CHAPTER 1

NOUNS, PRONOUNS AND DETERMINERS

1. PERSONAL PRONOUNS: OBJECT vs. SUBJECT: I, ME, SHE, HER ...

Personal pronouns are used for persons or things and change form according to the people or things they refer to and their position in a sentence (Subject or Object). Thus *I* is used as the subject of a sentence (*I* am happy.), *me* is used as an object in various ways (He hit *me*. He gave *me* a book. Do this for *me*.), and *my* is used as the possessive form (That's *my* car.) The same is true of the other personal pronouns: the singular you and *he/she/it* and the plural *you*, *they*, *and we*. These forms are called cases.

When a personal pronoun is connected by a conjunction to another noun or pronoun, its case does not change. We would write "I am taking a course in Asian history"; if Mary is also taking that course, we would write "Mary and I are taking a course in Asian history." (Notice that Mary gets listed before "I" does. This is one of the few ways in which English is a "polite" language.) The same is true when the object form is called for: "Professor DEMIREZEN gave all her books to <u>me</u>"; if Mary also received some books, we'd write "Professor DEMIREZEN gave all her books to <u>Mary and me</u>."

Nouns and pronouns in English have a *case* in relation to their function in the sentence. They can be **subjective** (which means they act as the subject of independent or dependent clauses), **possessive** (which means they show possession of something else), or **objective** (which means they function as the recipient of action or are the object of a preposition).

Except for the possessive forms (usually formed by the addition of an apostrophe and the letter s), nouns do not change form in English. Pronouns, however, do change form when they change case; these changes are most clearly illustrated among the Personal Pronouns. The chart below illustrates the different forms among the cases.

Singular	Subject	Object
	Pronouns	Pronouns
1 st person	I	me
2 nd person	you	you
	he	him
-rd	she	her
3 rd person	it	it
Plural	Subject	Object
	Pronouns	pronouns
1 st person	we	us
2 nd person	you	you
3 rd person	they	them

2. POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES: MY, YOUR, HIS, HER,...

Possessive adjectives show to whom the thing belongs.

	PERSON	ADJECTIVES
1 st	(I)	my
2 nd	(you)	your
3 rd	(he)	his
	(she)	her
	(it)	it
Plural		
1 st	(we)	our
2 nd	(you)	your
3 rd	(they)	their

NOTE: In English, possessive adjectives and pronouns refer to the possessor, not the object or person that is possessed.

Example:

Mary's brother is married to John's sister. **Her** brother is married to **his** sister.

Examples:

- a. Ted and his sister.
- b. Mary and her father.
- c. Do you know where your books are?

3. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS: MINE, YOURS, HIS, HERS,...

The possessive pronouns are used instead of a possessive adjective + noun.

	ERSON	ADJECTIVES	PRONOUNS
1 st	(I)	my	mine
2 nd	(you)	your	yours
3 rd	(he)	his	his
	(she)	her	hers
	(it)	it	its
Plural			
1 st	(we)	our	ours
2 nd	(you)	your	yours
3 rd	(they)	their	theirs

Examples:

This is my book. This book is mine	That is your book. This book is yours	This is his book. This book is his
 This is her book. 	 These are our books. 	 These are your books.
This book is hers.	These books are ours.	These are yours.

4. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS: MYSELF, YOURSELF, HERSELF...

Singular	Subject	Object	Reflexive
	Pronouns	Pronouns	Pronouns
1 st person	I	Ме	myself
2 nd person	you	You	yourself
	He	Him	himself
- rd	She	her	herself
3 rd person	it	it	itself
Plural	Subject	object	Reflexive
	Pronouns	pronouns	pronouns
1 st person	we	us	ourselves
2 nd person	you	you	yourselves
3 rd person	they	them	themselves

The reflexive pronouns indicate that the sentence subject also receives the action of the verb. For example : *She encouraged* <u>herself</u> to do well.

When pronouns are combined, the reflexive will take either the first person

- Juanita, Carlos, and I have deceived ourselves into believing in my uncle.
- Or, when there is no first person, the second person:
 - You and Carlos have deceived yourselves.

The indefinite pronoun (see above) *one* has its own reflexive form ("One must have faith in <u>oneself</u>."), but the other indefinite pronouns use either *himself* or *themselves* as reflexives.

Reflexive pronouns are also used for emphasis. The reflexive pronoun is placed immediately after the subject.

- I *myself* finished the job!
- You yourself have to do all this!

by + reflexive pronoun (by myself, by yourself, etc..) means "alone "

- Amy lives by herself.
- Ted can't do this by himself. Go and help him.
- I want to sit here by myself! Please leave me alone.

5. PLURAL FORMS OF NOUNS

■ Most nouns form the plural by adding -s or -es.

Singular	Plural
boat	boats
hat	hats
house	houses
river	rivers

□ A noun ending in -y preceded by a consonant makes the plural with -ies.

Singular	Plural
a cry	cries
a fly	flies
a nappy	nappies
а рорру	poppies
a city	cities
a lady	ladies
a baby	babies

There are some *irregular* formations for noun plurals. Some of the most common ones are listed below.

Examples of irregular plurals:

Singular	Plural
woman	women
man	men
child	children
tooth	teeth
foot	feet
person	people
leaf	leaves
half	halves
knife	knives
wife	wives
life	lives
loaf	loaves
potato	potatoes
cactus	cacti
focus	foci
fungus	fungi
nucleus	nuclei
syllabus	syllabi/syllabuses
analysis	analyses
diagnosis	diagnoses
oasis	oases
thesis	theses
crisis	crises
phenomenon	phenomena
criterion	criteria
datum	data

Some nouns have the same form in the singular and the plural.

Examples:

Singular	Plural
sheep	sheep
fish	fish
species	species
aircraft	aircraft

Some nouns have a plural form but take a singular verb. Examples:

news — The news is on at 6.30 p.m. athletics — Athletics is good for young people. Iinguistics — Linguistics is the study of language. darts — Darts is a popular game in England. billiards — Billiards is played all over the world.

Some nouns have a plural form and take a plural verb. Examples:

trousers My trousers are too tight. jeans Her jeans are black. glasses Those glasses are his.

others include: savings, thanks, steps, stair, customs, congratulations, tropics, wages, spectacles, outskirts, goods, wits

6. SUMMARY CHART OF REGULAR & IRREGULAR PLURAL NOUNS

a) ball – balls sister – sisters	hat – h	nats		Plural –s is added to most nouns.
b) box – boxes church – churches			Final –es is added to nouns that end	
brush – brushes class - classes			in -ch, -sh, -ss, and -z	
buzz – buzzes	o ciaso	Classes		111 -C11, -311, -33, and -2
c) baby – babies	narty	- parties		Words ending in consonant + y take
city – cities		– parties / – poppies		-ies as a plural suffix.
d) man - Men	Foot- feet	Ox – oxen	Tooth - teeth	These nouns have irregular forms,
Woman -	Women	Mouse -	Mice	so there is no specific rule.
				so there is no specific rule.
Child -	Children	Goose -	Geese	
e) echo – echoes		potato – pota		Some nouns ending in -o take final -
hero – heroes		tomato – tom	natoes	−es.
f) auto- autos	photo- pl	notos studi	o – studios	Only the final -s is added to some
ghetto-ghettos	piano- pi		o- tattoos	nouns ending in – o
kilo- kilos	radio –ra		o – videos	nouns chaing in
memo-memos	solo- sol		zoos	
soprano – sopra		05 200-	2005	
kangaroo- kang	aroos			
->				It is no solida to a 1.1
g) memento – mei				It is possible to add -es or -s to
volcano- volca		S		nouns in this category.
zero – zeroes/ z		_		
mosquito- mos				
tornado – torna	does/ tornado	os		
h) calf -calves	life – lives	thief- thieve	S	Some nouns that end in –f or fe are
half - halves	loaf- loaves	wolf – wolve	es	changed to - ves to form the plural.
knife- knives	self- selves	scarf - scar	ves	
shelf - shelves				
i) belief - beliefs		cliff- cliffs		Some nouns ending in -f are not
chief – chiefs		roof – roofs		changed and simply – s is added to
00.				form the plural.
j) deer – deer	series – serie	s means - m	eans	Some nouns have the same singular
fish - fish sheep - sheep shrimp - shrimp		and plural form.		
offspring- offspi		y 3111111p – 3	ommp	and planar form.
species – species				
Species – specie				
				Some nouns that English has
k) criterion – crite	ria nhonom	enon- phenon	nona	borrowed from other languages
k) criterion – crite	ila pilellolli	enon-phenon	iciia	have foreign plurals.
I) contus contil o	no fuco c	nucleus –	nuoloi	nave foreign plurais.
I) cactus – cacti/ c	actuses			
	fungus- fungi stimulus – stimuli			
syllabus- syllab	ı/ syllabuses			
(_		
m) formula – form		S		
vertebra – vert	eprae			
n) appendix – app		endixes		
index- indices/	indexes			
,				
o) analysis – anal	,	ısis – bases		
crisis – crises hypothesis- hypotheses				
oasis – oases thesis- theses				
parenthesis – p	arentheses			
p) bacterium – ba	cteria cı	urriculum – cu	rricula	
datum – data		edium – media	3	
memorandum -	- memoranda			
1				

7. POSSESSIVE NOUNS:

Possession can be shown in English by simply adding a final 's to a noun. That is, "noun's"

- the car's front seat
- · Charles's car
- Bartkowski's book
- a hard day's work

Possessives of Plurals & Irregular Plurals

Most **plural nouns** already end in s. To create their possessive, simply add an apostrophe after the s:

- The Pepins' house is the big blue one on the corner.
- The lions' usual source of water has dried up.
- The gases' odors mixed and became nauseating.
- The witches' brooms were hidden in the corner.
- The babies' beds were all in a row.

With **irregular plural** nouns on the other hand, we need to add an apostrophe followed by an ${\bf s}$ to create the possessive form.

- She plans on opening a women's clothing boutique.
- Children's programming is not a high priority.
- The geese's food supply was endangered.
 (But with words that do not change their form when pluralized, you will have to add an -s or -es.)

Compound Possessives

When you are showing possession with **compounded nouns**, the apostrophe's placement depends on whether the nouns are acting separately or together.

- Niko's and Tatiana's new cars are in the parking lot.
 This means that each of them has at least one new car and that their ownership is a separate matter.
- Niko and Tatiana's new cars are in the parking lot.
 This means that Niko and Tatiana share ownership of these cars. The possessive (indicated by 's) belongs to the entire phrase, not just to Tatiana.

8. Using Nouns as modifiers

Nouns can modify other nouns. When a noun comes in front of another noun, it functions as an adjective. A noun that is used a san adjective is always in its singular form.

Correct: He works at a **shoe store**. **Incorrect**: He works at a **shoes** store.

Examples:

I bought a grammar book	I bought a story book
We ate at an Italian restaurant	We ate at a Chinese restaurant.
I like vegetable soup	I like lentil soup.

When a noun precedes another noun, it functions as an adjective and it is in its singular form

- The soup has vegetables in it, so it is vegetable soup.
- My garden has flowers in it, so it is a flower garden.
- They sell shoes in that store, so it is a shoe store.

If a noun is combined with a number expression, the noun is singular and a hyphen (-) is used.

- The movie lasted three hours. In other words, it was a three- hour film.
- Last year we had *a four-week vacation* in the Alps.
- Mary and Jack have a ten-month old baby.

9. UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS

a) He bought some, chairs, desks, and tripods. In other words, he bought some furniture.	Many uncountable nouns are the names of "whole Groups made up from different parts"
b) I never have sugar with tea	
c) He has courage.	Many uncountable nouns are abstractions. That is, these nouns do not have any physical form, so you can't touch or feel them.
d) Rain is needed in agricultural areas.	A phenomenon of nature, like " rain" is often used an uncountable noun.

REFERENCE LIST FOR UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS

Here is a sample list of uncountable nouns that are commonly used. Keep in mind that there may be many other nouns not stated in the following list.

II) WHOLE GROUPS MADE UP OF SIMILAR ITEMS: baggage, clothing, equipment food, fruit, furniture, garbage, hardware, jewelry, junk, luggage, machinery, mail, makeup, money, cash, change, postage, scenery, traffic, etc..

mm) <u>FLUIDS:</u> water, coffee, tea, milk, oil, soup, gasoline, blood, etc..

- a) <u>SOLIDS</u>: ice, bread, cheese, meat, gold, iron, silver, glass, paper, wood, cotton, wool, etc...
- b) GASES: steam, air, oxygen, etc
- c) PARTICLES: rice, chalk, corn dirt, dust, etc..
- d) ABSTRACTIONS: beauty, luck, courage, fear, justice, etc..
- e) LANGUAGES: Turkish, English, German, etc..
- f) FILDS OF STUDY : Chemistry, physics, Semantics, etc.
- g) RECRATION: baseball, soccer, tennis, etc..
- h) ACTIVITIES (Gerunds): driving, shopping, swimming, etc..
- i) NATURAL PHENOMENA: weather, dew, fog, rain, snow, etc...

10. USING A, AN,

Use 'a' with nouns starting with a **consonant** (letters that are not vowels), 'an' with nouns starting with a **vowel** (a,e,i,o,u)

Examples:

A boy
An apple
A car
An orange
A house
An opera

NOTE:

An before an *h* mute - **an** hour, **an** honour.

A before u and eu when they sound like 'you': a european, a university, a unit

The indefinite article is used:

• to refer to something for the first time:

An elephant and a mouse fell in love.

Would you like a drink? I've finally got a good job.

• to refer to a particular member of a group or class

Examples:

with names of jobs:

John is a doctor.

Mary is training to be an engineer.

He wants to be *a dancer*.

with nationalities and religions:

John is an Englishman.

Kate is a Catholic.

• with musical instruments:

Sherlock Holmes was playing a violin when the visitor arrived.

(**BUT** to describe the activity we say "He plays the violin.")

with names of days:

I was born on a Thursday

• to refer to a kind of, or example of something:

the mouse had a tiny nose

the elephant had a long trunk

it was a very strange car

with singular nouns, after the words 'what' and 'such':

What a shame!

She's such a beautiful girl.

• meaning 'one', referring to a single object or person:

I'd like an orange and two lemons please.

The burglar took a diamond necklace and a valuable painting.

Notice also that we usually say a hundred, a thousand, a million.

