GRAMMAR REFERENCE

Unit 1 Review of verb tenses

Referring to the present

The present simple is used

- 1 to refer to routine actions or habits: Stefan goes to the cinema most weekends.
- 2 to refer to repeated events: Tropical storms often occur in the Caribbean.
- 3 to show that a situation is regarded as permanent:
 Sarah works for a small TV production company. (It's a permanent job.)
- 4 to show that something is always true, or a definite fact:

 Two and two make four.

The present continuous is used

- 1 to describe an action which is happening now:
 - This storm **is causing** damage all over the country.
- 2 for a temporary situation: *I'm using Jack's car while he's on holiday.*
- 3 for changes or developing situations: The number of hurricanes is increasing year on year.
- with always or forever to express irritation:
 The editor is always/forever making me rewrite the articles I submit.

! The present continuous is normally used with active verbs:

The editor **is talking** to the sports journalists at the moment.

It is not normally used with **stative verbs** (which describe a state, such as existing or feeling):

The head of the TV channel isn't believing this programme is too controversial to be broadcast. The head of the TV channel believes this programme is too controversial to be broadcast. \checkmark

However, some stative verbs can be used in the present continuous when they describe actions: What are you having for lunch?

Here, *have* is used as an active verb, meaning to *eat*.

The **present perfect** is used

- 1 to refer to the present result of a past action or event: I can't phone for an ambulance I've lost my mobile.
- 2 to show that an event or action that started in the past has continued until the present:

 Thousands of homes have been built in this town in the last few years, and many more are planned.
- 3 to refer to an event or action that happened at an unspecified time in a period up to now:
 I've seen that film already. (the period is my life up to the present)
- 4 to focus on the number of times an action has been repeated: *I've read this article ten times and I still don't understand it.*

The **present perfect continuous** is used to refer to an event or action that started in the past and has continued until the present. While the present perfect focuses on a completed action, the present perfect continuous usually focuses on one that is ongoing:

I've written the article. (It's finished.)

I've been writing the article all morning. (It probably isn't finished.)

Referring to the past

The **past simple** is used for past events, actions or habits:

We last **experienced** a tropical storm only a week ago.

I always watched the TV news when I lived abroad.

It is normally used with a specific time reference (a week ago, in 2010, when I lived abroad).

The past continuous is used

- 1 to show a continued action which was happening when another action took place:
 - The magazine was launched just when the sales of news magazines were falling.
 - The phone rang when I was watching an interesting documentary on TV. (I may or may not have stopped watching to answer the phone.)
- 2 to refer to two actions happening at the same time in the past: While some journalists were discussing the latest developments, others were watching the breaking news online.

The **past perfect** is used to show that an action happened earlier than another past action; it makes the sequence of events clear:

I didn't watch the programme about hurricanes on TV last night, because I'd already seen a similar programme. (I saw the similar programme before last night's programme was shown.)

The past perfect continuous is used

- 1 to refer to an action that happened during a period leading up to another past action:
 - The newspaper **had been losing** so much money that the owner decided to close it down.
- 2 to show how long an action continued until a certain point in the
- The reporters **had been following** the film star for days before they were able to interview her.

Used to / didn't use to + infinitive and *would + infinitive* are used

- 1 to refer to repeated actions or habits in the past that are no longer the case:
 Before digital cameras were invented, people used to take
 / would take photos on film.
 - When I was a teenager, I didn't use to take many photos, but now I do.
- 2 to refer to a past state. Would cannot be used here: This used to be a very quiet neighbourhood.

 This would be a very quiet neighbourhood.

Used to is not normally used with time expressions specifying the duration of the action:

I used to live in Edinburgh before I moved to London.

I lived in Edinburgh for five years before I moved to London.

I used to live in Edinburgh for five years before I moved to London.

London.

Referring to the future

will + infinitive (the future simple) is used

- 1 to predict the future: Aftershocks from yesterday's earthquake will probably continue for several days.
- 2 to express a decision that has just been made, usually by the speaker:

 I know! We'll go to the Science Museum.
- 3 to express the speaker's insistence on doing something:

 We will find somewhere better to live I promise you.

going to + infinitive is used

- 1 for decisions or intentions about the future:

 The owner of the local bookshop is going to invite a well-known author to give a talk. (The speaker is reporting what the owner has decided to do.)
- 2 for predictions about the future based on evidence, or to refer to the outcome of a process that has already started:
 - You drive much too fast. You'**re going to have** an accident one of these days.

