



#### Listen & Learn

# Angielski

# English Grammar Master Grammar Practice New edition

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#### 1. CONDITIONALS. TYPES: 0, 1, 2

**□**( 1

**CONDITIONAL SENTENCES** are used to describe activities dependent on meeting certain conditions. They are usually introduced with the linking word *if* meaning *on condition that*.

#### Exercise 1.



2

#### Listen to the dialogue.

- A. Mum, I'm hungry!
- B. Well, if you give me an hour, I will make you something special.
- A. But if it is going to take so long, I will be late for my evening classes.
- B. It will take even longer unless you help me.
- A. Mum, you know that if I try to cook, it always ends in disaster!
- B. Darling, it wouldn't be so if you listened to what I say.
- A. Mum, if we continue this conversation, I will die of starvation.
- B. All right, if we both start now, the dinner will be ready in no time.
- A. Then I will help you as long as you don't shout at me.
- B. I will not shout provided that you follow my instructions carefully.
- A. I would always do what you say if you were more patient with me.
- B. I would be patient if you weren't so clumsy!
- A. You know what? If I start helping you, we will have a big fight again.
- B. Yeah, I think we will be better off if we order a pizza.



**TYPE 0 CONDITIONALS** are used to express a general truth or a scientific fact. We use the **Present Simple** in both the main clause and the *if*-clause, and *if* can be replaced with *when* meaning *whenever*, e.g. *If* / *When I sleep*, *I need silence*.

#### **Exercise 2. Type 0 Conditional**



4

3

#### Listen and repeat the sentences used to express a general truth or a scientific fact.

If I try to cook, it always ends in disaster.

When he eats dairy products, he gets spots all over his body.

If you don't water your plants regularly, they die.

When you warm up ice, it starts to melt.

When winter approaches, bears look for a place to sleep.

If she **gets** frustrated, she always **shouts** at her colleagues.

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5

**TYPE 1 CONDITIONALS** are used to express real or very probable situations in the present or future. We use *if* +the **Present Simple**, and the **Future Simple** in the main clause, e.g. *If* you don't try, you will regret it.

The linking word *if* can be replaced with: *providing*, *provided* (*that*), *on condition* (*that*) or *as long as. Unless* means *if not* and is always used with the affirmative verb, e.g. *Unless* you *try*, you will regret it.

#### **Exercise 3. Type 1 Conditional**



6

Listen to the clues and finish the sentences, used to express real or very probable situations in the present or future.

1. If you **give** me an hour, ...

. . .

I'll make you something special.

to make something special

2. We will be able to attend this concert provided that...

...

we book the tickets in advance.

to book the tickets in advance

3. Unless you **let** me **in** immediately, ...

. . .

I will call the police.

to call the police

4. I will let you use my flat on condition that...

...

you take care of my dog while I'm away.

to take care of my dog

5. Unless you **leave** now, ...

. .

you will not catch your train.

to catch the train

6. The prime minister **will resign** from his office unless...

..

he **reaches** a compromise with the striking workers.

to reach a compromise with the striking workers

 $\triangleleft \in$ 

7

**TYPE 2 CONDITIONALS** are used to express imaginary situations, unreal things or things unlikely to happen in the present or future. We use if + the **Past Simple**, and **would** / **could** / **might** + the **infinitive** in the main clause, e.g. If we **had** more money, we **would live** in a house with a garden.

We can use were instead of was for all persons in the if-clause, e.g. If I were you, I wouldn't do it.

#### **Exercise 4. Type 2 Conditional**



8

Answer the questions about imaginary situations unlikely to happen in the present or future. Listen to the clues.

1. What would you do if you suddenly inherited a lot of money?

...

If I inherited a lot of money, I would buy a Porsche.

to buy a Porsche

2. Where would you go if you could choose the trip of your life?

...

If I could choose the trip of my life, I would go to Egypt.

to go to Egypt

3. How would you react if you saw someone shoplifting?

...

If I saw someone shoplifting, I would inform the security staff.

to inform the security staff

4. In what circumstances would you consider having plastic surgery?

. .

I might consider having plastic surgery if I had a bad scar on my face.

to have a scar

5. Would you ever buy a pet?

..

I could buy a pet if I owned a big garden.

to own a garden

6. Would you try bungee-jumping?

. . .

I would try bungee-jumping if I wasn't afraid of heights.

to be afraid of heights

#### **Exercise 5. Conditionals – joining words and expressions**



9

5

Transform the conditionals using the given expressions that can replace *if*.

1. If you heat water, it evaporates.

When you heat water, it evaporates.

when

2. I will not join this club if I don't get a formal invitation.

• •

I will not join this club unless I get a formal invitation.

unless

3. I will lend you the money if you promise to give it back by next month.

. . .

I will lend you the money provided that you promise to give it back by next month.

4. I would help you solve the problem if I knew the answer.

. . .

I **would help** you solve the problem providing I **knew** the answer.

5. They will sponsor our project if we come up with a reasonable business plan.

...

They will sponsor our project as long as we come up with a reasonable business plan.

6. If she doesn't accept my offer, I will withdraw.

. . .

Unless she accepts my offer, I will withdraw.

provided that

providing

as long as

unless

**≒** 10

Instead of the **Future Simple** in the main clause of **TYPE 1 CONDITIONALS**, we can use the **imperative**, e.g. *If you hear something suspicious*, <u>call</u> the police. or a modal verb: **can / could / may / might / must / should** + the **infinitive**, e.g. *If you don't take a raincoat*, you <u>may get</u> soaked.

#### Exercise 6. Conditionals with the imperative and modal verbs



11

#### Listen and repeat the sentences.

If you **need** some money, **don't hesitate** to tell us.

If you are interested in applying, **fill** in this form.

If they **don't start** packing, they **may have** too little time later.

If she wants to take part in this contest, she <u>must start</u> preparing now.

If I agree to give you another chance, I might get even more disappointed.

If you call me after six, I should have more information for you.

If you don't take your gloves, you can get frostbite.

If you **lose** this key, you **could end** up sleeping outside.

### 2. TYPE 3 CONDITIONAL & MIXED CONDITIONALS

Exercise 1.

 $\square$ 

**12** 

#### Listen to the dialogue.

- A. So, how do you feel, Chris?
- B. Thanks for asking. I would feel much better if I hadn't gone skiing with you then.
- A. Is your leg broken?
- B. Yes, I wouldn't have broken it if I hadn't followed you down that slope.
- A. If you had gone on your own, you would have got lost in the mountains.
- B. Maybe. But if I had got lost, I would have called the rescue team and they would have taken me down.
- A. You know what? If I had known that you are such a poor skier I would never have taken you with me
- B. Oh yeah? Well if I hadn't listened to you, I wouldn't be in hospital now!



**TYPE 3 CONDITIONALS** are used to express imaginary situations which are contrary to facts in the past, and to express discontent or regret for what happened. We use if + the **Past Perfect**, and would / could / might + have + the **Past Participle** in the main clause, e.g. If we had known your address, we would have come round.

#### **Exercise 2. Type 3 Conditional**



14

Listen and repeat the sentences used to express imaginary situations which are contrary to the facts in the past.

I wouldn't have broken my leg if I hadn't followed you.

If you had gone on your own, you would have got lost in the mountains.

If I had got lost, I would have called the rescue team.

It **might have been** easier to convince her if I **had known** her better.

We **could have avoided** the traffic if we **had taken** another highway.

She would have died if we had left her alone.

□ 15

We can make combinations of conditional sentences according to the context.

The **TYPE 3 + 2 MIXED CONDITIONAL** expresses a hypothetical condition in the past and its result in the present. We use if + the **Past Perfect**, and would / could / might + the **infinitive** in the main clause, e.g. If you had gone to the doctor, you would feel better now.

#### Exercise 3. Mixed conditionals – type 3 and type 2



**16** 

Use the condition from the past and the result from the present to make sentences in mixed conditional.

- 1. Chris went skiing. Now he is in hospital.
  - ...

If Chris hadn't gone skiing, he wouldn't be in hospital now.

2. Edison invented electricity. We have light bulbs.

..

If Edison hadn't invented electricity, we wouldn't have light bulbs today.

3. Many diseases are curable. Fleming discovered penicillin.

...

Many diseases wouldn't be curable now if Fleming hadn't discovered penicillin.

4. Sheila didn't invite Ian. She feels sorry now.

..

If Sheila had invited Ian, she wouldn't feel sorry now.

5. Peter has a cold. Peter didn't take his umbrella.

..

Peter wouldn't have a cold now if he had taken his umbrella.

6. Mary didn't go on holiday. She is exhausted now.

•••

If Mary had gone on holiday, she wouldn't be exhausted now.



**17** 

The **TYPE 2 + 3 MIXED CONDITIONAL** expresses a hypothetical situation in the present and its result in the past. We use if + the **Past Simple**, and would + have + the **Past Participle** in the main clause, e.g. If he had enough money, he would have bought a better car.

#### Exercise 4. Mixed conditionals – type 2 and type 3



18

#### Listen to the present situation and then repeat the mixed conditionals.

John isn't a good writer.

If John was a good writer, he would have sold more books in the past two years.

I don't know Peter well.

If I knew Peter better, I would have invited him to my last birthday party.

The Browns have children.

The Browns would have divorced a long time ago if they didn't have children.

We are afraid of tropical diseases.

We would have gone to Africa last year if we were not afraid of tropical diseases.

Ted is shy.

If Ted was not so shy, he would have asked Joanna out.

I love my job.

If I didn't love my job, I would have quit it a long time ago.

#### **Exercise 5. Conditionals – practice**



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#### Listen to the sentences and then transform them into appropriate conditionals.

1. He isn't a good worker so he wasn't promoted.

...

If he was a good worker, he would have been promoted.

2. She talked all day yesterday so she has a sore throat now.

. . .

If she hadn't talked all day yesterday, she wouldn't have a sore throat now.

3. Steve didn't study hard and that's why he failed his exam.

...

If Steve had studied hard, he wouldn't have failed his exam.

4. The play didn't finish on time and so we missed the bus home.

...

If the play had finished on time, we wouldn't have missed the bus home.

5. He didn't know about the earthquake because he didn't read the newspaper.

•••

He would have known about the earthquake if he had read the newspaper.

6. Mark is in trouble now as he forgot to make arrangements on time.

•••

Mark wouldn't be in trouble if he hadn't forgotten to make arrangements on time.

4

20

In conditional sentences, we can use the **INVERSION** and omit *if*. Then we use:

- *should* before the subject in type 1 Conditional, e.g. <u>Should you</u> need money, don't hesitate to tell us.;
- were before the subject in type 2 Conditional, e.g. Were she less shy, she would get this job.;
- *had* before the subject in type 3 Conditional, e.g. <u>Had I</u> known the truth, I wouldn't have helped him.

#### Exercise 6. Conditionals without *if* / Inversion in conditionals



21

Listen and repeat the conditional sentences, which are formed with the use of inversion.

**Should** you **need** a place to spend a night, I will put you up.

**Should** we **lose** our way, there will be no-one around to ask for help.

Were he not such a coward, he would take this risk.

Were I more self-confident, I wouldn't be so stressed when I meet new people.

**Had** they **left** earlier, they wouldn't have missed their last train home.

**Had** we **known** the weather forecast, we wouldn't have gone hiking then.

## 3. UNREAL TIME WISH / IF ONLY / SUPPOSE / SUPPOSING IT'S (HIGH) TIME / AS IF / AS THOUGH

 $\triangleleft \in$ 

22

We use the verb **WISH** and the expressions: **IF ONLY, SUPPOSE** / **SUPPOSING, IT'S** (**HIGH) TIME**, **AS IF** / **AS THOUGH** to express a wish about a present or past situation or to talk about imaginary, unreal or improbable situations which are contrary to the facts in the present or the past. Remember that with these expressions, the grammatical tenses are used in a similar way to types 2 and 3 conditionals.

#### Exercise 1.



23

#### Listen to the dialogue.

- A. I'm sorry I cheated on you. I wish I could turn back time.
- B. If only it was possible. Unfortunately it isn't and I'm afraid our marriage is over.
- A. If only you could think this over one more time. There is still a chance for us.
- B. Suppose I believed you now. How can I be sure you won't let me down again?
- A. I swear I won't!
- B. Well, it's high time you grew up and took responsibility for your actions!
- A. You speak as though you don't believe I can change.
- B. As a matter of fact, I don't. It's time you moved out.
- A. Oh, how I wish I had been true to you.
- B. Well, and I wish you would stop treating me as if I were a fool.

#### Exercise 2. wish / if only



24

#### Listen and repeat the sentences expressing wishes.

I wish I could turn back time.

If only it was possible.

If only you **could think** this over one more time.

Suppose I believed you now.

It's high time you grew up!

You speak as though you don't believe me.

I wish I had been true to you.

You treat me as if I were a fool.

- To express a wish about a present situation, we use WISH / IF ONLY + the Simple Past, e.g. I wish / If only I had a brother. We can use were instead of was after wish / if only, e.g. I wish I (he / she / it) was / were taller. Remember that wish and if only have a similar meaning; however, if only is more emphatic than I wish.
- To express an assumption about a present situation, we use **SUPPOSE** / **SUPPOSING** + the **Simple Past**, e.g. *Suppose* / *Supposing he lived with us*.

#### Exercise 3. wish / if only / suppose with Simple Past



**26** 

Listen to the situations, and then finish the sentences expressing a desire or making an assumption about a present situation.

They regret that they have a dog
 They wish they didn't have a dog.

 He regrets that he doesn't speak more languages.
 He wishes he spoke more languages.

3. It would be great if we lived in Spain.
... Suppose we lived in Spain.
Suppose we lived in Spain.

4. If I was taller I could play basketball.
...
If only I were taller.

If only I were taller.

5. My neighbours are so noisy.... If only my neighbours weren't so noisy.

6. What would you do if you didn't have parents?
...
Suppose you didn't have parents. What would you do?

Suppose you didn't have parents.

**□**( **27** 

• To express regret or an assumption about something that did or did not happen in the past, we use WISH / IF ONLY / SUPPOSE / SUPPOSING + the Past Perfect, e.g. I wish I hadn't bought this car.

#### Exercise 4. wish / if only / suppose with Past Perfect



28

Answer the questions using the given words, and express a regret or assumption about a situation in the past.

- Are you happy that you sold your old house?
   No, I wish...

   Are you satisfied with the workers that you hired?
  - ... No, if only... If only I hadn't hired them.
- 3. Are you glad you didn't take your sister to the party?
  ...

  Suppose she had gone there with me.

  Yes, suppose...
- 4. Was I right to tell your wife the truth?
  ...

  I wish you hadn't told her the truth.

  No, I wish...
- 5. Did you really break off the engagement with Peter?... No, but suppose I had broken it off.
- 6. Are you mad at us for not informing you earlier?
  ...

  If only you had informed me earlier.

  Yes, if only...

**□**( **29** 

- To express a kind imperative or a wish for a change in the situation or someone's behaviour because we are irritated or annoyed by it, we use **WISH / IF ONLY** + would, e.g. I wish you would stop smoking. After the subject pronouns I / we, we use could instead of would, e.g. I wish I / we could go with you.
- To express an assumption about a situation in the future, we use **SUPPOSE** / **SUPPOSING** + the **Present Simple**, e.g. *Suppose* / *supposing* he *gets* caught at the border, what will we do?

#### Exercise 5. wish / if only / suppose with would / could

Suppose they arrive earlier. Where will they stay?



**30** 

Express a desire for a situation or someone's behaviour to change or make an assumption that something can happen using the given expressions.

1. I can't spend the next holiday with you. If only... If only I could spend the next holiday with you. We really need to meet for lunch on Tuesday. I wish... I wish we could meet for lunch on Tuesday. Paul throws litter on the floor all the time. I wish... I wish Pall wouldn't throw litter on the floor. It's so cloudy and dark. I wish... I wish the sun would come out soon. 5. I hope they will reconsider their decision. If only... If only they would reconsider their decision. 6. He always yawns at meetings. If only... If only he wouldn't yawn at meetings. 7. I'm not quite sure if my mother will lend us the money. Suppose... Suppose my mother doesn't agree to lend us the money. What will we do? 8. There is a chance that they will arrive earlier.

Suppose...

( 31

The other constructions that are used to refer to the unreal present are: IT'S (HIGH) TIME / IT'S (ABOUT) TIME and AS IF / AS THOUGH.

- To express a wish for a change in the situation or someone's behaviour, we can also use the expression IT'S (HIGH) TIME / IT'S (ABOUT) TIME + the Past Simple, e.g. It's (high) time you grew up.
- To make a comparison which refers to an untrue situation in the present, we use **AS IF / AS THOUGH** + the **Past Simple**, e.g. *You look as if you were dead*.

  Just as with the other structures of this type, after the subject pronouns *I / he / she / it*, we can
  - use were instead of was, e.g. She behaves as if she were an actress.
- However, to make a comparison which is true, we use **AS IF / AS THOUGH** + the **Present Simple**, e.g. *You look as if you are ill*.

#### Exercise 6. it's time / it's high time / as if / as though



**32** 

#### Listen and repeat the sentences.

It's high time you **stopped** behaving like a child.

It's time Ann **stopped** drinking.

It's high time you **took** your driving test.

She sounds as if she is frightened.

He looks as though he **doesn't** really **enjoy** parties.

You are acting as if you were drunk.

### 4. WOULD RATHER / WOULD PREFER / PREFER

We use **WOULD RATHER / WOULD PREFER** and the verb **PREFER** to express preferences and wishes.

Exercise 1.  $\Box \in 34$ 

#### Listen to the dialogue.

- A. Isn't this place gorgeous?
- B. Well, I prefer dining in less posh restaurants.
- A. It's the finest restaurant in town! Would you rather go to some fast food place?
- B. No, I would rather we had chosen a more cosy pub or something.
- A. Usually I prefer simple food but tonight I would rather have something really special.
- B. It's our anniversary!
- A. You know I prefer eating fish and chips to those sophisticated tasteless dishes.
- B. So, would you prefer to go somewhere else rather than stay here?
- A. Yes, I think I would prefer to sit somewhere quiet, hold hands and eat a huge hamburger with mayonnaise.
- B. OK, then. Let's celebrate!

The form of the verb that follows **WOULD RATHER** depends on to whom the subject's preferences refer.

- To express preferences of the person who is the subject of both would rather and the main clause, we use WOULD RATHER + the infinitive, e.g. <u>I'd</u> rather go now than stay here. and WOULD RATHER + have + the Past Participle when we refer to the past, e.g. <u>I</u> would rather have sold this bike last week.
- To express preferences, wishes or regret referring to another person in the present, we use **WOULD RATHER** + the subject + the **Past Simple**, e.g. <u>I</u> would rather <u>she</u> lived on Mars.; and we use **WOULD RATHER** + the subject + the **Past Perfect** when we refer to the past, e.g. <u>I</u> would rather <u>you</u> had come with me yesterday. In these sentences, the subject of would rather is different from the subject of the main clause.

#### Exercise 2. would rather



36

#### Listen and repeat the sentences expressing preferences.

I'd rather travel to Spain than go to Alaska.

I'd rather <u>not</u> ask anyone for help.

I'd rather you were more polite. It's my birthday.

I'd rather you didn't sleep in this room because you snore.

