Grammar review

A TENSES (→ Units 1–8)

Present continuous (→ Units 1, 2 & 8)

A1 □ 'Who *are you phoning?*' 'I'*m trying* to get through to Helen.'

We use the present continuous to talk about particular events or activities that have begun but have not ended at the time of speaking. The event or activity is in progress at the present time, but not necessarily at the moment of speaking.

A2 □ She's *doing* voluntary work with young children until she starts her university course.

We use the present continuous to suggest that an event or activity is or may be temporary.

(For the present continuous for the future, see B7 & Unit 10.)

Present simple (→ Units 1, 2 & 8)

A3 □ Trees *grow* more quickly in summer than in winter.

We use the present simple with verbs describing states or situations that are always true or continue indefinitely.

A4 □ This cake *tastes* wonderful. Where did you buy it?

We use the present simple with states or situations (thoughts, feelings) that exist at the present moment.

Verbs generally used to talk about states include ***agree, appreciate, attract, *desire, *doubt, expect, hate, hope, like, love, *prefer, *regret** (*to do with emotions, attitudes, and preferences*); **anticipate, assume, *believe, consider, expect, feel, find, imagine, *know, realise, think, understand** (*mental states*); **ache, hear, *notice, see, *smell, sound, *taste** (*senses and perception*); ***belong to, *consist of, *constitute, *contain, cost, *differ from, have, look, *mean, measure, *own, *possess, *resemble, *seem, weigh** (*'being', 'having'*, etc.).

The verbs marked * are rarely used with continuous tenses (but can be if we mean actions rather than states).

A5 □ *Do* you *go* to Turkey every year for your holidays?

We use the present simple to talk about habits or regular events or actions.

(For the present simple for the future, see B6 & Unit 10.)

Past simple (→ Units 3, 4, 5 & 8)

A6 □ Kathy *left* a few minutes ago.

A7 □ Jim *continued* the course even though it was proving very difficult.

We use the past simple to refer to a completed action or event in the past or to talk about situations that existed over a period of time in the past, but not now. We can either say when something happened, using a time adverbial (e.g. *a few minutes ago*: A6), or assume that the listener or reader already knows when it happened or can understand this from the context (A7).

A8 □ I *saw* my grandparents every week as a child.

We use the past simple to talk about repeated past actions.

(For the past simple in conditionals, see M12 & M13 and Unit 83.)

Present perfect (→ Units 3, 6 & 8)

A9 □ We can't have a meeting, because so few people *have shown* any interest.

A10 □ My ceiling *has fallen* in and the kitchen is flooded. Come quickly!

A11 □ We *have belonged* to the tennis club since we moved here.

A12 □ Lee *has represented* his country on many occasions, and hopes to go on to compete in the next Olympics.

We use the present perfect to talk about a past action, event or state, when there is some kind of connection between what happened in the past, and the present time.

Often we are interested in the way something that happened in the past affects or is relevant to the situation that exists now (A9). However, the connection with the present may also be that the action happened recently with a consequence for the present (A10), that it continues until the present time (A11), or that a repeated event in the past may (or may not) happen again (A12).

Past continuous (→ Units 4, 7 & 8)

A13 □ When he realised I *was looking* at him, he turned away.

We use the past continuous to talk about a situation (...I *was looking at him*...) that started before a particular point in the past (...*he turned away*) and was still in progress at that point.

Past perfect (→ Units 5, 7 & 8)

A14 □ When I went into the bathroom, I found that the bath *had overflowed*.

A15 □ By 10 o'clock most people *had gone* home.

We use the past perfect to talk about a past event that took place before another past event (A14), or before or up to a particular time in the past (A15).

(For the past perfect in conditionals, see M14 & Unit 83.)

Present perfect continuous (→ Units 6 & 8)

A16 □ Since the operation two months ago, Joe *has been learning* to walk again. He can already take one or two steps unaided.

A17 □ Your eyes are red – *have* you *been crying*?

We use the present perfect continuous to talk about an activity in progress in the past for a period until now, which is still in progress (A16) or has recently finished (A17).

Past perfect continuous (→ Units 7 & 8)

A18 □ When I saw the vase in the shop window, I knew it was exactly what I *had been looking* for.

We use the past perfect continuous to talk about a situation or activity that was in progress over a period up to a particular past point in time.

B THE FUTURE (→ Units 9–14)

Will + infinitive (→ Unit 9)

B1 □ It's late. I think I'*ll* go to bed now.

B2 □ I think you'*ll* enjoy the film.

We use **will** when we state a decision made at the moment of speaking (B1) and when we say that we think something is likely to happen in the future (B2).

