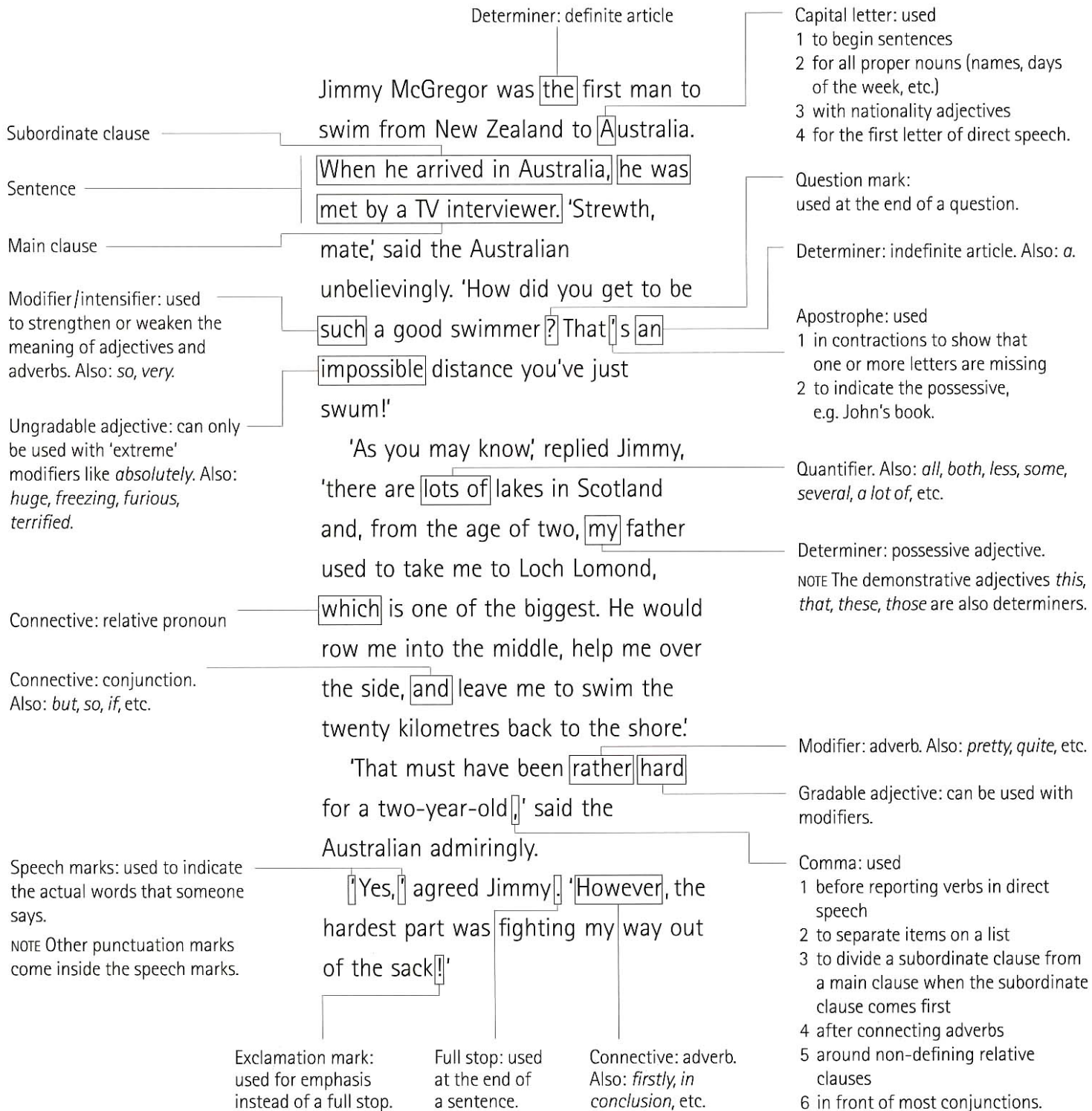
In the end, ...

Suddenly, ...

Meanwhile, ...

Grammar reference

Terminology



Unit 1

The future

There are many ways of talking about future time in English. This is a summary of the most common forms and their uses.

1 Present continuous

The present continuous is used to refer to future actions or events which have already been arranged.

Are you doing anything interesting at the weekend?

We're spending the summer with our friends in Greece.

2 Will future

A Future simple (*will* + infinitive)

The *will* future is used to talk about

1 future facts.

The sun will rise at 6.30 tomorrow morning.

2 predictions or expectations.

I expect Helen and John will be late again.

3 strong intentions.

When Loretta retires, I'll definitely apply for her job.

4 instant decisions about the immediate future.

The phone's ringing. I'll answer it.

5 offers

I'll take you to the airport if you like.

B Future continuous (*will* + *be* + *-ing*)

This form is used to talk about

1 events or actions that will be in progress at a specific time in the future.

This time tomorrow, I'll be travelling through France.

2 predicted or expected trends.

In the twenty-second century, people will be living to the age of 130.

C Future perfect simple (*will* + *have* + past participle) and Future perfect continuous (*will* + *have* + *been* + *-ing*)

These two forms are used to talk about

1 actions or events that will already be completed by a particular time in the future.

By the year 2012, I'll have left school and started work.

2 the continuous nature of actions and events in the future.

On Saturday we'll have been living here for three years.

NOTES

1 *Shall* is sometimes used instead of *will* after *I* and *we*.

In a few days we shall have forgotten about the accident.

2 *Shall* must be used to start questions which are suggestions and offers.

Shall we phone to see what time the film starts?

Shall I carry that heavy case for you?

3 Going to + infinitive

This is used to talk about

a intentions or plans.

After Christmas, I'm going to get a job and save up.

What are you going to do when you leave school?

b predictions based on present evidence or knowledge.

My nose is tickling. I think I'm going to sneeze.

My sister's going to have a baby.

4 Present simple

This tense is used to talk about scheduled, timetabled or fixed events.

The match starts at 7.30 tomorrow evening.

5 Other ways of referring to the future

a *To be (just) about to* + infinitive

This is used to talk about actions or events which we expect to happen in the immediate future.

I must hurry – the train's just about to leave.

b *To be on the point of* + *-ing*

This expression also refers to the immediate future.

The train is on the point of leaving. Close the doors!