 My sister'**s going to have** a baby at the end of March.

The **present continuous** is used to refer to something already arranged:

We're meeting the journalist tomorrow morning.

The **present simple** is used for future events fixed by a timetable or schedule:

The sun **rises** at 5.30 tomorrow.

The next train is at 11 o'clock.

The **future continuous** is used

- 1 for temporary actions in progress at a particular time in the future:
- This time next week, we'll be flying to Brazil.to ask about the listener's plans, often to lead on to a
- request:

 Will you be going out this evening? If not, can I come round
 and see you?

The **future perfect** is used

- 1 for actions in a period up to a particular time in the future:

 The oil spill will have caused a lot of damage by the time.
 - The oil spill will have caused a lot of damage by the time the flow from the ship can be stopped.
- 2 for actions which will be completed before a particular time in the future:

 I'll have finished lunch long before you arrive.

The **future perfect continuous** is used for actions in a period up to a particular time in the future, emphasising the length of time:

At the beginning of next March, I'll have been working in the same job for 17 years.

In time and conditional clauses referring to the future will is not normally used to refer to the future. Instead, present tenses (simple, continuous and perfect) are used:

If the volcano **erupts**, the surrounding area will be badly affected. (not will erupt)

I'll ring you at 7p.m. unless you're having dinner then. (not will be having)

As soon as the flood water **has receded**, the residents will start clearing up their homes. (not will have receded)

Unit 2 Participle clauses

The present participle active (-ing) is used to make a statement where the subject is omitted because it is the same as the subject of the main clause. The events of the two clauses can relate to each other in various ways:

- 1 cause and effect; the participle clause, which states the cause, normally comes first:
- **Realising** the mountain top was covered in mist, we decided to turn back. (= Because we realised ...)
- 2 description of the subject of the main clause; the participle clause normally comes second:
 The volunteers arrived at the clinic feeling a little nervous.
- 3 two simultaneous events with the same subject; the participle clause normally comes second:

 The woman hurried after her dog, calling to him to come back.

4 one event happening during another; the longer event is in the participle clause, which normally comes second:

The new volunteer hurt himself (while) playing football.

The perfect participle, active (having -ed) is used to show that the event of the participle clause happened first. The clauses can be in either order:

Having eaten all the food it could find in the camp, the bear wandered away.

The perfect participle, passive (having been -ed) is used when the action of the participle clause happens before the action of the main clause. The participle clause usually comes

Having been attacked during his previous visit, he was very careful about where he went.

The past participle (-ed) has a passive meaning. The participle clause usually comes first. It can express

- - **Ignored** by the other children, the boy played by himself. (= Because he was ignored ...)
- 2 description:
 - **Surrounded** on three sides by mountains, the village rarely enjoys much sunshine.
- condition: Kept in a cool place, yoghurt will remain fresh for a long time. (= If yoghurt is kept in a cool place ...)

Unit 3 Reported speech

In reported speech the full meaning needs to be understood and conveyed in the report, including references to time and place. In these, say is used, however, many other verbs are available, such as suggest, whisper, protest, claim, etc.

Tense changes ('backshifting')

When direct speech is reported using a past tense (e.g., She said ...), other verbs often change, e.g. present tenses are replaced by the corresponding tense in the past.

- 1 Present simple to past simple: 'My flatmate is very untidy.' He said his flatmate was very untidy.
- 2 Present continuous to past continuous: 'Amelia is making some hot chocolate.' He said Amelia was making some hot chocolate.
- 3 Present perfect to past perfect: 'My flatmate has become my best friend.' She said that her flatmate had become her best friend.