NOTE: that we use 'one' to add emphasis or to contrast with other numbers:

I don't know *one person* who likes eating elephant meat.

We've got six computers but only one printer

11. USING SOME, ANY, NO

Some, any and No are used with countable and uncountable nouns.

Some and any describe an indefinite or incomplete quantity.

No talks about absence or nonexistence.

Some is used in **positive** statements:

- I had some rice for lunch
- He's got some books from the library.

It is also used in questions where we are sure about the answer:

- Did he give you **some** tea? (= I'm sure he did.)
- Is there **some** fruit juice in the fridge? (= I think there is)

Some is used in situations where the question is not a request for information, but a method of making a request, encouraging or giving an invitation:

- Could I have some books, please?
- Why don't you take some books home with you?
- Would you like some books?

Any is used in questions and with **not** in **negative** statements:

- Have you got any tea?
- He didn't give me any tea.
- I don't think we've got any coffee left.

No is used in positive sentences and in questions to talk about absence or nonexistence of a quantity.

- I have no time, so I have to hurry up.
- He didn't give me any tea, so I had no tea
- I think we have **no** coffee left.
- Are there **no** people in the room?
- I don't think we've got anv coffee left.

More examples:

SOME in positive sentences.

- a. I will have some news next week.
- b. She has **some** valuable books in her house.
- c. Philip wants some help with his exams.
- d. There is **some** butter in the fridge.
- e. We need **some** cheese if we want to make a fondue.

SOME in questions:

- a. Would you like some help?
- b. Will you have **some** more roast beef?

ANY in negative sentences

- a. She does n't want any kitchen appliances for Christmas.
- b. They don't want any help moving to their new house.
- c. No, thank you. I don't want any more cake.
- d. There is n't any reason to complain.

ANY in interrogative sentences

- a. Do you have any friends in London?
- b. Have they got any children?
- c. Do you want **any** groceries from the shop?
- d. Are there any problems with your work?

12. USING THE (Simple)

- a) A speaker uses *the* when the listener and the speaker think of the same person or object. The is used with specific nouns.
 - Did you give the cat its milk?
 - Jane is waiting for you in the living room.
 - A: I have two pieces of paper, which one do you want?
 - B: May I have the blue one.
- b) *The* is also used with nouns of natural phenomena;
 - The sky is blue.
 - The weather in Istanbul is usually clear, while the weather in London is not.
 - We were unable to navigate because of the fog.
- c) The is used with all forms of nouns such as, singular, plural or non-count nouns;
 - Jane has some pens and pencils. The pens are yellow and the pencils are gray.
 - Martin has some rice and some cheese. The rice is from India and the cheese is from Holland

As it can be easily seen in the examples, the speaker is using *the* for the second mention of a noun. When the speaker mentions a noun for the second time, both the speaker and the listener are now thinking about the same thing.

For example: Yesterday I met a man. The man was waiting for a woman.

The woman was waiting for a girl. The girl was the woman's daughter.

13. USING ARTICLES :A/AN, THE (ADVANCED)

A is used to indicate one thing or one person:

- Jane works in a bank.
- May I ask a question?
- I haven't got a car yet.
- There is a man in the lounge.

An is used before a/e/i/o/u:

- Would you like an apple or an orange?
- I am planning to buy an umbrella.
- There was an important meeting

Note the exceptions in the examples below;

An hour (h is not pronounced: an (h)our)

A university (pronounced *yuniversity*)

A European country (pronounced *yuropean*)

Another (an + other) is one word:

- May I have another cup of tea please?
- I will buy another pair of shoes.

A & An are used when we say what a thing or a person is

- The world is a planet.
- Football is a game.
- Hamburg is a city in Germany.
- A bear is an animal.
- A bat is a mammal.

A & AN are also used to express occupation:

- I am a dentist.
- He is a mechanical engineer.
- I want to be a teacher some day.
- Beethoven was a very famous composer.

A& AN vs. THE

A /An	THE
I have got a car.	 I will clean the car tomorrow
(There are many cars and I have got one)	(My car)
May ask a question?	Can you repeat the question please?
(There are many questions - can I ask one?)	(The question that you asked)
Is there a hotel near here?	 We enjoyed our hotel. The hotel was very
	nice.

The same + noun	The police / the fire brigade (of a city)		
We live in the same apartment.I want the same pair of shoes.	My father is a soldier. He is in the army.The police is looking for Jim everywhere.		
The + nouns of natural phenomena	The top / the middle / the left etc		
The winter / the rain / the fog / the wind / the sea / the sun / the moon / the sky	 Add your name at the top of the page. My apartment is at the end of the stree The table is in the middle of the room. Our office is on the left. 		
Before musical instruments The piano / the guitar / the violin	The radio I listen to the radio.		
The + Superlative forms of adjectives The best car / the most important			

The is **not used** with the following:

Television:

- I watch television a lot.
- What's on television tonight?

But;

Can you turn off the television the television? (The TV set)

Breakfast / lunch / dinner

- What will you have for breakfast?
- Tell everybody that dinner is ready!

Next / last + week / month / year / summer / Monday / ect..

- I am going to Istanbul next week.
- I was in the USA last month

14 .USING MANY. MUCH,

Many + Countable Plural Noun	Much + Uncountable Noun	
Many students / many people Did you buy many magazines? I don't know many people in my town. How many classes do you take a semester?	Much money / Much water How much money do you spend a day? I don't have much confidence in him. There isn't much water in the glass.	
 We use many in all types of sentences: Do you have many friends? I don't have many friends. There are many people in this town. 	We use Much in questions and negative sentences, but not generally in positive sentences. Do you drink much tea? I don't drink much tea.	
	Other uses of Much Mary spoke to me, but she didn't say much. Do you go out much? Not much. I don't like her much.	

15. USING A FEW. A LITTLE

A few + countable plural noun	A little + uncountable noun
A few students / a few people Do you have a few minutes? I want to ask a few questions. I bought a few books?	A little money / A little water There is a little water in the bottle. There was a little traffic.
A few means some, but not many. I have a few friends. Martin has a few problems. There are a few people in this town.	A few means some, but not much. She didn't eat anything, but she drank a little coffee. A: Can you speak Turkish? B: A little

16. A FEW vs. (VERY) FEW, A LITTLE vs. (VERY)LITTLE

A few + countable plural noun Few	A little + uncountable noun Little		
A few means some , but not many.	A Little means some , but not much.		
 I have a few friends. Martin has a few problems. There are a few people in this town. I have a few friends. Martin has a few problems. There are a few people in this town. 	 She didn't eat anything, but she drank a little coffee. A :Can you speak Turkish? B: A little A little money / A little water There is a little water in the bottle. There was a little traffic 		
(Very) Few means that something hardly exists	(Very) Little means that something hardly exists		
 I feel really sorry for him because he has few friends. I admire him because he has few problems. I am lucky because I have few financial difficulties. 	 I can't afford that car since I have little money. We were able to arrive at the airport on time because there was little traffic. I can't wait any longer. I have little patient left 		

Note: it can be easily seen that *(very) few* & *(very) little* do not carry positive or negative meanings by themselves. They may give positive or negative meanings according to the context in which they are used. The only difference between a few / a little & few/ little is that few & little indicate smaller quantities than a little and a few do.

17.USING ONE, EACH, EVERY, EITHER, NEITHER

(one word, an indefinite personal pronoun) must not be confused.

One				
Each	ch + Singular Countable Noun + Singular Verb			
Every	_			
Either				
Neither				
One s	student	is waiting for Dr. Donald in the teacher's room.		
Every	/ studer	nt must take a final exam.		
Each	exam w	vas quite difficult.		
It doe	sn't ma	tter. Either date is ok with me.		
• I ched	I checked the tubes, but neither one contained gas.			
One of				
Each of		+ Specific Plural noun + Singular Verb		
Every on	e of	•		
Either of				
Neither o	f			
One of	of the st	udents has an excuse for being late.		
Each	Each of the students has an excuse for being late.			
Every	Every one of the students has an excuse for being late.			
• I ched	I checked both engines. Either of them is working properly.			
Neith	er of my	y parents speaks German.		
Special N	lote: th	e words every one (two words, an expression of quantity) & everyone		
1 -				

18. EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY (ADVANCED LIST)

Quantifier			Type of NOUN	Sample Phrase
All (of) the Both (of) the Half (of) the			NOUN – PLURAL	All (of) the desks Both (of) these boys Half (of) the those girls
Several (of these) Few (of those) A few (of the) Many (of the) Most (of the)		e)	NOUN – PLURAL	Several (of these) teachers Few (of those) bags Many (of the) bags Most (of the) bags
Each One Either Neither Every one	of	these the those those	NOUN – PLURAL	Each of these bags One of these bags Either of these bags Neither of these bags Every one of these bags
Both Few A few Many Most No Several Quite a few A good mar A great mar	าy		NOUN – PLURAL	Both bags Few bags many bags most bags no bags several bags quite a few bags a gild many bags a great many bags
A couple A lot lots	of	the these those	NOUN – PLURAL	A couple of these bags A lot of these bags Lots of these bags
Little A little Much Of the		e	NOUN – NONCOUNT	Little (of the) money A little (of the) money Much (of the) money
A great dea A good dea A great amo	l of	f	NOUN – NONCOUNT	A great deal of money A good deal of money A great amount of money
One Each Every Neither Either Many a			NOUN – SINGULAR	Each bag One bag Every bag Neither bag Either bag Many a bag
No All Most (of the)			NOUN – NONCOUNT / Plural	No money / no bags All the money /all the toys Most (of the) bags
inone of the	None of the		Count or NONCOUNT NOUN	None of the information None of the bags
Some Any Plenty of A lot of		Count or NONCOUNT NOUN Plenty of		Some bags/ some money Any bags / any money Plenty of bags Plenty of money A lot of money / bags

19. USING "OF" IN EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY: ALL OF, MOST OF, EACH OF...

All Most Some One Every Each Either Neither Etc.	of	the these those Jane's my her our	+ Plural Noun					
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As it can be seen in the chart above, "of "precedes a specific noun.

20.USING FORMS OF OTHER: ANOTHER, THE OTHER, OTHERS

Other and the other may be used as both pronouns and adjectives. They can be plural when they are used as pronouns. However, they remain singular when used as an adjective.			
Other people ⇒ Others Other men ⇒ Others	 Some people like coffee, while other people like tea. Some people like coffee, while others like tea The meaning of "other" is: more, in addition to the same category/ thing mentioned before. 		
The other boys ⇒ The others The other students ⇒ The others	 Out of ten students in class five went out. The others stayed in class. The other students stayed in class. "The Other" refers to the remaining part of the members of the mentioned group before. 		
Another + Singular NOUN Another pen ⇒ Another (one)	 My keyboard got broken, so I had to buy another keyboard My keyboard got broken, so I had to buy another. "Another" refers to an item which is one more in addition to the one(s) already mentioned. 		

21. SUBJECT – VERB AGREEMENT

BASIC SUBJECT VERB AGREEMENT				
SINGULAR VERB	PLURAL VERB			
a) My brother <i>lives</i> in the UK	b) My brother s <i>live</i> in the UK	The form of the verb is determined according to the quantity of the subject. (Singular or Plural)		
	c) My brother and sister <i>live</i> in the UK.d) My brothers, sisters, and cousin <i>live</i> in Boston.	Subjects, Two or more, combined with and require plural verb.		
e) Every man, woman and child <i>is</i> invited.		Subjects containing each & ever, one take singular verb		
f) Each answer and result <i>is</i> listed.				
g) The article on economic problems is not true.	h) The beliefs in that magazine are interesting.	It is quite normal that a clause or a phrase separates the Subject and the Verb. These		
i) My father , as well as my mother, <i>hates</i> golf.	j) My friends, as well as my collogues, are here.	structures do not change the agreement of the Subject and the Verb.		
k) The book which I have borrowed form Tom <i>is</i> really fantastic.	I) The presents I bought are in the closet.			
m) Teaching languages <i>is</i> hard.		If the Subject is formed by a gerund or a gerund phrase singular verb is used.		
		Gerunds are considered Noncount Nouns		
USIN	G EXPRESSIONS OF QUA	NTITY		
A) Some of the story is good C) A lot of the money is here	good. D) A lot of my friends are	The form of noun specifies the Verb.		
E) Two – thirds of the money is Jane's	here. F) Two – thirds of the <i>pennies</i> are Jane's.			
I) The number of stories in this book is ten.	m) A number of stories were interesting.			
IRREGULARI	TIES IN SUBJECT – VERB	AGREEMENT		
SINGULAR VERB				
A) The United States is large in area. B) The Philippines is big. C) The United Nations has many members.		Some proper nouns may end in –s no matter they are singular. In such a case the		
D) Simpsons <i>is</i> a good cartoon E) The news <i>is</i> really surprising		singular verb is used. News is singular		

F) <i>Mathematics is</i> thought to every child		Fields of study that end in – <i>ics</i> take singular verb.
G) AIDS is an illness.	Names of diseases require singular verb.	
H) Six hours of flight is too much. I) Two thousand dollars is not much. M) Seven hundred miles is too much.		Singular verb is used with the subjects containing expressions of <i>time</i> , <i>distance</i> and <i>money</i> .
K) Two times tow is four. Six minus three is three.	Arithmetic expressions require singular verb.	
PLURAL VERB		
A) These people are from Japan. B) The Police are looking for Dr. Kimble C) Cattle are domestic.		People, police and cattle require plural verb.
SINGULAR VERB D) English is a language F) Turkish is an old language	PLURAL VERB E) The English are kind people G) The Turkish are kind people	
	H) The poor need care. I) The rich are getting richer. M) The old need care.	A few adjectives can be preceded by <i>the</i> and used as a plural noun to refer to people having that quality. The young, the elderly, the living, the dead, the blind the deaf, the blind, the disabled.

CHAPTER 2 ADJECTIVES

1. TYPES OF ADJECTIVES

a) Demonstrative Adjectives: this, that, these, those	

- b) Distributive Adjectives: each, every, either, neither
- c) Indefinite Quantities: some , any, no , little, few many , much, one, twenty, etc..
- d) Forms of Other: other, the other, another
- e) Question Words: which, What, Whose
- f) Possessive Adjectives: my, your, his, her, its our, you, their
- g) Adjectives of Physical Appearance: square, tall, etc..
- h) Opinion Adjectives: beautiful, early, cheap, important, difficult, dangerous, etc...
- i) Adjectives of Age: old , young, middle- aged ,etc
- j) Adjectives of Size: large, small, little, etc..
- k) Colors: yellow, blue, purple, etc...
- I) Nationalities: Turkish, American, Chinese, etc...
- m) Material: metal, iron, gold, etc...
- n) Participles: boring bored, interesting interested in, tired-tiring, etc..