I'd rather have gone to the dentist two days ago.

I'd rather <u>not</u> have lent him this money.

I'd rather they had told us about their plans earlier.

I'd rather she hadn't interfered in our argument yesterday.

#### Exercise 3. would rather with present and past reference



**37** 

#### Listen to the situations, and then express people's preferences.

1. He regrets that he can't take leave now instead of next month.

..

He'd rather take leave now than take it next month.

2. It's a pity that I have to rely on their help.

. . .

I'd rather not have to rely on their help.

3. She wishes she had listened to her dad's advice.

. . .

She'd rather have listened to her dad's advice.

4. Oh, how I wish I hadn't agreed to take this job.

. . .

I'd rather not have taken this job.

5. I think you should start acting more responsibly.

• •

I'd rather you started acting more responsibly.

6. She thinks I shouldn't spend so much time with her son.

• •

She'd rather I didn't spend so much time with her son.

7. I regret you didn't call before you appeared on my doorstep.

. . .

I'd rather you had called before you appeared on my doorstep.

8. I really think it was wrong of her to stick her nose in my business.

. .

I'd rather she hadn't stuck her nose in my business.



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Preferences can be also expressed with the verb **PREFER**. The form of the verb that follows *prefer* depends on the type of preference we are talking about.

- To express general preferences, we use **PREFER** + the *ing* **form** + *to* + the *ing* **form**, e.g. *I prefer writing e-mails to writing letters*. or we can use **PREFER** + *to* + the **infinitive** + *rather than* + the **infinitive**, e.g. *I prefer to cycle to work rather than go by bus*. It means that I generally prefer writing e-mails and cycling to work, not only today.
- To express specific preferences, we use **WOULD PREFER** + *to* + the **infinitive** + *rather than* + (the **infinitive**), e.g. *I would prefer to eat something sweet rather than* (*eat*) *a sandwich*. It means that I'd like to have something sweet now, and it refers only to the present situation.

#### Exercise 4. to prefer and would prefer



**39** 

Listen and repeat the sentences expressing preferences.

She **prefers knitting** to **doing** jigsaw puzzles.

They **prefer exploring** quiet countryside to **spending** time in crowded resorts.

I prefer to watch boring soap operas rather than spend time with those friends of yours.

He **prefers to find** new solutions rather than **rely** on traditional methods.

He would prefer to take a nap now rather than continue this conversation.

Professor Fox would prefer to talk to us individually rather than meet the whole group.

#### Exercise 5. to prefer



**40** 

Answer the questions about your general preferences. After each question you will hear a possible answer.

1. Do you prefer lying on the beach or climbing mountains?

. .

I prefer climbing mountains to lying on the beach.

2. Does your mother prefer to cook rather than go out for dinner?

..

She prefers to cook her own meals rather than eat out.

3. What does your friend prefer, Nordic walking or jogging?

• •

I think he prefers Nordic walking to jogging.

4. Do you prefer to stay at home and read rather than go clubbing with us?

. . .

I prefer to stay at home rather than go clubbing with you.

5. What does your manager prefer, to arrange things in advance or to act spontaneously?

. . .

Oh, he prefers to arrange things in advance.

#### Exercise 6. would prefer



41

Talk about your specific preferences using would prefer. After each question you will hear a possible answer.

1. So, do you want to leave or stay for another drink or two?

. . .

I would prefer to stay a little longer.

2. Would you like to book the trip now or wait for the last-minute offer?

. . .

I would prefer to book the trip now rather than wait.

3. How would you like to travel, by coach or by ferry?

. .

I think I would prefer to go by coach rather than by ferry.

4. Where do you want to take our guests, to the city centre or to the art gallery?

. .

I'd prefer to take them to the art gallery rather than to the centre.

5. Would you rather check into the hotel now or get something to eat first?

. .

Oh, I'd prefer to get something to eat before we check in.

6. What would you like to put in your windows, some curtains or just vertical blinds?

. . .

I would prefer to have vertical blinds.

#### 5. THE PASSIVE VOICE

**THE PASSIVE VOICE** is used when the action itself is more important than the person / people who are doing it, or they are unknown, unimportant or obvious from the context.

Exercise 1.  $\Box \in 43$ 

#### Listen to the dialogue.

- A. Will you fix the bathroom door, darling?
- B. Yes, it will be fixed before you're back from work.
- A. And what about the dog? Is it going to be taken to the vet at last?
- B. Yes, it's going to be vaccinated this afternoon.
- A. Will you also mow the lawn?
- B. No, honey. It has just been mown. You see, the grass is cut every two weeks.
- A. Oh, and did you remember to book the tickets for tonight's performance?
- B. Yes, you know that they were booked a week ago.
- A. But do the Smiths know they are going with us?
- B. Sweetheart, they had been informed before we booked the tickets.
- A. Oh good. Is my breakfast ready?
- B. It is being done. Almost ready. And I hope you're ready to leave.

**□**( 44

To form **THE PASSIVE**, we use the verb *to be* in the appropriate form + the **Past Participle**. Note how the forms are changed into the **Passive** in the following tenses:

<b>Grammar Tense</b>	The Active Form	The Passive Form
<b>Present Simple</b>	He combs his hair every day.	His hair <b>is combed</b> every day.
<b>Present Continuous</b>	He is combing his hair now.	His hair is being combed now.
<b>Present Perfect</b>	He has just combed his hair.	His hair <u>has</u> just <u>been</u> combed.
Past Simple	He combed his hair.	His hair was combed.
<b>Past Continuous</b>	He was combing his hair.	His hair was being combed.
Past Perfect	He had combed his hair.	His hair <b>had been combed</b> .
<b>Future Simple</b>	He will comb his hair.	His hair will be combed.
<b>Future Perfect</b>	He will have combed his hair.	His hair will have been combed.
to be going to	He is going to comb his hair.	His hair is going to be combed.

#### **Exercise 2. The Passive**



45

#### Listen and repeat the sentences in the Passive Voice.

The door **will be fixed** soon.

Our essays will have been corrected by Friday.

The dog is going to be taken to the vet.

The grass **is** cut every two weeks.

Breakfast **is being made** at the moment.

My flat has just been redecorated.

The tickets **were booked** a week ago.

The Smiths had been informed before the tickets were ordered.

When I came to collect my bike, it was still being mended.

#### **Exercise 3. The Passive – practice**



46

#### Transform the sentences into the Passive Voice.

1. They will publish John's latest book in July.

. . .

John's latest book will be published in July.

2. They will have fixed our refrigerator by Wednesday.

. . .

My refrigerator will have been fixed by Wednesday.

3. She isn't going to rewrite these invitations.

. . .

These invitations aren't going to be rewritten.

4. We are arranging our family meeting at the moment.

. . .

At the moment our family meeting is being arranged.

5. Mary takes her children to the theatre once a month.

..

Mary's children are taken to the theatre once a month.

6. She has just sold her two oil paintings.

..

Her two oil paintings have just been sold.

7. Charlie introduced his new girlfriend to us on Sunday.

. .

Charlie's new girlfriend was introduced to us on Sunday.

8. We had checked our tyres before we began our cycling trip.

. . .

Our tyres had been checked before our cycling trip was begun.

9. When I got home, my mum was baking my birthday cake.

. . .

When I got home, my birthday cake was being baked.



To form THE PASSIVE WITH A MODAL VERB, we use a modal +be + the Past Participle, e.g. Teeth must be brushed regularly.

#### **Exercise 4. The Passive with modal verbs**



48

Change the given sentences into the Passive Voice using the modal verbs.

1. You must give this money to Mrs White.

. .

This money **must be given** to Mrs White.

2. Peter ought to help his poor parents.

. . .

Peter's poor parents ought to be helped.

3. All candidates should take a test.

. . .

A test should be taken by all candidates.

4. Mary might have left her wallet at home

. . .

Her wallet might have been left at home.

5. Students mustn't wear their jackets in the classroom.

• •

Jackets mustn't be worn in the classroom.

6. Visitors can take pictures only in this chamber.

. . .

Pictures can be taken only in this chamber.

4

49

The subject of the active sentence becomes the agent, and is either introduced with the preposition **BY** or is omitted. Remember not to mistake it for the preposition **WITH**, which is also used in the **Passive** but has a different meaning.

- To say who or what carries out the action, we use **BY** + the agent, e.g. *Dinner was prepared* <u>by</u> *his mother*.
- To say what the agent uses to carry out the action, we use **WITH** + an instrument / material / ingredient, e.g. *The meat was cut with a sharp knife*.
- **WITH** is also used after some past participles, e.g. *coloured, crowded, filled* or *packed*, e.g. *The corridor was crowded with people*.

#### Exercise 5. with and by in the Passive

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**50** 

Answer the questions practising the use of with and by in the Passive.

1. Who was the telephone invented by?

...

The telephone was invented by Alexander Graham Bell.

Alexander Graham Bell

2. What is an omelette usually made with?

...

An omelette is usually made with eggs and milk.

eggs and milk

3. Who was 'Sunflowers' painted by?

. . .

It was painted by Van Gogh.

Van Gogh

4. Who was the concert hall filled with?

. . .

It was filled with a crowd of people.

a crowd of people

 $\triangleleft \in$ 

51

Pay attention to some special uses of the verb forms in the **Passive**.

• With some verbs like **BRING**, **TELL**, **SEND**, **SHOW**, **TEACH**, **PROMISE** or **GIVE** that can take two objects in the Active, we form the Passive in two different ways, e.g.

I promised her a nice surprise.

She was promised a nice surprise.

or

A nice surprise was promised to her.

• The verbs **HEAR**, **HELP**, **SEE** and **MAKE** are followed by the **bare infinitive** in the Active, but they take the **to-infinitive** in the Passive, e.g.

I saw him steal this wallet. — He was seen to steal this wallet.

• The verbs **SEE**, **HEAR** and **WATCH** which are used with the **-ing form** in the Active, are also used with the **-ing form** in the Passive, e.g.

*I saw them <u>kissing</u>* — They were seen <u>kissing</u>.

• The verbs **LET** becomes *be allowed to* in the Passive, e.g.

*My parents* <u>let</u> me go camping. — I was allowed to go camping.

#### **Exercise 6. The Passive with some special verbs**



**52** 

#### Listen and repeat the sentences.

He was sent a big parcel full of sweets.

A big parcel full of sweets was sent to him.

We will be shown Mary's newly born daughter next week.

Mary's newly born daughter will be shown to us next week.

I was helped to get back to the shelter by some tourists.

I was made to tell the truth.

Paul was heard gossiping about his neighbours.

I have never been allowed to make my own decisions.

### 6. THE PASSIVE VOICE WITH REPORTING VERBS / NEED / CAUSATIVE HAVE / GET

4

**53** 

The verbs **THINK**, **BELIEVE**, **SAY**, **REPORT**, **KNOW** and **EXPECT** form personal and impersonal constructions in the Passive to express a general opinion or an assumption. Pay attention to the use of the verb forms in these constructions.

• If they refer to the present or future, we use the corresponding tense in the impersonal construction and the present infinitive in the personal construction, e.g.

People think that Mrs Brown is having an affair.

It is thought (that) Mrs Brown is having an affair.

Mrs Brown is thought to be having an affair.

• If they refer to the past, we use the corresponding tense in the impersonal construction and the perfect infinitive in the personal construction, e.g.

People say that Mr Brown sold his collection last week.

It is said (that) Mr Brown sold his collection last week.

Mr Brown is said to have sold his collection last week.

Exercise 1.

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54

#### Listen to the dialogue.

- A. Have you seen Susan Black recently?
- B. No, she is believed to have moved out.
- A. So suddenly? Why?
- B. Well, she is said to have lost her job at the agency.
- A. But why? Susan is known to be an excellent accountant.
- B. I'll tell you a secret it is thought that she defrauded a lot of money.
- A. What? I can't believe it! She was known to be an honest person.
- B. That's what I thought, too. She is even said to have been arrested.
- A. Impossible! Such a quiet, nice woman.
- B. It is believed that she will never come back here again.
- A. I hope it's all just gossip.

#### **Exercise 2. Personal and impersonal constructions in the Passive**



55

Listen to the situations, and then repeat the sentences with the impersonal and personal passive constructions.

They believe that Susan has moved out.

It is believed that Susan has moved out. / Susan is believed to have moved out.

People say that she lost her job last week.

It is said that she lost her job last week. / She is said to have lost her job last week.

Everybody knows that Susan is an excellent accountant.

It is known that she is an excellent accountant. / She is known to be an excellent accountant.

People believe that she will never come back here again.

It is believed that she will never come back here again.

They think Max is only pretending he's ill.

It is thought that Max is only pretending he's ill. / Max is thought to be only pretending he's ill.

#### **Exercise 3. The Passive constructions – practice**



56

Change the sentences into the Passive using the given beginnings.

1. It is reported that the criminal is hiding in the forest.

. . .

The criminal is reported to be hiding in the forest.

The criminal...

2. Lightning is believed to have caused the fire last night.

..

It is believed that lightning caused the fire last night.

It...

3. It is said that the president is about to resign.

. .

The president is said to be about to resign.

The president...

4. People expect that Professor Smith will get the award.

. .

Professor Smith is expected to get the award.

**Professor Smith...** 

5. We are thought to be millionaires.

..

It is thought that we are millionaires.

It...

6. Everybody knows that Ian paid too much for this house.

Ian is known to have paid too much for this house.

Ian...

**□**( 57

To express the need to repair or improve something, we use the **Passive** construction with the verb NEED + to be + the Past Participle or <math>NEED + the ing form, e.g.

We need to feed the dog.

The dog needs to be fed.

The dog needs feeding.

#### Exercise 4. need to be done / need doing



**58** 

Listen to the problems and say what needs to be done or needs doing.

- 1. Those flowers are completely dry.
  - ..

Those flowers need to be watered. / Those flowers need watering.

- 2. Our walls are all covered with children's fingerprints.
  - . . .

Our walls need to be painted. / Our walls need painting.

3. Your crayons are blunt.

. . .

Your crayons need to be sharpened. / Your crayons need sharpening.

4. All these clothes are wrinkled.

. . .

All these clothes need to be ironed. / All these clothes need ironing.

5. Bob's hair is too long.

. . .

Bob's hair needs to be cut. / Bob's hair needs cutting.

6. Replace the rubbish bag, please.

...

The rubbish bag needs to be replaced. / The rubbish bag needs replacing.

**≒** 59

#### **CAUSATIVE HAVE**

- To say that we have arranged for someone to do something for us, we use the construction **HAVE** + the **object** + the **Past Participle**, e.g. *I had* <u>my watch</u> **repaired**.
- We can use the verb **GET** instead of *have* in informal conversation, e.g. *I will have* / *get* <u>my</u> car polished.
- We also use *causative have* to talk about an unpleasant experience that someone had, e.g. *I had my car broken into last night*.

Grammar Tense		Causative Form
Present Simple	He repairs his car.	He <b>has</b> his car <b>repaired</b> .
<b>Present Continuous</b>	He is repairing his car.	He is having his car repaired.
Past Simple	He repaired his car.	He had his car repaired.
Past Continuous	He was repairing his car.	He was having his car repaired.
Future Simple	He will repair his car.	He will have his car repaired.
<b>Future Continuous</b>	He will be repairing his car.	He will be having his car repaired.
<b>Present Perfect</b>	He has repaired his car.	He has had his car repaired.
<b>Present Perfect Cont.</b>	He has been repairing his car.	He has been having his car repaired.
Past Perfect	He had repaired his car.	He <b>had had</b> his car <b>repaired</b> .
Past Perfect Cont.	He had been repairing his car.	He had been having his car repaired.
Infinitive	He can repair his car.	He can have his car repaired.
-ing form	He hates repairing his car.	He hates <b>having</b> his car <b>repaired</b> .

#### Exercise 5. Causative *have*



60

#### Listen and repeat the sentences.

I have this magazine delivered every week.

Little Meg is just getting her picture taken.

Peter **had** his wallet **stolen** at the petrol station yesterday.

There was no furniture in the flat as they were just having it renovated.

Margaret will get her bathtub fixed tomorrow.

Don't visit us tomorrow because we will be having our kitchen painted.

He has already had his tooth pulled out.

She has been having her car repaired for the last three days.

Luckily I **had had** my computer **fixed** before my parents came back.

She had been having her garden tidied for two days before the guests arrived.

#### Exercise 6. Causative *have* – practice



61

Answer the questions positively using have + object + Past Participle. After each question you'll hear a possible answer.

1. Does your bank pay your bills?

..

Yes, I have my bills paid regularly.

2. Will your neighbours take care of your garden?

. . .

Yes, I will have my garden taken care of.

3. Has your mum mended your torn trousers yet?

. . .

Yes, I have already had them mended.

4. Had they furnished your room before you came back from holiday?

. .

Yes, I had it fully furnished before I came back.

5. Were they still typing your letters then?

• • •

Yes, my letters were still being typed.

6. Where are your curtains?

. . .

They are being cleaned at the moment.

#### 7. REPORTED SPEECH

4

**62** 

**REPORTED SPEECH** is used to report people's utterances. When we report someone's words a long time after they were said, we use the introductory verb in the past simple and change the tense, e.g. the sentence: *I am very sorry*. will be reported: *He said he was very sorry*.

The tenses in **reported speech** change as follows:

Direct Speech	Reported Speech	
Present Simple	Past Simple	
Present Continuous	Past Continuous	
Present Perfect	Past Perfect	
Present Perfect Continuous	Past Perfect Continuous	
Past Simple	Past Simple or Past Perfect	
Past Continuous	Past Continuous or Past Perfect Continuous	
Future (will)	Future in the Past (would)	

Note that the **past perfect** and the **past perfect continuous** remain the same in reporting speech.

#### Exercise 1.



63

#### Listen to the dialogue.

- A. Guess who I ran into at the shopping centre yesterday.
- B. No idea. Who?
- A. Tom Jenkins. The one you were dating in secondary school.
- B. Oh, how is he?
- A. He said he was fine. He told me he was conducting some business in our town.
- B. Is he still married to that blonde doll?
- A. No, he told me they had divorced two years ago. He also remarked that he had got custody over their son.
- B. How long will he be around?
- A. He told me he wasn't quite sure but thought it would take more than a week.
- B. In fact, he asked how you were and wanted to know where you lived.
- A. Did you give him my address?
- B. Of course not. You told me not to reveal your whereabouts to anyone, remember?
- A. I told you not to give my address to strangers, you fool! But this is Tom Jenkins, for God's sake.
- B. Oh relax, you didn't tell me not to give your telephone number to anyone, did you?
- A. Oh, thank you. I hope he will call. I must go. See you!



64

#### **CERTAIN WORDS AND TIME EXPRESSIONS** change according to the meaning in **reported speech**.

now	then	two years ago	two years before
today	that day	this	that
tonight	that night	these	those
yesterday	the day before	here	there
last month	the previous month	come	go
next week	the following week	bring	take

#### Exercise 2. Verb tenses and time expressions in Reported Speech



65

Listen and repeat the sentences in Reported Speech.

'I will always remember this evening.'

She said she would always remember that evening.

'I am not going to come back here next year!'

He told us he was not going to go back there the following year.

'I recognise this woman in the picture.'

She said she **recognised** that woman in the picture.

'We are trying to concentrate now.'