- 4 Present perfect continuous to past perfect continuous: 'I've been looking for an affordable flat for six months.' She said she'd been looking for an affordable flat for six months.
- 5 Past simple to past perfect: 'I went to Peru for a year before going to university.' She said she had been to Peru for a year before going to university. Backshifting is not essential here: She said she went to Peru for a year before going to university.
- 6 Can to could, will to would, must to had to 'Jack can speak three languages fluently.' She said Jack could speak three languages fluently. 'I'll be in touch within a week." He said he would be in touch within a week.

'You must apply for a visa before your trip.' He said I had to apply for a visa before my trip.

Backshifting is usually avoided

- 1 if the reporting verb is in the present tense: 'I hope to visit my parents.' She says she **hopes** to visit her parents.
- 2 if what is reported is still true: 'I'm going to have a baby next month.' She said she's going to have a baby next month.
- 3 when the modal verbs would, should, might, could and ought to are reported: 'John could already have arrived.' He said that John could already have arrived.

Reported questions

These use the word order subject-verb, just as in statements, and there is no question mark:

'Is this your usual way of spending the evening?' He asked me if this was my usual way of spending the evening.

'Where's your car?' He asked me where my car was.

Reported requests

Requests that use will, can or may are reported using would, could or (rarely) might. The word order is subject-verb, just as in statements, and there is no question mark.

'Will you lend me your book?' She asked me if I would lend her my book.

Reported commands

Commands are usually reported using tell, order or command and the infinitive of the main verb

'Call for an ambulance at once.'

He told me to call for an ambulance at once.

'Don't give the children any sweets.'

She told me not to give the children any sweets.'

Time references

If today, this evening, tonight, etc. in direct speech are reported when the day is in the past, that day/evening/night is used:

'I'm going to the cinema this evening.'

She said she was going to the cinema that evening.

If tomorrow in direct speech is reported when that day is in the past, *the next/following day* is used instead:

'I'm going to Vietnam tomorrow.'

She said she was going to Vietnam the next/following day.

Similarly, *next week* is replaced by the *next/following week*.

Yesterday and last week are reported as the previous day/week or the day/week before:

'I started a new job last week.'

She said she had started a new job the previous week/the week before.

Place references

References to places depend on the precise meaning of what is reported:

'I'm very happy here.'

can be reported as

Sally said she was very happy there. (the speaker is in a different place from Sally) OR

Sally said she was very happy here. (the speaker is in the same place)

Note that if Sally is *still* happy, the reported verb will be is: Sally said she's very happy here/there.

Unit 4 Passive

The passive is used only with transitive verbs, that is, verbs that take an object:

Phil and I asked focus groups to try out early prototypes. In the passive this becomes:

Focus groups were asked to try out early prototypes.

Intransitive verbs, such as appear, happen cannot be used in the passive.

The passive is often used in fairly formal writing, such as news reports, and academic, scientific and technical writing:

- 1 to describe part of a process: Orders are delivered within 48 hours.
- 2 to emphasise the object rather than the subject: The book was completed when the novelist was in her 80s.
- 3 to state a rule or make a polite request: Identity badges must be worn at all times.
- 4 to say what people tend to expect, believe, etc.: It **is thought** that the invention will be very successful.
- to indicate that we don't know who did something: These houses were built in the 1960s.
- to indicate that we don't know who said something: The company **is said** to have made a loss of nearly \$1 million.

If a passive includes the agent of the action, this normally comes at the end of the sentence, and follows by:

That was invented by my tutor!

Phrasal verbs are not split in the passive:

Every tenth vehicle was pulled over by the police so they could check its tyres.

Forming the passive with be

The passive is normally formed using the verb be in an appropriate tense, plus the past participle of the main verb. In passive sentences, the tense of *be* is the same as the tense in the corresponding active sentence:

Tense	Active	Passive
Present simple	We sell ready-to- cook meals.	Ready-to-cook meals are sold.
Present continuous	We are selling ready-to-cook meals.	Ready-to-cook meals are being sold.
Present perfect	We have sold ready-to-cook meals.	Ready-to-cook meals have been sold.
Past simple	We sold ready-to- cook meals.	Ready-to-cook meals were sold.
Past continuous	We were selling ready-to-cook meals.	Ready-to-cook meals were being sold.
Past perfect	We had sold ready-to-cook meals.	Ready-to-cook meals had been sold.
Future simple	We will sell ready- to-cook meals.	Ready-to-cook meals will be sold.