B3 □ I'*ll* make one of my special desserts for dinner, if you like.

B4 □ I've asked her to join us this evening, but she *won't*.

We use **will** (or **'ll**) when we talk about *willingness* to do something in the future (e.g. in offers (B3), invitations, requests, and orders) and **will not** (or **won't**) when we talk about *unwillingness* to do something in the future (e.g. reluctance, refusal (B4)).

Be going to + infinitive (→ Unit 9)

B5 □ 'Has anybody offered to look after the children?' 'Jo's *going to* do it.'

We use **be going to** when we state a decision made some time before we report it. **Going to** is often preferred in informal spoken English (where it is often pronounced /gənə/) and **will** is preferred in more formal contexts.

Present simple for the future (→ Unit 10)

B6 □ The next train to Newcastle *leaves* at 3.45. [*station announcement*]

We use the present simple to talk about future events that are part of some official arrangement such as a timetable or programme. A time expression is usually used with the present simple for the future (...*at 3.45*) unless the time referred to is already clear from the context.

Present continuous for the future (→ Unit 10)

B7 □ *We're having* a party next Saturday. Can you come?
We use the present continuous to talk about future activities and events that are intended or have already been arranged. Usually a personal pronoun is used (*We...*) and a future time is mentioned (*...next Saturday*) or already understood.

Future continuous (→ Unit 11)

B8 □ After the operation you *won't be doing* any sport for a while.
We use the future continuous to talk about an activity or event happening at a particular time or over a particular period in the future. We usually mention the future time (*After the operation...*).

C MODALS & SEMI-MODALS (→ Units 15–20)

The modal verbs are: **will, would, can, could, may, might, shall, should, must.** Modal verbs have meanings relating to ideas such as possibility, likelihood, prediction, necessity, permission and obligation. They do not have *to*-infinitive, *-s*, *-ing* or past participle forms. They are often followed by the bare infinitive of another verb (e.g. *She might go*) but can also be used on their own (e.g. *Yes, I can*). They cannot be followed directly by a *to*-infinitive, an *-ing* form, a past participle, or another modal verb. In questions they come before the subject (e.g. *Could you help?*) and before *not* in negatives (e.g. *He won't* (= will not) *help*). The semi-modals are: **ought to, used to, need, dare, had better, have (got) to, be able to.** These have meanings like modal verbs but not the same formal features: for example, some can be marked for tense (e.g. *have/had (got) to*); some have non-modal uses (e.g. *She needs a rest*).

Can, could and be able to (→ Unit 15)

C1 □ A polyglot is someone who *can* speak several different languages.

C2 □ Anita *could* speak three languages before she was six.

C3 □ Martha *couldn't* swim until she was ten.
When we say that someone or something has or doesn't have the ability to do something, we use **can('t)** (for the present; C1) or **could(n't)** (for the past; C2, C3).

C4 □ 'Why isn't Tim here yet?' 'It *could* be because his mother's ill again.'
We use **could**, not **can**, to say there is a possibility of something happening or being true.

C5 □ Despite yesterday's snowfalls, we *were able to* drive home in less than an hour.
We can use **be able to** instead of **can** or **could** to talk about ability. We prefer **be able to** when we talk about a specific achievement (particularly if it is difficult, requiring some effort; C5) rather than a general ability. Where there is a choice, in speech we generally prefer **can** or **could** rather than **be able to.**

C6 □ After the trees have been cut back, we *will be able to* see more of the garden from the sitting room.
We use **will be able to,** not **can,** to say that something is possible in the future on condition that something is done first.

C7 □ We *can/are allowed to* stay up late on Fridays and Saturdays because we don't have to go to school the next day.
We use **can** for the present or the future and **could** for the past to report permission. We can also use **be allowed to.**

Will, would and used to (→ Unit 16)

C8 □ *Will/Won't* you have another biscuit? ('Won't you...?' is a very polite and rather formal offer)

C9 □ 'John wants to borrow the car.' 'He *will not.*' (a firm refusal)

C10 □ You *will* now put your pens down and pay attention. (a firm instruction)
We use **will** and **will not (won't)** to talk about (un)willingness (see B3–4) and also to make offers (C8), requests, refusals (C9), and to give instructions (C10).

C11 □ You should apply for the job. You *would* have a good chance of getting it.
We can use **would** to make a prediction about an imaginary situation; that is, about something that may or may not happen (see also M13).

C12 □ *Would* you like me to get you some water?
We can use **Would you like...** when we make an offer, but not 'Will you like...'. In requests, too, we can say **I would like...**, but not 'I will like...'. We can use **should** (with **I** or **we**) instead of **would** in requests like this, but this is formal.