They told me they were trying to concentrate then

'I didn't pay by credit card because I lost it two days ago.'

She <u>said</u> she **hadn't paid** by credit card because she **had lost** it <u>two days before</u>.

'We have just developed the film from our last holidays.'

They said they **had** just **developed** the film from their previous holidays.



66

To report **COMMANDS** or **INSTRUCTIONS** in the *imperative* we use the introductory verbs, e.g. *He told me..., She asked me..., He ordered me...* + *to* + the **infinitive** *or not to* + the **infinitive**, e.g.

Help me, please.  $\longrightarrow$  She asked me to help her.

*Don't leave me.* → *He begged me not to leave him.* 

#### **Exercise 3. Reporting commands, requests and instructions**



**67** 

Report what somebody once said. Use the given introductory verbs.

1. 'Come here and fix this door for me.'

. .

He ordered me to go there and fix that door for him.

He ordered me...

2. 'Don't pretend you can't understand what I am saying.'

...

My mum <u>told me</u> not to pretend I couldn't understand what she was saying.

My mum told me...

3. 'Glue these pages together and bring them to me.'

. . .

He <u>asked me</u> to glue those pages together and bring them to him.

He asked me...

4. 'Don't go away next weekend, please.'

...

Mary asked me not to go away the following weekend.

Mary asked me...

5. 'Forget what I told you yesterday.'

...

He <u>ordered me</u> to forget what he had told me the day before.

He ordered me...

6. 'Don't punish your children for what they did two months ago!'

...

She <u>told me</u> **not to punish** my children for what they had done two months before.

She told me...

**≒**(€ 68

To report **GENERAL QUESTIONS** beginning with an auxiliary verb like *be*, *do*, *have* etc., we use *if* or *whether*, change the verb tense, pronouns and time expressions and use the word order as in statements, e.g.

Do you live here?  $\longrightarrow$  I asked <u>if</u> / <u>whether</u> she <u>lived</u> <u>there</u>.

#### **Exercise 4. Reporting general questions**

4

**69** 

Listen to the questions and then report them using the introductory verbs.

#### Exercise 4. Reporting general questions

4=

**69** 

Listen to the questions and then report them using the introductory verbs.

1. 'Will you stay with us for the night?'

. . .

She wanted to know whether I would stay with them for the night.

She wanted to know...

2. 'Does he often use such bad language?'

. . .

She asked me if he often used such bad language.

She asked...

3. 'Are you working on your next novel, Paul?'

. . .

Maria inquired if Paul was working on his next novel.

Maria inquired...

4. 'Has John broken off the engagement with Eve?'

. . .

Everybody wanted to find out if John had broken off the engagement with Eve. Everybody wanted to find out...

5. 'Do you know that Margaret is getting promoted?'

. . .

She asked me if I knew that Margaret was getting promoted.

She asked...

6. 'Were you sleeping when I called you last night?'

...

She wondered if I had been sleeping when she called me the previous night.

She wondered...

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**70** 

To report **QUESTIONS** beginning with a question word like *what*, *where*, *how*, etc., we use the same question word, change the verb tense, pronouns and time expressions and use the word order as in statements, e.g.

Where do they live? → I asked where they lived.

#### Exercise 5. Reporting questions beginning with question words

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**71** 

#### Listen to the questions, and then transform them into Reported Speech.

1. 'When will your children visit us here?'

. . .

She asked me when my children would visit them there.

She asked me...

2. 'How are you going to make a living in England?'

. . .

My parents inquired how I was going to make my living in England.

My parents inquired...

3. 'Where do you usually play golf?'

• •

Paula wanted to know where I usually played golf.

Paula wanted to know...

4. 'How much did it cost to have your kitchen renovated?'

. . .

They wondered how much it had cost to have our kitchen renovated.

They wondered...

5. 'How many times have I told you to be quiet?'

...

She asked how many times she had told us to be quiet.

She asked...

6. 'Where are you staying at the moment?'

...

He asked me where we were staying then.

He asked me...



#### The verb forms remain the same in reported speech if:

- the introductory verb is used in the Present Simple, Future or Present Perfect, e.g. *I love thrillers.*  $\longrightarrow$  *He says (that) he loves thrillers.*
- we report someone's words a short time after they were said, e.g.

  We don't need any more juice. 

  They said (that) they don't need any more juice.
- we report the 2 or 3 type conditional sentence, e.g.

  If she knew the truth, she would be unhappy. → Ken said that if she knew the truth, she would be unhappy.

Note that when reporting a general truth or law of nature, the verb form can be changed or remain the same, e.g. *The sun rises in the east.* 

The teacher said (that) the sun rose / rises in the east.

#### Exercise 6. Reported Speech without changing the verb forms



**73** 

#### Listen and repeat the sentences.

Pamela wants to know if we still have any debts.

Your mum will call and ask if you want to be picked up in the evening.

Mrs White has just informed me that she is going to quit her job soon.

My parents said that they **are enjoying** their stay in Paris very much.

Chris told me that if he **had been** aware of the danger he **would never have** gone there.

In our last biology lesson we learned that whales **are** mammals.

The teacher explained that there is no life on Mars.

### 8. REPORTED SPEECH – INTRODUCTORY VERBS

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**74** 

We use different **INTRODUCTORY VERBS** when we report people's words. They are followed by different constructions depending on the verb, e.g. *He complained that he had a toothache*. or *He complained about having a toothache*.

Exercise 1.



75

#### Listen to the story.

When we arrived at the meeting, the manager invited us all to sit down and added that we could help ourselves to coffee and cakes. He suggested relaxing before we moved on to more important matters. He apologised for being away for such a long period of time but he admitted that there was some trouble with the company's branches in Mexico. When we finished our coffee, our Vice President announced that there would be some changes in our company. He estimated that around ten employees would be made redundant in the near future. He claimed that he didn't see any other way out of the situation. Then we insisted that the Chairman of the Board should take a stand. Unfortunately, he confirmed that the company was going through a crisis. You can imagine what happened next. Nobody could have predicted that a quiet meeting which had begun with coffee and cakes would turn into such a riot.



**76** 

Some introductory verbs are followed by that + the clause, e.g. the verb explain - She explained that the headmaster would be back soon. Other introductory verbs that take that + the clause are: add, admit, announce, claim, confirm, estimate, insist or predict.

#### Exercise 2. Introductory verbs followed by a *that* – clause



77

#### Listen and repeat the sentences.

The manager added that we could help ourselves to coffee and cakes.

He admitted that there was some trouble with the company's branches in Mexico.

Our vice president announced that there would be some changes in our company.

He claimed that he didn't see any other way out of the situation.

The manager confirmed that the company was going through a crisis.

The vice president estimated that around ten employees would be made redundant.

We insisted that the manager should take a stand.

Nobody could have predicted that a quiet meeting would change into such a riot.

 $\square$ 

**78** 

Some introductory verbs are followed by to + the **infinitive**, e.g. the verb **promise** – He **promised** to be on time. Other introductory verbs that take to + the **infinitive** are: **agree**, **offer**, **refuse**, **threaten**, **swear**, **decide** or **claim**.

#### Exercise 3. Introductory verbs followed by the infinitive



**79** 

#### Listen to the sentences, and then finish the sentences in reported speech.

1. 'Ok, we will help you install this game on your computer.'

They agreed to help us install that game on our computer.

They agreed...

2. 'I can walk your dog once a week if you want.'

...

She offered to walk our dog once a week.

She offered...

3. 'I promise I will be back by midnight.'

...

He promised to be back by midnight.

He promised...

4. 'I will not pay for this damage. It was not my fault.'

• • •

He refused to pay for that damage and added that it was not his fault.

He refused...

5. 'Clean up this mess or I will punish you.'

. . .

*She threatened to punish me if I didn't clean up that mess.* 

She threatened...

6. 'I swear I will always love you.'

He swore to always love me.

He swore...

7. 'I have made my decision. I am moving out.'

..

He decided to move out.

He decided...



80

Some introductory verbs are followed by somebody + to + the infinitive or somebody + not to + the infinitive, e.g. the verb ask - He asked me to come back. Other introductory verbs of this type are: beg, command, order, invite, remind, warn, advise, encourage or forbid.

#### Exercise 4. Introductory verbs followed by an object and the infinitive

 $\triangleleft \in$ 

81

Change the sentences into reported speech using the introductory verbs.

1. 'Please, please don't disturb me while I'm working.'

. . .

She begged me not to disturb her while she was working.

to beg

2. 'Stand still until I come back!'

. . .

She ordered <u>us</u> to stand still until he came back.

to order

3. 'Stand to attention!'

. . .

The colonel commanded his soldiers to stand to attention.

to command

4. 'Would you like to come over for a cup of tea?'

. . .

Mrs White invited <u>us</u> to come over for a cup of tea.

to invite

5. 'Don't forget to pay the electricity bill, Sue.'

. . .

She reminded <u>Sue</u> to pay the electricity bill.

to remind

6. 'Don't come too close to the oven, children!'

. . .

She warned the children not to come too close to the oven.

to warn

4

**82** 

Some introductory verbs are followed by the -ing form, e.g. the verb suggest – He suggested swimming in the lake. Other introductory verbs that take the -ing form are: admit (to), accuse somebody of, apologise (to somebody) for, complain (to somebody) of, deny or insist on.

#### Exercise 5. Introductory verbs followed by -ing



83

Report the sentences using the appropriate introductory verbs.

'Yes, I revealed his secret.'

• • •

He admitted (to) revealing his secret.

to admit

2. 'You betrayed me and all my family!'

...

He accused me of **betraying** him and all his family.

to accuse

3. 'I'm sorry I discussed your problems behind your back.'

. . .

He apologised (to me) for discussing my problems behind my back.

to apologise

4. 'I have a huge problem with my teenage daughter.'

...

He complained to me of having a huge problem with his teenage daughter.

to complain

5. 'I didn't use your dictionary.'

. . .

He denied using my dictionary.

to deny

6. 'Let's move on to the next issue.'

..

He suggested moving on to the next issue.

to suggest



84

#### MODAL VERBS change in reported speech as follows:

Direct Speech	Reported Speech
can	could
can	could / would be able to (when it refers to the future)
may	might
shall	should
must	must / had to
needn't	needn't / didn't need to / didn't have to

### **Exercise 6. Reported Speech with modal verbs**



**85** 

#### Report other people's utterances.

1. 'I can't play any instrument.'

. .

He said he couldn't play any instrument.

2. 'I can lend you my car tomorrow.'

. . .

He said he would be able to lend me his car the next day.

3. 'We may meet for coffee later.'

. . .

He said we **might meet** for coffee later.

4. 'You must be there 15 minutes before the others.'

. .

He said I had to be there fifteen minutes before the others.

5. 'You needn't do all the exercises.'

. . .

The teacher told us we didn't need to do all the exercises.

# 9. MODAL VERBS LOGICAL ASSUMPTION / POSSIBILITY / PERMISSION / PROHIBITION

**□**( **86** 

**MODAL VERBS** are not used in the same way as other verbs. They take specific forms giving a special meaning to the verbs that follow them, e.g. *must / can / could / may* or *might* express more or less probable possibility.

Exercise 1.

#### Listen to the dialogue

- A. Have you seen Jenny lately?
- B. No, she must be on holiday. I called her twice but there was no answer.
- A. She can't have gone away. Whenever she leaves, she always asks one of her neighbours to keep an eye on the flat.
- B. So what do you think could have happened? Do you think she might have got ill and they took her to hospital?
- A. No, it can't have been that bad!
- B. I remember her saying she needed a break from it all. She must have been tired because of too much work.
- A. But she wouldn't have left without saying good-bye. Jenny can't have done it.
- B. Well, sometimes people disappear for a while just to be left in peace.
- A. Anyway, it's a bit strange.

**□**( 88

#### **LOGICAL ASSUMPTION** is made when a speaker is sure that something is true.

- We use *must* + the **infinitive** to express a positive deduction about the present, e.g. *Look at their house. They <u>must</u> be very rich.*; and we use *must* + *have* + the **Past Participle** when we refer to the past, e.g. *Nobody opened the door. They <u>must</u> have moved out.*
- We use *can't / couldn't* + the **infinitive** to express a negative deduction about the present, e.g. *They have a very old car. They <u>can't / couldn't</u> be very rich.*; and we use *can't / couldn't + have* + the **Past Participle** when we refer to the past, e.g. *They <u>can't / couldn't have moved out.</u> Try to call them again.*

#### Exercise 2. must / can't / couldn't – logical assumption



89

#### Listen and make logical assumptions about Jenny's disappearance.

1. I'm sure Jenny is on holiday.

...

She must be on holiday.

2. I'm quite positive that she isn't far away from home.

. . .

She can't be far away from home.

3. I don't think she has been taken to hospital.

. . .

She can't have been taken to hospital.

4. I'm almost certain that she was tired because of too much work.

• • •

She must have been tired because of too much work.

5. I'm sure she didn't leave without saying good-bye.

• • •

She can't have left without saying good-bye.



90

To express **POSSIBILITY**, we use *can / could / may* or *might* but it depends on the situation which modal should be used.

- To express general, theoretical possibility, we use *can* + the **infinitive**, e.g. *It <u>can</u> get* really cold in the evening.
- To say that something is possible in a specific situation, we use *could / may / might +* the **infinitive**, e.g. *If it rains later, we <u>could / may / might get wet.</u>*
- To say that something was possible in the past, we use may + have + the **Past Participle**, e.g. *They may have won as they were very good*.
- However, to say that something was possible in the past only theoretically, we use *might / could* + *have* + the **Past Participle**, e.g. *He <u>might / could have got lost but luckily he had a map.</u>*

#### Exercise 3. can / could / may / might – possibility



91

#### Listen to the instructions and express various possibilities.

1. Say that you suspect that they will arrange a surprise party for you.

••

They may arrange a surprise party for me.

2. Say that your parents will possibly invite you over for dinner on Sunday.

. . .

My parents might invite me over for dinner.

3. Say that it is possible to snow heavily in this part of the country.

. . .

It can snow heavily in this part of the country.

4. Say that Peter was able to help you but he didn't.

. . .

Peter could have helped me.

5. Say that it is quite possible that your husband will get promoted.

. . .

My husband can get promoted.

6. Say that it's probable that Mary has already heard the news.

. . .

Mary may have already heard the news.



92

To **ASK FOR PERMISSION** in the present, we use *can / could / may / might / be allowed to* but there are some differences in the use of the verbs.

- Can is used in informal situations when we know the other person very well, e.g. Can I smoke here?
- *Could* and *may* are more polite than *can*, e.g. *May I borrow this newspaper?*
- *Might* is very formal, e.g. *Might I have a look at this report?*
- Be allowed to is used in the situations resulting from formal regulations, e.g. <u>Are</u> passengers allowed to unfasten their seat belts during the flight?

To **GIVE** or **REFUSE PERMISSION**, we use *can / may*.

• *May* is very formal and is not used in everyday speech, e.g. *You* <u>can</u> park here if you like.; but Students may give in their projects till the end of term.

To express **PROHIBITION**, we use *mustn't / can't / isn't (aren't) allowed to*, e.g. You <u>aren't allowed to / mustn't / can't buy</u> alcohol if you are under eighteen.

Exercise 4. can / could / may / might / be allowed to – asking for and giving permission



93

#### Listen to the dialogue.

- A. Are you nervous before the exam?
- B. Oh, yes. Can you give me a cigarette? My hands are shaking.
- A. Well, I'm afraid you are not allowed to smoke in the building.
- B. Oh, right. Could we perhaps move to the hall? I still have ten minutes before the exam starts.
- A. Certainly. May I give you a piece of advice?
- B. Sure.
- C. You can't worry so much as it can influence your performance during the exam.
- A. But I'm sure I'll fail this time.
- B. You mustn't think this way. Be positive!

#### **Exercise 5. Giving and refusing permission / prohibition**



94

#### Listen to the questions asking for permission and give it.

1. Can I phone you after ten?

. . .

Of course, you can phone me any time you want.

2. Are we allowed to bring a dog to this hotel?

. . .

Sure, you can bring a dog to this hotel.

3. Could I have a day off tomorrow?

...

Yes, you could take one day off every two weeks.

#### Now listen to the questions asking for permission and refuse to give it.

4. Can I take pictures inside the castle?

. . .

I'm sorry but visitors are not allowed to take pictures inside the castle.

5. May I use your dictionary for a second?

...

No, I'm afraid you can't use it now.

6. Can employees use this phone for private conversations?

. . .

No, employees **mustn't use** this phone for private conversations.



95

#### To talk about **PERMISSION** or express **PROHIBITION IN THE PAST**, we use:

- was / were allowed to or could to say that something was generally permitted or forbidden, e.g. When we were children, we couldn't / were not allowed to stay out after ten p.m.;
- was / were allowed to for something that was permitted in a particular situation in the past, e.g. Yesterday we were allowed to stay out till midnight.

## Exercise 6. could / was allowed to / were allowed to – permission and prohibition in the past



96

#### Listen and repeat the sentences.

When we were children, we **could eat** as many sweets as we wanted.

When I was a schoolboy, we **couldn't say** a word without a teacher's permission.

My children were always allowed to ask as many questions as they wanted.

When I was a teenager, I wasn't allowed to come back home after ten p.m.

We weren't allowed to leave before the meeting was over yesterday.

He was allowed to take part in our private gathering last Tuesday.

## 10.MODAL VERBS

## NECESSITY / OBLIGATION / DUTY / ABSENCE OF NECESSITY / CRITICISM

4

**97** 

To express **OBLIGATION**, **NECESSITY** or **DUTY** we use different modal verbs such as: *must* / *have to*, *should* / *ought to* and the verb *need*, but the use of the verbs depends on the context.

#### Exercise 1.



98

#### Listen to the dialogue.

- A. I've heard that you have to take your driving test again.
- B. Yes, I've already failed it twice and this time I must pass.
- A. Well, I think you ought to take some more driving lessons.
- B. Yes, you are right. I need to feel more self-confident behind the wheel.
- A. In order to gain more confidence you have to practise. Nothing else will help.
- B. I guess I should find a better instructor as this one keeps shouting at me.
- A. In that case you definitely must find someone else. Every teacher has to be patient.



**99** 

To express **OBLIGATION**, we use *must / have to* but note the differences in the use of the verbs.

- To express obligation resulting from the speaker's confidence that something is necessary, we use *must*, e.g. *I* <u>must</u> *learn* another foreign language. Questions are formed with *must* at the beginning of the sentence, e.g. <u>Must</u> we stay in this hotel?
- To express obligation which comes from external factors not the speaker's feelings, we use have to / has to, e.g. The teacher told me that I have to bring my parents to school. Questions with have to / has to are formed with auxiliary verbs, e.g. Do you have to be here?
- The verb *must* is only used in the present. To talk about the future, we use *will have to*, e.g. *Tomorrow I will have to talk to my boss about a pay rise.* To talk about the past, we use *had to*, e.g. We <u>had to</u> take a very important decision yesterday.

#### Exercise 2. must / have to – obligation and duty



100

#### Listen and repeat the sentences.

I **must help** my elderly parents.

**Must** you always **interfere** in my affairs?

My husband **has to find** another job to make ends meet.

#### **Do** I have to repeat it over and over again?

Tomorrow you will have to come to work earlier.