2. USUAL WORD ORDER OF ADJECTIVES

Relative	Size	Adjectives of	Colors	Nationality	Material
Adjectives	Adjectives	Age			
Beautiful	Large	Young	Red	Italian	Gold
Dangerous	Tall	Old	Purple	Turkish	Plastic
Important	Little	Middle-aged	White	Chinese	Leather
			A nouns	is generally pre	ceded not more
a) A beautiful large	old Turkish gold ne	ecklace.			ectives, but if
required the foll		the following :	sequence is a		
	guide to order the adjectives in			adjectives in	
			accordance	ce with the categ	ory they belong
			to. Such a	use as in exam	ple (a) is rare.

3. USING MODIFIERS WITH ADJECTIVES

SUBJECT		Pre	- Modifiers	
	Modifier	Adjectives	Modifier/ clauses	1
She is	quite	Certain	of achievement.	The Modifiers beside are used
Tom is	very	intelligent		to amplify or to take more
She is	much	richer	than they say.	attraction on the adjectives
It is	almost	impossible	for us to leave.	being used. These modifiers
He is	so	rich	that he doesn't have to	may give additional meanings,
I am	fully	convinced	work.	such as negative – positive,
I am	totally	busy	with her explanation.	sufficient-less-much. When
He is	too	rich	that I can't help you with	modifies, adjectives do not
They	as	interested	your homework.	increase in quality but
are not	so	old	as his brother.	emphasis.
He got	rather		as we are.	
901	1 44 41 41			

ADJ + ENOUGH	
a) She can't drive the car yet because she is not <i>old enough</i>.b) They are not <i>relaxed enough</i> to work.	Enough follows the adjective and when an adjective is followed by enough, a speaker mentions insufficiency or lack of something.
VERY vs. TOO + ADJ	
 a) This coffee is too hot. I can't drink it. b) The food is very good. I like it. c) Thank you very much. d) It's too expensive for me to buy. 	A speaker uses too before an adjective to talk about excessiveness. The idea is simply "impossible or negative"

4. COMPARATIVE FORMS OF ADJECTIVES: - er than / More than				
 a) Jane is 20 years old. Jack is 15. Jane is <i>older than</i> Jack. b) People say that health is <i>more important</i> than money. 		 Nouns, things or even people may be compared by using adjectives and the Comparative form. The comparative form is the comparison of two things, people or two groups. 		
a) One syllable Adjective	Adjective	Comparative	Adj + er	
-	Tall Cheap Big	Tall er Cheap er big ger	Special Note: the last consonant is doubled if it is preceded with one vowel as in bigbigger, thin-thinner, hot -hotter	
b) Adjectives ending in - y	Pretty Funny	Prett ier Funn ier	 The -y is converted to -l and - ier is added to the adjective 	
c) Two or more syllable Adjectives	Important Intelligent Famous	More important More intelligent More famous	More is used before adjectives having more than two syllables.	
d) Irregular Adjectives	Good Bad Far	Better Worse Farther / further	 As seen in the chart beside, these three adjectives totally change their forms when used in the comparative from. 	
Using "than" i	n the comparative			
 a) These chairs are <i>more comfortable</i> than those chairs. b) Your apartment is <i>larger</i> than my apartment. c) Your father is <i>older</i> than my father. d) His brother is <i>more hard working</i> than mine But, 		Than is used with the comparative in front of the compared noun in the sentence. As in examples (a), (b), (c), (d).		
e) My fath	ner is old, but your fat collins is famous, but	Nevertheless, if it is clear for the listener, the speaker does not need to use the compared noun		

g) Galatasaray is good, but Fenerbahçe is better.

and not **than** as well. As in examples (e),(f),(g).

Using "as adjective as" in Comparative Sentences (The Equal Degree)

- a) Mike is 45 years old and Jack is 45, too. Mike is as old as Jack.
- b) Niko and Berke got the same grades from their final exams, so we can say that Niko is as hardworking as Berke.

Using "as + adjective + as " indicates equality between the two mentioned items. When using "as as" the speaker says that the two compared items are equal in terms of the adjective used. As seen in examples (a), (b).

Nevertheless, using the

negative with as....as removes

But,

- c) John and James are identical twins. However, You can distinguish them because John is not as tall as James.
- d) Roosen LTD. and Sintek CO. are two companies in the United States. Nevertheless, Roosen LTD is not as big as Sintek CO.
- e) Istanbul is as three times as large as Ankara.
- f) My grand father is four times as old as his grand son.

the equality and shows the difference between two items, as in examples (c), (d).

Difference between two items can be shown by placing phrases like *three times, two times etc..*

Using "less + adjective + than" in Comparative Sentences

- a) This car is less expensive than that car.
- **b)** Money is less important than health.
- c) The book that I read was *less interesting than* the one I read last month.

Less is the opposite of "**more**". **Less** is used with adjectives having at least two or more syllables. **Less** is not used with one-syllable adjectives and adjectives ending in – **y**

"but" can be used to show

difference between two items or

two events. Being a conjunction,

"but" is followed simply by an

Using "but " to show contrast between two items

Positive Sentence+ , but + negative auxiliary

- a) Jack is rich, but John isn't .
- **b)** They are good, **but** those aren't.
- c) I was at home, but Sue wasn't.
- d) Mary studies hard, but Sam doesn't.
- e) I watched the film, but she didn't.
- f) I can speak English, **but** he can't.
- g) Jim will be there, but Morris won't.

auxiliary in order not to repeat the verb phrase.

Positive Sentence + , but + negative auxiliary

- h) Jack isn't rich, but John is.
- i) They aren't good, but those are
- j) I wasn't at home, but Sue was.
- k) Mary doesn't study hard, but Sam does.
- I) I didn't watch the film , but she did.
- m) I can't speak English, but he can.
- n) Jim will not be there, but Morris will.

5 SUPERLATIVE FORMS OF ADJECTIVES : " the adjective + -est / the most + adjective "

 a) Among the 20 students in class, Ayşe is <i>the youngest</i> of all. b) People say that health is <i>the most important</i> thing in one's living. 			The superlative is used to show difference between an item and the group in which it belongs.
c) The Nile Riv	er is the longest rive	er in the world.	
	Adjective	Superlative Form	
a) One syllable Adjectives	Tall Cheap big	The tallest The cheapest The biggest	The + adjective + - est
b) Adjectives ending in - y	Pretty Funny	The Prettiest The Funniest	The + adj + iest
c) Two or more syllable Adjectives	Important Intelligent Famous	The most important The most intelligent The most famous	The most + adjective
d) Irregular Adjectives	Good Bad Far	The best The worst The farthest / the furthest	As seen in the chart beside, these three adjectives totally change their forms when used in the Superlative from.
Using " The L	east + adjective " in	Superlative sentences	
 a) This is the least interesting book I have ever read. b) I think Amanda is the least attractive girl in the entire world! 			 The Least is the opposite of the most. The Least is used with adjectives having at least two or more syllables. The least is not used with one-syllable adjectives and adjectives ending in – y
	+ superlative adj +		
 a) Martin is one of my best friends. b) The Golden Gate Bridge is one of the longest bridges in the world. c) 19 March was one of the longest days in my life. d) You are one of the most important people in my life. 		One of indicate some particular item form the group to which the mentioned item belongs to	

6. SUMMARY CHART OF COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE FORMS.

a) One syllable Adjective	Adjective	Comparative	Superlative Form
	Tall Cheap big	Tall er Cheap er big ger	The tallest The cheapest The biggest
b) Adjectives ending in - y	Pretty Funny	Prett ier Funn ier	The Prettiest The Funniest
c) Two or more syllable Adjectives	Important Intelligent Famous	More important More intelligent More famous	The most important The most intelligent The most famous
d) Irregular Adjectives	Good Bad Far	Better Worse Farther / further	The best The worst The farthest / the furthest

7.MODIFICATION OF COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES

A - MODIFICAT	A - MODIFICATION OF COMPARATIVES			
Degree Adverb	s used for Modification			
Considerably	Istanbul is <i>considerably larger than</i> Ankara	■ These degree adverbs are		
Much	She is <i>much richer than</i> you are	used to amplify the strength or		
Far	The building was <i>far more expensive than</i> I expected.	emphasis of the comparisons made.		
A lot	She seems a <i>lot thinner</i> now			
A great deal	It can be <i>a great deal cheaper</i> if you bargain.	 Such a modification is not required to make a comparison, 		
A little	She is only <i>a little taller than</i> I am.	but it is optional for a speaker to		
Even	It is cold today. It is even colder than yesterday.	use.		
No	We will accept <i>no lower wages than</i> planned.			
Any	If he turns out to be any happier , give me a call ASAP.			

All the	I tried to do all the best .	
Rather	The results are <i>rather worse than</i> I expected	
B - MODIFICAT	ION OF SUPERLATIVES	
Degree Adverb	s used for Modification	
Quite Much Very By far	That is <i>quite the best</i> This is <i>much the worst</i> story I have ever heard. I will give you the <i>very best</i> work conditions. It was probably by <i>far the most</i> hazardous pollution.	 These degree adverbs re used to amplify the strength or emphasis of the comparisons made. Such a modification is not required to make a comparison, but it is optional for a speaker to use.

8. COMPOUND ADJECTIVES OF MEASUREMENT

Age	A two-year old baby	Compound adjectives are
Volume	A three- liter bottle	formed by putting terms of numbers
Length	A fifty - meter building.	and nouns in their singular forms.
Price	A ten- dollar shirt	Note that hyphens (-) are
Area	A thirty- acre campus	placed between the numbers and
Duration	A nine – hour journey	the nouns following them.
Weight	A five – kilo bag	
Time / distance	A five – minute walk	

9. PARTICIPLE ADJECTIVES :BORING vs. BORED, INTERESTING vs INTERESTED ...

The Verb –ing forms and the V₃ a) The event *interests* all the people. forms are quite often used as it is an interesting event. They are interested people. adjectives in English and they function as adjectives with slight **b)** The lesson **bored** the students. differences. It was a boring lesson They were bored students The Verb_{-ing} indicates an active meaning. In example (a): it is an event which interests people. The V₃ (Past Participle) indicates a passive meaning. In example (a): people are interested by the event

CHAPTER 3 ADVERBS

1. CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS

Α	d	ve	r	h

Adverbs function as words which modify verbs, adjectives, other adverbs, or even an entire sentence in accordance with their places and functions in a sentence. Adverbs differ according to place and function in a sentence

function in a sent	ence.	diverbs differ according to place and
Time adverbs	Today, now, yesterday, next week, later, afterwards	These adverbs indicate when something happened. They determine the verb tense of the sentence.
Adverbs of Place	Here, there, inside, outside, upstairs, downtown	These adverbs are used to show location in a sentence. They can be used instead of prepositional phrases of location.
Adverbs of manner	Quickly, easily, clearly, accurately, precisely, slowly, fast, hard, late, well a) The student answered the question <i>quickly</i> . b) Drive <i>carefully</i> ! c) I opened the case <i>easily</i> . d) She swims <i>fast</i> e) She speaks English <i>well</i>	These adverbs modify verbs, demonstrating in what way something is done. Such an adverb is derived by adding —Iy at the end of an adjective: That is: adjective + Iy = adverb of manner but, fast, hard, late, early & well are do not require —Iy as in examples (d) & (e)
Adverbs of restriction	Only, merely, just, purely, solely, simply, exclusively a) Only men can enter! b) You can just sit here. c) His success is purely his achievement.	These adverbs are used for limitation and emphasis in a sentence.
Adverbs of Viewpoint	Scientifically, Chemically, Semantically, a) Grammatically this sentence is not accurate. b) Economically, we are in a bad position. c) Scientifically, this can't be true.	These adverbs show in what point the idea should be seen.
Adverbs of Degree	Rather, quite, fairly, extremely, much, a lot, highly a) She was quite talented. b) He was fairly well equipped.	These adverbs show what degree the adjectives are.

Adverbs of Focus	 Mainly, specifically, primarily, notably, especially, principally, predominantly, mostly, chiefly a) Especially, the children in India are suffering. b) Semantics primarily deals with meanings of utterances.
Frequency	Always, usually, sometimes, ever, Frequency Adverbs indicate how
adverbs	never, seldom often something is done. These
	 a) She always has breakfast in the morning. adverbs are placed before the action verb of the sentence. Nevertheless, if
	b) Sometimes I feel afraid in the night. the main verb is "be" then these adverbs simply follow the verb be , as
	c) I never sleep before mid-night. in (d)
	d) She is sometimes late for work.
	beginning of a sentence. As in (b)
Adverbs	a) Essentially, I can't sleep alone
modifying a	b) It seems difficult, but <i>basically</i> it
whole	is easy.
Sentence	c) Fortunately, we were able to
	arrive on time.
	d) Obviously, he is innocent.

2. USE OF RATHER, QUITE, AND FAIRLY

RATHER

With negative Adjectives to amplify the negative idea	I had a <i>rather difficult</i> day.
With some verbs	My father <i>rather likes</i> raw meat. I rather surprised us
With Comparative forms to amplify the negative idea	She is <i>rather taller than</i> her sister
With some nouns	It is <i>rather a pity</i> .
With would to express preference	I would rather sleep than stay up.
Meaning mostly	The society should be accused <i>rather than</i> him
Before too	The car was <i>rather too</i> expensive.
With positive adjectives (Unexpectedly)	Though I hadn't studied, my grades are <i>rather good</i> !

QUITE

Before Adjectives	My French is quite good.
Before Adverbs	He can speak French quite well now.
Rarely with some nouns	Mr. Chalmers is quite an authority on playing darts
Before verbs meaning completely	I couldn't quite understand what you
With superlative forms	It's quite the worst match I have ever watched.