C13 □ We *would/used to* lend him money when he was unemployed.

C14 □ I *used to* live in a flat in Paris.
To talk about things that happened repeatedly in the past, but don't happen now, we can use **would** or **used to + infinitive** (C13). **Used to** is more common in informal English. We can use **used to** but not **would** to talk about permanent past states (C14). Notice how we normally make questions and negatives with **use to** in spoken English: '*Did* your children *use to* sleep well when they were babies?'; 'I *didn't use to* like visiting the dentist when I was young.' Many people avoid using **used to** in questions and negatives without **do** ('Used you to...?', 'I usedn't to...') and in question tags (..., usedn't you?) because it sounds very formal and old-fashioned.

may, might, can and could (→ Units 15 & 17)

C15 □ If the drought goes on much longer, there *may/might/could* be water rationing before the end of the month.

C16 □ Her parents *may/might/could have influenced* her decision to resign.
In affirmative sentences (that is, sentences which are not questions or negatives) we use **may**, **might**, or **could** with a similar meaning to say that there is a possibility of something happening or being true (C15). **Can** is not used in this way. We sometimes prefer **could** to show that we are giving an opinion about which we are unsure. We use **may/might/could + have + past participle** to say that it is possible that something happened in the past (C16).

C17 □ 'While we're in Leeds shall we go and see Mark?' 'But it's been nearly 20 years since we last saw him. He *may not/might not* remember us.'

C18 □ I think I saw her go out, so she *can't/couldn't* be at home.
In negative sentences, including sentences with words like **only**, **hardly**, or **never**, we use **may not** or **might not** to say it is possible that something is not true (C17), and **can't** or **couldn't** to say that it is not possible that something is true (C18).

C19 □ Coats *may* be left in the cloakroom.
May (not 'might') is used in formal contexts to say that something is allowed. **May not** is used to say that things are not allowed (e.g. Calculators *may not* be used in the examination.).

must and have (got) to (→ Unit 18)

C20 □ That's really good news. I *must* tell Steve straight away.

C21 □ 'Can we meet on Thursday morning?' 'Sorry, no. I *have to* go to the dentist at 11.00.'
When we say that it is necessary to do something, we use **must** or **have (got) to**. Sometimes it doesn't matter which we use, although **have got to** is less formal than either **must** or **have to** and is particularly common in spoken English. However, we use **must** when we want to indicate that the *speaker* decides that something is necessary (C20) and we use **have (got) to** to suggest that *someone else* or some outside circumstances or authority makes something necessary (C21).

C22 □ She was bruised quite badly in the accident. It *must* hurt a lot.
We normally use **must**, not **have (got) to**, when we conclude that something (has) happened or that something is true .

C23 □ 'I'm seeing Dr Evans next week.' 'That *can't* be right. He's on holiday then.'
When we give a negative conclusion we rarely use **must not** or **have (got) to**. Instead, we use **can't (cannot)** or **couldn't**.

C24 □ When I went to school I *had to* learn Latin.
To say that something was necessary in the past we use **had to, not must.**

need(n't), don't have to and mustn't (→ Units 18 & 19)

C25 □ He didn't cook the meal himself so you *needn't/don't have to* eat it all. He won't be offended.

C26 □ You *mustn't* put anything on the shelves until the glue has set hard.
We use **needn't** (or **don't need to**) or **don't have to** to say that something is not necessary (C25) and **mustn't** to say that something is not allowed (C26).

C27 □ I *didn't have to/didn't need to have* an interview because I'd worked there before.

C28 □ I *needn't have* cooked dinner. Just as it was ready, Chris and June phoned to say that they couldn't come to eat.
When we say that it was not necessary to do something in the past, and it wasn't done, we use **didn't need to** or **didn't have to** (C27). To show that we think something that *was* done was not in fact necessary we use **need not (needn't) have** (C28).

should, ought to and be supposed to (→ Unit 20)

C29 □ You'll catch cold if you go out like that. I think you *should/ought to* take a hat.

C30 □ I enjoyed her first novel, so the new one *should/ought to* be good.
We can often use **should** or **ought to** with little difference in meaning when we talk about obligation (e.g. in giving advice, making recommendations, or talking about a responsibility, (C29) and the probability of something happening or being true (C30).

C31 □ The work *was supposed to start/should have started/ought to have started* last week.

C32 □ Walking under a ladder *is supposed to* be unlucky.
(Be) supposed to can be used instead of **should/ought to** to express a less strong obligation than **should** (C31). It is also used to report what many people think is true, but **should/ought to** are not used in this way (C32).