Last week we had to cancel two appointments because of lack of time.



101

To express **NECESSITY**, we use the verb *need*, which can be a modal or a main verb, e.g. *She needs to start economising*. As a modal, the verb *need* is mainly used in questions and negations, e.g. *Need* we *bring* our own alcohol?

To express **DUTY** or **WEAK OBLIGATION**, we use *should / ought to* e.g. *Older children should / ought to take care of the younger ones*. Questions are formed with *should / ought* at the beginning of the sentence, e.g. *Should I help you? / Ought I to help you?* 

#### Exercise 3. *must / have to / need* – practice



102

#### Express obligation, duty or necessity of doing something using the given clues.

1. His parents have ordered him to wash up before he leaves.

...

He has to wash up before he leaves.

2. I really feel it is my obligation to warn him before it's too late.

. . .

I must warn him before it's too late.

3. It is necessary for you to understand the cause of this problem.

. . .

You need to understand the cause of this problem.

4. I think it is necessary for him to go away for some time.

. . .

He needs to go away for some time.

5. Is it necessary for me to arrive before the other guests?

. . .

**Need I arrive** before the other guests?

6. He isn't sure whether it's his duty to reply to this letter.

. . .

**Should** he **reply** to this letter? / **Ought** he **to reply** to this letter?

**□**(€

103

To express **LACK OF NECESSITY**, we use the negative forms of the verb *need*.

- When we refer to the present, we use *needn't / don't have to / don't need to* + the **infinitive**, e.g. You <u>needn't</u> worry. / You <u>don't have to</u> worry. / You <u>don't need to</u> worry.
- When we refer to the past, we use *didn't need to / didn't have to +* the **infinitive**, e.g. *She <u>didn't need to / didn't have to hurry up. There was plenty of time.*</u>

#### Exercise 4. needn't | don't have to | don't need to



104

Say what isn't or wasn't necessary to do using the given expressions.

1. It isn't necessary for Matt to hire another person. We can do the extra work.

needn't

...

Matt needn't hire another person.

2. I don't think it's necessary for you to wait any longer. We will call you later.

don't have to

. . .

You don't have to wait any longer.

3. Stop crying. We will think of a way out of the situation.

don't need to

...

You don't need to cry.

4. Steve has no reason to go bankrupt. He will get a loan at the bank.

doesn't need to

...

Steve doesn't need to go bankrupt.

5. Luckily, we had a spare bed to put you up.

You didn't have to spend a night at the hotel.

didn't have to

6. Fortunately, the child was found before we informed the police.

. . .

We didn't need to inform the police.

didn't need to

Note that we use two constructions with the verb **NEED** to talk about something that wasn't necessary in the past but there is a significant difference in meaning and be careful not to mistake them.

- To say that something <u>did not happen</u> in the past because it was not necessary, we use *didn't need to*, e.g. *He* <u>didn't need to call</u> the ambulance as I took him to hospital in my car.
- To say that something <u>happened</u> in the past, even though it was not necessary, we use *needn't* + *have* + the **Past Participle** e.g. You <u>needn't have bought</u> so much butter. We have five packets in the fridge.

#### Exercise 5. needn't have done and didn't need to do



106

Listen to the situations and repeat sentences saying what people didn't have to do or what they did unnecessarily.

I told you not to buy so much bread. What shall we do with it now?

You needn't have bought so much of it.

Thank you for booking the tickets but I could have done it myself.

You needn't have booked them.

Fred knew about my decision so it wasn't necessary for you to inform him.

You **needn't have informed** him about my decision.

Mary went abroad to buy her lap-top but I found exactly the same model in the shop nearby.

Mary **needn't have gone** abroad to buy it.

He thought he would have to travel to Spain but they cancelled the meeting.

He didn't need to travel to Spain.

Why did you drive to the airport? I told you I would pick her up.

You needn't have driven to the airport.



**107** 

To express **CRITICISM** or **DISAPPROVAL** of something that someone did in the past, we use could / should / might / ought to + have + the **Past Participle**, e.g. He could / should / might / ought to have warned me earlier. Why didn't he?

To make a **SUGGESTION** about someone's behaviour or give someone a piece of **ADVICE**, we use *could / should / might / ought to +* the **infinitive**, e.g. *You <u>could / might / should / ought to tell your friends not to be so noisy*.</u>

#### Exercise 6. Modal verbs expressing advice or criticism



108

Criticise people's past actions or suggest what they do now or in the future using the given modal verb.

Why didn't you phone the police? It was an emergency!
 ...
 You should have phoned the police.

 If she hadn't arrived so late we wouldn't have missed the beginning of the film.
 ...
 She could have arrived earlier.

 I really don't understand why you didn't tell me about the incident.
 ...
 You ought to have told me about the incident.

 Why didn't you send any postcards while you were in Greece?
 ...
 You might have sent us some postcards.

 I want us to stop fighting in front of the children.
 should

6. Why don't we order a takeaway for the evening?

We **should stop** fighting in front of the children.

• • •

We might order a takeaway for the evening.

might

## 11.RELATIVE CLAUSES

**RELATIVE CLAUSES** are introduced with relative pronouns *who, whom, which, whose, that* or relative adverbs *when, where, why.* 

Exercise 1.



110

#### Listen to the dialogue.

- A. I heard that your daughter has moved out.
- B. Yes, Angie went to Manchester, where she hopes to find a job as an air-hostess.
- A. Where is she staying?
- B. She's moved in with a girl whom she met via the Internet.
- A. I can't see the reason why she didn't look for a job here, in London.
- B. I guess she wanted to be closer to the boy that she met on her last holiday.
- A. Which boy? The one who visited you here last Christmas and whose father is a pilot?
- B. Yes, Mark Spencer. Last June was when they first met and it seems they are in love.
- A. Well, say hello to your daughter when you see her.

**□**( 111

- We use **WHO** / **WHOM** to refer to people, e.g. That's <u>the man</u> who lives next door. / That's <u>the girl</u> whom I wanted you to meet.
- We use **WHICH** to refer to objects or animals, e.g. *I found* <u>a wallet</u> **which** was full of *US* dollars.
- We use **THAT** to refer to people, objects or animals, e.g. *This is the <u>woman</u>* that I told you about. / That's the car that I'm going to buy.
- We use **WHOSE** instead of possessive adjectives (*my*, *your* etc.) with people, objects and animals in order to show possession, e.g. *This is the man whose daughter has been chosen Miss Ontario*.

Exercise 2. Relative clauses with who / whom / whose / which / that



112

#### Listen and repeat the sentences.

My friend is a person **who** always thinks positively.

This is the actress **that** has won two Oscars.

I forgot the papers which you asked me to bring for today.

He bought a painting **that** once belonged to the Royal Family.

This is the man whom I once saw in your wife's office.

That's the house **whose** owner committed suicide last week.

( 113

If relative pronouns are used with prepositions, e.g. **TO WHICH / ABOUT WHOM**, we form the relative clauses in two ways:

- This is the boy about whom I told you. / This is the boy (who) I told you about.
- These are the places to which we travelled. / These are the places (which) we travelled to.

Note that relative pronouns can be omitted when they are the object of the relative clause, that is when there is a noun or a subject pronoun between the relative pronoun and the verb, e.g. *This is* the boy I told you about. / These are the places we travelled to.

#### Exercise 3. Prepositions with whom and which



114

#### Transform the given sentences using preposition with whom or which.

1. This is the man I wrote about in my last book.

..

This is the man about whom I wrote in my last book.

2. Helen must be the woman you had an affair with last summer.

..

Helen must be the woman with whom you had an affair last summer.

3. Tom is an old friend I haven't talked to for years.

. .

Tom is an old friend to whom I haven't talked for years.

4. This is the reason I came here for.

. . .

This is the reason for which I came here.

5. The house where Steve lives is on the outskirts of the city.

. . .

The house in which Steve lives is on the outskirts of the city.

6. Alcatraz is the prison you will never escape from.

. . .

Alcatraz is the prison from which you will never escape.

4

115

To talk about quantity, we use *all | most | some | a few | half | none | two* etc. + **OF WHOM** for people and **OF WHICH** for objects and animals, e.g. *I met many foreigners*, *some of whom spoke Polish. | I found many sea shells*, *some of which had strange shapes*.

#### Exercise 4. Quantity structures with of whom / of which



116

#### Join the given sentences in one relative clause.

1. My cat gave birth to three kittens. Two of them are black.

...

My cat gave birth to three kittens, two of which are black.

2. Ted has five children. All of them are girls.

. . .

Ted has <u>five children</u>, **all of whom** are girls.

3. My husband has had five jobs. None of them was satisfying.

• • •

My husband has had five jobs, none of which was satisfying.

4. She won a lot of money and she gave it all away to the poor.

...

She won a lot of money, all of which she gave away to the poor.

5. I get on well with my co-workers. A few of them are my close friends.

. . .

I get on well with my co-workers, a few of whom are my close friends.

6. Paul collects old furniture. Some of it he bought at the flea market.

Paul collects old <u>furniture</u>, **some of which** he bought at the flea market.



117

Relative clauses are also introduced with relative adverbs where / when / why.

- We use **WHERE** to refer to place, usually after nouns like *place*, *house*, *street*, *town* and *country*, e.g. *The place where we live is very quiet*. It can be replaced by *which* / *that* + the **preposition** and in this case *which* / *that* can be omitted, e.g. *The place* (*which* / *that*) *we live in is very quiet*.
- We use **WHEN** to refer to time, usually after nouns like *time*, *moment*, *period*, *day* and *summer*. It can either be replaced by *that* or can be omitted, e.g. *June was the month* (*when / that*) *they met*.
- We use **WHY** to give reasons, usually after the word *reason*. It can either be replaced by *that* or can be omitted, e.g. *Steve's sense of humour was the reason* (*why*) *everybody liked him*.

#### Exercise 5. Relative adverbs where / when / why



118

Listen and repeat the pairs of sentences, one with a relative adverb and the other with a relative pronoun *that*.

New Zealand is the country where my grandparents live.

New Zealand is the country that my grandparents live in.

Los Angeles is the city **where** my brother was born.

Los Angeles is the city that my brother was born in.

2002 was the year when Robert got his diploma.

2002 was the year that Robert got his diploma.

June is the month **when** we will go on our honeymoon.

June is the month **that** we will go on our honeymoon.

Our neighbour was the reason why we moved out.

Our neighbour was the reason that we moved out.

My headache is the reason why I'm so sad.

My headache is the reason that I'm so sad.

**□**( 119

There are two types of relative clauses: **identifying clauses** and **non-identifying clauses**.

- **Identifying clauses** give necessary information which is essential to the meaning of the main sentence. They are not put in commas, e.g. *The man who is following us must be a private detective.*
- **Non-identifying clauses** give extra information which is not essential to the meaning of the main sentence. They <u>are</u> put in commas, e.g. *This new pub*, <u>where we met yesterday</u>, is owned by an Irish family.

Pay attention to the construction in which we use **which** to refer back to a whole clause, e.g. *Eve* often goes out in the evenings, **which** worries her parents. **Which** refers here to the fact that she often goes out.

#### **Exercise 6. Non-identifying relative clauses**



120

#### Listen to the sentences and then join them using non-identifying clauses.

1. My mum hates pizza. She never goes to an Italian restaurant.

My mum, who hates pizza, never goes to an Italian restaurant.

2. Our family room is very cosy. We spend most of our free time there.

Our family room, where we spend most of our free time, is very nice and cosy.

3. You met Mr Brown yesterday. He will work for us.

. . .

Mr Brown, whom you met yesterday, will work for us.

4. My new neighbour needs help. Her car was stolen yesterday.

• •

My new neighbour, whose car was stolen yesterday, needs help.

5. The Whites arrived half an hour late. That was quite rude.

. . .

The Whites arrived half an hour late, which was quite rude.

6. Mary invited a clown for her son's birthday party. It was an excellent idea.

..

Mary invited a clown for her son's birthday party, which was an excellent idea.

# 12.CLAUSES OF CONTRAST CLAUSES OF REASON / CLAUSES OF RESULT / CLAUSES OF PURPOSE

Exercise 1.



121

#### Listen to the story.

Although Angela had known Harry for five months only, she knew they were meant for each other. Despite the fact that her family and friends warned her not to hurry, she decided to marry him. Harry was gentle and caring, yet he seemed to have a lot on his mind as he was often away on business. Angela felt very lonely as she didn't like to go out on her own. Consequently, she spent evenings at home, sitting in front of the TV and missing her fiancé very much. One evening she called Harry at his hotel room in order to wish him good night.

After a few seconds someone picked up the phone. She heard a female voice. Angela was so shocked that she hung up the receiver. She left the house with a view to running to her parents. However, after a while she stopped. Despite feeling desperate, she managed to calm down and went back home. When she opened the door, she saw Harry sitting in his armchair. He came to her, smiled and explained he had come back two days early just because he missed her so much.



122

#### **CLAUSES OF CONTRAST** are used to express a contrast. They are introduced with:

- **but**, e.g. *Ian is a good violinist but he's a poor teacher.*
- although / even though / though + a clause, e.g. Although / Even though / Though she's nice, nobody likes her.
- in spite of / despite + the noun / the -ing form, e.g. In spite of / Despite the rain, we went out.
- in spite of the fact that / despite the fact that + a clause, e.g. In spite of / Despite the fact that it was raining, we went out.
- however / nevertheless, e.g. The water in this lake is dirty. However / Nevertheless, we all bathe in it.
- while / whereas, e.g. My sister is good at English while / whereas I have trouble with it.
- yet / still, e.g. Frank left the party late, yet / still he managed to get home before midnight.
- **on the other hand**, e.g. Mary is very patient. **On the other hand**, she can be moody at times.

#### **Exercise 2. Clauses of contrast**



123

#### Transform the sentences using the given expressions.

1. I love pizza. However, I can't eat it too often.

...

Despite the fact that I love pizza, I can't eat it too often.

Despite the fact...

2. Mary is a very patient mother but she sometimes loses her temper.

. . .

In spite of being a patient mother, Mary sometimes loses her temper.

In spite of...

3. I cleaned the whole house. My brother only did the vacuuming.

...

I cleaned the entire house whereas my brother only did the vacuuming.

whereas...

4. Although we practised every day, we didn't win the competition.

...

We practised every day, yet we didn't win the competition.

yet...

5. I spent a lot of money. However, I didn't buy everything I wanted.

. . .

**Despite** spending a lot of money, I didn't buy everything I wanted.

Despite...

6. Even though the day was cold, we took a swim in the river.

. . .

The day was quite cold. **Nevertheless**, we took a swim in the river.

Nevertheless, ...



124

**CLAUSES OF REASON** are used to express the reason for something. They are introduced with:

- **because** / **as** / **since**, e.g. Mary felt lonely **because** / **since** / **as** she didn't know anybody there.
- the reason for + the noun / the -ing form, e.g. The reason for my absence was that I had a cold. / The reason for our breaking up was that he lied to me.
- the reason why + a clause, e.g. The reason why they were late was that they missed their bus.
- because of / on account of / due to / owing to + the noun, e.g. The whole school was evacuated because of / on account of / due to / owing to the bomb scare.
- because of the fact that / on account of the fact that / due to the fact that / owing to the fact that + a clause, e.g. The whole school was evacuated because of / on account of / due to / owing to the fact that there was a bomb scare.

#### Exercise 3. Clauses of reason



125

Answer the questions using the given expressions. After each question you will hear a possible answer.

1. Why do you do so many English exercises?

. . .

The reason why I do so many English exercises is that I want to speak English fluently.

The reason why...

2. Why do many young people leave their parents' home?

. . .

Many young people leave their parents' home **as** they want to be independent.

as...

3. Why are mobile phones so popular?

. . .

Mobile phones are so popular **owing to the fact** that they are very useful.

owing to the fact that...

4. Why was the open-air concert of your favourite band cancelled?

. . .

The concert was cancelled **due to** the bad weather.

due to...

5. Why are you going to get a divorce?

. . .

The reason for our divorce is that we fight too often.

The reason for...

6. Why were the kids wearing funny costumes?

The kids were wearing funny costumes on account of a fancy-dress party.

on account of...



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**CLAUSES OF RESULT** are used to express the result of something. They are introduced with:

- as a result / therefore / consequently / as a consequence, e.g. The world is getting more and more polluted. As a result / Therefore / Consequently / As a consequence, many animals are dying out.
- so, e.g. It was freezing cold, so I dressed warmly.
- so + an adjective / an adverb, e.g. The car was so <u>expensive</u> that we gave up the idea of buying it.
- such a / an + an adjective + a singular countable noun, e.g. It was such a hot day that we decided to go to the beach.

- such + an adjective + a plural / uncountable noun, e.g. The teacher gave us such complicated homework to do (that) few students knew how to do it.
- so much / little + an uncountable noun, e.g. We had so much furniture (that) we decided to hire a van.
- so many / few + an uncountable noun, e.g. There were so many people at the party (that) extra chairs had to be put at the table.

#### **Exercise 4. Clauses of result**



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#### Listen and repeat the sentences.

It was raining heavily all night. As a result, many houses were flooded.

Today computers are replacing people at work. Therefore, many people are losing their jobs.

Peter was speeding on his way home. Consequently, he got a ticket.

We've had no rain for weeks now. As a consequence, many fires are breaking out.

I'll be eighteen soon so I have decided to have a huge party.

Joe was **so rude** to me **that** I won't ever speak to him again.

I spent such a fantastic evening that I want us to meet again soon.

We had such heavy luggage that we asked a porter to help us carry it.



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**CLAUSES OF PURPOSE** are used to express the purpose of an action. They are introduced with:

- **to** + the **infinitive**, e.g. *I came here to tell you something*.
- in order to / so as to + the infinitive, e.g. I went to the post office in order to / so as to send a parcel.
- for + a noun / the -ing form, e.g. He popped in for <u>a chat</u>. / She bought new shoes for <u>dancing</u>.
- with a view to + the -ing form, e.g. She took some leaflets with a view to reading them later.

#### **Exercise 5. Clauses of purpose**



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#### Listen to the situations and express them in one sentence using the given clues.

1. Paul came all the way from London. He wants to tell you he loves you.

to...

• • •

Paul came all the way from London to tell you he loves you.

2. She wrote this letter because she wanted to reveal her secret to someone.

in order to...

. . .

She wrote this letter in order to reveal her secret to someone.

3. Mike hid away because he didn't want to be arrested.

. . .

Mike hid away in order not to be arrested.

in order not to...

4. Mary took her driving test. She wanted to drive her children to school.

. . .

Mary took her driving test so as to be able to drive her children to school.

so as to...

5. My sister lied because she didn't want to be punished.

...

My sister lied so as not to be punished.

so as not to...

6. I need a good brush. I must paint my old furniture.

..

I need a good brush for painting my old furniture.

for...

7. Carol bought a huge caravan. She wants to travel around the world.

...

Carol bought a huge caravan with a view to travelling around the world.

with a view to...

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We use the other constructions to express purpose depending on the time they refer to:

- so that + can / will when we refer to the present or future, e.g. I have come here so that I can relax a bit.
- so that + could / would when we refer to the past, e.g. Stella bought a bike so that she could lose some weight.
- in case + the Present Simple when we refer to the present or future, e.g. Take a sweater in case it gets cold.
- in case + the Past Simple when we refer to the past, e.g. We took some more food in case more people joined us for dinner.