FAIRLY

Generally with positive The exercises were fairly easy. adjectives and adverbs It was fairly hot today

3. POSITION OF ADVERBS

When there is more than one adverb in a sentence, they are organized in accordance with some rules.		
Manner – Place – Time	He read his book <i>carefully in his room yesterday</i> .	
Usual sequence		
Place – manner- time	He drove <i>home in a hurry two hours ago</i> .	
Place – manner – frequency – time	Terry read the book in his room with great interest twice yesterday	

4. POSITION OF NEGATIVE ADVERBS

When a negative adverb comes at the beginning of a sentence, inversion is required		
Usual word order	Inverted word order	
Thomas rarely drinks whisky	Rarely does Thomas drink coffee.	
I hardly ever eat at home	Hardly ever do I eat at home	
I will not accept his offer under any circumstances	Under no circumstances will I accept his offer.	
You should on no account spend your last money	On no account should you spend your last money	

CHAPTER 4 NOUN CLAUSES

1- FORMATION OF NOUN CLAUSES

There are three main structures of noun clauses. The following conjunctions are used to form noun clauses in English.

2) whether / if

3) Question Words

what why when how where how long which how often who how much...

2- NOUN CLAUSES BEGINNING WITH <u>THAT</u>

- 1. (a) I think this. He is a good dentist.
 - (b) I think (that) he is he is a good dentist
- 2. (a) I know this. George is innocent.
 - (b) I know (that) George is innocent.
- 3. (a) The burglar broke in through the window. I am sure.
 - (b) I am sure (that) the burglar broke in through the window.
- 4. (a) The earth goes around the sun. This is a fact.
 - (b) That the earth goes around the sun is a fact.
 - (c) It is a fact that earth goes around the sun.
- 5. (a) She should see a doctor. It is very important.
 - (b) That she should see a doctor is very important.
 - (c) It is very important that she should see a doctor
- 6. (a) The weather will be rainy. It seems obvious.
 - (b) That the weather will be rainy seems obvious.
 - (c) It seems obvious that the weather will be rainy.

That is used to join two statements.

In (1-b) that he is a good dentist is a noun clause. It is used as the **object** of the verb think.

When it introduces a noun clause, the word *that* has no meaning itself. It only marks the beginning of the noun clause. It is usually omitted as in (1-b) and (2-b).

In (4-b), the noun clause that the earth goes around the sun is the subject of the sentence. The word *that* is not omitted when it introduces a noun clause as the subject of a sentence as in (4-b), (5-b), and (6-b)

Most of the time, the word *it* is used as the subject and the noun clause is placed at the end of the sentence, as in (4-c), (5-c) and (6-c). There is no change in meaning.

3- NOUN CLAUSES BEGINNING WITH QUESTION WORDS

 (a) Where does he live? I don't know it. (b) I don't know where she lives. (a) Where can I find stamps? Can you yell me this? (b) Can you tell me where I can buy some stamps? (a) When will they arrive here? Do you know it? (b) Dou you know when they will arrive here? (a) Why didn't you come to the party? I wonder it. (b) I wonder why you didn't come to the party. 	In(1-b), where she lives is the object of verb know. In noun clauses question word order is never used. The subject always precedes the verb. Auxiliary verbs does, did and, do are used in questions, but never in noun clauses.
5. (a) Who are those people? I wonder it.	
(b) I wonder who those people are.	In noun clauses the subject always precedes the verb, so the
 (a) Whose car is it? Do you know this? (b) Do you know whose car it is? 	same rule is applied for the sentences with the verb to be.
7. (a) Who is he? I don't know it.	
(b) I don't know who he is.	
8. (a) <i>Who killed</i> this man? Nobody knows it .	
(b) Nobody knows who killed this man .	In the examples 8,9 and 10, the question sentences' subject
9. (a) What happened ? Do you know it?	precedes the verb. Therefore,
(b) Do you know what happened?	there is no need to change in noun clauses.
10. (a) Who is responsible for this accident? I have no ide	ea.
(b) I have no idea who is responsible for this accider	nt.
11. (a) How did the robbers open the safe? This must	
investigated. (b) How the robbers opened the safe must	Most of the time, the word it is be used as the subject and the noun
investigated.	clause is placed at the end of the
(c) It must be investigated how the robbers opened safe.	the sentence, as in (11-c), (12-c). There is no change in meaning
12. (a) Why did he resign from his post? It doesn't concern	
(b) Why he resigned from his post doesn't concern m(c) It doesn't concern me why he resigned from his post	

4- NOUN CLAUSES BEGINNING WITH $\underline{\textit{WHETHER \& IF}}$

1.	(a) Does he speak English? I don't know it.(b) I don't know if he speaks English.(c) I don't know whether he speaks English.	In order to change a yes/no question to a noun clause, whether or if is used to introduce the clause.
2.	(a) Is she studying at the moment? I wonder it.(b) I wonder whether she is studying at the moment.(c) I wonder if she is studying at the moment.	In examples 1,2 and 3, the noun clauses are in object position.
3.	(a) Did the boss call me? I want to know this.(b) I want to know whether the boss called me.(c) I want to know if the boss called me.	
4.	 (a) Does she like fish? I must know it. (b) I must know whether or not she likes fish. (c) I must know whether she likes fish or not. (d) I must know if she likes fish or not. INCORRECT: (e) I must know if or not she likes fish. 	In (4-b-c-d): See how to use or not .
5.	 (a) Will she come to the party? It is unimportant to me. (b) Whether she will come to the party or not is unimportant to me. INCORRECT: (c) If she will come to the party is unimportant to me. 	In (4b), the noun clause is in the subject position. While in subject position, the noun clause always starts with whether . Use of if is incorrect in this position, as in (5-c)

5- FUNCTIONS OF NOUN CLAUSES

 (a) I didn't hear his story. (b) I didn't hear what he said. (a) I believe in her honesty. (b) I believe that she is honest. (a) I remember his suggestion. (b) I remember what he suggested. 	In the examples 1,2,3:The noun clauses are used as the OBJECT of a sentence.
 4. (a) His story was unbelievable. (b) What he said was unbelievable. 5. (a) Her offer was reasonable. (b) What she offered was reasonable. 6. (a) His office is so big. (b) Where he works is so big. 7. (a) His sudden death surprised everybody. 	In the examples 4 to 7:The noun clauses are used as the SUBJECT of a sentence
 (b) That he died suddenly surprised everybody. 8. (a) His approval to the project is not important. (b) Whether he approves the project is not important. 9. (a) We are sure of his success. (b) We are sure that he will be successful. 10. (a) I am certain of her respect. (b) I am certain that she is respectful. 	In the examples 9 to 11:The noun clauses are used as the ADJECTIVE COMPLEMENT.
 11. (a) Nobody is aware of his illness. (b) Nobody is aware that she is ill. 12. (a) This is my suggestion. (b) This is what I suggest. 	In the examples 12 and 13:The noun clauses are used as the
 13. (a) The surprise is her promotion. (b) The surprise is that she has been promoted. 14. (a) We are interested in his explanation about the accident. 	In the example 14:The noun clause is used as the SUBJECT COMPLEMENT.
(b) We are interested in <i>how he will explain the accident</i> . 15. (a) The committee will give the winner a scholarship. (b) The committee will give whoever wins a scholarship.	In the example 15:The noun clause is used as the INDIRECT OBJECT.

6- THE SUBJUNCTIVE IN NOUN CLAUSES

- 1. (a) It is essential that she should see a doctor.
 - (b) It is essential that she see a doctor.
- 2. (a) It is important that we should be on time.
 - (b) It is important that we be on time.
- 3. (a) It is necessary that she should not fail the exam.
 - (b) It is necessary that she not fail the exam.
- 4. (a) It is critical that air pollution should be controlled.
 - (b) It is critical that air pollution be controlled.
- 5. (a) The teacher demanded that we write a new paragraph.
 - (b) I recommended that John be the member of the club.
 - (c) They requested that we not play music after midnight.

A subjunctive verb is the simple form of the verb (bare infinitive). It doesn't have a present, future or past forms; it is neither singular nor plural. Subjunctive sentences are frequently used to emphasize importance or urgency.

The examples (1-b), (2-b), (3-b), (4-a, b) and (5-a, b, c) are the sentences having subjunctive verbs.

LIST OF WORDS THAT TAKE THE SUBJUNCTIVE FORM

ADJECTIVES: important, obligatory, significant, obligatory, mandatory, imperative, necessary, urgent, vital,

Advisable, crucial, recommendable

VERBS: order, prefer, propose, require, recommend, request, rule, suggest, urge, advise, ask, demand

NOUNS: advice, demand, insistence, order, proposal, recommendation, and suggestion.

7- QUOTED SPEECH vs. REPORTED SPEECH

QUOTED SPEECH	Quoted speech (direct speech)
1. (a) She said," M y father is a dentist."	indicates the words as they were originally spoken.
(b) "My father is dentist," she said.	Quotation marks ("") are
(c) "My father," she said, " <i>i</i> s a student.	used to start and finish the sentences.
b. "I am playing tennis." c. "I have played tennis." d. "I played tennis." e. "I had played tennis." f. "I will play tennis." g. "I am going to play tennis." i. "I can play tennis." j. "I may play tennis." k. "I must play tennis." he so the solution of the solu	·
clause will usually be in a past form.	g vois) is emipre pass, the vois in the hear.
 2. (a) "Play tennis!" (b) He told me to play tennis. 3. (a) "Don't enter this room." (b) He told us not to enter this room." 	In reported speech, imperative sentences are changed to infinitives. The verb tell is used as the reporting verb instead of say .
 4. (a) "Play tennis everyday." (b) He says he plays tennis everyday. (c) He has said that he plays tennis everyda (d) He will say that he plays tennis everyday 	
5. (a) "The sky is blue"(b) She said the sky is blue.	Sentences of general truth are not changed into past.

This	That
These	Those
Here	There
Today	That day
Yesterday	The previous day
Ago	Before
Last week	The previous week
Tomorrow	The next/ the following day
Next week	The week after / the following
	week
Now	Then / at that moment, that time
Next year	The year after 7 the following year

In reported speech, the expressions of time and location are changed as in the box. See the changes in (6-b), (7-b) and (8-c).

- 6. (a) "She said, "I saw my uncle this morning."
 - (b) She said that she had seen her uncle **that morning**.
- 7. (a) "I will fly to Istanbul tomorrow" he said.
 - (b) He said that he would fly to Istanbul the next day.
- 8. (a) "I came here last week." The old man said.
 - (b) The old man said he had come there the previous week.

8- REDUCTION OF NOUN CLAUSES

Noun clauses are usually reduced to infinitive phrases if the subjects of the clauses that form the sentence are the same. However, in some cases, noun clauses can also be reduced if the object of the main clause and the subject of the noun clause is identical as in example (6 - b) and (7 - b).

- 1. (a) It's vital that she see a doctor.
 - (b) It is vital for her to see a doctor.
- 2. (a) I am so happy that I have been given a scholarship.
 - (b) I am so happy to have been given a scholarship.
- 3. (a) She is excited that she is here.
 - (b) She is excited to be here.
- 4. (a) I don't know what I should do.
 - (b) I don't know what to do.
- 5. (a) Do you know when you should start?
 - (b) Do you know when to start?
- 6. (a) Could you please tell me how I can get to the museum?
 - (b) Could you please tell me how to get to the museum?
- 7. (a) The teacher told me when I should bring the term paper.
 - (b) The teacher told *me* when to bring the term paper.
- 8. (a) We haven't decided whether we should get married this year.
 - (b) We haven't decided whether to get married this year.

CHAPTER 5 ADJECTIVE (RELATIVE) CLAUSES

1- INTRODUCTION TO RELATIVE CLAUSES

Relative clauses are used to combine two simple sentences having *identical noun phrases*. Relative clauses function as adjectives in the sentence; they are used to modify the nouns in the sentences. Relative clauses are combined or embedded to the sentence by means of relative pronouns or relative adverbs that you can see below.

1- RELATIVE PRONOUNS

- Who (For people as subject)
- Who (m) (For people as object)
- Which (For things or animals)
- That (For people, things and animals)
- Whose (Possessions)

2- RELATIVE ADVERBS

- Where (Place)
- When (time)
- Why (reason)

2- USING RELATIVE PRONOUNS AS THE <u>SUBJECT</u>

- 1. (a) **The boy** is happy. **He** passed the exam.
 - (b) The boy who passed the exam is happy.
 - (c) The boy *that* passed the exam is happy.
- 2. (a) I stayed at a hotel. It was in the center of the city.
 - (b) I stayed at a hotel which was in the center of the city.
 - (c) I stayed at a hotel <u>that</u> was in the center of the city.
- 3. (a) The teacher is in the classroom. He teaches us English.
 - (b) The teacher **who** teaches us English is in the classroom.
 - (c) The teacher that teaches us English is in the classroom
- 4. (a) The car belongs to my father. It is on the left.
 - (b) The car which is on the left belongs to my father.
 - (c) The car *that* is on the left belongs to my father.

The bold parts of the (b) and (c) sentences of the examples are relative clauses and have the same meaning.

The relative pronouns who, which and that are in the subject position of the relative clauses.

3- USING RELATIVE PRONOUNS AS THE OBJECT

- 1. (a) The film was good. I watched it last night.
 - (b) The film which I watched last night was good.
 - (c) The film **that** I watched last night was good.
 - (d) The film \emptyset I watched last night was good.
- 2. (a) The teacher liked the **term paper**. I gave **it** last week.
 - (b) The teacher liked term paper which I gave last week.
 - (c) The teacher liked term paper that I gave last week.
 - (d) The teacher liked term paper Ø I gave last week.
- 3. (a) The woman is a doctor. I met her yesterday.
 - (b) The woman **who (m)** I met yesterday is a doctor.
 - (c) The woman **that** I met yesterday is a doctor.
 - (d) The woman Ø I met yesterday is a doctor.
- 4. (a) The apples were too sour. We bought them from the market.
 - (b) The apples which we bought from the market were too sour.
 - (c) The apples that we bought from the market were too sour
 - (d) The apples \emptyset we bought from the market were too sour

The bold parts of the **(b)**, **(c)**, and **(d)** sentences of the examples are relative clauses and have the same meaning.

The relative pronouns who (m), which and that are in the object position of the relative clauses.

Both **who** and **whom** can be used in the relative clauses *if the pronoun is in* **object position**. In subject position only **who** is acceptable.

Relative pronouns can be omitted when they function as an object of the verb in the relative clause.