Unit 2

Describing habitual actions

1 Habitual actions in the present

A Present simple

This is the usual way of expressing present habitual actions.

Whenever *I go to town*, *I spend* too much money.

The present simple is also used for permanent situations.

My uncle lives in Bristol, but *he works* in London.

B *tend to*

The verb *tend to* + infinitive can be used to refer to usual or generally occurring actions.

She tends to get up late at weekends.

C Other ways of expressing habitual actions in the present

1 Present continuous + *always*

This is used mainly to refer to actions which are very frequent.

He's always giving me presents.

It is also used when you are annoyed with yourself or someone else.

You're always complaining about my cooking.

I'm always losing my keys.

2 *will* + infinitive

This is sometimes used instead of the present simple to refer to behaviour which is predictable or typical.

I'll sit for hours watching TV.

3 *keep* + *-ing*

This is used for habitual actions which are accidental or annoying.

I keep bumping my head on that tree.

2 Habitual actions in the past

A Past simple

When a past simple verb refers to habitual or repeated actions it can be accompanied by a frequency expression.

When I worked in London, *I usually got* home at six o'clock.

B *used to* + infinitive

This refers to habitual past actions which no longer happen.

Before I had a car, *I used to cycle* to work.

It can also be used for actions that did not happen before, but happen now.

I didn't use to have foreign holidays. Now I go abroad every year.

We never used to watch TV at breakfast time.

NOTES

1 Remember the question form of *used to*.

Where *did you use to go* for your holidays?

2 Sentences with *used to* do not need frequency adverbs, but they are sometimes included for emphasis.

I always used to be late for school.

C *would* + infinitive

This refers to habitual past actions.

Every summer *our parents would take us* to the seaside.

Avoid using *would* in questions and negative sentences, as its meaning can be completely different.

NOTES

There is a difference in meaning between *used to* and *would*.

1 *Used to* can refer to permanent situations as well as habitual actions.

I used to be able to see the church from my bedroom window.

2 *Would* can only refer to actions, not situations. You can say

He'd catch the 7.30 train.

but you **cannot** say

~~*He'd work*~~ in London.

3 *Used to, be used to, and get used to*

Used to has three forms with different meanings.

A *used to* + infinitive

This refers to habitual past actions (see note 2B above).

My father *used to smoke* 40 cigarettes a day.

B *to be used to* + *-ing*

This means to be accustomed to.

I must go to bed early. *I'm used to having* ten hours sleep a night.

C to get used to + -ing

This means to become accustomed to, often to something unusual or strange.

If you come to England, you'll have to *get used to driving* on the left-hand side of the road.

NOTE

Other common verbs which follow the same pattern are *look forward to* and *object to*.

Comparative and superlative adjectives and adverbs

1 Adjectives

A Regular adjectives with one syllable

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
tall	taller	the tallest
large	larger	the largest
big	bigger	the biggest

NOTES

- 1 Adjectives ending in two consonants or two vowels and a consonant add *-er/-est*: *long, short, bright, smooth, cool, clean, great*
- 2 Adjectives ending in *-e* add *-r/-st*: *nice, late, safe, strange, rude, wide*
- 3 Many adjectives ending in a single vowel + single consonant double the consonant and add *-er/-est*: *fat, thin, flat, sad, wet*

B Regular adjectives with two or more syllables

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
heavy	heavier	the heaviest
modern	more modern	the most modern
important	more important	the most important
common	more common/ commoner	the most common/ the commonest

NOTES

- 1 Adjectives ending in *-y* change *y* to *i* and add *-er/-est*: *happy, dirty, funny, tidy, busy, early, empty, dry*
- 2 Most longer adjectives use *more* and *the most*: *comfortable, independent, insignificant, uninteresting*
- 3 Some two-syllable adjectives can form their comparatives and superlatives in two ways: by adding *-er/-est* or with *more* and *most*: *clever, pleasant, gentle, narrow, shallow, simple, tired*

C Irregular adjectives

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
good	better	the best
bad	worse	the worst
old	elder/ older	the eldest/ the oldest
far	further/ farther	the furthest/ the farthest

D Comparative and superlative adjectives in context

1 *more/-er + than*

I'm *taller than* my brother.

My brother's *more serious than* me.

I'm *more intelligent than* he is/him.

NOTES

If the pronoun after *than* is not followed by a verb, use the object pronoun form – *me, him, us, them*, etc.

If the pronoun after *than* is followed by a verb, use the subject pronoun form – *I, he, we, they*, etc.

2 *the most/-est*

I'm *the tallest* student in the class.

My sister's *the most intelligent* student in her school.

3 *less + than/the least*

That film was *less interesting than* the last one I saw.

It was *the least interesting* film I've seen all year.

E Qualifying comparative adjectives

1 Use these words and phrases to refer to big differences: *far, a lot, much*.

Cars are *a lot faster* and *much more comfortable* than bicycles.

2 Use these words and phrases to refer to small differences: *a bit, a little, slightly*.

The weather's *a bit hotter* than it was yesterday.

2 Adverbs

A Regular adverbs

The majority of comparative and superlative adverbs are formed like this:

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
slowly	more slowly	the most slowly

B Irregular adverbs

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
well	better	the best
badly	worse	the worst
little	less	the least
much	more	the most

C Adverbs which are the same as adjectives

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
<i>fast</i>	<i>faster</i>	<i>the fastest</i>
<i>hard</i>	<i>harder</i>	<i>the hardest</i>

Other adverbs of this kind are: *far, long, loud, straight*.

3 *The + comparative + the*

This construction links two actions or situations - when one thing happens, another thing follows. A comparative expression in the first clause is balanced by a comparative expression in the second clause. Several grammatical patterns are possible here:

A adjective ... adjective.

The harder a job is, the more rewarding I find it.

B adverb ... adverb.

The sooner we start, the quicker we'll finish.

C adjective ... adverb, or adverb ... adjective.

The easier a job is, the more quickly I do it.

D more (+ noun) ... more (+ noun).

The more money Jack earned, the more clothes he bought.

E less (+ clause) ... less (+ uncountable noun), fewer (+ plural countable noun).

The less Bob earned, the less food/ the fewer holidays he could afford.

F more (+ clause) ... less (+ clause).

The more you sleep, the less you do.

G Other combinations of these patterns are possible.

Examples.