Future continuous (the passive is rarely used)	We will be selling ready-to-cook meals.	Ready-to-cook meals will be being sold.
Future perfect	We will have sold ready-to-cook meals.	Ready-to-cook meals will have been sold.
Going to future	We are going to sell ready-to-cook meals.	Ready-to-cook meals are going to be sold.
Modal verbs	We can/could/ would/should/ may/might/must sell ready-to-cook meals.	Ready-to-cook meals can/could/ would/should/ may/might/must be sold.
Need	We need to sell ready-to-cook meals.	Ready-to-cook meals need to be sold/need selling.
Modal perfect	We could/would/ should/may/ might/must have sold ready-to-cook meals.	Ready-to-cook meals could/ would/should/ may/might/must have been sold.

Forming the passive with get

The passive is sometimes formed with get, most often in informal, spoken English:

There wasn't room on the stall for all the meals, so a few **got** left in the van.

If an adverb is used as part of the verb phrase, it follows bebut precedes get:

The retailer's loyalty card was finally launched in 2002. The retailer's loyalty card finally got launched in 2002.

The causative have and get

To have something done (or more informally, to get something done) can mean that the subject of the sentence causes the action to be done:

Alex and Phil had / got their business plan checked before they showed it to the bank.

With get, this structure is also used when the subject of the sentence carries out the action:

They needed to get the stall set up before the market opened.

Get is used to give a sense of urgency:

Stephanie needs to get her car repaired.

Have, but not get, can also be used to refer to an experience (usually bad) that happened to the subject of the sentence: Alex and Phil had the day's takings stolen.

Impersonal passives with verbs like think, claim, say, believe, consider, expect, know, report, etc.

These allow us to give an opinion as if it was a general feeling, rather than a personal one.

cheques. (passive)

- 1 *It + be* is an impersonal way of introducing our attitudes and feelings without mentioning ourselves: They think that the public is losing confidence in cheques. It is thought that the public is losing confidence in
- 2 The subject of the finite clause can become the subject of the passive sentence, using an infinitive: People believe that money is a source of happiness. (active)

It is believed that money is a source of happiness. (passive Money is believed to be a source of happiness. (passive

with the subject of the clause – *money* – as subject of the sentence followed by infinitive)

People know that the company is losing money. It is known that the company is losing money. (passive with it)

The company is known to be losing money. (passive with the subject of the clause - the company - as subject of the sentence)

Make and let

Make + object + infinitive without *to* requires *to* in the passive:

The thieves *made the shopkeeper open* the safe. (active) The shopkeeper was made to open the safe. (passive)

Let + object + infinitive has no passive form. Instead be allowed to is used:

The tutor **let me leave** when I had finished my essay. (active) I was allowed to leave when I had finished my essay. (passive)

Unit 5 Conditional forms

Conditional clauses are used to show that one circumstance or set of circumstances depends on another:

If you look after your health, you'll reduce the risk of developing certain diseases.

It will be easy to get to the conference on time if you go by

Note a comma is used after the conditional clause. Unless (i.e 'if ... not') or Providing / Provided (that) (i.e 'if and only if') can also be used to start a conditional clause.

- 1 Zero conditional is used for something that is timeless or generally true: If water is boiled, it turns into steam.
 - Water doesn't turn into steam unless it's boiled.
- 2 First conditional is used for a possibility in the present or future: If that's Kevin on the phone, I'll talk to him. (The conditional clause refers to the present.)

If you take a painkiller before you go to bed, you may feel better in the morning. (The conditional clause refers to the future.)

Would like is sometimes used in the conditional clause of a polite request:

If you'd like to follow me, I'll take you to the doctor's office.

3 Second conditional is used for something hypothetical, unlikely, impossible or not true in the present or future; the condition is not expected to be fulfilled:

If you took this medicine, it would cure you. (I don't expect that you'll take the medicine.) If I were/was you, I wouldn't wait much longer. (I'm not

The **second conditional** is used in tentative, polite

requests: I would be grateful if you gave me further details of what

gym membership involves.