#### **Exercise 6. Clauses of purpose – practice**



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#### Join the sentences using the given expressions.

1. Joe bought some wine. He thought his wife would want to invite guests for supper.

...

Joe bought some wine **in case** his wife wanted to invite guests for supper.

in case...

so that...

I will take an anorak because it may start raining.

 I will take an anorak in case it starts raining.

 I have the key. It's possible that my parents won't be at home.

 I have the key in case my parents aren't at home.

 John has found a better job. He wants to make more money.

 John has found a better job so that he can make more money.

 My grandma moved to Brighton because she wanted to be closer to us.

 My grandma moved to Brighton so that she could be closer to us.

6. I've changed my phone number because I don't want Tom to call me.

...

I've changed my phone number so that Tom can't call me.

## **GRAMMAR SUMMARY**

## **CONDITIONALS. TYPES: 0, 1, 2**

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**CONDITIONAL SENTENCES** are used to describe activities dependent on meeting certain conditions. They are usually introduced with the linking word *if* meaning *on condition that*.

- **TYPE 0 CONDITIONALS** are used to express a general truth or a scientific fact. We use the **Present Simple** in both the main clause and the *if*-clause, and *if* can be replaced with *when* meaning *whenever*, e.g. *If* / *When I sleep*, *I need silence*.
- **TYPE 1 CONDITIONALS** are used to express real or very probable situations in the present or future. We use *if* +the **Present Simple**, and the **Future Simple** in the main clause, e.g. *If* you don't try, you will regret it.
  - The linking word *if* can be replaced with: *providing*, *provided* (*that*), *on condition* (*that*) or *as long as. Unless* means *if not* and is always used with the affirmative verb, e.g. *Unless you try*, *you will regret it*.
- Instead of the **Future Simple** in the main clause of **TYPE 1 CONDITIONALS**, we can use the **imperative**, e.g. *If you hear something suspicious*, <u>call</u> the police. or a modal verb: **can / could / may / might / must / should** + the **infinitive**, e.g. *If you don't take a raincoat*, you <u>may get</u> soaked.
- **TYPE 2 CONDITIONALS** are used to express imaginary situations, unreal things or things unlikely to happen in the present or future. We use *if* + the **Past Simple**, and *would* / *could* / *might* + the **infinitive** in the main clause, e.g. *If we had more money, we would live in a house with a garden.*

We can use were instead of was for all persons in the if-clause, e.g. If I were you, I wouldn't do it.

## **TYPE 3 CONDITIONAL & MIXED CONDITIONALS**



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• TYPE 3 CONDITIONALS are used to express imaginary situations which are contrary to facts in the past, and to express discontent or regret for what happened. We use *if* + the **Past Perfect**, and *would* / *could* / *might* + *have* + the **Past Participle** in the main clause, e.g. *If we had known your address, we would have come round*.

We can make combinations of conditional sentences according to the context.

- The **TYPE 3 + 2 MIXED CONDITIONAL** expresses a hypothetical condition in the past and its result in the present. We use *if* + the **Past Perfect**, and *would / could / might* + the **infinitive** in the main clause, e.g. *If you had gone to the doctor, you would feel better now*.
- The **TYPE 2 + 3 MIXED CONDITIONAL** expresses a hypothetical situation in the present and its result in the past. We use *if* + the **Past Simple**, and *would* + *have* + the **Past Participle** in the main clause, e.g. *If he had enough money, he would have bought a better car*.

In conditional sentences, we can use **INVERSION** and omit *if*. Then we use:

- *should* before the subject in type 1 Conditional, e.g. <u>Should you</u> need money, don't hesitate to tell us.:
- were before the subject in type 2 Conditional, e.g. Were she less shy, she would get this job.;
- *had* before the subject in type 3 Conditional, e.g. <u>Had I</u> known the truth, I wouldn't have helped him.

## UNREAL TIME WISH / IF ONLY / SUPPOSE / SUPPOSING



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We use the verb **WISH** and the expressions: **IF ONLY**, **SUPPOSE** / **SUPPOSING** to express a wish about a present or past situation or to talk about imaginary, unreal or improbable situations which are contrary to the facts in the present or the past. Remember that with these expressions, the grammatical tenses are used in a similar way to types 2 and 3 conditionals.

- To express a wish about a present situation, we use WISH / IF ONLY + the Simple Past, e.g. I wish / If only I had a brother. We can use were instead of was after wish / if only, e.g. I wish I (he / she / it) was / were taller. Remember that wish and if only have a similar meaning; however, if only is more emphatic than I wish.
- To express an assumption about a present situation, we use **SUPPOSE** / **SUPPOSING** + the **Simple Past**, e.g. *Suppose* / *Supposing he lived with us*.
- To express regret or an assumption about something that did or did not happen in the past, we use WISH / IF ONLY / SUPPOSE / SUPPOSING + the Past Perfect, e.g. *I wish I hadn't bought this car*.
- To express a kind imperative or a wish for a change in the situation or someone's behaviour because we are irritated or annoyed by it, we use **WISH / IF ONLY** + would, e.g. I wish you would stop smoking. After the subject pronouns I / we, we use could instead of would, e.g. I wish I / we could go with you.
- To express an assumption about a situation in the future, we use **SUPPOSE** / **SUPPOSING** + the **Present Simple**, e.g. *Suppose* / *supposing* he *gets* caught at the border, what will we do?

## UNREAL TIME IT'S (HIGH) TIME / IT'S (ABOUT) TIME / AS IF / AS THOUGH

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The other constructions that are used to refer to the unreal present are: IT'S (HIGH) TIME / IT'S (ABOUT) TIME and AS IF / AS THOUGH. Remember that with these expressions, the grammatical tenses are used in a similar way to types 2 and 3 conditionals.

- To express a wish for a change in the situation or someone's behaviour, we can also use the expression IT'S (HIGH) TIME / IT'S (ABOUT) TIME + the Past Simple, e.g. It's (high) time you grew up.
- To make a comparison which refers to an untrue situation in the present, we use AS IF / AS THOUGH + the Past Simple, e.g. You look as if you were dead.
   Just as with the other structures of this type, after the subject pronouns I / he / she / it, we can use were instead of was, e.g. She behaves as if she were an actress.
- However, to make a comparison which is true, we use **AS IF / AS THOUGH** + the **Present Simple**, e.g. *You look as if you are ill*.

## **WOULD RATHER**



We use **WOULD RATHER** to express preferences and wishes The form of the verb that follows *would rather* depends on to whom the subject's preferences refer.

- To express preferences of the person who is the subject of both would rather and the main clause, we use WOULD RATHER + the infinitive, e.g. <u>I'd</u> rather go now than stay here. and WOULD RATHER + have + the Past Participle when we refer to the past, e.g. <u>I</u> would rather have sold this bike last week.
- To express preferences, wishes or regret referring to another person in the present, we use WOULD RATHER + the subject + the Past Simple, e.g. <u>I</u> would rather <u>she</u> lived on Mars.; and we use WOULD RATHER + the subject + the Past Perfect when we refer to the past, e.g. <u>I</u> would rather <u>you</u> had come with me yesterday. In these sentences, the subject of would rather is different from the subject of the main clause.

## PREFER / WOULD PREFER

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Preferences can be also expressed with the verb **PREFER**. The form of the verb that follows *prefer* depends on the type of preference we are talking about.

- To express general preferences, we use **PREFER** + the *ing* form + *to* + the *ing* form, e.g. *I prefer writing e-mails to writing letters*. or we can use **PREFER** + *to* + the **infinitive** + *rather than* + the **infinitive**, e.g. *I prefer to cycle to work rather than go by bus*. It means that I generally prefer writing e-mails and cycling to work, not only today.
- To express specific preferences, we use **WOULD PREFER** + to + the **infinitive** + rather than + (the **infinitive**), e.g. I would prefer to eat something sweet <u>rather than</u> (eat) a sandwich. It means that I'd like to have something sweet now, and it refers only to the present situation.

### THE PASSIVE VOICE



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**THE PASSIVE VOICE** is used when the action itself is more important than the person / people who are doing it, or they are unknown, unimportant or obvious from the context.

• To form the **Passive**, we use the verb *to be* in the appropriate form + the **Past Participle**. Note how the forms are changed into the **Passive** in the following tenses:

<b>Grammar Tense</b>	The Active Form	The Passive Form
<b>Present Simple</b>	He combs his hair every day.	His hair <b>is combed</b> every day.
<b>Present Continuous</b>	He is combing his hair now.	His hair is being combed now.
<b>Present Perfect</b>	He has just combed his hair.	His hair <u>has</u> just <u>been</u> combed.
Past Simple	He combed his hair.	His hair was combed.
<b>Past Continuous</b>	He was combing his hair.	His hair was being combed.
Past Perfect	He had combed his hair.	His hair <b>had been combed</b> .
<b>Future Simple</b>	He will comb his hair.	His hair will be combed.
<b>Future Perfect</b>	He will have combed his hair.	His hair will have been combed.
to be going to	He is going to comb his hair.	His hair <b>is going to be combed</b> .

• To form **THE PASSIVE WITH A MODAL VERB**, we use a **modal** + **be** + the **Past Participle**, e.g. *Teeth must be brushed regularly*.

## THE PASSIVE WITH THE PREPOSISION BY / WITH

The subject of the active sentence becomes the agent, and is either introduced with the preposition **BY** or is omitted. Remember not to mistake it for the preposition **WITH**, which is also used in the **Passive** but has a different meaning.

- To say who or what carries out the action, we use **BY** + the agent, e.g. *Dinner was prepared* <u>by</u> *his mother*.
- To say what the agent uses to carry out the action, we use **WITH** + an instrument / material / ingredient, e.g. *The meat was cut with a sharp knife*.
- **WITH** is also used after some past participles, e.g. *coloured, crowded, filled* or *packed*, e.g. *The corridor was crowded with people*.

## SPECIAL USES OF THE VERB FORMS IN THE PASSIVE

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Pay attention to some special uses of the verb forms in the Passive.

• With some verbs like **BRING**, **TELL**, **SEND**, **SHOW**, **TEACH**, **PROMISE** or **GIVE** that can take two objects in the Active, we form the Passive in two different ways, e.g.

I promised <u>her</u> <u>a nice surprise</u>.

She was promised a nice surprise.

or <u>A nice surprise</u> was promised to her.

• The verbs **HEAR**, **HELP**, **SEE** and **MAKE** are followed by the **bare infinitive** in the Active, but they take the **to-infinitive** in the Passive, e.g.

I saw him <u>steal</u> this wallet. — He was seen to steal this wallet.

• The verbs **SEE**, **HEAR** and **WATCH** which are used with the *-ing* **form** in the Active, are also used with the *-ing* **form** in the Passive, e.g.

I saw them <u>kissing</u> — They were seen <u>kissing</u>.

The verbs LET becomes be allowed to in the Passive, e.g.
 My parents <u>let</u> me go camping. I was allowed to go camping.

• To express the need to repair or improve something, we use the **Passive** construction with the verb **NEED** + *to be* + the **Past Participle** or **NEED** + the **ing form**, e.g.

We need to feed the dog.

The dog needs to be fed.

The dog needs feeding.

## THE PASSIVE VOICE WITH REPORTING VERBS

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The verbs **THINK**, **BELIEVE**, **SAY**, **REPORT**, **KNOW** and **EXPECT** form personal and impersonal constructions in the Passive to express a general opinion or an assumption. Pay attention to the use of the verb forms in these constructions.

• If they refer to the present or future, we use the corresponding tense in the impersonal construction and the present infinitive in the personal construction, e.g.

People think that Mrs Brown is having an affair.

It is thought (that) Mrs Brown is having an affair.

Mrs Brown is thought to be having an affair.

• If they refer to the past, we use the corresponding tense in the impersonal construction and the perfect infinitive in the personal construction, e.g.

People say that Mr Brown sold his collection last week.

It is said (that) Mr Brown sold his collection Mr Brown last week. Mr Brown

Mr Brown is said to have sold his collection

### **CAUSATIVE HAVE**



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To say that we have arranged for someone to do something for us, we use the construction **HAVE** + the **object** + the **Past Participle**, e.g. *I had my watch repaired*.

- We can use the verb **GET** instead of *have* in informal conversation, e.g. *I will have / get* <u>my</u> <u>car polished</u>.
- We also use **CAUSATIVE HAVE** to talk about an unpleasant experience that someone had, e.g. *I had my car broken into last night*.
- Note how the forms are changed with **CAUSATIVE HAVE** in the following tenses:

<b>Grammar Tense</b>		Causative Form
<b>Present Simple</b>	He repairs his car.	He <b>has</b> his car <b>repaired</b> .
<b>Present Continuous</b>	He is repairing his car.	He is having his car repaired.
Past Simple	He repaired his car.	He <b>had</b> his car <b>repaired</b> .
<b>Past Continuous</b>	He was repairing his car.	He was having his car repaired.
<b>Future Simple</b>	He will repair his car.	He will have his car repaired.
<b>Future Continuous</b>	He will be repairing his car.	He will be having his car repaired.
<b>Present Perfect</b>	He has repaired his car.	He <b>has had</b> his car <b>repaired</b> .
<b>Present Perfect Cont.</b>	He has been repairing his car.	He has been having his car repaired.
Past Perfect	He had repaired his car.	He had had his car repaired.
Past Perfect Cont.	He had been repairing his car.	He had been having his car repaired.
Infinitive	He can repair his car.	He can have his car repaired.
-ing form	He hates repairing his car.	He hates having his car repaired.

## REPORTED SPEECH



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**REPORTED SPEECH** is used to report people's utterances. When we report someone's words a long time after they were said, we use the introductory verb in the past simple and change the tense, e.g. the sentence: *I am very sorry*. will be reported: *He said he was very sorry*.

• The tenses in **reported speech** change as follows:

Direct Speech	Reported Speech
Present Simple	Past Simple
Present Continuous	Past Continuous
Present Perfect	Past Perfect
Present Perfect Continuous	Past Perfect Continuous
Past Simple	Past Simple or Past Perfect
Past Continuous	Past Continuous or Past Perfect Continuous
Future (will)	Future in the Past (would)

Note that the **past perfect** and the **past perfect continuous** remain the same in reporting speech.

• Certain words and time expressions change according to the meaning in **reported speech**.

now	then	two years ago	two years before
today	that day	this	that
tonight	that night	these	those
yesterday	the day before	here	there
last month	the previous month	come	go
next week	the following week	bring	take

• MODAL VERBS change in reported speech as follows:

Direct Speech	Reported Speech
can	could
can	could / would be able to (when it refers to the future)
may	might
shall	should
must	must / had to
needn't	needn't / didn't need to / didn't have to

## QUESTIONS / COMMANDS / INSTRUCTIONS IN REPORTED SPEECH

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- To report **QUESTIONS** beginning with a question word like *what*, *where*, *how*, etc., we use the same question word, change the verb tense, pronouns and time expressions and use the word order as in statements, e.g.
  - Where do they live? 

    I asked where they lived.
- To report **COMMANDS** or **INSTRUCTIONS** in the *imperative* we use the introductory verbs, e.g. *He told me..., She asked me..., He ordered me...* + *to* + the **infinitive** *or not to* + the **infinitive**, e.g.

Help me, please.  $\longrightarrow$  She asked me to help her.

*Don't leave me.* → *He begged me not to leave him.* 

• To report **GENERAL QUESTIONS** beginning with an auxiliary verb like *be*, *do*, *have* etc., we use *if* or *whether*, change the verb tense, pronouns and time expressions and use the word order as in statements, e.g.

Do you live here?  $\rightarrow$  I asked <u>if</u> / <u>whether</u> she <u>lived</u> <u>there</u>.

## REPORTED SPEECH



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#### The verb forms remain the same in reported speech if:

- the introductory verb is used in the Present Simple, Future or Present Perfect, e.g. *I love thrillers.*  $\longrightarrow$  *He says (that) he loves thrillers.*
- we report someone's words a short time after they were said, e.g.

  We don't need any more juice. 

  They said (that) they don't need any more juice.
- we report the 2 or 3 type conditional sentence, e.g.
   If she knew the truth, she would be unhappy.
   Ken said that if she knew the truth, she would be unhappy.

Note that when reporting a general truth or law of nature, the verb form can be changed or remain the same, e.g. *The sun rises in the east.* The teacher said (that) the sun rose / rises in the east.

## REPORTED SPEECH – INTRODUCTORY VERBS

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We use different **INTRODUCTORY VERBS** when we report people's words. They are followed by different constructions depending on the verb, e.g. *He complained that he had a toothache*. or *He complained about having a toothache*.

- Some introductory verbs are followed by *that* + the **clause**, e.g. the verb *explain She explained that the headmaster would be back soon*. Other introductory verbs that take *that* + the **clause** are: *add*, *admit*, *announce*, *claim*, *confirm*, *estimate*, *insist* or *predict*.
- Some introductory verbs are followed by *to* + the **infinitive**, e.g. the verb *promise He promised to be on time*. Other introductory verbs that take *to* + the **infinitive** are: *agree*, *offer*, *refuse*, *threaten*, *swear*, *decide* or *claim*.
- Some introductory verbs are followed by **somebody** + **to** + the **infinitive** or **somebody** + **not to** + the **infinitive**, e.g. the verb **ask He asked** <u>me to come back</u>. Other introductory verbs of this type are: **beg**, **command**, **order**, **invite**, **remind**, **warn**, **advise**, **encourage** or **forbid**.
- Some introductory verbs are followed by the -ing form, e.g. the verb suggest He suggested swimming in the lake. Other introductory verbs that take the -ing form are: admit (to), accuse somebody of, apologise (to somebody) for, complain (to somebody) of, deny or insist on.

#### **MODAL VERBS: POSSIBILITY**



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**MODAL VERBS** are not used in the same way as other verbs. They take specific forms giving a special meaning to the verbs that follow them. To express **POSSIBILITY**, we use **CAN** / **COULD** / **MAY** or **MIGHT** but it depends on the situation which modal should be used.

- To express general, theoretical possibility, we use **CAN** + the **infinitive**, e.g. *It* <u>can</u> <u>get</u> really cold in the evening.
- To say that something is possible in a specific situation, we use **COULD** / **MAY** / **MIGHT** + the **infinitive**, e.g. *If it rains later, we <u>could</u>* / <u>may</u> / <u>might</u> get wet.
- To say that something was possible in the past, we use **MAY** + *have* + the **Past Participle**, e.g. *They may have won as they were very good*.
- However, to say that something was possible in the past only theoretically, we use MIGHT /
  COULD + have + the Past Participle, e.g. He <u>might</u> / <u>could</u> have got lost but luckily he had a
  map.

## MODAL VERBS: LOGICAL ASSUMPTION



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**LOGICAL ASSUMPTION** is made when a speaker is sure that something is true.

- We use **MUST** + the **infinitive** to express a positive deduction about the present, e.g. *Look at their house. They* <u>must</u> be very rich.; and we use **MUST** + have + the **Past Participle** when we refer to the past, e.g. *Nobody opened the door. They* <u>must</u> have moved out.
- We use CAN'T / COULDN'T + the infinitive to express a negative deduction about the present, e.g. They have a very old car. They <u>can't</u> / <u>couldn't</u> be very rich.; and we use CAN'T / COULDN'T + have + the Past Participle when we refer to the past, e.g. They <u>can't</u> / <u>couldn't</u> have moved out. Try to call them again.