The harder Joe worked, the more he earned.

The more he ate, the fatter he got.

NOTES

1 Neither of the two clauses in *the + comparative + the* sentences makes sense without the other.

2 In writing, a comma is used to separate the two clauses.

3 Both clauses need a verb.

4 In some expressions with *better*, no verbs are needed.

Jim When shall I come round to see you?

Tim *The sooner, the better.*

4 Other comparative constructions

A *as ... as*

This construction can be used with adjectives or adverbs to make comparisons between two things or people.

I'm as tall as my brother.

Trains don't travel as fast as planes.

In negative sentences *so* can be used instead of the first *as*.

Cats aren't so friendly as dogs.

B Comparative + *and* + comparative

This construction can be used with adjectives or adverbs to refer to a trend.

Towards the end of the film, I became more and more frightened.

As the exams approached, I worked harder and harder.

Over the last twenty years, televisions have become less and less expensive.

Unit 3

Talking about ability

1 Can, be able to

Can and *be able to* are the verbs most commonly used to talk about ability. Sometimes it is possible to use either verb without changing the meaning of the sentence. Sometimes, we have to use *be able to* as there is no appropriate form of *can*.

infinitive	—	<i>to be able to</i>
present	<i>can</i>	<i>am/are/is able to</i>
future	—	<i>will be able to</i>
past	<i>could</i>	<i>was/were able to</i>
present perfect	—	<i>have/has been able to</i>
past perfect	—	<i>had been able to</i>

2 Present ability

A To talk about a general ability in the present, both forms are possible, but *can* is more usual.

Gareth *can* run very fast.

(Gareth *is able to* run very fast.)

B To talk about a learned ability in the present, *can* is more usual. *Know how to* can be used as an alternative to *can*.

Can you play chess?

Do you know how to play chess?

3 Future ability

To talk about an ability in the future, we use the future form of *be able to*.

Will I be able to play better after I've had some lessons?

4 Past ability

A To talk about a general ability in the past, both forms are possible

Before his accident, Ben *could* jump really high.

Before his accident, Ben *was able to* jump really high.

B To talk about an ability to do something in the past on one particular occasion, it is not possible to use *could*. We must use the past tense of *be able to* or *manage* (+ infinitive) or *succeed* (+ *in* + *-ing*)

Although she had lost a lot of blood, the doctors *were able to* save the girl's life.

Despite the difficult conditions, the surgeons *managed to* perform the operation successfully and *succeeded in* saving the man's leg.

NOTE

If the event was unsuccessful, it is possible to use *couldn't* as well as the past forms of *be able to*, *manage* and *succeed*.

Although he did his best, he *couldn't* finish it in time.

5 'Conditional' ability

A To talk about a hypothetical ability in the present or future, we can use *could* or *would be able to*.

I *could* probably jump further if I had longer legs.

I *would* probably *be able to* play better if I practised more.

B To talk about a hypothetical ability in the past, we usually use *could* + *have* + *past participle* although we can also use *would have been able to*.

Even if he'd been taller he *couldn't have* reached it.

Even if he'd been taller, he *wouldn't have been able to* reach it.

6 Other structures used to talk about ability

A To talk about aptitude and capacity for doing something, we can use *be capable of* + *-ing*.

He is certainly *capable of breaking* the world record.

B To talk about how well we do something, we can use the structure *be good* (*brilliant*, etc.)/*bad* (*terrible*, etc.) *at* + *noun* or *gerund*.

I have never been *good at sports*.

I am particularly *bad at running*.

Unit 4

Modal verbs

1 Obligation

A *must*

Must + infinitive is used for strong obligations which express the authority of the speaker or writer. It is used:

- 1 for formal rules or laws.
Passengers *must* fasten their seat belts for take-off.
- 2 for suggestions, advice or recommendations that the speaker or writer feels strongly about.
You *must* come to my party. Everyone's going to be there.

B *have to*

Have to + infinitive is used for strong obligations which express the authority of a third person, rather than the speaker or writer. It is used:

- 1 when the speaker wants to show they are not responsible for imposing the obligation, or do not agree with it.
I'll be late home tonight. *I have to* work late. My boss said so.
- 2 when the speaker or writer is reminding someone about a rule or law.
I'm sorry, but you *have to* wear a seat belt in the back of cars now.

C *have got to*

Have got to is more informal than *have to*. It is often used:

- 1 for direct commands.
You've got to stop wasting your money.
- 2 for emphasis.
I don't care how hard I have to work, *I've just got to* pass the exam this time.

D *need to*

Need to is used to express needs or necessities, rather than strict obligations.

If we're going to work together, *I need to* know about your background and experience.

E Negatives

- 1 *Mustn't* expresses prohibition (negative rules and laws or strong advice).
Drivers *must not* exceed the speed limit.
You *mustn't* blame yourself. It's not your fault.

- 2 *Do not have to/have not got to* express lack of obligation or necessity.
You *don't have to* wear a uniform, but you can if you like.
- 3 *Do not need to/needn't* + infinitive are used to express lack of obligation or necessity and are similar in meaning to *do not have to*.
There are no lessons tomorrow, so *I don't need to* get up early.
You *needn't* tell me your phone number if you don't want to.
- 4 *Did not need to* + infinitive means 'It was not necessary, so we didn't do it'.
The train was delayed so we *didn't need to* hurry.
- 5 *Needn't have* + past participle means 'It was not necessary, but we did it in spite of this'.
We had to wait for half an hour on the platform because the train was delayed. We *needn't have hurried* after all.

2 Permission and prohibition

A *can/can't*

This is one of the commonest ways of expressing permission and prohibition.

Can I use the phone, please?

In Spain you *can't* leave school until the age of 16.

NOTE

May I ... ? means the same as *Can I ... ?*, but is more formal and more polite.

B Other expressions of permission

You're allowed to buy cigarettes when you're 18.

We were only permitted to take photographs in certain places.

My parents let me stay out late at weekends.

C Other expressions of prohibition

You aren't allowed to go abroad without a passport.

Smoking is not permitted in most cinemas.

You are not permitted to smoke in this theatre.

People are forbidden to smoke on the Underground.

The workers have been prohibited from striking.

Nigel has been banned from driving for six months.