D PASSIVES (→ Units 22–25)

Passive verb forms have one of the tenses of the verb **to be** and a **past participle**. Passive verb forms are summarised in Appendix 1. The choice between an active and passive sentence allows us to present the same information in two different orders. Compare:

active □ The storm damaged the roof.	*passive* □ The roof was damaged. □ The roof was damaged by the storm.
This sentence is about *the storm*, and says what it did. The subject (*The storm*) is the 'agent' and the object (*the roof*) is the 'done to'.	These sentences are about *the roof* and say what happened to it (in the first sentence) and what did it (in the second). The subject (*The roof*) is the 'done to'. If it is mentioned, the agent (*the storm*) goes in a prepositional phrase with *by* after the verb.

D1 □ The building *survived* the earthquake but then *was destroyed by* a fire.
Verbs which take an object (*transitive verbs*) can have a passive form (*...was destroyed*). Verbs which *do not* take an object (*intransitive verbs*) do not have passive forms (The child *vanished*..., but not 'The child was vanished...').
However, many verbs can be used at different times with and without objects – that is, they can be both transitive and intransitive. Compare: '**Are they meeting him** at the airport?' (*transitive*) and '**Is he being met** at the airport?' (*passive*); 'When shall we **meet**?' (*intransitive*; no passive possible)

D2 □ I'm really disappointed. I *didn't get picked/wasn't picked* for the team again.

D3 □ The house *was owned* by an elderly couple before I bought it.
In spoken language we often use **get + past participle** (*...didn't get picked...*) instead of a passive form (*...wasn't picked...*) to talk about actions or events that we see as

negative (D2). Note, however, that we can also use it to talk about positive actions and events (e.g. Great news – I **got picked** for the team again!). We don't normally use **get + past participle** to describe states (D3).

E QUESTIONS (→ Units 26 & 27)

Question forms are summarised in Appendix 2.

E1 □ *What happened* to your eye?

If we use **what, which, who** or **whose** as the subject, we don't use **do** in the question (E1). However, notice that we can sometimes use **do** when **what, which, who** or **whose** is the subject if we want to add emphasis, or to contrast with what has been said or implied. **Do** is stressed in spoken English: 'Come on, be honest – who *did* tell you?' Don't confuse **whose** with **who's** (short for either **who is** or **who has**), which are pronounced the same.

E2 □ I've got orange juice or apple juice. *Which* would you prefer?

E3 □ He just turned away when I asked him. *What* do you think he meant?

In these questions the *wh*-word is the object. We prefer **which** when we are asking about an identified group or range of things or people (E2), and we use **what** when the possible range of reference is open (E3). Sometimes, however, we can use either **which** or **what** with little difference in meaning (e.g. *What/Which* towns do we go through on the way?).

E4 □ *Haven't you finished* your homework yet?

E5 □ *Why didn't* she pay for the meal?

E6 □ *Who wouldn't like* to own an expensive sports car?

We can use negative **yes/no** or **wh-questions** to make a suggestion, to persuade someone, to criticise, or to show that we are surprised, etc. We make a negative **yes/no** or **wh-question** with an auxiliary verb (*have, did, would*, etc.) + **-n't** (E4, E5, E6). We can also ask a negative question using a negative statement and a positive 'tag' at the end (e.g. We do*n't* have to leave just yet, *do we*?). Negative questions can be used to sound polite when giving an opinion (e.g. Should*n't* we offer her a lift?).

F VERB COMPLEMENTATION: WHAT FOLLOWS VERBS (→ Units 28–31)

F1 □ She described the attacker to the police.

F2 □ They arrived at the restaurant an hour late.

F3 □ He gave me a biscuit.

Some verbs (e.g. *describe* in F1) are followed by an object (*...the attacker...*). These are called *transitive verbs*. Other verbs that are usually transitive include **arrest, avoid, do, enjoy, find, force, get, grab, hit, like, pull, report, shock, take, touch, want, warn**. Some verbs (e.g. *arrive* in F2) are not usually followed by an object. These are called *intransitive verbs*. Other verbs that are usually intransitive include **appear, come, fall, go, happen, matter, sleep, swim, wait**. If a verb can't be followed by an object, it can't be made passive. Some verbs (e.g. *give* in F3) are commonly followed by two objects (*me* and *a biscuit* in F3). Other verbs that are commonly followed by two objects include **lend, offer, pay, sell, tell, throw**.

A good dictionary will list the meanings of verbs and for each meaning tell you whether each meaning is intransitive, transitive and, if transitive, whether it is followed by one or by two objects.