## **MODAL VERBS: PERMISSION / PROHIBITION**



To **ASK FOR PERMISSION** in the present, we use **CAN / COULD / MAY / MIGHT / BE ALLOWED TO** but there are some differences in the use of the verbs.

- **CAN** is used in informal situations when we know the other person very well, e.g. <u>Can</u> I smoke here?
- **COULD** and **MAY** are more polite than **CAN**, e.g. <u>May</u> I borrow this newspaper?
- **MIGHT** is very formal, e.g. *Might I have* a look at this report?
- **BE ALLOWED TO** is used in the situations resulting from formal regulations, e.g. <u>Are</u> passengers <u>allowed to</u> <u>unfasten</u> their seat belts during the flight?

#### To GIVE or REFUSE PERMISSION, we use CAN / MAY.

• MAY is very formal and is not used in everyday speech, e.g. You <u>can</u> park here if you like.; but Students <u>may</u> give in their projects till the end of term.

To express **PROHIBITION**, we use **MUSTN'T** / **CAN'T** / **ISN'T** (**AREN'T**) **ALLOWED TO**, e.g. You <u>aren't allowed to</u> / <u>mustn't</u> / <u>can't</u> buy alcohol if you are under eighteen.

To talk about **PERMISSION** or express **PROHIBITION IN THE PAST**, we use:

- WAS / WERE ALLOWED TO or COULD to say that something was generally permitted or forbidden, e.g. When we were children, we <u>couldn't</u> / <u>were not allowed to</u> stay out after ten p.m.;
- WAS / WERE ALLOWED TO for something that was permitted <u>in a particular situation</u> in the past, e.g. *Yesterday we were allowed to stay out till midnight*.

## **MODAL VERBS: OBLIGATION**

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To express **OBLIGATION**, we use **MUST / HAVE TO** but note the differences in the use of the verbs.

- To express obligation resulting from the speaker's confidence that something is necessary, we use **MUST**, e.g. *I* <u>must</u> <u>learn</u> another foreign language. Questions are formed with <u>must</u> at the beginning of the sentence, e.g. <u>Must</u> we stay in this hotel?
- To express obligation which comes from external factors not the speaker's feelings, we use **HAVE TO** / **HAS TO**, e.g. *The teacher told me that I <u>have to bring my parents to school.</u>

  Questions with <i>have to / has to* are formed with auxiliary verbs, e.g. <u>Do you have to be here?</u>
- The verb **MUST** is only used in the present. To talk about the future, we use *will have to*, e.g. *Tomorrow I will have to talk to my boss about a pay rise.* To talk about the past, we use *had to*, e.g. We <u>had to</u> take a very important decision yesterday.

## **MODAL VERBS: NECESSITY / DUTY**

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To express **NECESSITY**, we use the verb **NEED**, which can be a modal or a main verb, e.g. *She needs to start economising*. As a modal, the verb **NEED** is mainly used in questions and negations, e.g. *Need we bring our own alcohol?* 

To express **DUTY** or **WEAK OBLIGATION**, we use **SHOULD** / **OUGHT TO** e.g. *Older children should* / *ought to take care of the younger ones*. Questions are formed with *should* / *ought* at the beginning of the sentence, e.g. <u>Should</u> I help you? / <u>Ought</u> I to help you?

## **MODAL VERBS: ABSENCE OF NECESSITY**

**□**( 152

To express **LACK OF NECESSITY**, we use the negative forms of the verb *need*.

- When we refer to the present, we use **NEEDN'T / DON'T HAVE TO / DON'T NEED TO** + the **infinitive**, e.g. *You* <u>needn't</u> worry. / You <u>don't have to</u> worry. / You <u>don't need to</u> worry.
- When we refer to the past, we use **DIDN'T NEED TO** / **DIDN'T HAVE TO** + the **infinitive**, e.g. She <u>didn't need to</u> / <u>didn't have to</u> hurry up. There was plenty of time.

Note that we use two constructions with the verb **NEED** to talk about something that wasn't necessary in the past but there is a significant difference in meaning and be careful not to mistake them.

- To say that something <u>did not happen</u> in the past because it was not necessary, we use **DIDN'T NEED TO**, e.g. *He <u>didn't need to call</u> the ambulance as I took him to hospital in my car.*
- To say that something <u>happened</u> in the past, even though it was not necessary, we use **NEEDN'T** + *have* + the **Past Participle** e.g. *You* <u>needn't have bought</u> so much butter. We have five packets in the fridge.

## **MODAL VERBS: CRITICISM**

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To express **CRITICISM** or **DISAPPROVAL** of something that someone did in the past, we use **COULD** / **SHOULD** / **MIGHT** / **OUGHT TO** + *have* + the **Past Participle**, e.g. *He could* / *should* / *might* / *ought to have warned me earlier. Why didn't he?* 

To make a **SUGGESTION** about someone's behaviour or give someone a piece of **ADVICE**, we use **COULD** / **SHOULD** / **MIGHT** / **OUGHT TO** + the **infinitive**, e.g. *You* <u>could</u> / <u>might</u> / <u>should</u> / <u>ought to</u> tell your friends not to be so noisy.

### **RELATIVE CLAUSES**



**RELATIVE CLAUSES** are introduced with relative pronouns **WHO**, **WHOM**, **WHICH**, **WHOSE**, **THAT** or relative adverbs **WHEN**, **WHERE**, **WHY**.

- We use **WHO** / **WHOM** to refer to people, e.g. *That's* the man who lives next door. / That's the girl whom I wanted you to meet.
- We use **WHICH** to refer to objects or animals, e.g. *I found* <u>a wallet</u> **which** was full of *US* dollars.
- We use **THAT** to refer to people, objects or animals, e.g. *This is the woman that I told you about. / That's the car that I'm going to buy.*
- We use **WHOSE** instead of possessive adjectives (*my*, *your* etc.) with people, objects and animals in order to show possession, e.g. *This is the man whose daughter has been chosen Miss Ontario*.
- If relative pronouns are used with prepositions, e.g. **TO WHICH / ABOUT WHOM**, we form the relative clauses in two ways:
  - This is the boy about whom I told you. / This is the boy (who) I told you about.

    These are the places to which we travelled. / These are the places (which) we travelled to.
- Note that relative pronouns can be omitted when they are the object of the relative clause, that is when there is a noun or a subject pronoun between the relative pronoun and the verb, e.g. *This is the boy I told you about. / These are the places we travelled to.*
- To talk about quantity, we use *all | most | some | a few | half | none | two* etc. + **OF WHOM** for people and **OF WHICH** for objects and animals, e.g. *I met many foreigners, some of whom spoke Polish. | I found many sea <u>shells</u>, some of which had strange shapes.*

## **RELATIVE CLAUSES**

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Relative clauses are also introduced with relative adverbs WHERE / WHEN / WHY.

- We use **WHERE** to refer to place, usually after nouns like *place*, *house*, *street*, *town* and *country*, e.g. *The place where we live is very quiet*. It can be replaced by *which* / *that* + the **preposition** and in this case *which* / *that* can be omitted, e.g. *The place* (*which* / *that*) *we live in is very quiet*.
- We use **WHEN** to refer to time, usually after nouns like *time*, *moment*, *period*, *day* and *summer*. It can either be replaced by *that* or can be omitted, e.g. *June was the month* (*when / that*) *they met*.
- We use **WHY** to give reasons, usually after the word *reason*. It can either be replaced by *that* or can be omitted, e.g. *Steve's sense of humour was <u>the reason</u>* (*why*) *everybody liked him*.

## RELATIVE CLAUSES – IDENTIFYING CLAUSES AND NON-IDENTIFYING CLAUSES



There are two types of relative clauses: **IDENTIFYING CLAUSES** and **NON-IDENTIFYING CLAUSES**.

- **IDENTIFYING CLAUSES** give necessary information which is essential to the meaning of the main sentence. They <u>are not</u> put in commas, e.g. *The man <u>who is following us must be a private detective.*</u>
- **NON-IDENTIFYING CLAUSES** give extra information which is not essential to the meaning of the main sentence. They <u>are</u> put in commas, e.g. *This new pub*, <u>where we met</u> <u>yesterday</u>, is owned by an Irish family.

Pay attention to the construction in which we use **WHICH** to refer back to a whole clause, e.g. *Eve often goes out in the evenings*, *which worries her parents. Which* refers here to the fact that she often goes out.

### **CLAUSES OF CONTRAST**

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**CLAUSES OF CONTRAST** are used to express a contrast. They are introduced with:

- **BUT**, e.g. *Ian is a good violinist* **but** he's a poor teacher.
- ALTHOUGH / EVEN THOUGH / THOUGH + a clause, e.g. Although / Even though / Though she's nice, nobody likes her.
- IN SPITE OF / DESPITE + the noun / the -ing form, e.g. In spite of / Despite the rain, we went out.
- IN Spite of the fact that / despite the fact that + a clause, e.g. In spite of / Despite the fact that it was raining, we went out.
- HOWEVER / NEVERTHELESS, e.g. The water in this lake is dirty. However / Nevertheless, we all bathe in it.
- WHILE / WHEREAS, e.g. My sister is good at English while / whereas I have trouble with it.
- YET / STILL, e.g. Frank left the party late, yet / still he managed to get home before midnight.
- ON THE OTHER HAND, e.g. Mary is very patient. On the other hand, she can be moody at times.

# **CLAUSES OF REASON**



**CLAUSES OF REASON** are used to express the reason for something. They are introduced with:

- **BECAUSE** / **AS** / **SINCE**, e.g. Mary felt lonely **because** / **since** / **as** she didn't know anybody there.
- THE REASON FOR + the noun / the -ing form, e.g. The reason for my absence was that I had a cold. / The reason for our breaking up was that he lied to me.
- THE REASON WHY + a clause, e.g. The reason why they were late was that they missed their bus.
- BECAUSE OF / ON ACCOUNT OF / DUE TO / OWING TO + the noun, e.g. The whole school was evacuated because of / on account of / due to / owing to the bomb scare.
- BECAUSE OF THE FACT THAT / ON ACCOUNT OF THE FACT THAT / DUE TO THE FACT THAT / OWING TO THE FACT THAT + a clause, e.g. The whole school was evacuated because of / on account of / due to / owing to the fact that there was a bomb scare.

### **CLAUSES OF RESULT**

**CLAUSES OF RESULT** are used to express the result of something. They are introduced with:

- AS A RESULT / THEREFORE / CONSEQUENTLY / AS A CONSEQUENCE, e.g. The world is getting more and more polluted. As a result / Therefore / Consequently / As a consequence, many animals are dying out.
- **SO**, e.g. *It was freezing cold, so I dressed warmly.*
- SO + an adjective / an adverb, e.g. The car was so <u>expensive</u> that we gave up the idea of buying it.
- SUCH A / AN + an adjective + a singular countable noun, e.g. It was such a hot day that we decided to go to the beach.
- SUCH + an adjective + a plural / uncountable noun, e.g. The teacher gave us such complicated homework to do (that) few students knew how to do it.
- SO MUCH / LITTLE + an uncountable noun, e.g. We had so much furniture (that) we decided to hire a van.
- **SO MANY** / **FEW** + an **uncountable noun**, e.g. *There were so many* <u>people</u> at the party (that) extra chairs had to be put at the table.

### **CLAUSES OF PURPOSE**



**CLAUSES OF PURPOSE** are used to express the purpose of an action. They are introduced with:

- **TO** + the **infinitive**, e.g. *I came here to tell you something*.
- IN ORDER TO / SO AS TO + the infinitive, e.g. I went to the post office in order to / so as to send a parcel.
- FOR + a noun / the -ing form, e.g. He popped in for a chat. / She bought new shoes for dancing.
- WITH A VIEW TO + the -ing form, e.g. She took some leaflets with a view to reading them later.

We use the other constructions to express purpose depending on the time they refer to:

- **SO THAT** + can / will when we refer to the present or future, e.g. I have come here so that I can relax a bit.
- **SO THAT** + *could* / *would* when we refer to the past, e.g. *Stella bought a bike so that she could lose some weight.*
- IN CASE + the Present Simple when we refer to the present or future, e.g. Take a sweater in case it gets cold.
- **IN CASE** + the **Past Simple** when we refer to the past, e.g. We took some more food **in case** more people **joined** us for dinner.

# Appendix - Gramatyka i słownictwo

# 1. CONDITIONALS. TYPES: 0, 1, 2

**OKRESÓW WARUNKOWYCH** używamy w celu wyrażenia czynności uzależnionych od spełnienia określonych warunków. Podstawowym spójnikiem łączącym zdanie główne z podrzędnym jest spójnik *if* – *jeśli* / *gdyby*.

**OKRESU WARUNKOWEGO TYPU 0** używamy chcąc wyrazić ogólne prawdy, zjawiska stałe oraz zjawiska naukowe. W obu częściach zdaniach używamy czasu *Present Simple*. Spójnik *if* możemy zastąpić słówkiem *when*., np.: *If / When I sleep, I need silence. – Kiedy śpię, potrzebuję ciszy.* 

**OKRESU WARUNKOWEGO TYPU 1** używamy chcąc wyrazić warunek, który należy do przyszłości i prawdopodobnie zostanie spełniony. Po spójniku *if* używamy czasu *Present Simple*, a w zdaniu głównym czasu *Future Simple*, np.: *If you don't try*, *you will regret it. – Jeśli nie spróbujesz, będziesz żałować*.

Spójnik if można zastąpić spójnikami: providing, provided (that), on condition (that), as long as. Unless oznacza if not. Czasownik po unless zawsze używany jest w formie twierdzącej, np.: Unless you try, you will regret it.

OKRESU WARUNKOWEGO TYPU 2 używamy chcąc wyrazić warunek należący do teraźniejszości, mało możliwy lub całkowicie nierealny. Po spójniku *if* używamy czasu *Past Simple*, a w zdaniu głównym konstrukcji *would /could / might + bezokolicznik*, np.: *If we had more money, we would live in a house with a garden. – Gdybyśmy mieli więcej pieniędzy, mieszkalibyśmy w domu z ogrodem (ale nie mamy)*. W zdaniach warunkowych typu 2 możemy użyć *were* zamiast *was* we wszystkich osobach, np.: *If I were you, I wouldn't do it. – Na twoim miejscu nie robiłbym tego*.

W ZDANIACH WARUNKOWYCH TYPU 1 w zdaniu głównym zamiast *Future Simple* można również użyć **trybu rozkazującego**, np.: *If you hear something suspicious*, <u>call</u> the police. – Jeśli usłyszysz coś podejrzanego, zadzwoń na policję. oraz czasowników modalnych can / could / may / might / must / should + bezokolicznik, np.: *If you don't take a raincoat*, you <u>may get</u> soaked. – Jeżeli nie weźmiesz płaszcza, możesz przemoknąć.

### 2. TYPE 3 CONDITIONAL & MIXED CONDITIONALS

**OKRESU WARUNKOWEGO TYPU 3** używamy chcąc wyrazić warunek należący do przeszłości, a więc już niemożliwy do spełnienia. Konstrukcji tej używamy również chcąc wyrazić swój żal lub niezadowolenie z czegoś, co już się stało. W zdaniu zawierającym warunek stosujemy czas *Past Perfect*, a w zdaniu głównym konstrukcję *would / could / might + have + Past Participle*., np.: *If we had known your address, we would have come round*. – *Gdybyśmy znali twój adres, odwiedzilibyśmy cię*.

**OKRES WARUNKOWY MIESZANY (TRZECI Z DRUGIM)** opisuje hipotetyczny warunek należący do przeszłości oraz jego rezultat w teraźniejszości. W zdaniu zawierającym *if* używamy czasu *Past Perfect*, a w zdaniu głównym konstrukcji *would* + *bezokolicznik*., np.: *If you had gone to the doctor, you would feel better now.* – *Gdybyś poszedł do lekarza, czuł byś się teraz lepiej.* 

**OKRES WARUNKOWY MIESZANY (DRUGI Z TRZECIM)** opisuje hipotetyczną sytuację teraźniejszą oraz jej rezultat należący do przeszłości. W zdaniu zawierającym *if* używamy czasu *Past Simple*, a w zdaniu głównym konstrukcji *would* + *have* + *Past Participle*, n.p.: *If he had enough money, he would have bought* a better car. – *Gdyby on miał więcej pieniędzy, kupiłby lepszy samochód*.

W okresach warunkowych możemy zastosować INWERSJE i pominąć spójnik if.

- Okres warunkowy typu 1 should + subject, np.: <u>Should you</u> need money, don't hesitate to tell us. Jeśli będziesz potrzebować pieniędzy, nie wahaj się nam powiedzieć.
- Okres warunkowy typu 2 were + subject, np.: Were she less shy, she would get this job. Gdyby była mniej nieśmiała, dostałaby tę pracę.
- Okres warunkowy typu 3 had + subject, np.: <u>Had I</u> known the truth, I wouldn't have helped him. Gdybym znała prawdę, nie pomogłabym mu.

# 3. UNREAL TIME – WISH / IF ONLY / SUPPOSE / SUPPOSING / IT'S (HIGH) TIME / AS IF / AS THOUGH

Zdania złożone z wyrazami lub wyrażeniami: **I WISH** – *chciałbym,* **IF ONLY** – *gdyby tylko,* **SUPPOSE** / **SUPPOSING** – *przypuśćmy,* **IT'S** (**HIGH**) **TIME** – *najwyższy czas,* **AS IF** / **AS THOUGH** – *tak jakby,* wyrażające życzenie (żal) lub przypuszczenie występują z podobnym zestawieniem czasów jak w typie 2 i 3 okresów warunkowych.

- Aby wyrazić życzenie odnoszące się do teraźniejszości, stosujemy konstrukcje WISH / IF ONLY + Simple Past, np.: I wish / If only I had a brother. Żałuję, że nie mam brata. Po wish możemy dla wszystkich osób zastosować formę were, np.: I wish I (he / she / it) was / were taller. Szkoda, że nie jestem wyższy.
- Aby wyrazić przypuszczenie odnoszące się do teraźniejszości, stosujemy konstrukcje **SUPPOSE** / **SUPPOSING** + *Simple Past*, np.: *Suppose* / *Supposing he lived with us.* Przypuśćmy, że on mieszka z nami.
- Aby wyrazić żal lub przypuszczenie, że coś się stało w przeszłości, stosujemy konstrukcje WISH / IF ONLY / SUPPOSE / SUPPOSING + Past Perfect, np.: I wish I hadn't bought this car. Żałuję, że kupitem ten samochód.
- Aby wyrazić uprzejmą prośbę lub życzenie, by czyjeś zachowanie uległo zmianie w przyszłości, stosujemy konstrukcje WISH / IF ONLY + podmiot + would, np.: I wish you would stop smoking. Chciałabym, żebyś przestał palić. Po zaimkach I / we zamiast would stosujemy could, np.: I wish I / we could go with you.
- Chcąc wyrazić przypuszczenie odnoszące się do przyszłości używamy konstrukcji **SUPPOSE** / **SUPPOSING** + **Present Simple**, np.: **Suppose** / **supposing** he **gets** caught at the border, what will we do?. Przypuśćmy, że złapią go na granicy. Co zrobimy?
- Chcąc wyrazić życzenie, iż najwyższy czas, aby coś się wydarzyło lub czyjeś zachowanie uległo zmianie, używamy konstrukcji IT'S (HIGH) TIME / IT'S (ABOUT) TIME + podmiot + Past Simple, np.: It's (high) time you grew up. Najwyższy czas, żebyś dorósł.
- Dokonując porównania, o którym z góry wiemy, że jest nieprawdziwe, używamy konstrukcji
   AS IF / AS THOUGH + Past Simple, np.: You look as if you were dead. Wyglądasz jak nieżywy.
  - Podobnie jak w innych tego typu strukturach, dla I / he / she / it możemy użyć formy were, n.p.: She behaves as if she were an actress. Zachowuje się, jakby była aktorką.
- Jeśli porównanie jest prawdziwe, używamy konstrukcji **AS IF / AS THOUGH** + *Present Simple*, np.: *You look as if you are ill. Wyglądasz na chorego*.