Unit 5

Past Time

1 Past simple

We use the past simple tense when we want to refer to an action or event which is finished and:

- took place at a specific time and place in the past.
Judy *went* to Spain in 1999.
- took place over a specific period in the past.
She *lived* in Spain between 1999 and 2002.
- was habitual during a specific period in the past.
When Judy lived in Spain, she *ate* dinner at about 10 p.m.

NOTE

A past time reference must either be given or understood from the context.

2 Past continuous

We use the past continuous to indicate:

- a continuous event in the past (which may or may not be unfinished).
Dick *was working* for his uncle when I knew him.
- a temporary event in the past which was in progress before another event took place.
I'll always remember what I *was doing* when I heard the dreadful news.
- an event which started before another event in the past and continued.
When Neil and Cathy eventually turned up, all the other guests *were already eating* their dessert.
- simultaneous, continuous actions in the past.
While I *was trying* to phone her, *she was trying* to phone me!
- repeated actions occurring over a period of time in the past.
Before I got my own flat, I *was always arguing* with my parents.

3 Past perfect

We use the past perfect to indicate a past event or situation which occurred before another past event or situation.

I *'d been* awake for quite a while before the alarm rang.
Although I arrived on time, Mike *had* already left.

NOTE

A time conjunction sometimes replaces the past perfect to show which of the two past events occurred first. In this case both events can be in the simple past tense.

Alex *phoned* me before he *left*.

4 Past perfect continuous

We use the continuous form when we want to emphasise the continuity and duration of an event.

Brian *had been trying* to get a job for over a year before he was offered his present one.

5 Present perfect

We use the present perfect tense when we want to talk about:

- an event which started in the past, continues in the present and may continue into the future.
My parents *have been married* for twenty years.
- a recent event in the past which has relevance to the present.
A man *has appeared* in court charged with the murder of the missing person.
- an event which happened in the past without saying when it happened (because we do not consider this is important).
Have you seen Jill?
I've *read* Hamlet but I've never *seen* it performed.
- an event which happened in the past but in unfinished time (with expressions like *today, this month, this year, etc.*).
I didn't see Tim last week but I've *been* out with him twice already this week.

6 Present perfect continuous

We use the continuous form

- to emphasise the continuity and duration of the event.
The Smiths *have been living* in the same house ever since they got married.
- to indicate that a continuous activity in the recent past is responsible for a present situation. This activity may or may not be unfinished.
I'm not crying – I've *been peeling* onions.

NOTE

The following verbs can be in the present perfect or the present perfect continuous tense with no real change of meaning, although the continuous form is

often preferred: *live, wait, drive, smoke, work, stay, study, rain.*

I've *driven* since I was eighteen.

I've *been driving* since I was eighteen.

Participle clauses

A participle clause contains a present participle, e.g. *seeing*, a past participle, e.g. *seen*, or a perfect participle, e.g. *having seen*. It can be used

a to indicate two events happening at the same time.

It can replace a time clause.

Walking down the High Street on Saturday, I saw Paul. (replaces *As/When/While I was walking ...*)

b to indicate a sequence of events.

Raising their glasses, they wished Darren a happy birthday.

c to indicate a reason. It can replace a reason clause.

Not understanding Albert's question, I was unable to give him an answer. (replaces *Because/Since I didn't understand ...*)

Having spent my money on a car, I couldn't afford a holiday. (replaces *Because/Since I had spent ...*)

NOTE

The subject of the participle must also be the subject of the other verb. It is not possible to say *Having a bath, the phone rang.*

Extreme adjectives

1 Most adjectives can be used with *very* or *really* and in the comparative form with *even* for emphasis.

Yesterday was *very/really* cold, but today is *even* colder.

NOTE

Really is more informal than *very*.

2 Extreme adjectives cannot be preceded by *very* or in the comparative by *even*. If you want to emphasise them, you must use *absolutely* or *really*.

I was *absolutely/really* furious.

NOTE

You cannot use *absolutely* with ordinary adjectives.

Today is *absolutely* cold.

Today is *absolutely* freezing.

Unit 6

Gerunds and infinitives

Certain verbs, adjectives and prepositions must always be followed by the gerund; others must always be followed by the infinitive. Some verbs, however, can be followed by either the infinitive or the gerund.

1 Gerunds

Gerunds are verbs that are like nouns. They are formed by adding *-ing* to the verb and can be used in four ways.

A As the subject of a clause or sentence

Eating out can be expensive.

B As the object of a clause or sentence

One of my interests is *collecting* antiques.

C After verbs

1 After verbs expressing likes and dislikes (but see 3B2 below).

I don't enjoy *seeing* you like this.

2 After other verbs such as: *admit, appreciate, avoid, can't help, consider, delay, deny, finish, forgive, give up, imagine, involve, keep, mind, miss, postpone, put off, prevent, report, resist, risk, suggest.*

Have you considered *buying* a new one?

D After prepositions

1 After all prepositions.

It's for *opening* bottles.

2 After adjective + preposition combinations such as:

nervous/worried about

bad/good/clever/skilled at

sorry/responsible for

interested in

capable/afraid/frightened/terrified of

bored with

I'm interested in *applying* for the job.

3 After verb + preposition combinations such as:

apologise for, arrest someone for, be/get used to,

congratulate someone on, insist on, look forward to,

object to, succeed in, warn someone about.

My little brother insisted on *coming* with me.

2 The infinitive

A The infinitive is always used after certain verbs:
afford, agree, arrange, ask, appear, attempt, choose, decide, expect, help, hope, intend, learn, manage, offer, pretend, promise, refuse, seem.
I can't afford *to go* on holiday this year.

B The infinitive is always used after certain adjectives:
amazed, certain, difficult, disappointed, easy, free, glad, happy, likely, pleased, possible, simple, sure, surprised.
The recipe is simple *to follow*.

3 The gerund or the infinitive

Some verbs can be followed by the gerund or the infinitive.

A With no change of meaning

The verbs *start, begin, continue* can be followed by either the gerund or the infinitive, without changing the meaning of the sentence.

Jeff continued *to smoke/smoking* despite the doctor's advice.

B With a slight change of meaning

The meaning of the verbs *like, prefer, hate, love* changes slightly, depending on whether the gerund or infinitive follows them.

1 The gerund is more usual for general statements when the emphasis is on the enjoyment (or not) of the action.

Mary prefers *eating* out to eating at home.