F4–13 Many verbs can be followed by another verb in the form of a **to-infinitive** (e.g. refuse *to eat*), **-ing** (e.g. avoid *working*), **bare infinitive** (e.g. help *carry*). Note that when **to** comes after a verb it can be part of a **to-infinitive** (= *to* + the base form of a verb; e.g. He wants *to go*, She hopes *to win*) or it can be a **preposition** followed by a noun phrase (e.g. He went *to the theatre*) or by an **-ing** form (e.g. He admitted *to having* a gun). An **-ing** form often behaves like an object (e.g. I regret *leaving*).

Here is a summary of common patterns together with examples of verbs that are used in this pattern. Note that many verbs can be used in several different patterns, and that some of the verbs given can be used just with an object, and may also be used intransitively (e.g. He failed to stop, He failed the test, He failed).

	F4 □ They won't *agree to pay* for the damage.
Verb + to-infinitive	agree, aim, ask, decline, demand, fail, hesitate, hope, hurry, manage, offer, plan, prepare, refuse, want, wish
	F5 □ Stevens *admitted stealing* the wallet.
Verb + -ing	admit, avoid, consider, delay, deny, detest, dread, envisage, feel like, finish, imagine, miss, recall, resent, risk, suggest
	F6 □ Before we *began eating/to eat* my father thanked everyone for coming.
Verb + to-infinitive *or* **-ing** with little difference in meaning	begin, cease, continue, start
	F7 □ She *came hurrying* up the path to bring us the news. F8 □ How did you *come to buy* the car?
Verb + to-infinitive *or* **-ing** but with a difference in meaning	come, go on, mean, regret, remember, stop, try
	F9 □ My parents wouldn't *allow me to go* to the party.
Verb + object + to-infinitive (= there must be an object)	allow, believe, cause, command, consider, enable, encourage, entitle, force, invite, order, persuade, show, teach, tell, warn
	F10 □ I would *hate (her) to give* the job up.
Verb + (object) + to-infinitive (= there may be an object)	hate, help, like, love, need, prefer, want, wish,
	F11 □ The police *caught him driving* without a licence.
Verb + object + -ing (= there must be an object)	catch, discover, feel, find, hear, leave, notice, observe, overhear, see, spot
	F12 □ I *can't stand (him) wearing* a suit.
Verb + (object) + -ing (= there may be an object)	can't stand, detest, dislike, dread, envisage, hate, imagine, like, love, mind (in questions and negatives), miss, recall, regret, remember, resent, risk, start, stop
	F13 □ She *felt the mosquito bite/biting* her.
Verb + object + bare infinitive *or* **-ing**, but there is sometimes a difference in meaning	feel, hear, notice, observe, overhear, see, watch

G REPORTING (→ Units 32–39)

When we report speech in a different context from the one in which it was originally produced, we sometimes need to make changes to the original words. Of course, differences between the original speech context and the one in which it is reported will influence whether changes are needed and what they should be. Here are some possible changes:

G1 □ 'Jim's *arriving* later *today*.' → She said that Jim *was arriving* later *that day*.

G2 □ 'I was sure *I'd* left it *here*.' → He said that he was sure *he'd* left it *there/on the table*.

G3 □ 'I *grew these* carrots *myself*.' → He told me that he *had grown those* carrots *himself*.

The tense we choose for a report is one that is appropriate *at the time that we are reporting* what was said or thought. This means that we sometimes use a different tense in the report from the one that was used in the original statement (G1 & G3) and change pronouns, references to time and place, and words such as **this**, **that**, and **these** (G1–G3).

G4 □ Martha *told me* (that) she would be late for the meeting.

G5 □ She *said* (that) she was feeling ill.

G6 □ I *said to John* (that) he had to work harder.

G7 □ She *told me about* her holiday in Finland.

Say and **tell** are the verbs most commonly used to report statements. We use an **object** after **tell** (*...me...*, G4), but not after **say** (G5). Notice, however, that we can use **to** + **object** after **say** (*...to John...*, G6), but not after **tell**, and that we can report what topic was talked about using **tell** + **object** + **about** (G7).

H NOUNS (→ Units 40–43)

Countable and uncountable nouns

H1 □ The *equipment* was faulty.

Nouns can be either **countable** or **uncountable**. Countable nouns are those which can have the word **a/an** before them or be used in the plural. Uncountable nouns are not used with **a/an** or in the plural. Some nouns in English are normally uncountable (like *equipment*), while in many other languages they are countable. For example: **accommodation, advice, applause, assistance, baggage, camping, cash, chaos, chess, clothing, conduct, courage, cutlery, dancing, dirt, employment, equipment, evidence, fun, furniture, harm, health, homework, housing, housework, information, jewellery, leisure, litter, luck, luggage, machinery, money, mud, music, news, nonsense, parking, pay, permission, photography, poetry, pollution, produce, progress, publicity, research, rubbish, safety, scenery, shopping, sightseeing, sunshine, transport, underwear, violence, weather, work.**

H2 □ The company is/are doing a lot of *business* in South America.