Object pronouns are not used in relative clauses. Example 5 is incorrect.

- 5- (a) INCORRECT: The woman who(m) I met her yesterday is a doctor.
 - (b) INCORRECT: The woman that I met her yesterday is a doctor.
 - (c) INCORRECT: The woman \varnothing I met *her* yesterday is a doctor.

4- USING RELATIVE PRONOUNS AS THE OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION

- 1. (a) This is **the student**. I told you **about him**.
 - (b) This is the student <u>about whom</u> I told you.
 - (c) This is the student whom I told you about.
 - (d) This is the student that I told you about.
 - (e) This is the student Ø I told you about.
- 2. (a) The song was very romantic. We listened to it.
 - (b) The song to which we listened was very romantic.
 - (c) The song **which** we listened **to** was very romantic.
 - (d) The song *that* we listened *to* was very romantic.
 - (e) The song \emptyset we listened \underline{to} was very romantic.
- 3. INCORRECT: The song *to that* we listened was very romantic. INCORRECT: This is the student *about who* I told you.

Prepositions can be used at the beginning of a relative clause or after the verb of a relative clause. Using prepositions after the verb is more common.

Prepositions never come at the beginning of a relative clause if the relative pronoun is **that** or **who**, as in example 3.

5- USING WHOSE IN RELATIVE CLAUSES

 (a) The man called the police. His car was stolen. (b) The man whose car was stolen called the police. (a) The teacher gives hard tests. I am taking his course. (b) The teacher whose course I am taking gives hard tests. (a) This is the girl. I borrowed her books. (b) This is the girl whose books I borrowed. 	Whose is used to express possession and has the same meaning as other possessive pronouns used as adjectives: his, her, its and their. Whose cannot be omitted.
 4. (a) This is the car. Its seats are leather. (b) This is the car whose seats are leather. 5. (a) I have an antique table. Its value is over \$ 1000.000. (b) I have an antique table whose value is over \$ 1000.000. 	Whose can be used to modify things, too, as in 4 and 5.

6- USING <u>WHERE</u> IN RELATIVE CLAUSES

 (a) That is the village. I was born there. (b) That is the village where I was born. (c) That is the village in which was born. (d) That is the village which I was born in. (e) That is the village that I was born in. (f) That is the village I was born in. (a) The restaurant is fantastic. We had lunch there. (b) The restaurant where we had lunch was fantastic. 	Where is used in relative clauses in order to modify a place. If where is used, prepositions are not included in the relative clauses. If where is not used, prepositions must be
 (c) The restaurant <u>at which</u> we had lunch was fantastic. (d) The restaurant <u>which</u> we had lunch <u>at</u> was fantastic. (e) The restaurant <u>that</u> we had lunch <u>at</u> was fantastic. (f) The restaurant Ø we had lunch <u>at</u> was fantastic. 	used. Prepositions are not used immediately before that.
INCORRECT: (a) The restaurant <u>at where</u> we had lunch was fantastic. INCORRECT: (b) The restaurant <u>at that</u> we had lunch was fantastic. INCORRECT: (b) The restaurant at that we had lunch was fantastic.	

7- USING <u>WHEN</u> IN RELATIVE CLAUSES

 (a) 1975 is the year. I was born then. (b) 1975 is the year when I was born. (c) 1975 is the year in which I was born. (d) 1975 is the year that I was born. (e) 1975 is the year I was born. (a) Tuesday is the day. The holiday will start then. (b) Tuesday is the day when the holiday will start. (c) Tuesday is the day on which the holiday will start. (d) Tuesday is the day that the holiday will start. (e) Tuesday is the day the holiday will start. 	When is used in relative clauses in order to modify a noun of time. The use of preposition in relative clauses modifying time is a little different from other relative clause patterns. A preposition can only be used preceding which, as in (1-c) and (2-c); there is no other possibility for a preposition.
INCORRECT: (a) Tuesday is the day <u>on when</u> the holiday will start. INCORRECT: (b) Tuesday is the day <u>on that</u> the holiday will start. INCORRECT: (c) Tuesday is the day <u>which</u> the holiday will start <u>on.</u>	See the common mistakes on use of prepositions in relative clauses modifying a noun of time.

8- PUNCTUATION IN RELATIVE CLAUSES (Defining vs. Non-defining)

There are two types of relative clauses.

- 1- Defining relative clauses.
- 2- Non-defining relative clauses.

If the relative clause is necessary to identify the noun it modifies, commas are not used. This kind of relative clauses is called as defining relative clauses.

If the relative clause is not necessary to identify the noun it modifies; in other words, if the noun that the relative clause modifies is a specific noun (or a proper noun), commas are used in the beginning and at the end of relative clauses. This kind of relative clauses is called as non-defining relative clauses. Non-defining relative clauses are used only to give additional information about the nouns they modify.

- 1) The secretary <u>who works at the trade department</u> knows five languages.
- Mrs. Emerson, <u>who works at the trade department</u>, knows five languages.
- 3) The architect who built this mosque was a genius.
- 4) **Mimar Sinan,** who built this mosque in 1450s, was a genius.
- 5) The man who started this company died of hearth attack.
- 6) Atatürk, <u>who established Turkish Republic in 1923</u>, died in 1938.
- 7) Ankara, which is the capital city of Turkey, has an interesting history.

- In (1): There is no need to commas because the relative clause is necessary to identify *which secretary* is meant. The relative clause in this sentence is a defining relative clause.
- In (2): The adjective clause simply gives additional information; it doesn't identify the noun because it is already specific. Therefore, commas are used to show that it is a non-defining relative clause. With proper nouns, relative clauses are always used with commas because they are always specific and don't need to be identified.
- In (5): No commas are used because the relative clause identifies which man died of heart attack. It is a defining relative clause.
- In (6): Commas are used because the relative clause doesn't identify which Atatürk established TR. It only gives additional information about Atatürk.
- 8) The students <u>who passed the proficiency exam</u> were given a scholarship.

The students, who passed the proficiency exam, were given a scholarship

INCORRECT:

(10) The students, *that* passed the proficiency exam, were given a scholarship.

INCORRECT:

(11) Ankara , that is the capital of Turkey, is a big city.

- In (8): the speaker expresses that only the students who passed the exam were given a scholarship. In the sentence, the relative clause identifies which students were given a scholarship; therefore it is a defining relative clause and commas are not used.
- In (9): the speaker expresses that all the students passed the exam and they are all given a scholarship. The relative clause in this sentence is non-defining, and it doesn't identify the students; therefore, it is used between commas. It just gives an additional information

THAT is not used in non-defining relative clauses. So, the sentences (10) and (11) are incorrect.

9- USING QUANTIFIERS IN RELATIVE CLAUSES

- 1. (a) I have two secretaries. Both of **them** speak English.
 - (b) I have two secretaries, **both of whom** speak English
- (a) She bought many carpets from Turkey. Most of them were hand-made.
 - (b) She bought many carpets from Turkey, most of which were hand-made.
- 3. (a) I have three brothers. All of **them** are doctors.
 - (b) I have three brothers, **all of whom** are doctors.
- 4. (a) We talk about Sally. One of **her** problems is her marriage.
 - (b) We talked about Sally, **one of whose problems** is her marriage.

Expressions of quantity are used with **of** in relative clauses:

some of, a little of, all of, most of, both of, either of, several of

Quantifiers come before the pronoun. Only **whom, which** and **whose** are used in this pattern.

Relative clauses that begin with expressions of quantity are non-defining relative clauses, so commas are used.

10- USING <u>SUPERLATIVES</u> IN RELATIVE CLAUSES

- 1. (a) There are many mountains in Turkey. The highest of **them** is Mt. Ağrı.
 - (b) There are many mountains in Turkey, *the highest of which* is Mt. Ağrı.
- (a) I have seen many cities. The most beautiful of them is Istanbul.
 - (b) I have seen many cities, the most beautiful of which is Istanbul.

See how the superlative forms are used in relative clauses. They follow the same pattern as quantifiers.

11- MODIFYING A WHOLE SENTENCE WITH WHICH

- 1. (a) Brian didn't come to the party. That surprised everybody.
 - (b) Brian didn't come to the party, which surprised everybody.
- 2. (a) I couldn't finish writing the reports. This made my boss angry.
 - (b) I couldn't finish writing the reports, *which* made my boss angry.
- 3. (a) I signed the contract without reading it. This was really stupid of me.
 - (b) I signed the contract without reading it, **which** was really stupid of me.

In all examples, this and that refer to the whole sentence that comes before. Similarly, the relative clauses starting with which modify the idea of whole sentence.

Relative clauses that modify a whole sentence with **which** are non-defining, so they are separated from the sentence with a comma.

12- MODIFYING A WHOLE SENTENCE WITH WHICH

- 1. (a) I read an article. The title of the article is *Racism in Modern World*.
 - (b) I read an article, *the title of which* is *Racism in Modern World*.
- 2. (a) They made an experiment. The result of the experiment was
 - (b) They made an experiment, *the result of which* was shocking.

The adjective clauses that include **noun+of** which carries the meaning of whose.

Commas are used.

13- REDUCTION OF RELATIVE CLAUSES: ACTIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

Active constructions in relative clauses are reduced to -ing participles. 1. (a) The man *who is sitting* on the desk is my chemistry teacher. (b) The man \varnothing \varnothing *sitting* on the desk is my chemistry teacher. If the relative clause contains verb (to) be, omit the pronouns and the **be** form as in 2. (a) The people who are attending the meeting are from China. examples (1-b), (2-b), (3-b). (b) The people \varnothing \varnothing **attending** the meeting are from China. 3. (a) The people *who are waiting* for the bus are getting nervous. (b) The people \varnothing \varnothing waiting are getting nervous. 4. (a) I like watching the children *who are playing* in the garden. (b) I like watching the children \varnothing \varnothing playing in the garden. (a) Anyone who wants to join the meeting should call Mr. Watson. If the verb of the relative (b) Anyone wanting to join the meeting should call Mr. Watson. clause is not be, omit the subject pronoun and change 6. (a) The students who come to English Club learn English well. the verb to its -ing form. (b) The students *coming* to *English Club* learn English very well. 7. (a) The scientists who study on prehistoric animals have made some important discoveries. (b) The scientists studying on prehistoric animals have made some important discoveries 8. (a) Our company needs a manager who has excellent management skills. (b) Our company needs a manager having The relative clauses containing excellent management skills the verb *have* indicating possession may be reduced by (c) Our company needs a manager with excellent management using with, as in examples (9c) and (10-c). 10. (a) They have a baby girl who has blue eyes. (b) They have a baby girl having blue eyes. (c) They have a baby girl with blue eyes.

14- REDUCTION OF RELATIVE CLAUSES : <u>PASSIVE CONSTRUCTIONS</u>

Passive constructions in relative clauses are reduced to PAST PARTICIPLES (V3)

- 9. (a) The report which is prepared for the seminar
 - (b) The report which was prepared for the seminar...
 - (c) The report which has been prepared for the seminar...
 - (d) The report **which had been prepared** for the seminar...

become:

- (e) The report **prepared** for the seminar...
- (a) The man who was killed by the robbers was found in the forest.
 - (b) The man *killed* by the robbers was found in the forest.
- 11. (a) The soldiers **who were surrounded** by the enemy had to drop their weapons.
 - (b) The soldiers *surrounded* by the enemy had to drop their weapons.
- 12. (a) The woman **who was being interviewed** by the committee left the room angrily.
 - (b) The woman **being interviewed** by the committee left the room angrily.
- 13. (a) The room that is being cleaned will be given to me.
 - (b) The room *being cleaned* will be given to me.

Passive: be+V3

If the relative clause contains verb (to) **be**, omit the pronouns and the **be** form as in examples.

Note that relative clauses 9a, 9b, 9c, 9d are all reduced as in 9e: *prepared*.

The passive forms of present continuous and the past continuous tenses in relative clauses are reduced as in 12-b and 13-b.

15- REDUCTION OF RELATIVE CLAUSES: TO BE

When the relative clauses containing verb to be are reduced, the remaining part could be;

- 1. -ing participle (if it is active)
 - a) The people who are walking on the street are getting wet.
 - b) The people \varnothing \varnothing walking on the street are getting wet.
- 2. Past participle V3 (if it passive)
 - c) The students **who were given** a scholarship were very happy.
 - d) The students \varnothing \varnothing **given** a scholarship were very happy.
- 3. A prepositional phrase
 - e) The files which are on the table belongs to my company.
 - f) The files \varnothing \varnothing on the table belongs to my company.
- 4. An adjective
 - g) The manager *who was responsible for the delay* was fired.
 - h) The manager \varnothing \varnothing responsible for the delay was fired.
- 5. An adverb of location
 - i) The doors *which are inside* need to be repaired.
 - j) The doors \varnothing \varnothing *inside* need to be repaired.

16- REDUCTION OF RELATIVE CLAUSES INTO INFINITIVE PHRASES

 (a) Mr. Chapman was the first guest who came to the party. (b) Mr. Chapman was the first guest to come to the party. (a) The next person who enters the shop will be given a present. (b) The next person to enter the shop will be given a present. (a) Captain Brown was the last person who left the sinking ship. (b) Captain Brown was the last person to leave the sinking ship. 	Relative clauses containing <i>ordinal numbers</i> (the first, the second, the third, the next, the last etc) are replaced by infinitive phrases.
 4. (a) Morris was the only person who survived in the accident. (b) Morris was the only person to survive in the accident. 5. (a) Elizabeth is the only woman who will be promoted this year. (b) Elizabeth is the only woman to be promoted this year. 	Relative clauses containing <i>the only</i> are replaced by infinitive phrases.
 6. (a) Peter was the oldest student who finished the school last year. (b) Peter was the oldest student to finish the school last year. 7. (a) This is the biggest branch office that will be opened this year. (b) This is the biggest branch office to be built this year. 	Relative clauses containing <i>superlative forms</i> are replaced by infinitive phrases.
 8. (a) She has a lot of homework which she must finish this evening. (b) She has a lot of homework to finish this evening. 9. (a) I don't have much free time when I can attend French classes. (b) I don't have much free time to attend French classes. 10. (a) In this company, the rules that must be obeyed are simple. (b) In this company, the rules to be obeyed are simple. 11. (a) It is not a company that can be trusted. (b) It is not a company to be trusted. 12. (a) It is not the true way which should be followed. (b) It is not a company to be followed. 	Relative clauses containing <i>modals</i> are replaced by infinitive phrases

17- REDUCTION OF NON-DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES

In addition to the same procedure followed in reduction of defining relative clauses, non-defining clauses are preposed after reduction. In other words, a non-defining relative clause is placed at the beginning of the sentence after it is reduced. Follow the examples:

- 1.(a) Ankara, which is the capital city of Turkey, has an interesting history.
 - (b) Ankara, \varnothing \varnothing *the capital city of Turkey*, has an interesting history.
 - (c) The capital city of Turkey, Ankara has an interesting history.
- 2. (a) Kapadokia, *which has a fantastic view and history*, is visited by thousands of tourists every year.
 - (b) Kapadokia, *having fantastic view and history*, is visited by thousands of tourists every year.
 - (c) *Having fantastic view and history*, Kapadokia is visited by thousands of tourists every year.
- 3.(a) The new software, which is available in only big computer shops, is very expensive to buy.
 - (b) The new software, available in only big computer shops, is very expensive to buy.
 - (c) Available in only big computer shops, the new software is very expensive to buy.
- 4.(a) Mr. White, who was the first worker who retired from the new factory last year, won a lottery yesterday.
 - (b) Mr. White, the first worker to retire from the new factory last year, won a lottery yesterday.
 - (c) The first worker to retire from the new factory last year, Mr. white won a lottery yesterday.