2 The infinitive is more usual for more specific statements where extra information is given.

Jane prefers *to eat* out because there's no washing-up to do.

NOTE

With the verb *like* + *infinitive* there is often the added meaning of a preferred alternative.

I like to drive there may imply 'I prefer that means of transport to going by train or coach'.

C With a change of meaning

1 The verbs *try, stop, regret, remember, forget, mean, go on* can be followed by the gerund or the infinitive, but with a change in meaning.

Try

+ gerund = to experiment in order to achieve an objective.

Try *going* to bed earlier and see if that helps.

+ infinitive = to attempt a difficult action.

Jill's been trying *to get* a job since she left school, but with no success.

Stop

+ gerund = to finish an activity.

Stop *talking* and get on with your work!

+ infinitive = to interrupt one activity in order to do another.

Roger stopped (what he was doing) *to have* a cup of tea.

Regret

+ gerund = to be sorry about an action in the past.

Many people regret *marrying* young.

+ infinitive = to be sorry about what you are going to say.

Dr. Taylor regrets *to say* that she is unable to see patients without an appointment.

Forget / remember

+ gerund = to (not) recall an action.

I distinctly remember *asking* them to come after lunch.

I won't forget *being* at the Olympic Games as long as I live.

+ infinitive = to (not) do an action you must do.

Ann remembered *to lock* all the doors when she went on holiday, but she forgot *to close* the bathroom window.

Go on

+ gerund = to continue an action.

I'll go on *applying* for jobs until I'm successful.

+ infinitive = to finish one activity and start another.

After seven years of study, Andy went on *to become* a doctor.

Mean

+ gerund = to involve.

Dieting usually means *giving up* sweet things.

+ infinitive = to intend

I meant *to send* you a postcard but I couldn't remember your address.

NOTE

The infinitive is only possible with *mean* in perfect and past tenses.

2 The verbs of perception *see* (*watch*, *notice*, etc.), *feel*, *hear*, *smell* have a different meaning when they are followed by the infinitive (without *to*) or a participle.

a + participle = to experience part of an event

I noticed a man *acting* in a strange way.

b + infinitive without *to* = to experience the whole event

I heard my sister *come* in at 1 a.m.

Unit 7

The passive

1 Verbs that can be used in the passive

Most transitive verbs can be used in the passive. A transitive verb is a verb which takes an object, e.g. *catch*.

The police *caught* the thief.

Intransitive verbs cannot be used in the passive. An intransitive verb is a verb which does not take an object, e.g. *fall*.

Rodney *fell* and hurt his leg.

2 Form of the passive

The passive is formed with the verb *be* in the appropriate tense + the past participle of the main verb. In the case of modals, e.g. *could*, and *must*, it is formed with the modal + *be* + past participle. See the table below.

Tense	Subject	Verb 'be'	Past Participle
present simple	Letters	are	delivered twice a day.
present continuous	The suspect	is being	questioned by the police.
past simple	The programme	was	first broadcast in 1998.
past continuous	Our hotel room	was being	cleaned when we arrived.
present perfect	My car	has been	stolen.
past perfect	They	had been	warned about the danger.
future	You	will be	paid on Friday.
modal verbs	This meat	must be	cooked for at least an hour.

3 Choosing active or passive form

In an active sentence, the subject is the person or thing that does the action.

Liverpool *beat* Manchester United.

In a passive sentence, the subject of the verb is the person or thing affected by the action.

Manchester United *were* beaten by Liverpool.

When we want to focus on the person or thing affected by the action instead of the performer of the action (the agent) we use the passive.

4 Including the agent (performer)

When we use the passive we can choose to include the agent or not. The agent is the person or thing who/which performs the action.

The record is held *by Carl Lewis*.

We do not include the agent:

a when the agent is not important. So, we do **not** say:

~~Trespassers will be prosecuted by the landowner.~~

b when we do not know who the agent is and so would have to use the words *somebody* or a *person*.

We do **not** say:

~~My car has been stolen by somebody.~~

c when the agent is obvious. So, we do **not** say:

~~The thief was sentenced to five years imprisonment by the judge.~~

d when the agent has already been mentioned. So, we do **not** say:

~~Some of Stephen King's books have been written by him under the pseudonym Richard Bachman.~~

NOTE

In informal English *get* can sometimes be used instead of *be* to form the passive. The agent is not generally mentioned.

Nigel *got* stopped for speeding.

5 Verbs with two objects

A Some verbs can have two objects – a direct object (DO) and an indirect object (IO).

Lady Markham's late husband gave the painting (DO) to the gallery (IO).

Lady Markham's late husband gave the gallery (IO) the painting (DO).

B Either of the two objects can be the subject of the passive verb.

The painting was given to the gallery by her late husband.

The gallery was given the painting by her late husband.

C When one of the objects is a person, it is more usual for this to be the subject.

Bobby was given a new bike for his birthday.

rather than

A new bike was given to Bobby for his birthday.

6 Passive constructions with the infinitive

When we want to pass on information but we do not know whether the information is true or not, or we do not want to say where the information came from, we can use the passive form of these verbs: *think, believe, report, consider, know, say, expect* + the infinitive.

A When the information is about a present situation, we use the passive + infinitive.

The Queen *is thought to be* one of the richest people in the world.

Mr Smith *is believed to be* staying with friends.

B When the information is about something in the past, we use the passive + the past infinitive (*to have* + past participle).

The ship is reported *to have sunk*. Many people are thought *to have drowned*.

Have / Get something done (causative)

Have something done and *get something done* are both used to refer to actions which are done FOR the subject rather than BY the subject. Causative verbs are used instead of passive verbs to show that the subject causes the action to be done.

1 Have something done

I don't know how to repair cars, so *I'm having mine repaired* at the garage round the corner.

2 Get something done

I really must *get my eyes tested*. I'm sure I need glasses.

Get your hair cut!

NOTE

1 *have something done* is slightly more formal than *get something done*,

2 *get* is more frequent than *have* in the imperative form.

3 Non-causative uses of have and get

Have and *get* are also used to refer to events which happened to someone, but were outside their control.

After being late for work every day for two weeks, *I had my pay reduced*.

I stood so close to the fire that *I got my legs burnt*.

Unit 8

Reporting speech

1 Direct speech

We can report what someone has said in two ways.

a We can report their actual words.

b We can report the idea they expressed.