Sometimes a noun is used uncountably when we are talking about the whole substance or idea (e.g. *business*), but countably when we are talking about units or different kinds (e.g. *businesses*). There are many nouns like this, including **beer, coffee, water; fruit, toothpaste, washing powder; cake, chicken, land, paint, space, stone; abuse, (dis)agreement, business, difficulty, fear, improvement, language, life, pain, protest, responsibility, success, thought, war**. Here are some examples: Three **coffees** and a lemonade, please. – Brazil is a major producer of **coffee**.; Most **toothpastes** contain colourings. – Don't forget to buy some **toothpaste**.; The **chickens** have escaped. – I don't eat **chicken**.; I have a **fear** of spiders – He was trembling with **fear**.

H3 □ The use of recycled *paper* is saving thousands of trees from being cut down each year.

Some nouns (such as *paper*) usually have different meanings when they are used countably and uncountably. Other nouns like this include **accommodation, competition, glass, grammar, iron, jam, lace, property, room, sight, speech, time, tin, work**. Here are some examples: I just don't understand **grammar**. – I looked the answer up in a **grammar** (= a reference book); I got held up in a **jam** (= traffic jam). – This **jam** is really sweet. (Note that 'jams' can also be used to mean types of jam); She made a wonderful **speech** at the wedding. – His **speech** has been affected by the illness.

Compound nouns (→ Unit 43)

H4 □ How much *pocket money* do you give to your children?

H5 □ A new *golf course/golf-course* is being built outside the town.

A *compound noun* (such as *pocket money*) is an expression made up of more than one word, which functions as a noun in a sentence. For example, we can use a **noun + noun** combination to say what something is made of, where something is, when something happens, or what someone does: **rice pudding, a glasshouse, the kitchen cupboard, hill fog, a night flight, a morning call, a language teacher, a window-cleaner.** We sometimes make compounds from nouns which consist of more than two nouns: **a milk chocolate bar, an air-traffic controller, a dinner-party conversation.**

Some compound nouns are usually written as one word (e.g. **a tablecloth**), some as separate words (e.g. **waste paper**), and others with a hyphen (e.g. **a word-processor**). Some compound nouns can be written in more than one of these ways (e.g. **a golf course** *or* **a golf-course**; H5). A good dictionary will tell you how a particular compound noun is usually written.

H6 □ She got some *chewing gum* stuck on her shoe.

Some compound nouns consist of **-ing + noun** as in: **chewing gum, a living room, drinking water, (a pack of) playing cards, a dressing gown, a turning-point, a working party.** The *-ing* form usually says what purpose the following noun has. Other compound nouns consist of a **noun + -ing: fly-fishing, film-making, sunbathing, risk-taking, life-saving.** These compounds usually refer to actions or processes.

The possessive form of nouns

H7 □ The *girls'* shoes were covered in mud, so I asked them to take them off before they got into *Tom's* car.

To make the possessive form of nouns in writing – referring to people or groups of people (e.g. *companies*), other living things, places, times, etc. – we add **'s** ('apostrophe s') to singular nouns and to irregular plurals that don't end in *-s* (e.g. **Tom's** car; the **college's** administrators; the **women's** liberation movement) and add **'** (an apostrophe) to regular plurals (e.g. the **girls'** shoes; the **companies'** difficulties). To make the possessive form of names ending in *-s* pronounced /z/ we can add either **'** or **'s** (e.g. It's Tom **Jones'** (*or* Tom **Jones's**) new sports car).

H8 □ That *old car of Jo's* is falling apart.

H9 □ It belongs to a *friend of his*.

We can use the pattern **noun + of + 's** (H8)/ *possessive pronoun* (H9) to talk about something that someone owns or about a relationship. Notice that when we are talking about relationships between people we can also use a noun without **'s** (e.g. an uncle **of** Mark**'s** (*or* an uncle of Mark)).

H10 □ We're going to *Linda's* (house) for the evening.

The noun following a possessive form can be left out when we talk about someone's house. We don't use 'shop' when we talk about, for example, **the newsagent's/the chemist's** or **the newsagent/the chemist** (but not 'the newsagent's shop'/'the chemist's shop') where the name of the shop includes the name of the person who works there (compare 'the sweet shop', but not 'the sweet's').

H11 □ *David's guitar playing* has improved enormously.

H12 □ *The construction of the office block* was opposed by protestors.