CHAPTER 6 CONDITIONAL SENTENCES AND WISHES

1. INTRODUCTION TO CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

a)	If I pass all my exams, I will organize a great party. Condition (If clause) Result Clause I will organize a great party If I pass all my exams	 Conditional sentences are used to talk about present, past and future conditions and their results. Thus, a conditional sentence has two parts; the If clause and a result clause. When the If clause is used before the result clause, a comma is use to separate the two clauses. As in (a). Nevertheless, when the result clause is used in the beginning, no commas are used. As in (b)
a) b) c) d)	If I have time, I watch TV every evening. If I have time, I will watch TV this evening. If I had time, I would watch TV now. If had had time, I would have watched TV yesterday evening.	 Conditional sentences differ according to time and reality. Conditional sentences have special verb forms in accordance with the concept of time and reality.

2. CONDITIONAL SENTENCES: GENERAL FACT & USUAL ACTIVITY (ZERO CONDITIONAL)

 a) If the winter comes, it snows in New York. b) If you disobey the traffic rules, you get punished. c) If you mix blue with yellow, you get green. d) If I have free time, I surf on the web. 	A speaker uses this type of a conditional sentence when the condition and the result never change. These ideas may be utterances of facts, as in (a),(b),(c) or usual happenings, as in (d).
Rule: If + Simple present, Simple present e) if the winter comes = when the winter comes	Using simple present in the İf Clause is the same as using it in the time Clause When, as in (e).

3. CONDITIONAL SENTENCES TYPE I: POSSIBLE CONDITION IN THE PRESENT OR FUTURE

 a) If I work hard this year, I will get a promotion. b) If I see Recy, I will give you message. c) If I pass all my exams, I will get my diploma. 	A speaker uses this type of conditional sentence when he expects the condition to happen. He simply says that there is a condition for my expectation to come true.
General Rule: If + Simple present, will + verb₁	The simple present is used in the If Clause and in the result clause will, can, might is used to indicate the possibility of the mentioned condition to happen.

Additional Rule: If + Simple present, present modals + verb ₁ Possibility a) If the weather gets worse, the flight may be diverted. b) If you consult Prof. Roth, he might help you	The use of modals in the result clause indicates what modality may the condition cause., such as possibility, obligation, advice, ect The use of may & might shows weak possibility in the conditionals.
Permission a) If all your documents are ready, you may enter. b) May I leave class early If it is OK? c) You can make a phone call if you talk only for a minute.	The use of may & can indicate permission in conditionals.
Obligation a) If you want to go abroad, you must have a passport. b) If you leave work early, you have to report to the admin.	
 Advice &Warning a) If you feel worse, you should see a doctor. b) If you want to pass, you should study harder. c) If Mr. Jenkins returns, you had better leave here. d) If the pressure keeps increasing, turn the valve left. Threat a) If you tell our secret anyone, I will kill you! 	
b) If you keep coming late for work, I will fire you!	

4. CONDITIONAL SENTENCES TYPE II : IMPOSSIBLE CONDITION IN THE PRESENT OR FUTURE

TOTOKE	
 a) Jack and I never talk to each other, but if he talked to me, I would talk to him as well. c) I don't have enough time to help you, but if I had, I would help you. d) If I were you, I would accept his offer without doubt. e) If he were here now, we could consult him. 	The use of the simple past tense indicates an impossibility of a condition in the present. That is, the use of this type means that "such a condition does not exist, and such a result may never come true. Were used for both singular and plural subjects and was is never used in the conditional sentences.
Rule: If + simple past, would & could + verb ₁	

Conditional Sentences Type II can be used in the following situations as well;

When an assumption is contrary to fact

- a) If water boiled at 40 C⁰, there would be no life on the earth.
- b) If man had three eyes, it would be easier for us to view things

When the action in the If Clause is not expected to happen

- a) If you dead uncle suddenly appeared here, what would you do?
- b) What would you do first, If you were given the chance to be the president of your country?

5. CONDITIONAL SENTENCES TYPE III : IMPOSSIBLE CONDITION IN THE PAST

a) I couldn't attend the meeting yesterday because I was sick

If I had not been sick, I would have attended the meeting.

b) A terrible flood damaged the whole town and many people were killed in the disaster. But, *If the people had been given a warning, they would have escaped to safety.*

This type of conditional sentences only talk about completed actions in the past and they mean that "such a fact did not exist an nor did a such a result".

If clauses type II and type III are merely assumptions on events which can never come true or which never happened.

Rule: If had verb₃, would

Could + have verb₃
Might

Compare

- a) If I had had time, I would have helped you.
- b) If I had had time, I could have helped you.
- c) If I had had time, I might have helped you.

Would states a desired but not full filled action

Could talks about a possible option which did not applied.

Might expresses a slight possibility which was not applied.

6. CONDITIONAL SENTENCES MIXED TYPE

Mixed Type conditional sentences are combinations of Type II and Type III. This type is selected when the time in the If Clause and the time in the result clause are different. Mixed Type conditionals talk about un-true situations, Therefore, they do not reflect facts, but assumptions that can never come true or never came true.

A true Situation

- a) I don't understand this class because I did not study well last night
- **b)** She doesn't have a passport, so she couldn't get a visa yesterday.

Mixed type Conditional

c) If I had studied well last night, I would understand it now.

Past present

d) If she had a passport, she could have gotten a visa.

Present Past

7. IMPLIED CONDITIONS

a) I would have joined you, but I had to studyb) He never would have solved it without your assistance.	The if clause is often omitted and implied for ease in English., but conditional verb forms are still used in the result clause.
	In (a) implied condition is : If I hadn't had to study, In (b) implied condition is : If You hadn't assisted him.
 d) I took a taxi. <i>Otherwise</i>, I would have missed the plane e) I took his address, <i>or else</i>, I wouldn't have been able to find his apartment. 	Both Otherwise and or else are used to imply an If clause as in (d) and (e)

8.OTHER CONSTRUCTIONS SHOWING CONDITIONS (ADVANCED)			
a) If you should need further information, please contact me.	Should in If clauses indicate weak expectation. The speaker doesn't even expect such a thing to happen. If + should = in case		
b) If you should not reach me, call Mrs. Collins.			
 Will & Would in If Clauses a) Politeness If you will wait a moment, I will see if Mrs. Roth is here. I would be grateful, if you would arrange an invitation for me 	Will & would are not normally used in If clauses since they show result. However, when a speaker feels necessity for kindness, will and would might be used to express high level of politeness.		
 b) Request If you would just sign here = please sign here. If you would open your books = please open your books. 			
 c) Denial (If + won't) If you won't listen to me, how can I help you? If the car won't start, I will leave it here. 			
 d) Persistence (If + will) If you will keep doing that, I will kill you. If you will watch TV all night, I will go home. 			
 Be + infinitive in If Clauses Anyone must study hard if he is to succeed. Serious precautions must be taken, if inflation is to be taken under control. You had better study harder if you are to pass your classes 	If clauses rarely contain be + infinitive in order to express purpose.		

	T	
■ I am going to get married with him whether or not he loves me	Whether or not sates the idea that whatever the condition is, the result will not change. It doesn't matter.	
 I am certainly going to fail whether I study or not. 		
Even If ■ I am going to get married with him even if he doesn't love me ■ I am certainly going to fail even if I study.	Even if is very close in meaning to whether or not since it also reflects the idea that it doesn't matter.	
In case & In the event that	In case and in the event that indicate	
 The weather seems fine, but I will take my umbrella in case it rains. The weather seems fine, but I will take my 	weak expectations of the speaker. In case and in the event that mean "If by chance this should happen"	
 umbrella in the event that it rains. Do not hesitate to contact me in case you need further information. Do not hesitate to contact me in the event that you need further information. 	In the event that is more formal than in case. "Should" may be used with In case and in the event that to express uncertainty about the future	
UNLESS (Ifnot)		
 I will do my homework unless I am tired. I will do my homework if I am not tired. I won't accept the job offer unless they pay me well. I won't accept the job offer if they don't pay well 	Unless = ifnot There is no difference between using unless or ifnot. ■ Sentences with unless are always affirmative. That is unless cannot be used in negative sentences.	
a) She will accept the job offer <i>only if</i> she is given an office. b) She will accept the job offer <i>provided</i> she is given an office.	Only if & provided give the idea that there is only one condition to meet the result. there is no other choice. In example (a) &(b), the speaker is simply saying: She won't accept the job offer if she is not given an office. If this condition is not provided, she definitely won't accept the offer.	
c) Only if she is given an office will she accept the job offer	 If the sentence begins with only if, inversion is required in the main clause. As in (c) 	

IF ONLY If only means I wish and it can be used a) If only he comes on time. = I wish he comes on time for wishes. b) If only he didn't smoke. = I wish he didn't smoke c) if only you hadn't said that = I wish you hadn't said But for & If it weren't for ... / If it hadn't been for But for, If it weren't for & If it hadn't been for means if something did not exist, the present condition could never be met. My grand father pays my fees. But for that I wouldn't be able to continue my education. My grand father pays my fees. *If it weren't for* my grand father I wouldn't be able to continue my education. Jack saved my life yesterday. If it hadn't been for Jack, I would have died.

9. USING AS IF / AS THOUGH

Possible in the Future		
a) it looks I as if it is going to rain.b) it looks as though it is going to rain.	As if & as though are followed by a clause and the use of future is normal with them. As if & as though is used to indicate that the speaker expects some thing to happen in the very near future.	
Unreal in the Present & Past		
True Situation (reality)	Using As if & as though	
a) He is not a little child.b) She did not fall in to a swimming poolc) She will pay.	The teacher talked to him as if he were a little child. After the rain, she looked as if she had fallen into a swimming pool. She acted as though she wouldn't pay.	
	 Note that the use of verb tenses is the same as in conditional sentences when the situations are untrue. 	

10. REDUCTION OF IF CLAUSES (OMMITING IF)

	If can be omitted with were, had V ₃
a) if I were you, I wouldn't say that. = Were I you, I wouldn't	and should and inversion is made.
say that	
c) If I had studied, I would have passed = had I studied, I	
would have passed.	
d) If you should need help, call me = Should you need	
<i>help</i> , call me	

11.VERB FORMS FOLLOWING WISH

	REALITY (The True situation)	MAKING A WISH (Untrue)	Wish + Noun Clause
Wishes about future situations.	a) she will not come c) he isn't going to return e) she can't pass.	b) I wish she would come d) I wish he were going to return. f) I wish she could pass.	Would, could and were going to indicate wishes about future happenings.
Wishes about present situations	a) I don't understand it. c) He is sleeping right now. e) he can't swim.	b) I wish I understood it. d) I wish he weren't sleeping right now. f) I wish he could swim	As in conditional sentences, Simple past tense indicates unreality in the present in wish sentences.
Wishes about Past situations.	a) Jane didn't tell me the truth b) Jason could not pass.	b) I wish she had told me the truth d) I wish he could have passed.	As in conditional sentences, the <i>past perfect indicates unreality in the past</i> in wish sentences.

12. USING WOULD FUTURE WISHES

a) she is crying. <i>I wish she would stop crying.</i>b) I am waiting for John. <i>I wish he would come soon.</i>	Would is used to indicate that the speaker wants something to happen in the future. Instead of doing something, the speaker hopes some thing to happen.
 d) I think you are very special. I wish you would marry me. e) I really exhausted. I wish you would drive me home. 	I wish you would is a polite way of making a request. The speaker simply implies his request by using this strycture.

OTHER CONSTRUCTIONS SHOWING WISHES (ADVANCED)

13. OTHER CONSTRUCTIONS SHOWING WISHES (ADVANCED)

101 0 111211 0 0 110 1110 0 110 11110 0 110 11			
a) If only he were alive nowb) If only ha had given me an	other chance.		
c) I would rather he lived in A d) I would rather he had give			
e) My father won't let me driv as soon he did.f) My father won't let me driv sooner he did.	Would just as soon & would sooner		
g) Everybody! It's time you we	t home. It is time somebody + simple past indicates present wish.		