When we report a person's actual words in writing, we use speech marks and an appropriate verb, e.g. *say, tell, ask*.

'I'll be late home tomorrow,' Bob said.

2 Reported speech

When we report the idea and not the actual words a person says we often make changes. These changes are usually to verb tenses, pronouns, word order, and time and place references.

3 Reporting statements

A Changes in verb tenses

When the reporting verb is in the past tense, e.g. *said*, we usually move the tenses in the sentence we are reporting one step back in time.

Direct speech

Present simple 'I'm a nurse,' she said.	➔	Past simple She said she <i>was</i> a nurse.
Present continuous 'I'm not going,' he said.	➔	Past continuous He said he <i>wasn't</i> going.
Past simple 'Tony did it,' she said.	➔	Past perfect She said Tony <i>had</i> done it.
Present perfect 'I haven't read it,' she said.	➔	Past perfect She said she <i>hadn't</i> read it.
Past continuous 'I was lying,' he said.	➔	Past perfect continuous He said <i>he'd been</i> lying.
<i>will</i> future 'I'll get it,' she said.	➔	<i>Would</i> She said she <i>would</i> get it.
<i>Can</i> 'I can speak French,' he said.	➔	<i>Could</i> He said he <i>could</i> speak French.
<i>May</i> 'I may be late,' she said.	➔	<i>Might</i> She said she <i>might</i> be late.
<i>Must</i> 'I must go,' he said.	➔	<i>Had to</i> He said he <i>had to</i> go.

NOTE

The past perfect and the modals *might*, *ought to*, *could*, *should* and *would* do not change in reported speech.

B No changes in verb tenses

- When the reporting verb is in the present tense, e.g. *says*, we do not change the tense of the original verb. For example when we are reading what someone has said in a newspaper or letter: Darren *says he's been* too busy to write before.
or when we are passing on a message: Lucy *says she'll* be late.
- When the reporting verb is in the past tense and we want to emphasise that the statement is still true we can keep the same tense if we wish.
'Bill is my cousin' She said Bill *is* her cousin.

C Changes in time and place references

Some typical changes that may have to be made are:

Direct speech	Reported speech
<i>today</i>	<i>that day</i>
<i>tomorrow</i>	<i>the next day, the following day</i>
<i>yesterday</i>	<i>the previous day, the day before</i>
<i>two days ago</i>	<i>two days before, two days earlier</i>
<i>now</i>	<i>then</i>
<i>here</i>	<i>there</i>
<i>come</i>	<i>go</i>

Reported speech

Unless time and place words are reported at the same time and in the same place as they were originally said, they change.

'Marie phoned yesterday.' (said on Monday)
He said that Marie had phoned *two days ago* / *on Sunday*. (said on Tuesday)

D Other changes

- Pronouns may change when we are reporting speech. This depends on who is reporting.
'I'll give *you* a lift.' (Jack to Barbara)
Jack said he would give *me* a lift. (Barbara to someone else)
- The determiners *this*, *that*, *these*, *those* may change to *the*.
'*These* jeans are too tight,' Cyril said.
Cyril said *the* jeans were too tight.
- The pronouns *this* and *that* may change to *it*.
'Give me *that*!' Jayne said.
Jayne told me to give *it* to her.

E Reporting verbs

We can use the verbs *say* and *tell* to report statements. The structure after these verbs is *say (that) + clause*:

Richard said (that) he would be late.

and *tell* someone (that) + clause:

Richard told me (that) he would be late.

NOTE *That* is frequently omitted in spoken English.

4 Reporting questions

A Changes

We make the same changes to verb tenses, time and place references and pronouns as we do when we report statements. We also change the form of the original question into a statement and omit auxiliary verbs (*do*, *does*, *did*) and question marks.

'When are you arriving?'

He asked me when *I was arriving*.

If there is no question word in the original we must use *if* or *whether*

'Do you understand?'

He asked her *if/whether* she understood.

B Reporting verbs

To report questions we can use the verb *ask* or the structure *want to know*.

'Are you enjoying yourself?' Mr Jones asked.

Mr Jones *wanted to know* if I was enjoying myself.

5 Reporting functions

A Reporting advice, commands, requests and warnings

We can report these kinds of speech using the verbs *advise*, *tell*, *ask* and *warn* + personal object pronoun + infinitive.

Advice

'You really should stop!'

She advised me to stop.

Command

'Don't interrupt me!'

He told me not to interrupt him.

Request

'Could you close the door please?'

She asked me to close the door.

Warning

'If you tell anyone, I'll ... !'

She warned me not to tell anyone.

NOTES

- 1 The structure after *ask* is different depending on whether we are reporting a request or a question.

'Can you remind me please?' (request)

He asked me to remind him.

'Can you come tomorrow?' (question)

She asked me if I could come the next day.

- 2 The structure after *tell* is different depending on whether we are reporting a command or a statement.

'Come on! Hurry up!' (command)

She told us to hurry up.

'It doesn't start till 8!' (statement)

He told us (that) it didn't start until 8.

B Reporting suggestions

We can report suggestions with the verb *suggest* + clause.

For example, to report '*Let's stay in.*':

She suggested that we (should) stay in.

She suggested that we stayed in.

She suggested staying in.

NOTE

You cannot use the infinitive in this structure.

Unit 9

Relative clauses

A relative clause gives extra information. It is introduced by a relative pronoun: *who* (*whom*), *which*, *that*, *whose* or there may be no relative pronoun, \emptyset .

The choice of relative pronoun depends on whether: it is the subject or object or possessive of a relative clause.

it refers to a person or thing.

the relative clause is defining or non-defining

	A Defining		B Non-defining	
	Person	Thing	Person	Thing
1 Subject	who/that	which/that	who	which
2 Object	\emptyset /who(m)/that	\emptyset /which/that	who(m)	which
3 Possessive	whose	whose (of which)	whose (of which)	whose

NOTE

1 *who* and *which* are more usual than *that* in writing.

2 a defining relative pronoun is frequently omitted, particularly in speech.

3 *Whom* is formal and is used mainly in writing.

1 Defining and non-defining clauses

Relative clauses are common in spoken and written English. However, non-defining relative clauses are more common in written English than in spoken English.