4 Third conditional is used for something in the past that is hypothetical, not true: If Carl hadn't been so fit, he would have taken much longer to recover. (He was very fit, so he recovered quickly.)

5 Mixed conditionals most commonly use parts of the second and third conditionals:

If **you'd seen** the doctor sooner, you'**d be** much healthier *now.* (Something in the present that results from something in the past – mixed third and second conditionals.)

If she was/were a doctor, she would have been able to help you. (She isn't a doctor so couldn't help you in the past - mixed second and third conditionals.)

6 In fairly formal language, the conditional clause can begin with inversion of the subject and auxiliary verb was / were / had / should, instead of using if: If you were to train regularly, your running speed would

Were you to train regularly, your running speed would *improve.* (more formal)

If it rains heavily, the race will be cancelled. Should it rain heavily, the race will be cancelled. (more formal)

Unit 6 Verbs followed by the infinitive

and/or -ing

ticket prices.

Sometimes the object of a verb is another verb, rather than a noun phrase.

- 1 Verbs followed by to + infinitive include: afford, agree, appear, arrange, ask, attempt, choose, dare, decide, expect. fail, hope, learn, manage, need, offer, pretend, promise, refuse, seem, struggle, tend, threaten, want, would like: Filmed concerts struggle to convey the tension of live performance. Many people want to see a band but are put off by high
- 2 Verbs followed by object + *to* + infinitive include: advise, allow, ask, enable, encourage, expect, force, invite. need, persuade, remind, teach, tell, want, would like. Those in bold can also be used intransitively (see 1 above):

Art collections on the Internet enable everyone to study them from home.

My father taught me to ride a bike. Jackie wanted me to see his favourite band. (note want, along with other verbs, can be used in more than one group - see 1 above)

3 Verbs followed by object + infinitive without to include: make, let. The actors let me take some photos of them. When I was a child, my parents made me do my homework as soon as I got home from school.

- 4 Verbs followed by -ing include: admit, avoid, bother, can't bear, can't stand, deny, dislike, enjoy, finish, hate, imagine, involve, keep, miss, mind, suggest. I **enjoy seeing** sculptures and paintings online.
- 5 Verbs ending with a preposition are always followed by an -ing form, e.g. break off, carry on, get round to, give up, insist on, look forward to, take on, think about. After seeing the museum's collection online, I looked forward to visiting the museum in person.
- 6 Verbs followed by object + -ing include verbs relating to the senses, e.g. feel, hear, see, smell, watch: I watched the band giving a stunning performance. If I hear people talking on their mobile phones at a gig, I just want to leave.
- 7 Verbs followed by either to + infinitive or the -ing form, with the same meaning include: begin, bother, can't bear, continue, hate, intend, like, love, prefer, start. Many people like to join in the singing. Many people like joining in the singing.

- Sometimes there is a slight difference in meaning: *I like going* to the dentist. (I enjoy it.) I like to go to the dentist on my way to work. (This is my preference, but it doesn't necessarily mean that I enjoy my visits to the dentist.)
- 8 Verbs followed by either to + infinitive or the -ing form, with different meanings include: forget, go on, mean, regret, remember, stop, try: I'll never forget seeing Botticelli's painting The Birth of Venus for the first time. (I actually saw the painting, and I'll never forget that experience.) I forgot to see The Birth of Venus when I went to Florence. (I intended to see it, but I forgot to.) Fiona went on visiting the Museo Reina Sofia website until she had seen everything. (She didn't stop until she'd seen everything.) Fiona went on to visit the Museo Reina Sofia website. (She finished what she was doing, then visited the

Museo website.) Going to the Uffizi **meant queuing** outside for a couple of hours. (Going to the Uffizi involved queuing.) We meant to see the new museum, but there wasn't *enough time.* (We intended to see it, but didn't.) We regret informing you about the error, as it has obviously caused you considerable anxiety. (We informed you, but now we are sorry we did so.) We regret to inform you that the concert has been cancelled. (We are sorry for what we are about to do.) I can **remember going** to the theatre for the first time. (I went to the theatre and now I clearly remember it.) I remembered to go to the bank. (I remembered that I had to go to the bank, and then I went there.)