# 4. WOULD RATHER / WOULD PREFER / PREFER

Konstrukcje z zastosowaniem zwrotów: **WOULD RATHER / WOULD PREFER / PREFER** używane są w celu wyrażenia preferencji i życzeń.

Forma czasownika po konstrukcji **WOULD RATHER** zależy od tego, do kogo odnoszą się preferencje.

- Swoje preferencje lub chęć zrobienia czegoś w czasie teraźniejszym można wyrazić za pomocą konstrukcji would rather + bezokolicznik, np.: <u>I'd rather go now than stay here.</u> Wołałbym iść teraz, niż zostać tutaj. oraz konstrukcji would rather + have + Past Participle, gdy odnosimy się do przeszłości, np.: <u>I</u> would rather have sold this bike last week. Wolałbym sprzedać ten rower w zesztym tygodniu.
- Jeśli swoje preferencje, życzenia lub żal kierujemy do innej osoby, wtedy w odniesieniu do teraźniejszości stosujemy konstrukcję would rather + podmiot + Past Simple, np.: <u>I</u> would rather <u>she</u> lived on Mars. Wolałbym, żeby ona mieszkała na Marsie. oraz konstrukcję would rather + podmiot + Past Perfect, gdy odnosimy się do przeszłości, np.: <u>I</u> would rather <u>you</u> had come with me yesterday. Wolałbym, żebyś poszedł ze mną wczoraj.

Swoje preferencje można też wyrazić za pomocą czasownika **PREFER**. Forma czasownika po kontrukcji *prefer* zależy od rodzaju preferencji, o których mówimy.

- Wyrażając ogólną preferencję, używamy konstrukcji prefer + ing form + to + ing form, np.:
   I prefer writing e-mails to writing letters. Wolę pisać maile niż pisać listy. lub prefer + to +
   bezokolicznik + rather than + bezokolicznik, np.: I prefer to cycle to work rather than go by
   bus. Wolę jeździć do pracy rowerem niż autobusem.
- Jednorazową chęć zrobienia czegoś tu i teraz wyrażamy za pomocą konstrukcji would prefer + to + bezokolicznik + rather than + (bezokolicznik), np. I would prefer to eat something sweet rather than (eat) a sandwich. Wolę zjeść coś słodkiego niż kanapkę.

### 5. THE PASSIVE VOICE

**Stronę bierną** – **THE PASSIVE VOICE** stosujemy wtedy, gdy nasze zainteresowanie kieruje się ku przedmiotowi czynności, a nie ku jej wykonawcy, który często jest w zdaniu pomijany.

Stronę bierną tworzy się za pomocą odpowiedniej formy czasownika *to be + Past Participle*. Zwróć uwagę, jak formy zmieniają się w poszczególnych czasach.

Grammar Tense	The Active Form	The Passive Form
<b>Present Simple</b>	He combs his hair every day.	His hair <u>is</u> combed every day.
<b>Present Continuous</b>	He is combing his hair now.	His hair <b>is being combed</b> now.
<b>Present Perfect</b>	He has just combed his hair.	His hair <u>has</u> just <u>been</u> combed.
Past Simple	He combed his hair.	His hair was combed.
<b>Past Continuous</b>	He was combing his hair.	His hair was being combed.
Past Perfect	He had combed his hair.	His hair <b>had been combed</b> .
<b>Future Simple</b>	He will comb his hair.	His hair will be combed.
<b>Future Perfect</b>	He will have combed his hair.	His hair will have been combed.
to be going to	He is going to comb his hair.	His hair is going to be combed.

Stronę bierną z czasownikami modalnymi tworzymy według następującego wzoru: *czasownik modalny* + *be* + *Past Participle*, np.: *Teeth must be brushed regularly*. – *Zęby muszą być myte regularnie*.

- W stronie biernej chcąc określić wykonawcę czynności, używamy BY + agent, np.: Dinner was prepared by his mother. Obiad był przygotowany przez jego matkę.
- Chcąc powiedzieć, czego używa osoba wykonująca czynność, używamy **WITH** + *instrument* / *material* / *ingredient*, np.: The meat **was cut** <u>with</u> a sharp knife. Mięso zostało pokrojone ostrym nożem.
- Konstrukcji z **WITH** stosujemy też po określonych imiesłowach, np. *coloured, crowded, filled, packed,* np.: *The corridor* **was crowded with** people. Korytarz był peten ludzi.

Zwróć uwagę na szczególne użycie czasów w stronie biernej.

• CZASOWNIKI Z DWOMA DOPEŁNIENIAMI – bring, tell, send, show, teach, promise, give przekształcamy na stronę bierną na dwa sposoby, np.:

I promised <u>her</u> <u>a nice surprise</u>.

<u>She</u> was promised a nice surprise.

or <u>A nice surprise</u> was promised to her.

- Konstrukcje typu SEE, HEAR, WATCH + *ing* w stronie biernej zachowują formę *ing* np.:

  I saw them <u>kissing</u> 

  They were seen <u>kissing</u>.
- Czasownik LET w stronie biernej przekształcany jest na be allowed to, np.:
   My parents <u>let</u> me go camping.
   I was allowed to go camping.

# 6. THE PASSIVE VOICE WITH REPORTING VERBS / NEED / CAUSATIVE HAVE / GET

Czasowniki: **THINK** / **BELIEVE** / **SAY** / **REPORT** / **KNOW** / **EXPECT** używane są w stronie biernej, aby wyrazić ogólnie panującą opinię lub przypuszczenie, tworząc konstrukcje osobowe lub bezosobowe.

• Jeżeli opinia / przypuszczenie odnosi się do teraźniejszości lub przyszłości, transformacje na stronę bierną tworzymy w następujący sposób:

People think that Mrs Brown is having an affair.

It is thought (that) Mrs Brown is having an affair.

Mrs Brown is thought to be having an affair.

• Zdania odnoszące się do przeszłości przekształcamy odpowiednio:

People say that Mr Brown sold his collection last week.

It is said (that) Mr Brown sold his collection

last week.

Mr Brown is said to have sold his collection

last week.

Chcąc wyrazić potrzebę naprawienia lub polepszenia czegoś, używamy konstrukcji strony biernej z czasownikiem **NEED** + *to be* + *Past Participle* lub **NEED** + *ing form*, np.:

We need to feed the dog.

The dog needs to be fed.

The dog needs feeding.

#### **CAUSATIVE HAVE**

- Chcąc powiedzieć, że zleciliśmy, zlecamy regularnie lub zlecimy komuś wykonanie jakiejś czynności, stosujemy konstrukcję *have* + *object* + *Past Participle*, np.: *I had my watch repaired*. *Oddałem zegarek do naprawy*.
- W rozmowie możemy zamiast *have* użyć *get*, np. *I will have/get my car polished*. *Zlecę polerowanie samochodu*.
- Tej samej konstrukcji *have* + *object* + *Past Participle* użyjemy chcąc powiedzieć, że wydarzyło nam się coś niemiłego z udziałem osób trzecich, np. *I had my car broken into last night. Ktoś włamał się do mojego samochodu zeszłej nocy*.

Zwróć uwagę, jak w poszczególnych czasach tworzy się konstrukcję *causative have*.

<b>Grammar Tense</b>		Causative Form
<b>Present Simple</b>	He repairs his car.	He <b>has</b> his car <b>repaired</b> .
<b>Present Continuous</b>	He is repairing his car.	He is having his car repaired.
Past Simple	He repaired his car.	He <b>had</b> his car <b>repaired</b> .
<b>Past Continuous</b>	He was repairing his car.	He was having his car repaired.
<b>Future Simple</b>	He will repair his car.	He will have his car repaired.
<b>Future Continuous</b>	He will be repairing his car.	He will be having his car repaired.
<b>Present Perfect</b>	He has repaired his car.	He has had his car repaired.
<b>Present Perfect Cont.</b>	He has been repairing his car.	He has been having his car repaired.
Past Perfect	He had repaired his car.	He had had his car repaired.
Past Perfect Cont.	He had been repairing his car.	He had been having his car repaired.
Infinitive	He can repair his car.	He can have his car repaired.
-ing form	He hates repairing his car.	He hates <b>having</b> his car <b>repaired</b> .

## 7. REPORTED SPEECH

**Mowa zależna** – **REPORTED SPEECH** używana jest, gdy przytaczamy czyjąś wypowiedź. Relacjonując zdanie wypowiedziane w przeszłości, zdanie w mowie zależnej zwykle zaczynamy od zwrotów: *he said / he told me – powiedział (mi)* oraz cofamy oryginalną wypowiedź o jeden czas, np. zdanie *I am very sorry*. zrelacjonujemy: *He said he was very sorry*.

Czasy w mowie zależnej zmieniają się następująco:

Direct Speech	Reported Speech
Present Simple	Past Simple
Present Continuous	Past Continuous
Present Perfect	Past Perfect

Present Perfect Continuous	Past Perfect Continuous
Past Simple	Past Simple or Past Perfect
Past Continuous	Past Continuous or Past Perfect Continuous
Future (will)	Future in the Past (would)

Pamiętaj, że past perfect oraz past perfect continuous zachowują swoją formę w mowie zależnej.

Wypowiedzi w mowie zależnej przytaczane są w zupełnie nowym kontekście sytuacyjnym i czasowym, dlatego też zmiany wymagać będą wszystkie **OKOLICZNIKI MIEJSCA I CZASU**:

now	then	two years ago	two years before
today	that day	this	that
tonight	that night	these	those
yesterday	the day before	here	there
last month	the previous month	come	go
next week	the following week	bring	take

Przytaczając czyjąś wypowiedź **w TRYBIE ROZKAZUJĄCYM**, używamy słów wprowadzających, np. *He told me... – Powiedział mi, She asked me... – Poprosiła mnie, He ordered me... – Kazał mi + to+ bezokolicznik lub not to + bezokolicznik*, np.:

Help me, please.  $\longrightarrow$  She asked me to help her.

*Don't leave me.* → *He begged me not to leave him.* 

Przytaczając **PYTANIE OGÓLNE** (takie, na które można odpowiedzieć jednym słowem: *tak* lub *nie*), należy pamiętać o zastosowaniu spójnika *if* / *whether*, cofnięciu czasu oraz powróceniu do szyku zdania oznajmującego, np.:

*Do you live here?* → *I asked if* / *whether she lived there.* 

#### Czasy w mowie zależnej nie ulegają zmianie, jeśli:

- wypowiedzi dokonano niedawno i jest nadal aktualna, np.:
   We don't need any more juice. They said (that) they don't need any more juice.

Jeśli przytaczane zdanie jest przykładem stałych praw natury lub ogólnej prawdy wtedy czas można cofnąć lub zostawić niezmieniony np.:

The sun rises in the east.  $\longrightarrow$  The teacher said (that) the sun rose / rises in the east.

### 8. REPORTED SPEECH – INTRODUCTORY VERBS

Przytaczając czyjeś wypowiedzi, oprócz *he said / he told me* używamy różnych czasowników wprowadzających – **INTRODUCTORY VERBS**. Mogą one występować z różnymi konstrukcjami gramatycznymi, np.: *He complained that he had a toothache. / He complained about having a toothache. – Skarżył się, że boli go ząb.* 

Po niektórych czasownikach w mowie zależnej stosujemy konstrukcję *that* + *clause*, np. po czasowniku *explain* – *wyjaśnić* → *She explained that the headmaster would be back soon*. – *Wyjaśniła, że dyrektor wkrótce wróci.* 

Inne czasowniki, po których stosujemy konstrukcję *that* + *clause* to: *add* – *dodać*, *admit* – *przyznać*, *announce* – *ogłosić*, *claim* – *twierdzić*, *confirm* – *potwierdzić*, *estimate* – *szacować*, *insist* – *nalegać*, *predict* – *przewidywać*.

Po niektórych czasownikach w mowie zależnej stosujemy konstrukcję to + bezokolicznik, np. po czasowniku promise – obiecać → He promised to be on time. – Obiecał, że będzie punktualnie. Inne czasowniki, po których stosujemy konstrukcję to + bezokolicznik to: agree – zgodzić się, offer – zaproponować, refuse – odmówić, threaten – zagrozić, swear – przysiąc, decide – zdecydować, claim – twierdzić.

Po niektórych czasownikach w mowie zależnej stosujemy konstrukcję *somebody+ to + bezokolicznik* lub *somebody + not to + bezokolicznik*, np. po czasowniku *ask – prosić*  $\longrightarrow$  *He asked <u>me to come back</u>. – Poprosił mnie, żebym wrócił.* 

Inne czasowniki, po których stosujemy konstrukcję somebody + to + bezokolicznik lub somebody + not to + bezokolicznik to: beg – błagać, command / order – rozkazać, invite – zaprosić, remind – przypomnieć, warn – ostrzec, advise – poradzić, encourage – zachęcić, forbid – zakazać.

Po niektórych czasownikach w mowie zależnej stosujemy konstrukcję -ing, np. po czasowniku suggest – zaproponować — He suggested swimming in the lake. – Zaproponował, żebyśmy popływali w jeziorze.

Inne czasowniki, po których stosujemy konstrukcję -ing to: admit (to) – przyznać się do, accuse sb of – oskarżyć kogoś o, apologise (to sb) for – przeprosić(kogoś) za, complain (to sb) of – użalać się (do kogoś) na, deny – zaprzeczyć, insist on – nalegać na.

### **CZASOWNIKI MODALNE** w mowie zależnej zmieniają się według następującego wzoru:

Direct Speech	Reported Speech
can	could
can	could / would be able to (when it refers to the future)
may	might
shall	should
must	must / had to
needn't	needn't / didn't need to / didn't have to

# 9. MODAL VERBS – LOGICAL ASSUMPTION / POSSIBILITY / PERMISSION / PROHIBITION

**CZASOWNIKI MODALNE** nie podlegają ogólnym zasadom gramatycznym dotyczącym czasowników głównych. Posiadają specyficzne formy i spełniają różne funkcje, nadając następującym po nich czasownikom szczególne znaczenie.

Czasowniki modalne: *must / can / could / may / might* wyrażają mniej i bardziej prawdopodobne przypuszczenie.

Logiczne założenie (**LOGICAL ASSUMPTION**) przyjmowane jest wtedy, gdy chcemy wyrazić przypuszczenie graniczące z pewnością.

- Aby wyrazić przypuszczenie twierdzące w czasie teraźniejszym, stosujemy konstrukcję must + infinitive, np.: Look at their house. They must be very rich. Spójrz na ich dom. Oni na pewno są bardzo bogaci. oraz konstrukcję must + have + Past Participle, gdy odnosimy się do przeszłości, np.: Nobody opened the door. They must have moved out. Nikt nam nie otworzył. Na pewno się wyprowadzili.
- Aby wyrazić przypuszczenie przeczące w czasie teraźniejszym, stosujemy konstrukcję can't / couldn't + infinitive, np.: They have a very old car; they can't / couldn't be very rich. Oni mają bardzo stary samochód, na pewno nie są bardzo bogaci. oraz konstrukcję can't / couldn't + have + Past Participle, gdy odnosimy się do przeszłości, np.: They can't / couldn't have moved out. Try to call them again. Na pewno się nie wyprowadzili. Spróbuj zadzwonić do nich jeszcze raz.

Aby wyrazić możliwość (**POSSIBILITY**), stosujemy czasowniki *can / could / may* lub *might*, ale wybór odpowiedniego czasownika zależy od sytuacji.

- Chcąc wyrazić ogólną, teoretyczną możliwość, stosujemy czasownik *can + bezokolicznik*, np.: *It <u>can get really cold in the evening. Wieczorem może się zrobić naprawdę zimno.*</u>
- Jeśli zakładamy coś z mniejszym prawdopodobieństwem, używamy *could / may / might + bezokolicznik*, np.: *If it rains later, we <u>could / may / might get wet. Jeżeli będzie później padać, możemy przemoknąć.*</u>
- Chcąc powiedzieć, że coś było możliwe w przeszłości, posłużymy się konstrukcją *may* + *have* + *Past Participle*, np. *They <u>may</u> have won* as they were very good. Mogli wygrać, ponieważ byli bardzo dobrzy.
- Jeśli natomiast wyrażamy tylko teoretyczną możliwość, bo wiemy, że rzecz nie zaistniała, używamy *might / coud + have + Past Participle*, np.: He <u>might / could</u> have got lost but luckily he had a map. Mógł się zgubić, ale na szczęście miał mapę.

Aby poprosić o pozwolenie (**ASKING FOR PERMISSION**) w czasie teraźniejszym, stosujemy czasowniki *can / could / may / might / be allowed to*, ale czasowniki te różnią się między sobą.

- Czasownik *can* używany jest w sytuacjach nieformalnych, np.: <u>Can</u> I smoke here? Czy mogę tu zapalić?
- Czasowniki *could* i *may* są zwrotami bardziej uprzejmymi niż *can*, np.: <u>May</u> I borrow this newspaper? Czy mógłbym pożyczyć tę gazetę?
- Czasownik *might* używany jest w sytuacjach formalnych, np.: <u>Might</u> I have a look at this report? Czy mógłbym spojrzeć na ten raport?
- Gdy mówimy o przyzwoleniu wynikającym z panującego prawa lub regulaminu, używamy formy be allowed to, np.: <u>Are passengers allowed to unfasten</u> their seat belts during the flight? Czy pasażerom wolno odpiąć pasy podczas lotu?

Aby udzielić lub odmówić udzielenia pozwolenia (GIVING / REFUSING PERMISSION), używamy czasowników can / may.

Czaswonik may stosowany jest tylko w sytuacjach formalnych, np.: You <u>can</u> park here if you like. – Możesz tu parkować, jeśli chcesz., ale Students <u>may</u> give in their projects till the end of term. – Studenci mogą dostarczyć projekty do końca semestru.

Zakaz (**PROHIBITION**) w języku angielskim wyrażamy za pomocą czasowników *isn't (aren't)* allowed to / mustn't / can't, np.: You are not allowed to / mustn't / can't buy alcohol if you are under eighteen. – Nie wolno ci kupować alkoholu, jeżeli nie masz 18 lat.