A The information given in a **defining** relative clause is essential to the meaning of the sentence. It makes clear which person or thing we are talking about.

The man *who/that* lives at number 36 has been arrested.

The fingerprints *which/that* were found on the gun were his.

The boy *whose* dog is missing is offering a reward for its safe return.

B The information given in a **non-defining** relative clause is not essential to the meaning of the sentence. A comma is put before the relative pronoun and at the end of the clause, unless this is also the end of the sentence.

Mr White, *who* lives at number 36, is emigrating to New Zealand.

We stayed at The Carlton, *which* is a five-star hotel in the town centre.

NOTES

- 1 In non-defining relative clauses, *which* can refer to a whole clause.
He climbed the mountain wearing only a T-shirt and trainers, *which* was a stupid thing to do.
- 2 In non-defining relative clauses, after numbers and words like *many*, *most*, *neither*, *some*, we use *of* before *whom* and *which*.
Dozens of people had been invited, most *of whom* I knew.
- 3 We usually use *that* (not *which*) after the following words: *all*, *any(thing)*, *every(thing)*, *few*, *little*, *many*, *much*, *no(thing)*, *none*, *some(thing)*, and after superlatives. When the pronoun refers to the object, *that* can be omitted.
It was something *that* could have happened to anyone.
It was the most difficult exam (*that*) I'd ever taken.

2 Where, why and when

Where, *why* and *when* are used in place of a relative pronoun after a noun which refers to a place, a time or a reason.

- A In **defining** relative clauses *why* and *when* can be omitted.
I'd like to live in a country *where* it's summer all year round.
Do you know the reason (*why*) Kate's changed her mind?
June is the month (*when*) many couples get married.
- B In **non-defining** relative clauses *when*, *where* and *why* cannot be omitted.
Aileen was brought up in Scotland, *where* she was born, but she emigrated after her marriage.
The town is quieter after lunch, *when* everyone is having a siesta.

3 Relative clauses and prepositions

- A In formal English a preposition usually comes before the relative pronoun.
The Hilton Hotel, *at which* we stayed while we were in New York, is expensive.
- B In informal English a preposition usually comes at the end of the relative clause
The Hilton Hotel, *which* we stayed *at* while we were in New York, is expensive.

C Defining

	Formal	Informal
Person	whom	Ø
Thing	which	Ø

The man to *whom* I spoke gave me different information.
The man Ø I spoke to gave me different information.
The car in *which* the robbers got away had been stolen.
The car Ø the robbers got away in had been stolen.

D Non-defining

	Formal	Informal
Person	whom	who
Thing	which	which

The hotel manager, to *whom* I spoke about my dissatisfaction, suggested I write to you.
The hotel manager, *who* I spoke to about my dissatisfaction, suggested I call you.

Unit 10

Wishes, regrets and preferences

1 Wish

We use *wish* to talk about situations we would like to change but can't, either because they are outside our control or because they are in the past. The tense of the verb after *wish* does not correspond to the time we are thinking about; it changes. The verb tense is one step back in time (as in reported speech.)

A A wish about a present or future situation is expressed with a past tense.

Situation	Wish
I am an only child	I wish I <i>wasn't</i> an only child.
I can't drive	I wish I <i>could</i> drive.
Rod isn't coming to the party	I wish Rod <i>was</i> coming.

NOTE

In formal English we say *I/he/she/it were/weren't*.

B A wish about a past situation is expressed with a past perfect tense.

Situation	Wish
I've lost my best pen	I wish I <i>hadn't</i> lost it.
I didn't remember	I wish I <i>'d</i> remembered.

C *Wish ... would*

We use *wish ... would*:

1 when we want to complain about a present situation.

Situation	Wish
A dog is barking.	I wish that dog <i>would</i> stop barking!
The road is icy.	I wish you <i>wouldn't</i> drive so fast.

NOTE

We can't say *I wish I would ...*

2 when we are impatient for an event outside our control to happen.

Situation	Wish
You're waiting for the bus	I wish the bus <i>would</i> come.

NOTE

It is not possible to use *wish ... would* with the verb *be* unless we are complaining. We say *I wish it were Friday* and not *I wish it would be Friday*.

2 Other structures to express wishes and regrets

A If we want a future event to happen or not happen, and this event is possible and not just a desire, we use the verb *hope* + present simple.

I *hope* I pass my exams.

B *If only* can often be used in place of *wish* with a slightly stronger sense of regret.

I wish Sue was here / *If only* Sue was here. She'd know what to do.

3 *I'd rather*

We use *would rather* to express a preference.

A about our own actions.

1 If we are referring to a present situation we use *would rather* + infinitive without 'to')

I'd rather be rich than poor.

2 If we are referring to a past situation we use *would rather* + perfect infinitive)

I'd rather have lived 100 years ago than now.

B about someone else's actions.

1 If we are referring to a present situation we use *would rather* + past simple)

I'd rather you *came* tomorrow / *I'd rather* you *didn't* come on Wednesday.

2 If we are referring to a past situation we use *would rather* + past perfect)

I'd rather you *hadn't* told me / *I'd rather* you *had* kept it to yourself.

4 *It's time*

We use the expressions *it's time* and *it's high time* to show that we think something should happen soon.

We use the past tense to refer to the present or the future.

My hair is rather long. *It's time* I *got* it cut.

He's over thirty. *It's high time* he *settled down* and *got* himself a proper job!

We use the expression *it's time* + 'to' infinitive to show that the moment for something to happen has come.

It's 5 o'clock. *It's time* to *go* home. (We normally finish at 5 o'clock.)

Unit 11

Conditional sentences

There are four main types of conditional sentence. Each type has a distinctive pattern of verb tenses, and its own meaning.

1 Conditional 0

A Form

If + present ... present or imperative

B Meanings

This type of sentence is used for conditions which are always true.

If Mike reads on the train, he feels sick. (Every time Mike reads on the train, the same thing happens: he feels sick.)

This type of sentence is also used for scientific facts.

If you put paper on a fire, it burns quickly.

It is also used to give instructions.

If the phone rings, answer it.

In zero or present conditional sentences *when* or *whenever* can be used instead of *if*.

2 Conditional 1

A Form

If + present simple ... *will* future

B Meaning

This type of sentence is used to predict likely or probable results in the future, if a condition is met.

If we don't leave now, we'll miss the train.