CHAPTER 7 THE PASSIVE VOICE

1. WHY PASSIVE VOICE?

• kno	Corn is grown in Canada (Who grows Corn is not important.) This car was made in Germany (Who produced this car is not own or not important)	We generally use the passive voice when the real subject is not known.
:	The Lord Of the Flies was written by William Golding. The first light bulb was invented by Thomas Edison.	Occasionally we use the passive for the purpose of emphasizing the object not the subject.
•	I was given a fine because I didn't have my driving licence. (by the police) The murderer was arrested last night. (by the police) The injured man was examined at the hospital. (by a doctor)	The passive is also used when we don't need to mention the real person who performed the action. Using the passive may be easier and shorter to say in certain occasions, as in the examples

2. FORMING THE PASSIVE

A passive sentence is formed by placing the object at the beginning, changing the verb into
be + V₃ and adding the by + subject
Passive: Object + be V ₃ + by + subject

Form	Active	Passive
Simple Present	John <i>prepares</i> the dinner	The dinner <i>is prepared</i> by John
Present Continuous	John <i>is preparing</i> the dinner	The dinner <i>is being prepared</i> by John
Present Perfect	John <i>has prepared</i> the dinner	The dinner <i>has been prepared</i> by John
Simple Past	John <i>prepared</i> the dinner	The dinner was prepared by John
Past	John was preparing the dinner	The dinner was being prepared by John
Progressive		
Past Perfect	John <i>had prepared</i> the dinner	The dinner <i>had been prepared</i> by John
Simple future	John will prepare the dinner	The dinner will be prepared by John
Be going to	John is going to prepare the dinner	The dinner <i>is going to be prepared</i> by John
Future perfect	John will have prepared the dinner	The dinner will have been prepared by John

There is no change in the concept of time when using the passive. Passive is only a way of talking about the same event in a different way. The stress is on the object, not on the subject.

The progressive forms of the present perfect , past perfect future perfect are hardly used in the passive form.

Negative passive: $not be + V_3$

Simple Present	John doesn't <i>prepare</i> the dinner	The dinner <i>is not prepared</i> by John
Present Continuous	John <i>is not preparing</i> the dinner	The dinner <i>is not being prepared</i> by John
		*
Present Perfect	John <i>has not prepared</i> the dinner	The dinner <i>has not been prepared</i> by John
Simple Past	John did not prepared the dinner	The dinner was not prepared by John
Past	John was not preparing the dinner	The dinner was not being prepared by
Progressive		John
Past Perfect	John <i>had not prepared</i> the dinner	The dinner had not been prepared by John
Simple future	John will not prepare the dinner	The dinner will not be prepared by John
Be going to	John is not going to prepare the	The dinner <i>is not going to be prepared</i> by
	dinner	John
Future perfect	John will not have prepared the	The dinner will not have been prepared
	dinner	by John

Passive Questions: auxiliary + passive sentence

Simple Present	Does John <i>prepare</i> the dinner?	Is the dinner prepared by John?
Present Continuous	Is John preparing the dinner?	Is the dinner being prepared by John?
Present Perfect	Has John prepared the dinner?	Has the dinner been prepared by John?
Simple Past	Did John prepare the dinner?	Was the dinner prepared by John?
Past Progressive	Was John preparing the dinner?	Was the dinner being prepared by John?
Past Perfect Simple future	Had John prepared the dinner? Will John prepare the dinner?	Had the dinner been prepared by John? Will the dinner be prepared by John?
Be going to	Is John going to prepare the dinner?	Is the dinner going to be prepared by John?
Future perfect	Will John have prepared the dinner?	Will the dinner have been prepared by John?

Auxiliary verbs such as **do**, **did** & **does** are not used in the passive questions.

3. USING THE PASSIVE

We use the passive voice in the following situations

A) When we know who performed the action and when it is necessary to mention the Subject.

- The junk hasn't been collected
- The streets are being cleaned every day.
- You will be examined before you leave the clinic.
- B) When we don't know who performed the action, or when we are not sure;
- John F. KENNEDY was assassinated in his car.
- My flat has been burgled.
- This carpet was made in Turkey.
- C) If the real Subject is "People"

Active: People say that he is a murderer. **Passive:** He is said to be a murderer.

Active: People believe that he has never won any game. **Passive**: He is believed not to have won any game

We use the passive in this manner mainly with these verbs: acknowledge, assume, believe, claim, consider, estimate, feel, find, know, presume, report, say, think, understand,

- You are supposed to know how to solve the problem.
- He is known to have built the highest building in the world.
- D) The passive can be preferred for psychological purposes.
- 1) The speaker might use the passive to throw off the responsibility of the action he performs.
- EMPLOYER: You are fired!
- EMPLOYER: I am firing you!
- Your results will be sent in a week sir.
- 2) In order not be rude, the passive might be preferred.
- Just give me a call in case the problem cannot be solved. (In case you can't be able to do so).

4. TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS

TRANSITIVE VERBS	
Active Sentence: Jane prepared the dinner S VERB O	 Transitive verbs are verbs that are followed by an object (NOUN). Any verb followed by a noun is transitive.
Passive Sentence: The dinner O Passive Verb S	 Transitive verbs can be used in the passive because they have objects to form the passive voice.
INTRANSITIVE VERBS	
Active Sentence: <u>Jane</u> <u>slept</u> <u>at seven tonight</u> S VERB Time	 Intransitive verbs are not followed by an object. Therefore, they cannot be used in the passive voice.

5. THE PASSIVE FORM OF MODALS

3. THE 1 ACC		OI WODALO		
DDEOENT 6 EU	TUDE DA 001	VE FORMO " MOR	AL DEV."	
PRESENT & FU	TURE PASSI	VE FORMS " MOD	AL + BE V ₃ "	
 The dinner The car The letter You The report All Answers You Jane 	will can't should may had better ought to have to is suppose	be written be examine	ASAP a quiz. tomorrow in ink.	The form of passive is barely used after the modal auxiliaries. Modal + be V ₃
PAST PASSIVE FORMS " MODAL HAVE BEEN + V ₃ "				
All taxesThis car		ve been paid	on Friday in Germany	As seen in the examples, the "be" from of the passive is also used in the past participle.
■ You		ave been killed.	, 2 3 ,	"modal have been + v ₃ "

6. THE STATIVE PASSIVE

a) The floor is clean. b) The floor is swept.	The past participle (V ₃) can also be used as an adjective to describe nouns. Examples (a) & (b) both talk about the state of the floor. They describe how the floor is.
a) Jack paid his bills yesterday. His bills were paid yesterday. Now his bills are paid. Completed Action Present Situation b)	The stative passive is used to indicate an existing situation or case. There is no intention of an action.
■ Susie ironed my shirt. ■ My shirt was ironed by Susie. ■ Now my shirt is ironed. ■ Present Situation	 The action took place and the result is seen as a state. The <i>by Phrase</i> is not used. The V₃ is no longer a verb; rather it is used as an adjective.

Accustomed to	VE VERBS USED WITH PR Discriminated against	Interested in	Satisfied with
Acquainted with	Divorced from	Involved in	Scared of, by
Addicted to	Done with		
Annoyed with, by	Dressed in	Opposed to	Terrified of, by
Associated with			Tired of, from
		Please with	
Bored with, by	Engaged to	Prepared for	Worried about
Composed of	Equipped with	Protected from	
Concerned about	Excited about	Provided with	
Connected to	Exhausted from		
Coordinated with	Exposed to	Qualified for	
Covered with			

	Filled with	Related to	
Dedicated to	Finished with	Remembered for	
Devoted to	Frightened of, by		
Disappointed in, with	Gone from		

7. PASSIVE WITH "GET"

A) Get + adjective = Verb			
 The teacher is getting angry. You are getting fat. You should eat less. I got tired, so left work early today. 	Get + adjective gives the idea that a new situation has become. For example:" I got hungry" means I wasn't hungry before, but later I turned out to be hungry.		
A) Get + Verb ₃			
 Recy got married this month. I am getting worried about my future. Why didn't you get excited? It's incredible. 	Get is also used with the past participle and it shows hat the state of the object has become.		

CHAPTER 8 MODALS

1- INTRODUCTION: WHY DO WE USE MODALS?

The modals are a sort of auxiliary verb and they play a very important role in English. By using modals we can create vast variety of sentences for very different situations. Modal auxiliaries generally express speakers' attitudes. For instance, modals can express that a speaker feels something is possible, permissible, necessary, advisable etc.

Each modal has more than one meaning or use. Modal auxiliaries in English are *may, might, can, could, had better, must, should, ought to, shall, will and would*. There are also some other expressions, phrasal modals, whose meanings are similar to those of some modals, which are *be able to, be going to, be supposed to, have to, have got to, used to*.

2- POLITE REQUESTS: ASKING FOR ASSISTANCE

WILL YOU WOULD YOU

CAN YOU COULD YOU

- (a) Will you open the door, please?
- (b) Would you open the door, please?
- (c) Can you open the door, please?
- (d) Could you open the door please?

The meanings of the above sentences are nearly the same. The only difference is that the sentences made with "would you" and "could you" are more polite than "can you" and "will you". The degree of politeness is also determined by the speaker's tone of voice.

3- POLITE REQUESTS: ASKING FOR PERMISSION

MAY I CAN I

- (a) May I use your car? (Please)
- (b) Can I use your car?
- (c) Could I use your car?

COULD I

The meanings of the above sentences are nearly the same. The only difference is that the sentences made with "may I" and "could I" are more polite than "can I". The degree of politeness is also determined by the speaker's tone of voice.

4- POLITE REQUESTS: GIVING PERMISSION: MAY AND CAN

MAY	(a) You may use my car today. (b) You can work in my room.
CAN	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
	"Can" and " May" are used to give permission in the sentences above

5- POLITE REQUESTS WITH WOULD YOU MIND

ASKING PERMISSION: Would you mind + if I DID something? (a) Would you mind <i>if I smoked</i> in this room? (b) Would you mind <i>if I opened</i> the window?	In (a) and (b) , the speaker kindly asks permission for the activity he will perform. This is a very formal and polite way of asking for permission.
ASKING SOMEONE TO DO SOMETHING: Would you mind + DOING (c) Would you mind opening the door? (d) Would you mind mailing this letter for me?	In (c) and (d) , the speaker kindly asks the other person to do something for him. This is also a very formal and polite way of asking someone to do something.

6- EXPRESSING NECESSITY: MUST, HAVE TO, HAVE GOT TO

 (a) All students must wear uniforms. (b) All students have to wear uniforms. (c) I really must do something to redecorate this house. (d) We have to pay this bill within two weeks. (e) I must be at my desk by 10:00 every morning. 	Both "must" and "have to" are used to express necessity. They refer to the fact that there is no other choice and it is absolutely necessary to do the mentioned activity.
(f) It is a fantastic movie. You really must see it. (g) Jim is really a very nice man. You must meet him	"Must " is also used for strong recommendation.
(h) I have got to be at the office as soon as possible.(i) You have got to call your boss now.	"Have got to" has the same meaning as "must " and "have to".
 (j) I missed the bus this morning, so I had to take a taxi. (k) I had to spend all day in the meeting. (l) I have had to enter three exams since October. 	Past form of "must","have to" and "have got to" is " HAD TO ".

7- LACK OF NECESSITY AND PROHIBITION: DON'T HAVE TO , NEEDN'T,

 LACK OF NECESSITY (a) You don't have to buy any eggs. We have plenty at home. (b) Bob doesn't have to bring his guitar. We have one. (c) It's holiday today. We don't have to get up early. 	MUSTN'T In (a),(b), and (c) "don't have to" gives the idea that the activity is not necessary to do.
 (d) You don't need to buy any eggs. We have plenty at home. (e) You needn't buy any eggs. We have plenty at home. (f) You don't need to pay the bill today. You can pay it tomorrow as well. 	"Don't need to" and " needn't have" have the same meaning as " don't have to". They all express the same idea: "It is not necessary".
PROHIBITION (g) You must not enter this room. (h) Cars mustn't be parked here. (i) You mustn't go out alone at nights.	Mustn't expresses prohibition, and it gives the idea that an activity is not allowed. In other words, "You mustn't do it," means, "Don't do it!"

8- GIVING ADVICES: SHOULD, OUGHT TO , HAD BETTER

(b)	You look sick. You should see a doctor. You look sick. You ought to see a doctor. You should study harder to pass the test. Drivers should wear seat belts.	"Should" and "ought to" have the same meaning and they both express the idea that "it is a good idea to do that" or "it is very important to do that."
(e) (f)	You shouldn't eat so much sweet food. Children shouldn't be allowed to watch horror films.	Negative form of "should" is " shouldn't.
	You had better take your umbrella, or you will get wet. You had better hurry up; otherwise we will go without you.	"Had better" is usually stronger than "should". It is a WARNING. It gives the idea that " it's my urgent advise. There may be bad consequences if you ignore."
	You 'd better go to bed early tonight. You have to get up early tomorrow. You may be late to the exam.	may be bad consequences if you ignore.
(j)	You had better not be late to the meeting.	

9- PAST FORM OF SHOULD

(a)	I didn't wear my coat last night, and I am cold now. I should have worn my coat last night. I made a mistake.	In (a), "I should have worn my coat," means that wearing the coat was a good idea, but I didn't.
(b)	Mary had an exam yesterday but she didn't study and failed. She should have studied .	The sentences including the past form of "should" expresses the idea that
(c)	I overslept this morning because I didn't set my alarm clock. It was a big mistake! I should have set my alarm clock before I went to bed last night.	" it was a mistake".
(d)	I didn't wear my coat last night, and I am cold now. I ought to have worn my coat last night. I made a mistake.	The past form of ought to is "ought to have + past participle." There is no difference in the meaning.

10- EXPRESSING EXPECTATIONS : BE SUPPOSED TO

a) b) c)	The president is supposed to join the meeting at 7:00. The exam is supposed to start at 9:00. The football match is supposed to begin in ten minutes.	"Be supposed to "expresses the idea that someone or people expect something to happen. "Be supposed to" is often used to express expectations about correct procedures and scheduled events.
d) e)	All students are supposed to wear uniforms in this school. I had better leave now. I am supposed to be at the office in an hour.	"Be supposed to" is also used to express expectations about behaviors. In the sentences (d) and (e), "be supposed to" gives the idea that someone else expects, requires or requests a certain behavior.
f)	I was supposed to be at the meeting yesterday, but I couldn't go because I was very ill.	Past form of "be supposed to" expresses unfulfilled expectations.

11- MAKING SUGGESTIONS: LET'S, WHY DON'T, SHALL I/ WE

a) b) c)	Let's go to lunch. Let's not go on a picnic. Let's play football.	Let's = Let us. Let is used with the simple form of verbs. "Let's" means:"I have a suggestion for us".
d) e) f)	Why don't you take an aspirin if you have a headache?? Why don't we visit uncle Billy this afternoon? Why don't you call me this evening?	"Why don't" is used to make friendly suggestions. It is mostly use din spoken English.
g) h)	Shall I call you at 7:00? Is that OK? Shall we have lunch this afternoon?	"Shall" is used with <i>I</i> and <i>we</i> to make suggestions and ask the other people if they are agree with this suggestion.
i)	Let's go to a movie, shall we?	"Shall we" is used as a tag question after "let's".