Sheila stopped to make some coffee. (Sheila stopped whatever she was doing in order to make some coffee.) I **tried looking** in the garden, but I still couldn't find my keys. (I looked in the garden hoping to find my keys.) I tried to look for my glasses, but I felt too ill to move. (I wanted to look for my glasses, but couldn't.)

Tom **stopped drinking** coffee when he realised it kept

him awake. (He used to drink coffee, but now he

Unit 7 Inversion of subject and verb

Inversion means having a verb, usually an auxiliary, before the subject of a sentence as in questions:

Have the nature reserve guards caught the illegal hunters?

Inversion is also used

doesn't.)

1 to emphasise an adverbial phrase, normally one that is negative in meaning, e.g. only, no sooner, not once, never, rarely, seldom, scarcely, hardly, little, few, under no circumstances:

The tourists had no sooner arrived than they noticed some *giraffes in the distance.* (Without inversion.)

No sooner **had the tourists** arrived than they noticed some *giraffes in the distance*. (With inversion.)

This drought is not only severe, it is also unexpected. (Without inversion.)

Not only is this drought severe, it is also unexpected.

- 2 to emphasise degree (amount), using e.g. so, such, much, many, more, most, little: The antelope little realised that it was being eved by a watchful lion. (Without inversion.)
- Little **did the antelope** realise that it was being eyed by a watchful lion. (With inversion. This emphasises how little the antelope realised what was happening.)
- 3 in second and third conditionals, placing were, had or should before the subject:

Were the nature reserve to be closed, the local tourism *industry would collapse.* (= If the nature reserve were to be closed, or was closed)

Had any photographers been present, they would have been delighted with the opportunities the animals presented. (= If any photographers had been present) **Should visitors** visit this part of the rainforest, they must keep to the paths.

(=If visitors [should] visit this part of the rainforest, they must keep to the paths.)

4 if we put adverbs of time or place, such as here, there, out, in, then, now, at the beginning of the sentence for emphasis:

Here comes a herd of elephants.

Unit 8 Relative clauses

Defining relative clauses

Defining relative clauses are used to give information that is essential for identifying exactly what a noun refers to:

The hotel where Kate had a temporary job last summer has just closed down. (This gives essential information, defining which hotel the speaker means.)

The restaurant offers work experience to people who are studying catering. (This gives essential information, defining which people the speaker means.)

The relative pronouns used in defining relative clauses are: which or that (for things); who or that (for people); where (for places); when (for times); whose (to indicate possession, usually by people):

There are times **when** my job becomes very stressful. I enjoy working with people **who / that** are friendly. I'd like to work with people whose sense of humour is similar to my own.

If the relative pronoun is the object in the defining relative clause it can be omitted:

The office (that / which) he works in gets very hot in the summer. (The office gets hot in the summer. He works in the

In more formal English, prepositions can be moved from the end of the relative clause to before the relative pronoun. In these cases, only the relative pronouns which (for things) and whom (for people) can be used:

The office in which he works gets very hot in the summer. The manager to whom he reports is very demanding. (This is a formal alternative to The manager (who / that) he reports to is very demanding.)

What is a pronoun meaning the thing(s) that / which. It isn't used to refer to people. Unlike relative pronouns, it doesn't follow a noun. If it is the subject of a clause, the verb is always singular:

What I enjoy most about going shopping is chatting to people and finding bargains. (what introduces the subject of the sentence, i.e. The two things that I enjoy most about going shopping.)

You'd better explain what you mean. (what introduces the direct object of the sentence.)

The trainer devoted too little time to what the trainees regarded as essential. (what introduces something that follows a preposition.)

This is what I want to do for the rest of my life. (what introduces the complement of the sentence.)

Non-defining relative clauses

Non-defining relative clauses are used to give extra information. This type of relative clause is usually separated from the main clause with commas. If the clause is omitted, it is still clear what exactly the noun refers to. This is not the case with defining relative clauses:

Her brother who lives in Spain is a doctor. (Defining: she has more than one brother, but only one who lives in Spain.) Her brother, who lives in Spain, is a doctor. (Non-defining: she has only one brother, so 'who lives in Spain' is extra information. Her brother is enough to identify the person.)