Often we can use the possessive **'s** or **...of + noun...** with very little difference in meaning. However, in general, we are more likely to use the **possessive** form of a noun when the noun refers to a particular person or group of people (H11); and when we are talking about time (e.g. **next year's** holiday prices, *rather than* the holiday prices of next year).

We are more likely to use the **...of + noun...** form with an inanimate noun (H12); when we are talking about a process, or a change over time (e.g. *the establishment* **of the committee**, *rather than* the committee's establishment); and when the noun is a long noun phrase (e.g. She is *the sister* **of someone I used to go to school with**. *rather than* She is someone I used to go to school with's sister.).

I ARTICLES, DETERMINERS AND QUANTIFIERS (→ Units 44–52)

Determiners are words such as **this, her,** and **your** which determine or specify what a noun or noun phrase refers to. They come before the noun and at the front of the noun phrase. *Quantifiers* are words such as **some, much,** and **few** which identify the quantity of something. Some words can be both determiners and quantifiers (e.g. 'I sent out invitations to a *few* friends' [few = determiner] and 'A *few* of my friends came to the party' [few = quantifier]) while some are determiners only (e.g. 'This is *my* friend Andrew' [my = determiner]). Many determiners and quantifiers can be *pronouns*, taking the place of a noun phrase (e.g. I've invited all my friends and *most* are coming [most = pronoun]). *Articles* (**a/an** and **the**) are determiners. They also specify what the noun refers to and come at the beginning of the noun phrase. However, they cannot be quantifiers or pronouns.

The (→ Units 45–47)

I1 □ Dorothy took a cake and some biscuits to the party, but only *the* biscuits were eaten.
I2 □ Can you shut *the* door after you, please?
I3 □ We had a good time on holiday. *The* beaches were all beautifully clean.
I4 □ Give it to *the* man wearing the red coat.
I5 □ Look at *the* moon. It's very bright tonight.

We use **the** with singular, plural or uncountable nouns when we expect the listener or reader to be able to identify the thing or person we are referring to in the following noun. It may be that the thing has already been mentioned (I1); that it is clear from the situation which person or thing we mean (I2); that it is in some other way understandable from the context which thing or person we mean (I3; 'the beaches' = 'the beaches we went to'); that the thing or person is identified in what is said after the noun (I4; 'wearing the red coat'); or that there is only one of a particular thing (I5 and also, for example, the Great Wall of China, the North Pole, the USA, the world).

A/an (→ Units 44–47)

I6 □ Helen's just bought *a* house on Wilson Street.
I7 □ Sydney is *a* beautiful city.

We use **a/an** with singular nouns when we don't expect the listener or reader to be able to identify the thing or person we are referring to in the following noun. We often use **a/an** to introduce a new specific person or thing (I6); or when the noun refers to a class of people or things generally – for example, when we describe someone or something or say what type of thing someone or something is (I7).

Zero article (→ Units 45–47)

I8 □ *[–]* Water has got into my camera and damaged it.
I9 □ There are *[–]* examples of the present continuous tense on page 32.

We use **zero article** *[–]* with uncountable and plural nouns when we talk generally about people or things rather than about specific people or things. We might talk about a whole class of things in a general way (I8) or about an indefinite number or amount (I9).

Some (→ Unit 48)

Some and **any** are used with plural and uncountable nouns, usually when we are talking about limited, but indefinite or unknown, numbers or quantities of things.

I10 □ Peter gave me *some* advice.
I11 □ Hasn't *some* information about the proposal been sent out already? I thought I read about it last week.

I12 □ Shall I send you *some* details?

We generally use **some**: in affirmative sentences (sentences which are not negatives or questions) (I10); in questions where we expect agreement or the answer 'Yes' (I11); in offers and requests in order to sound positive, expecting the answer 'Yes' (I12). If it is used in this way **some** is pronounced with its weak form /səm/.

I13 □ *Some* teachers never seem to get bored with being in the classroom.

We use **some** to talk about particular, but unspecified, people or things with the implication 'some, but not all'. If it is used in this way **some** is pronounced with its strong form /sʌm/.

I14 □ I haven't been here for *some* years.

We use **some** (pronounced /sʌm/) when we mean quite a large amount of, or a large number of something. Notice that we can say '*some* years, months, weeks, etc.' or just 'years, months, weeks, etc.' with a similar meaning.

Any (→ Unit 48)

I15 □ We haven't got *any* butter left.

I16 □ Do you have *any* better ideas?

I17 □ *Any* student could have answered the question.

We generally use **any**: in sentences with a negative meaning (I15); in questions where we don't necessarily expect agreement or the answer 'Yes' (I16); when we mean 'all (of them), and it's not important which' (I17).