Gdy mówimy o przyzwoleniu lub zakazie w przeszłości (**PERMISSION** / **PROHIBITION IN THE PAST**), używamy czasowników:

- was / were allowed to <u>lub</u> could, gdy odnosimy się do sytuacji ogólnej np.: When we were children, we <u>couldn't</u> / were not allowed to stay out after ten p.m. Kiedy byliśmy dziećmi, nie mogliśmy (nie pozwalano nam) przebywać poza domem po 10:00.;
- <u>tylko</u> was / were allowed to, gdy mówimy o wyjątkowej (jednorazowej) sytuacji w przeszłości, np.: Yesterday we <u>were allowed to</u> stay out till midnight. Wczoraj pozwolono nam zostać do północy.

# 10. MODAL VERBS – NECESSITY / OBLIGATION / DUTY / ABSENCE OF NECESSITY / CRITICISM

Obowiązek, konieczność, potrzebę zrobienia czegoś (**OBLIGATION**, **NECESSITY** / **DUTY**) wyrażamy za pomocą czasowników modalnych: *must* / *have to* – *musieć*, *should* / *ought to* – *powinienem* oraz czasownika *need* – *potrzebować*, ale wybór odpowiedniego czasownika zależy od kontekstu.

Aby wyrazić obowiązek (**OBLIGATION**), stosujemy czasowniki *must / have to*, ale zwróć uwagę na różnice w zastosowaniu czasowników.

- Aby wyrazić, iż czujemy się w obowiązku, poczuwamy się do zrobienia czegoś, używamy czasownika modalnego must, np.: I must learn another foreign language. Muszę się nauczyć innego obcego języka. Pytania tworzymy przenosząc must na początek zdania, np.: Must we stay in this hotel?
- Jeśli obowiązek został nam narzucony przez kogoś, wtedy używamy czasownika *have to / has to*, np.: The teacher told me that I have to bring my parents to school. Nauczyciel powiedział mi, że muszę przyprowadzić rodziców do szkoły. Pytania tworzymy za pomocą posiłkowego do / does, np.: Do you have to be here?
- Czasownik must posiada jedynie formę teraźniejszą. Gdy mówimy o przyszłości, stosujemy formę will have to np.: Tomorrow I will have to talk to my boss about a pay rise. Jutro muszę porozmawiać z szefem o podwyżce. W czasie przeszłym posłużymy się formą had to np.: We had to take a very important decision yesterday. Wczoraj musieliśmy podjąć bardzo ważną decyzję.

Aby wyrazić potrzebę zrobienia czegoś (**NECESSITY**), używamy czasownika *need*, który stosowany zarówno jako czasownik modalny, jak i główny, np.: *She needs to start economising. – Ona potrzebuje* (*musi*) zacząć oszczędzać. Jako czasownika modalnego *need* używamy głównie w pytaniach i przeczeniach np.: *Need we bring our own alcohol? – Czy mamy przynieść własny alkohol?* 

Aby wyrazić powinność (**DUTY**), używamy czasowników modalnych *should / ought to* np.: Older children *should / ought to take* care of the younger ones. – Starsze dzieci powinny opiekować się młodszymi. Pytania tworzymy, stosując inwersję np.: Should I help you? / Ought I to help you?

Brak potrzeby zrobienia czegoś (**LACK OF NECESSITY**) wyrażamy za pomocą przeczącej formy czasownika *need*.

- Gdy odnosimy się do teraźniejszości, używamy czasowników needn't / don't have to / don't need to, np.: You needn't worry. / You don't have to worry. / You don't need to worry. Nie musisz się martwić.
- Chcąc powiedzieć, że nie musieliśmy czegoś zrobić w przeszłości, stosujemy formy *didn't need to* / *didn't have to*, np.: *She <u>didn't need to</u> / <u>didn't have to</u> hurry up. There was plenty of time. Ona nie musiała się spieszyć. Było mnóstwo czasu.*

Zwróć uwagę, że używamy dwóch różnych konstrukcji z czasownikiem **NEED**, gdy rozmawiamy o czymś, co **nie było konieczne w przeszłości**. Należy uważać, aby ich nie pomylić.

- Jeżeli chcemy powiedzieć, że coś się w przeszłości nie wydarzyło, gdyż nie było potrzebne, stosujemy didn't need to nie musiałem, np.: He <u>didn't need to</u> call the ambulance. I took him to hospital in my car. Nie musiał dzwonić na pogotowie. Zabrałem go do szpitala swoim samochodem.
- Jeżeli chcemy powiedzieć, że coś się w przeszłości wydarzyło lub stało niepotrzebnie, używamy konstrukcji needn't + have + Past Participle np.: You needn't have bought so much butter. We have five packets in the fridge. Niepotrzebnie kupiłeś tak dużo masła. Mamy pięć kostek w lodówce.

Chcąc skrytykować czyjeś zachowanie lub wyrazić brak aprobaty dla tego, co się stało (CRITICISM / DISAPPROVAL), używamy konstrukcji could / should / might / ought to + have + Past Participle, np. : He could / should / might / ought to have warned me earlier. Why didn't he? – Mógł mnie ostrzec wcześniej. Dlaczego tego nie zrobił?

Chcąc zasugerować komuś zrobienie czegoś (**SUGGESTION**), używamy konstrukcji *could / should / might / ought to + bezokolicznik*, np.: You <u>could / might / should / ought to tell</u> your friends not to be so noisy. – Mógłbyś / powinieneś powiedzieć swoim przyjaciołom, żeby nie byli tak głośno.

### 11. RELATIVE CLAUSES

W zdaniach złożonych przydawkowych (RELATIVE CLAUSES) zdanie podrzędne rozpoczynamy zaimkiem względnym – *who*, *whom*, *which*, *whose*, *that* lub przysłówkiem *when*, *where*, *why*.

- Zaimek względny **WHO** / **WHOM** odnosi się do osób, np.: *That's <u>the man</u> who lives next door.* / *That's <u>the girl</u> whom I wanted you to meet.*
- Zaimek względny **WHICH** odnosi się do rzeczy / zwierząt, np. : *I found <u>a wallet</u> which was full of US dollars*.
- **THAT** jest zaimkiem, który odnosi się zarówno do osób, jak i do rzeczy / zwierząt, np.: *This is the woman that I told you about. / That's the car that I'm going to buy.*
- WHOSE używamy zamiast zaimka dzierżawczego (*my*, *your*...) w odniesieniu do osób, przedmiotów i zwierząt, np.: *This is the man whose daughter has been chosen Miss Ontario*.

Jeśli zdanie podrzędne rozpoczyna się przyimkiem, np. **TO WHOM** – *do którego*, **ABOUT WHICH** – *o którym*, w języku angielskim zdanie tworzymy na dwa sposoby.

- W odniesieniu do osób stosujemy whom / who, np.: This is the boy about whom I told you. / This is the boy (who) I told you about.
- Dla zwierząt i rzeczy zamiast whom / who używamy which, np.: These are the places to which we travelled. / These are the places (which) we travelled to.

Pamiętaj, ze zaimek względny może być pominięty, kiedy jest dopełnieniem w zdaniu podrzędnym i pomiędzy podmiotem i zaimkiem jest rzeczownik, np.: *This is the boy I told you about. / These are the places we travelled to.* 

Mówiąc o ilości, np. z których połowa, których większość, stosujemy konstrukcje all / most / some / a few / half / none / two...+ OF WHOM dla ludzi i odpowiednio OF WHICH dla przedmiotów i zwierząt, np.: I met many foreigners, some of whom spoke Polish. – Spotkałem wielu obcokrajowców, z których kilku mówiło po polsku.

I found many sea <u>shells</u>, **some of which** had strange shapes. – Znalazłem wiele muszli, z których kilka miało dziwne kształty.

Zdania podrzędne wprowadzamy również za pomocą WHERE / WHEN / WHY.

- Where odnosi się do miejsca, zwykle po rzeczownikach takich jak: place, house, street, town czy country, np.: <u>The place</u> where we live is very quiet. i może być zastąpione przez which / that + preposition. W tym przypadku which / that można pominąć, np.: <u>The place</u> (which / that) we live in is very quiet.
- When określa czas, zwykle po rzeczownikach takich jak: time, moment, period, day czy summer. Można go zastąpić zaimkiem that, np.: June was the month when / that they met.
- Why określa przyczynę, zwykle po rzeczowniku reason. Można go zastąpić zaimkiem that, np.: Steve's sense of humour was the reason why everybody liked him.

# Wyróżniamy dwa rodzaje zdań podrzędnych: **IDENTIFYING CLAUSES** oraz **NON-IDENTIFYING CLAUSES**.

- *Identifying clauses* zawierają informacje niezbędne dla zrozumienia zdania i nie są oddzielane przecinkami np.: *The man who is following us must be a private detective*.
- Non-identifying clauses zawierają dodatkowe informacje, bez których zdanie i tak byłoby zrozumiałe. Są one oddzielane przecinkami, np.: This new pub, where we met yesterday, is owned by an Irish family.

Na uwagę zasługuje konstrukcja, w której odnosimy się do całego zdania nadrzędnego, np.: *Ewa często wychodzi wieczorami, co niepokoi jej rodziców*. W tym przypadku zawsze użyjemy zaimka *which*, nigdy *what*. I tak zdanie to w języku angielskim brzmi: *Eve often goes out in the evenings*, *which* worries her parents.

# 12. CLAUSES OF CONTRAST / CLAUSES OF REASON / CLAUSES OF RESULT / CLAUSES OF PURPOSE

**CLAUSES OF CONTRAST** stosowane są, aby wyrazić kontrast. Wprowadzane są przez:

- **but** ale, np.: *Ian is a good violinist but he's a poor teacher*.
- although / even though / though + clause chociaż, np.: Although / Even though / Though she's nice, nobody likes her.
- in spite of / despite + noun / -ing form pomimo, np.: In spite of / Despite the rain, we went out.
- in spite of the fact that / despite the fact that + clause pomimo, np.: In spite of / Despite the fact that it was raining, we went out.
- however / nevertheless jednak(że), niemniej (jednak), np.: The water in this lake is dirty. However / Nevertheless, we all bathe in it.
- while / whereas podczas gdy, np.: My sister is good at English while / whereas I have trouble with it.
- yet / still mimo to, np.: Frank left the party late, yet / still he managed to get home before midnight.
- **on the other hand** z drugiej strony, np.: *Mary is very patient. On the other hand*, *she can be moody at times*.

### **CLAUSES OF REASON** stosowane są, aby wskazać przyczynę. Wprowadzane są przez:

- **because** / **as** / **since** ponieważ, np.: *Mary felt lonely because* / **since** / **as** she didn't know anybody there.
- the reason for + noun / -ing form powodem..., np.: The reason for my absence was that I had a cold. / The reason for our breaking up was that he lied to me.
- **the reason why** + **clause** powód, dla którego..., np.: *The reason why* <u>they were late</u> was that they missed their bus.
- **because of** / **on account of** / **due to** / **owing to** + **noun** z powodu, np.: The whole school was evacuated **because of** / **on account of** / **due to** / **owing to** the bomb scare.
- because of the fact that / on account of the fact that / due to the fact that / owing to the fact that + clause z powodu, np.: The whole school was evacuated because of / on account of / due to / owing to the fact that there was a bomb scare.

### **CLAUSES OF RESULT** stosowane są, aby wskazać rezultat czynności. Wprowadzane są przez:

- as a result / therefore / consequently / as a consequence w rezultacie, dlatego, w konsekwencji, np.: The world is getting more and more polluted. As a result / Therefore / Consequently / As a consequence, many animals are dying out.
- so wiec, np.: It was freezing cold, so I dressed warmly.
- so + adjective / adverb tak..., np.: The car was so expensive that we gave up the idea of buying it.
- such a / an + adjective + singular countable noun tak..., np.: It was such a hot day that we decided to go to the beach.
- such + adjective + plural / uncountable noun tak..., np.: The teacher gave us such complicated homework to do (that) few students knew how to do it.
- so much / little + uncountable noun tak dużo / mało..., np.: We had so much <u>furniture</u> (that) we decided to hire a van.
- so many / few + uncountable noun tak dużo / mało..., np.: There were so many people at the party (that) extra chairs had to be put at the table.

# **CLAUSES OF PURPOSE** stosowane są, aby wyjaśnić cel zrobienia czegoś. Wprowadzane są przez:

- **to** + **infinitive** zeby, aby, np.: *I came here to tell you something*.
- in order to / so as to + infinitive żeby, aby, np.: I went to the post office in order to / so as to send a parcel.
- **for** + **noun** / **-ing form** w celu zrobienia czegoś, np.: *He popped in for* <u>a chat</u>. / *She bought new shoes for dancing*.
- with a view to + -ing form mając na celu zrobienie czegoś, np.: She took some leaflets with a view to reading them later.

Pozostałe konstrukcje zdań celowych różnią się w zależności od czasu, do którego się odnosimy.

- so that + can / will w odniesieniu do teraźniejszości / przyszłości, np.: I have come here so that I can relax a bit. Przyszłam tu, żeby trochę odpocząć.
- so that + could / would w odniesieniu do przeszłości, np.: Stella bought a bike so that she could lose some weight. Stella kupiła rower, żeby (mogła) schudnąć.
- in case + present simple w odniesieniu do teraźniejszości / przyszłości, np.: *Take a sweater in case it gets cold. Weź sweter na wypadek, gdyby się ochłodziło.*
- in case + past tense w odniesieniu do przeszłości, np.: We took some more food in case more people <u>joined</u> us for dinner. Zabraliśmy więcej jedzenia na wypadek, gdyby więcej ludzi dołączyło do nas na obiad.

# Glossary - Słowniczek

### Lesson 1

unless	jeśli nie	circumstances	okoliczności
a disaster	katastrofa	to consider	rozważyć
starvation	głód	to evaporate	wyparować
clumsy	niezdarny	reasonable	rozsądny
a fight	walka	to withdraw	wycofać się
to shout	krzyczeć	disappointed	rozczarowany
to resign from	zrezygnować	gloves	rękawiczki
to inherit	odziedziczyć	to get frostbite	doznać odmrożeń
to shoplift	kraść ze sklepu		

### Lesson 2

to follow sb	podążać za kimś	to be promoted	zostać awansowanym
on one's own	sam	to have a sore throat	mieć bolące gardło
a rescue team	ekipa ratunkowa	to fail an exam	oblać egzamin
to convince	przekonać	an earthquake	trzęsienie ziemi
a light bulb	żarówka	to make arrangements	zrobić ustalenia,
a disease	choroba		ustalić plan
curable	uleczalna	a coward	tchórz
to discover	odkryć	self-confident	pewny siebie
exhausted	wyczerpany	to go hiking	iść na pieszą
to quit	zrezygnować		wędrówkę

### Lesson 3

to cheat on sb	zdradzać	to hire	zatrudnić
to grow up	dorosnąć, dojrzeć	to break off	zerwać
to let sb down	zawieść kogoś	engagement	zaręczyny
as a matter of fact	właściwie, prawdę	to be mad at sb	być wściekłym na
	mówiąc		kogoś
responsibility	odpowiedzialność	liter	śmieci
to move out	wyprowadzić się	to reconsider	rozważyć ponownie
to regret	żałować	to yawn	ziewać

# Lesson 4

gorgeous	cudowny, zachwycający	to rely on	polegać na
posh	wykwintny	a jigsaw puzzle	puzzle (układanka)
cosy	przytulny	a resort	kurort
an anniversary	rocznica	a solution	rozwiązanie
sophisticated	wytworny	a nap	drzemka
to interfere in	wtrącać się	to arrange things in	załatwić sprawy
an argument	sprzeczka, kłótnia	advance	z wyprzedzeniem
to stick one's nose in	wtykać nos w czyjeś	vertical blinds	żaluzje
sb's business	sprawy		,

# Lesson 5

to fix	naprawić	to mend	naprawić
to vaccinate	szczepić	a tyre	opona, dętka
to mow	kosić	a chamber	sala, komnata
a lawn	trawnik	a shelter	ochronienie
to redecorate	odnowić, wyremontować	to gossip	plotkować

### Lesson 6

to pretend	udawać	to iron	prasować
to cause	spowodować	to deliver	dostarczyć
an award	nagroda	to renovate	odnowić
fingerprints	odciski palców, ślady	a bathtub	wanna
a crayon	kredka	to pull out	wyrwać
blunt	ępy	to tear	drzeć
to sharpen	ostrzyć	to furnish	umeblować
to wrinkle	pognieść		

# Lesson 7

to date	chodzić na randki	to inquire	pytać
to conduct a business	prowadzić biznes	to break off	zerwać
custody	areszt	engagement	zaręczyny
to reveal	wyjawić	to make a living	zarabiać na życie
whereabouts	miejsce pobytu	a debt	dług
a stranger	obcy	to pick sb up	odebrać kogoś
to recognize	rozpoznać	to be aware of	być świadomym
to develop a film	wywołać film	a whale	wieloryb
to pretend	udawać	a mammal	ssak

# Lesson 8

a company branch	filia	a way out of	rozwiązanie
to be made redundant	zostać zwolnionym	to disturb	przeszkadzać
to take a stand	zająć stanowisko	a colonel	porucznik
	w kwestii czegoś	to reveal a secret	wyjawić tajemnicę
a riot	zamieszki, rozruchy	to betray	zdradzić
to help oneself	poczęstować się	an issue	sprawa

# Lesson 9

logical assumption	założenie, przypuszczenie	positive	pewny
	graniczące z pewnością	to influence	mieć wpływ na
possibility	możliwość	a performance	wyniki
permission	pozwolenie	to have a day off	mieć dzień wolnego
prohibition	zakaz	a gathering	spotkanie
to keep an eye on	rzucić okiem na,		
	obserwować		

# Lesson 10

necessity	konieczność	a cause	przyczyna
obligation	obowiążek, zobowiązanie	to hire	zatrudnić
duty	obowiązek	a reason	powód
criticism	krytyka	a loan	pożyczka
confidence	pewność siebie	spare	dodatkowy, zapasowy
to interfere in	wtrącać się	to put sb up	przenocować kogoś
an affair	sprawa	to pick sb up	odebrać kogoś
to cancel	dwołać	an emergency	nagły wypadek
an appointment	umówione spotkanie	a takeaway	jedzenie na wynos
to warn	ostrzec		

# Lesson 11

to have an affair	mieć romans	a flea market	pchli targ
outskirts	peryferie	cosy	przytulny
a co-worker	współpracownik		

### Lesson 12

although / even though	chociaż	consequently /	wskutek tego,
/ though		as a consequence	w konsekwencji
despite (the fact) /	pomimo	with a view to	mając na uwadze,
in spite of (the fact)			mając zamiar
however	jednakże	to warn	ostrzec
nevertheless	niemniej jednak	to have sth on one's	mieć umysł zaprzątnięty
while / whereas	podczas gdy	mind	czymś
yet / still	mimo to	to pick up a phone	podnieść słuchawkę
on the other hand	z drugiej strony	to hang up a receiver	odłożyć słuchawkę
because / as / since	ponieważ	to vacuum	odkurzać
the reason for sth	powodem	to lose one's temper	stracić panowanie nad
the reason why	przyczyna, dla której		sobą
because of / on account	z powodu	a fancy dress party	bal przebierańców
of / due to / owing to	_	to flood	zalać
as a result / therefore	w rezultacie	to break out (of a fire)	wybuchnąć (o pożarze)