We cannot use that or what in non-defining relative clauses.

The relative pronoun cannot be omitted from non-defining relative clauses:

Jill's job, she really enjoys, offers plenty of scope for

Jill's job, which she really enjoys, offers plenty of scope for promotion. $\sqrt{}$

As in defining clauses, a preposition can come before the pronoun of a non-defining relative clause:

I may be invited for a job interview, in which case I'll need to take a day off work.

The relative pronoun can follow a quantifier or noun, together with a preposition. This tends to occur in nondefining relative clauses, and in more formal language:

She has two brothers, both of whom studied business. There are over a hundred applicants for the job, most of whom have had a great deal of work experience.

The new film studies course, an outline of which is available on the college website, is attracting a large number of applicants.

Other uses

In both defining and non-defining relative clauses, whose generally refers to people rather than to things:

The physicist whose work won a Nobel prize has since left the university.

The book, whose theoretical basis is unreliable, has been severely criticised. (This is a less common structure than the following, without whose.)

This book, which is based on an unreliable theory, has been severely criticised.

Why and that can be used as a relative pronoun after reason: The reason (why / that) there are so many students in the class is that the lecturer is very well-known.

We can use why without reason as in the following example: Most graduates find jobs soon after leaving, which is (the reason) why I applied to this university.

Some relative clauses can be reduced by omitting the relative pronoun and auxiliary verb(s) and leaving the present or past participle. The auxiliary verb be can be omitted from a continuous tense, leaving the present participle (-ing):

There were over fifty students (who were) waiting for the lecturer to arrive.

Most people (who / that are) hoping to meet the popular biologist will be disappointed.

Similarly, if the relative clause is in the passive, the relative pronoun and auxiliary verb(s) can be omitted: Several of the courses (which / that are) offered by the college have a very good reputation.

Unit 9 Modal verbs

There are many functions of modal verbs and some of the most common are listed here.

Ability

To express ability in the present, we use *can* or *be able to*: This apparatus can detect earth tremors. (A permanent characteristic.)

This apparatus is able to detect earth tremors. (A permanent characteristic.)

Julia can watch the programme tomorrow evening. (A single occasion.)

Julia is able to watch the programme tomorrow evening. (A single occasion.)

For general ability in the past (i.e. continuing over a period of time), we use *could* or *be able to*:

We couldn't do / weren't able to do many science experiments at school because we didn't have much equipment.

A lot of chemicals that you could buy / were able to buy in shops in the past are now on restricted sale.

To express ability on one specific occasion in the past, we use be able to, not could:

In the end, the college **was able to** raise enough money to buy new science equipment.

Possibility and impossibility

To express possibility, we normally use may, might or could:

This new TV programme about astronomy may / might be interesting. (may tends to express more confidence that it will happen than *might* does)

TV companies could make more of an effort to publicise their science programmes. (It is possible in theory, but TV companies haven't said anything about doing it.)

To express past possibility, we use *could have*, *may have* or might have:

The programme could have included more explanation of atoms. (It didn't.)

The presenter may have / might have forgotten that most viewers know very little about physics. (The speaker is speculating – he doesn't know if it happened.)

To express an event that is impossible in the present, we use can't:

I **can't** use my smartphone because the battery is flat.

To express an event that is impossible in the past, we use couldn't have:

The psychologist **couldn't have** won the prize without the work done by her team.

Certainty and logical deduction

To express certainty because we have evidence, we use *must*: She goes abroad on holiday several times a year, so she *must* have a good income.

To express certainty something is not the case, we use *can't*: This chemical reaction shows there **can't** be oxygen present.

To express certainty about the past, we use **must have**: The audience must have thought the speaker had forgotten to bring his notes.

To express certainty that something was not the case in the past, we use can't have:

She can't have left her phone in the cinema – she made a call after the film.

Obligation

To express obligation in the present, we often use *must* when the obligation comes from the speaker:

You must all wash your hands thoroughly after working with chemicals. (The speaker is giving an order, or imposing an obligation.)