12- MAKING SUGGESTIONS: COULD vs SHOULD

- (a)	I need to get to the bus station. You should get the service bus to the bus station. It's much cheaper than a taxi.	In (a): the speaker simply gives a definite advice with "should".
- (b)	I need to get to the bus station. Well, you could take the service to the bus station. Or you could take a taxi. You could also go there by the subway.	In (b) , "could" offers suggestions or alternative possibilities.
,	I took a taxi to the bus station, and it cost me a lot of money. You shouldn't have taken a taxi. It was a mistake. Why did you do that? You could have taken the service bus to the bus station. Or you could also have gone there by the subway.	In (c): The speaker says that taking a taxi was a wrong decision and it was a mistake. In (d): The speaker says that there were better alternatives of going to the bus station and you had the chance to use those alternatives. "Could have" expresses missed opportunities in the past.

13- DEGREES OF CERTAINITY : PRESENT TIME

- Where is Linda? 100% sure; (a) She <i>is</i> at home. I spoke to her on the phone a few minutes ago and I know that she is at home at the moment.	In (a): the speaker says that Linda is definitely at home. The speaker is stating the fact that Linda is at home. It is 100% certain.
- Where is Linda? %95 sure; (b) She usually stays at home on rainy days, so she <i>must</i> be at home. I feel quite sure about that.	In (b): The speaker is making his best guess with the evidence that make him to believe Linda is at home. (She stays home on rainy days.) Must is used to make logical conclusions for the thinks we don't know for certain.
- Where is Linda? Not sure; (c) Well, I don't know. She may be at home. (d) Well, I'm not sure. She might be at home. (e) Who knows! She could be at home. Or she could be at the library. She could also be with her boyfriend. Why don' you call him?	May, Might and Could, are used to express ordinary guesses. The speaker never feels sure about the guess he/she makes.

14- DEGREES OF CERTAINITY: PRESENT TIME NEGATIVE

SITUATION: Some people are talking about Linda. They say that she is going to leave this city soon.		
(a) That isn't true. We were together yesterday and she said that she wanted to live in this city for the rest of her life.	In (a): the speaker is sure that Linda will not leave the city soon because he heard it from Linda herself.	
(b) That can't / couldn't be true. I never believe that she will leave this city. She bought a new house for herself two days ago. It is impossible.	In (b) : the speaker doesn't believe the statement and denies the fact saying that it is impossible. Can't and couldn't express impossibility.	
(c) Well, she was born in this city. All her family and her friends live here. She has a good job and her husband will be promoted soon. So, that must not be true.	In (c): the speaker is making his best guess with the evidence(s) that make him feel sure. Must (not) is used to express logical conclusions	
(d) Well, people are always telling this and that. I am not sure ,but it may / might not be true. Don't believe everything you hear!	In (d): the speaker is just making an ordinary guess about something which he has no idea by using "may not" and "might not"	

15- DEGREES OF CERTAINITY: PAST TIME

SITUATION: Last night Mr. Chalmers was found dead in his house. He had dinner with three people last night at his home. One of them was his only son Jack, another was his new wife Margaret and the other was his partner Mr. Walters. Now people are talking about this mysterious murder and the murderer.

- (a) Jack **must have killed his father**. He didn't like his father at all and was always saying that he was looking forward to the day his father would die.
- (b) Margaret **must have killed** Mr. Chalmers. I have never approved their marriage because she is 25 years younger than him. She likes money so much that she can do anything for the sake of money
- (c) I am not sure, but Mr. Walter may / might have killed him last night. But who knows, Margaret could have killed him, as well.
- making their best guesses with the evidence that make them believe Jack or Margaret killed Mr. Chalmers. They are not 100% sure, but they feel quite certain about their logical conclusions.

In (a) and (b), The speakers are

- In **(c)**; the speaker is just making an *ordinary guess*, which is not based on any particular evidence or experience.
- (d) Mr. Walters mustn't have killed him because they had been partners and friends for 25 years. And they started a new business together last month. Mr. Walters put a fortune for this new business because he trusted Mr. Chalmers and his experience on this business.
- (e) Jack **couldn't have killed** his father last night because he left home just after the dinner and flew to London immediately. I, myself, took him to the airport. I never believe it. It was impossible for him to kill his father last night.
- (f) Margaret **can't have killed** Mr. Chalmers because she cannot kill even a fly.
- In **(d):** The speaker is making his best guess based on the evidences that make him believe Mr. Walters didn't kill Mr. Chalmers. *It is a logical conclusion.*
- In **(e)** and **(f)**; the speakers express their *disbelief* on the fact that Jack or Margaret killed Mr. Chalmers. They both deny the fact and think it was *impossible*, *not true*, and *not acceptable*.
- (g) Well, I am not sure. Think twice.. Jack may / might not have killed his father. You shouldn't blame people so quickly!
- In (g); the speaker is just making an ordinary guess, which is not based on any particular evidence or experience. "Jack may not have killed his father," means, " Maybe he didn't kill his father, who knows."

16- DEGREES OF CERTAINITY: FUTURE TIME

- (a) Daniel has just called me!. He will be here in ten minutes.
- (b) Brain has been studying very hard for the English exam .He **should do** well on the test on Monday.
 - (d) Susie's plane will arrive at the airport at 7:00, so she **should be** at home at about 7:45
 - (e) Susie's plane will arrive at the airport at 7:00, so she **ought to be** at home at about 7:45
 - (f) It's 8:45. I wonder why Susie hasn't arrived home, yet. She **should have been** here an hour ago.

In (a): the speaker is *sure* that Daniel will be there in ten minutes. **WILL** is used when we are *100% sure* about the future events.

In **(b):** the speaker feels almost sure that Brain will do well on the test

In **(c)**, the speaker feels almost sure that Susie will be at home at about 7:45.

SHOULD is used to express strong expectations about future events, but the speakers are never %100 sure that what they expect will happen.

In (d): The past form of should /ought to is used to express the expectations which didn't occur.
This form, mostly, expresses the feeling of *frustration*.

17- EXPRESSING REPEATED ACTIONS IN THE PAST: USED TO AND WOULD

- (a) When I was a child, my father and I **used to go** fishing every week.
- (b) When I was a child, my father and I would go fishing every week
- (c) We **used** to work 12 hours a day when we first started this factory.
- (d) There **used to be** a Chinese restaurant on this street.
- (e) He **used to be** a famous singer.
- (f) I used to live in Istanbul when I was a little boy.
- (g) INCORRECT: There would be a Chinese restaurant on this street.
- (h) INCORRECT: I would be a famous singer.
- (i) INCORRECT: I would live in Istanbul when I was a little boy.

USED TO expresses the regularly repeated activities, habits and situations in the past.

WOULD is only used to express regularly repeated activities. Therefore, the sentences (a), (b) and (c) can only be made with used to because they do not express regularly repeated activities in the past.

18- EXPRESSING PREFERENCE: WOULD RATHER

(a) I would rather watch TV than listen to music.(b) I would rather play football than (play) basketball.	Would rather is used to express preferences.
(c) I'd rather not go to the party tonight.	Contraction: I'd rather Negative form: I'd rather not
(d) I'd rather be sleeping than studying right now.	Progressive form: Would rather be + V _{ING}
(e) The movie was okay, but I would rather have gone to the theatre last night.	Past Form: Would rather have + V ₃

19- EXPRESSING ABILITY: CAN - COULD

 (a) I have a driving license. I can drive a car. (b) She is only 5 years old but she can swim perfectly. (c) My secretary can speak 5 foreign languages. (d) Can you sing an English song? 	Can is used to express physical ability and acquired skills. In (d): can sing = knows how to sing.
(e) You can get the information from this desk. (f) Where can I buy a packet of tissues?	Can is also used to express possibility.
(g) I can sing but I cannot/ can't dance well. (h) Deaf people cannot hear.	The negative form of <i>can</i> is can't or cannot.
(i) My brother could read and write before he went to school.(j) My grandfather could ride a horse when he was seventy years	The past form of the sentences which express ability is could .
(k) I am able to swim well. (l) In order to get the job, you must be able to speak at least two foreign languages. (m) You are a good student. You will be able to speak English perfectly very soon. (n) I have been able to ride a horse since I was a child.	In (k): be able to means can. But be able to is not usually prefered to express general abilities. Be able to is most commonly used with modal+modal combinations as in (I) and (m), or in perfect structures as in (n).
 (o) It was a very difficult exam but I was able to answer most of the questions. (p) The bus driver caused a traffic accident last night, but the passengers were able to escape unhurt. (q) Although I studied very hard for the exam, I wasn't able to pass (r) Although I studied very hard for the exam, I couldn't pass. 	in a particular situation, was/were able to is used to express that particular ability

CHAPTER 9 ASKING QUESTIONS

1. STRUCTURE OF YES/ NO AND INFORMATION QUESTIONS

A yes/no question: a question that may be answered by yes or no.

A: Does he work in Istanbul?

B: Yes, he does. OR No, he doesn't.

An information question: a question that asks for information by using a question word.

A: Where does he work?

B: In Istanbul.

Question word order = (Question word) + helping verb + subject + main verb

the same subject-verb order is used in both yes/no and information questions.

(QUESTIO N WORD)	AUXILIAR Y VERB	SUBJEC T	MAIN VERB	(REST OF SENTENCE)		
(a)	Does	she	work	there?	If the verb is in the simple present,	
(b) Where	does	she	work?		use does (with he, she, it) or do (with I, you, we, they) in the question. If the	
(c)	Do	they	work	there?	verb is simple past, use did.	
(d) Where	do	they	work?		Notice: The main verb in the question	
e)	Did	he	work	there?	is in its simple form; there is no final -	
(f) Where	did	he	work?			
(g)	Is	he	living	there?	If there is already an auxiliary	
(h) Where	is	he	living?		(helping) verb in the sentence, the same auxiliary is used to make	
(i) Where	Have have	They they	worked?	there?	questions	
(k)	Can	Mary	work	there?		
(I) Where	can	Mary	work?			
(m)	Will	he	be living	there?	If there is more than one auxiliary ,	
(n) Where	will	he	be living?		only the main auxiliary is used as in (m) and (n).	
(o)Who	Ø	Ø	works	there?	If there is no specific Subject or if the question verb itself is the Subject,	
(p)Who	can	Ø	come?		normal word order is used	
					Statement: Jack came.	
					Question: Who came?	
(q)	Are	they	Ø	there?	Verb be always precedes the subjec	
(r) Where	are	they?	Ø		in question forms	
(8)	Was	Pam	Ø	there?		
(t) Where	was	Pam?	Ø			

2. QUESTION WORDS

	QUESTION	ANSWER	
WHEN	(a) When did they come? (b) When will you come?	Last night. Next Tuesday.	When is used to ask questions about time.
WHERE	(c) Where is she? (d) Where can I find a pen?	At school. In that box.	Where is used to ask questions about place.
WHY	(a) Why did he leave early?(b) Why aren't you coming with us?	Because he's sick. I'm tired.	Why is, used to ask questions about reason.
HOW	(c) How did you come to school?(d) How does he drive?	By bus. Fast.	How generally asks about manner.
	(e) How much money does it cost? (f) How many people came?	Ten dollars. Fifteen.	How is used with much and many.
	 (g) How old are you? (h) How cold is it? (i) How soon can you get here? (j) How fast were you driving? (k) How long has he been here? (l) How often do you write home? (m) How far is it to Miami from here? 	Twenty Below ten C ⁰ . In five minutes. 60 miles an hour. For six years. Every week. 400 miles.	How + adjective or adverb. How long asks about duration How often asks about frequency. How far asks about distance.

WHO	(a) Who can tell me the time?(b) Who wanted to see you?	I can. Jim and Erin. Who is used as the subject of a question It refers to people (Subjects).
	a) Who is coming to see us?b) Who wants to come with us?	Amy, and Ted Who is often followed by a singular verb whether or not the speaker is asking about more than one
WHOM	 a) Who(m)) did you see? b) Who (m) are you visiting? c) Who(m)) should I talk to? d) To whom should I talk? (formal) 	My relatives. The Dean. Whom is used as the object of a verb or preposition. In everyday spoken English, whom is seldom used; who is more common. Whom is used only in formal questions.
WHOSE	a) Whose book did you borrow?b) Whose book is this? {Whose is this?}	Rejak's. Whose asks questions about possession. It's mine

WHAT	WHAT a)What made you angry? b)What went wrong?		What is used as the subject of a question. It refers to things.
	 c) What do you need? d) What did Alice buy? e) What did he talk about? About what did he talk? (formal) 	I need an eraser. A Pen. His job.	What is also used as an object.
	f) What kind of cake is that?g) What kind of shoes did he buy?	It's cheese cake Sports shoes.	What kind of wants to know what sort of something is
	h) What did you do last night?i) What is Mary doing?	I watched TV Reading a Cartoon	What + a form of do is used to ask questions about activities.
	I) What countries did you visit?m) What time did she come?What color is his hair?		What + a noun.
	n) What is Ed like?o) What is the weather like?	He's kind .	What + be like is used to know a about general description of qualities
	p) What does Ted look likeq) What does her house look like?	He's short I It's a two-story, red brick house.	What + look like asks a physical description or appereance
WHICH	r) I have two pens. Which per do you want?s) Which one do you want? Which do you want?	The small one. That one.	Which is used instead of what when a question asks for a selection from a group
	t) Which countries did he visit?	USA and UK. This	Sometimes, there is little difference in meaning between <i>which</i> and <i>what</i> when they accompany a noun.

3. TAG QUESTIONS

A tag question used to get confirmation from the form to the end of a sentence.	e hearer by simply adding an auxiliary in the question
 a) Jack is here, isn't he? b) Jack is sleeping, isn't he? c) Jack studies law, doesn't he? d) Jack will come, won' he? e) Jack is going to sleep, isn't he? f) Jack watched TV, didn't he? g) Jack has slept, hasn't he? 	Positive Sentences are asked with negative tags.
 h) Jack isn't here, is he? i) Jack isn't sleeping, is he? j) Jack doesn't study law, does he? k) Jack will not come, will he? l) Jack isn't going to sleep, is he? m) Jack didn't watch TV, did he? n) Jack hasn't slept, has he? 	Negative Sentences are asked with positive tags.