If we leave now, we won't need to hurry.

First conditional sentences are often used to express persuasion, promises, warnings and threats.

If you pass your exams, I'll give you a job.

If you don't turn that music down, you'll go deaf.

C Some modal verbs can be used instead of *will*.

If we leave now, we *may* catch the train.

If you come to London again, you *must* call and see us.

3 Conditional 2

A Form

If + past simple ... *would/could/might*

B Meaning

This type of sentence is used to speculate about imaginary or improbable situations; the implication is that the conditions will not be met.

You'd feel healthier if you did more exercise.

If you went to Africa, you'd have to have several injections. (It's not likely you'll go to Africa, but it is possible.)

Second conditional sentences can also refer to unreal situations.

If people didn't drive so fast, there wouldn't be so many fatal accidents. (Actually people do drive fast and there are a lot of fatal accidents.)

If I were taller, I'd play basketball. (Being taller is impossible for me.)

Second conditional sentences are often used to express advice.

If I were you, I wouldn't drive so fast.

C *Might/could*

Might and *could* can be used instead of *would* in the main clause of second conditional sentences to show uncertainty.

If you did more exercise, you *might* feel healthier.

4 Conditional 3

A Form

If + past perfect ... *would/might/could have* + past participle

B Meaning

This type of sentence looks back at the past and speculates about possibilities which didn't happen.

If I'd had your address, I'd have sent you a postcard. (I didn't have your address, so I didn't send you a postcard.)

You might not have crashed into the bus if you'd been driving more slowly.

NOTE

When the *if* clause comes before the main clause, it is followed by a comma. When the *if* clause comes after the main clause, there is no comma between the clauses.

5 Mixed conditional sentences

A Form

If + past perfect ... *would/could/might*

B Meaning

This type of sentence, which is a mixture of a third conditional sentence and a second conditional sentence, links a completed past action with a present result.

If I *hadn't broken* my leg, I *would go* on holiday with you.
I *d have a better* job now, if I *d worked harder* when I was at school.

6 Other ways of introducing conditions

A Unless

Unless can sometimes be used instead of *if not*.

Unless we leave now, we'll miss the train. (If we don't leave now, we'll miss the train.)

B As long as

As long as is used to emphasise a condition.

I'll lend you the money you need *as long as* you promise not to waste it.

C Provided (that)

Provided (that)... and *Providing (that)...* mean 'on condition that' and are slightly more formal than *if*.

You can come on holiday with us *provided that* you do some of the cooking.

Unit 12

Probability and possibility

1 Expressing near certainty

If we are almost certain that something is the case, and this certainty is based on evidence, we can make statements using *must* or *can't*.

A If we are talking about a present situation we use *must* or *can't* + infinitive without *to*.

My doctor *must be* married. She wears a wedding ring. (I am almost certain she is married.)

Angus *can't be* English. He's got a Scottish accent. (I am almost certain he isn't English.)

We can also use the continuous form of the verb.

Virginia *must be wondering* where I am. I said I'd be there at 3 p.m. and it's now 5 p.m. (I am almost certain she is wondering where I am.)

B If we are talking about a past situation we use *must* or *can't* + *have* + past participle.

Sandra *must have passed* her driving test because I saw her driving a car on her own.

(I am almost certain she has passed her test.)

Fiona and Neil *can't have enjoyed* their holiday because they haven't said anything about it. (I am almost certain they didn't enjoy their holiday.)

We can also use the continuous form of the verb.

I'm sorry I'm late. You *must have been waiting* for ages!

NOTE

The negative of *must* in this case is *can't*, not *mustn't*.

2 Expressing possibility

If we are not certain that something is the case but we think it is possible, we can make statements using *could*, *may* or *might*.

A If we are talking about a present situation we use *could*, *may*, *might* + infinitive without *to*.

Paula *could/might/may be* on holiday. (Maybe she's on holiday.)

Claude *may have* flu. (Perhaps/It's possible he's got flu.)

B If we are talking about a past situation we use *could*, *may*, *might* + *have* + past participle.

Freda *might have overslept*. (It's possible that she's overslept.)

C It is also possible to use continuous forms.

Julie *might be visiting* her mother.

The missing girl *may have been wearing* a blue skirt.

NOTE

- 1 There is no real difference in meaning between *may*, *might* and *could*.
- 2 The negative forms of *may* and *might* are *may not* and *might not*. These are not usually contracted. The defendant *may not be telling* the truth. (It's possible that he isn't telling the truth.)
- 3 The negative form of *could* is *couldn't*. Its meaning is similar to *can't*.
He *couldn't be lying*. (I am almost certain he isn't lying.)

Articles

1 The definite article *the*

Three of the main uses of the definite article are to refer to:

- A something that has been mentioned before.
Bill: I've got a dog.
Ben: What's *the* dog's name?
- B something there is only one of in a particular context.
The Queen spent three days in Wales.
Soon after we'd taken off, *the* pilot welcomed us on board.
- C something the speaker and listener both know about.
The film was really good – thanks for recommending it.

It is also used in these ways:

- D with superlative constructions.
She's *the* fastest runner in Europe.
- E with adjectives used as nouns referring to groups of people.
There's one law for *the* rich and another for *the* poor.
- F with the names of oceans, seas, rivers, mountain ranges.
the Atlantic, *the* Thames, *the* Alps
- G with the names of some countries and groups of islands.
the United States, *the* United Kingdom, *the* West Indies

2 The indefinite article *a/an*

These are the main uses of the indefinite article

- A to refer to something for the first time.
I've got *a* dog.
- B to refer to a person or thing (but not a special person or thing).
Can I have *a* drink please? Tea, coffee, beer, I don't mind.
- C to refer to a person's job.
Alan is *a* telephone engineer.
- E with numbers.
a hundred, *a* million

3 Zero article (Ø)

These are the main contexts in which no article is used:

- A with plural countable nouns.
Ø International footballers are paid too much money.
- B with uncountable nouns.
He used to drink Ø beer, but now he drinks only Ø water.
They fell in Ø love while they were in Spain.
- C with the names of towns, cities, states and most countries.
Ø New York, Ø Texas, Ø Greece
- D with nouns for certain places or situations.
Suzy went into Ø hospital yesterday.
on Ø deck, at Ø home, on Ø holiday, to Ø church, at Ø school