When the obligation comes from elsewhere, we often use have to, or informally have got to:

You have to /'ve got to register in advance if you want to attend the lecture. (The speaker is reporting an order or obligation imposed by someone else.)

John **has to / 's got to** finish his homework before his parents allow him to go out.

No obligation

To express a lack of obligation to do something, we normally use don't have to or don't need to:

Pandas don't have to / don't need to move fast because they aren't attacked by other animals. (This is a factual lack of obligation.)

You **don't have to / don't need to** carry out any more experiments if you don't want to. (The lack of obligation could come from the speaker, from someone else, or from circumstances.)

To show the lack of obligation is the speaker's decision, we use needn't:

You needn't carry out any more experiments if you don't want to. (The lack of obligation could come from the speaker.)

To show something was unnecessary in the past, and may or may not have happened, we use didn't need to:

Sue didn't need to analyse the data because that had already been done. (It was clear at the time that it was unnecessary to analyse the data, implying that she probably didn't analyse it.)

To express that something that happened was unnecessary, we use needn't have:

Sue needn't have analysed the data because that had already been done. (She analysed the data, but it later became clear that it was unnecessary.)

Permission

To ask whether something is allowed, we use *can*, *could* or may. Can is informal, and may is formal:

Can / Could / May I give my presentation first, please?

To express permission, we use *can* or *may* (which is formal): You can / may watch the student presentations as long as you don't interrupt.

To show something that was permitted as a general rule in the past, we use could or be allowed to:

When I was a child, I could / was allowed to stay up late to watch educational programmes on TV.

To show something that was permitted on a particular occasion in the past, we use be allowed to not could:

The children were allowed to stay up late last night to watch a TV programme about electronics.

To show something is not allowed, we use *can't* or *mustn't*: You can't / mustn't go into the main hall because there's an exam going on.

To show something was not allowed in the past, we use couldn't:

When I was a child, I couldn't stay up late to watch TV, even to see educational programmes.

Recommendations

To make a recommendation, we often use should / shouldn't or, less often, ought to / ought not to:

You should / ought to read this book if you want to really understand the subject.

You shouldn't / ought not to let other people's phone conversations distract vou.

The past forms are *should have / shouldn't have* and, less often, ought to have / ought not to have:

The journalist should have / ought to have explained all the technical terms.

The journalist shouldn't have / oughtn't to have assumed everyone was familiar with the technical terms.

Unit 10 Wishes and regrets

To talk about a present situation which we would like to change, we use wish or if only + past simple:

Joanna wishes she had more time for going to concerts. (This is Joanna's wish.)

If only Joanna didn't work so hard. (This is the speaker's

I wish I was / were better at maths.

To express regret about a past situation, we can use wish or if only + past perfect:

I wish / If only I'd been more self-confident when I was a teenager. (but I wasn't)

To express annoyance, we use wish or if only + would: I wish / If only people would stop saying I'm introverted. (It is annoying that people say that about me.)

To talk about something which we would like to happen in the future, we use *wish* or *if only* + subject + *could* + infinitive:

 $\it I\,wish\,I\,could\,go$ to the theatre with you tomorrow. (I would like to go. This usually implies that I can't go.)

If only I could go to the theatre with you tomorrow. (I feel very strongly that I would like to go. This implies that I can't go.)

To express a preference now, we use would rather + past simple if the subject of would rather is different from the subject of the following clause:

 $\emph{I'd rather you didn't}$ open the present just yet. (I is the subject of would; you is the subject of the following clause.)

When the two subjects are the same, the infinitive without to is used:

Jake would rather stay at home.

To express a preference now about the past where the subjects are different, we use would rather + past perfect: Stephen would rather you hadn't borrowed his bike.

When the two subjects are the same, we use the perfect infinitive without to (have done):

Zoe started work when she left school. She would rather have gone to university.

It's (about / high) time + past simple means that the speaker wants something to happen:

It's about time she realised how narrow-minded she's being. It's high time you made up your mind about what career you want.

We cannot use wish + would + infinitive if the subject of wishis the same as the subject of would:

Kate wishes she would have her novel published. Kate wishes she could have her novel published. $\sqrt{}$