I18 □ If you see *any* cherries in the shop, can you buy them?

I19 □ *Any* questions should be sent to the manager.

We commonly use **any**: in 'if' clauses (I18; note that 'some' is possible, but would seem to expect that you will see cherries); when **any** means 'if there is/are' (I19; = If there are questions...).

Anyone, someone, etc.

I20 □ Joseph lives *somewhere* in Denmark.

I21 □ I've never seen *anybody* that tall before.

The rules for the use of the following words are generally the same as those given in I10–I19 for **some** and **any**: the pronouns **someone/anyone**, **somebody/anybody**, **something/anything**, (notice that **somebody** = **someone**, and **anybody** = **anyone**), and the adverbs **somewhere/anywhere**. For example, **some-** words are generally used in affirmative sentences (I20), and **any-** words are generally used in sentences with a negative meaning (I21).

Quantifiers with and without 'of': any (of), some (of), much (of), many (of), both (of), all (of) each (of), none (of), few (of), little (of) (→ Units 48-52)

I22 □ *Many of* Bob's closest friends are women.

I23 □ *Some of* my jewellery is missing.

I24 □ Have you seen *any of* these new light bulbs in the shops yet?

I25 □ Are you going to eat *all (of)* that cake, or can I finish it?

I26 □ *Both of* us were exhausted after flying to Japan.

I27 □ I polished *each* trophy with a soft cloth.

I28 □ Is there *much* orange juice left?

We usually need to put **of** after quantifiers when there is a **possessive form** (I22), **pronoun** (I23) or **determiner** (I24) before a noun. Notice, however, that in informal contexts after **both** and **all** we can leave out **of** before **the**, **these**, **those** (and **this** or **that** with **all**; I25); **my**, **your**, **her**, **his**, etc.; and **mine**, **yours**, etc., but not before **them**, **you**, or **us** (I26) (or **it** with **all**). We don't use **of** after a quantifier immediately before a noun (I27/28).

No, none (of), neither (of), either (→ Unit 49)

I29 □ There's *no* train until tomorrow.
I30 □ *No* information was given about how the study was conducted.
I31 □ She had *no* shoes on.
I32 □ Have we got any more sugar? There's *none* in the kitchen.
I33 □ 'How many children have you got?' '*None*.'

We use the determiner **no** to mean 'not a' or 'not any' before a singular (I29), uncountable (I30), or plural noun (I31). Before **the, my, this,** etc. we use the quantifier **none (of)** to mean 'not any' (I32). If it is clear from the context what we mean, we can use the pronoun **none** (I33).

I34 □ *None of* the furniture has arrived yet.

When we use **none of** with an uncountable noun the verb must be singular. However, when we use **none of** with a plural noun the verb can be either singular or plural (e.g. **None of** *the parcels* **have/has** arrived yet), although the singular form is more grammatical.

I35 □ *Neither of* his parents could drive.

We use **neither of** instead of **none of** when we are talking about two people or things.

I36 □ You could catch the 10.05 or the 10.32. *Either* train gets you there in good time.
I37 □ Has *either of* them passed their driving test yet?

When we use **either** as a determiner (I36), it is followed by a singular countable noun. If this is the subject of the sentence, it is followed by a singular verb. We use **either of** with plural nouns and pronouns (I37). Note that **either** can also be used as an adverbial as in 'We can **either** take the train or go by bus' and 'I had no wish to go, and Les didn't want to go **either**'.

Much (of), many (of), a lot of, lots (of) (→ Unit 50)

I38 □ There isn't *much* traffic along the street where I live.
I39 □ Will you be taking *many* suitcases on the trip?

Much and **many** are used to talk about quantities and amounts. **Much** is used with uncountable nouns (I38) and **many** with plural nouns (I39). Before **the, my, this,** etc. we use **much of/ many of. Much of** can also be used with a singular countable noun to mean 'a large part of' (e.g. *Much of* the national park was destroyed in the fire.). We can use **much** and **many** without a noun if the meaning is clear (e.g. Can you get some sugar when you go shopping? There isn't *much* left.). **Much** and **many** are often used after **as, how, so,** and **too** (e.g. I'd say there were twice *as many* women at the meeting as men.).

I40 □ She didn't show *much* interest in what I said.
I41 □ John offered me *a lot of* money for the car.
I42 □ *Many of* my relatives live around Wolverhampton.

Much (of) and **many (of)** are used in *negative sentences* to emphasise that we are talking about small (or smaller than expected) quantities or amounts (I40) and in *questions* to ask about quantities or amounts (e.g. Have you got *much* homework to do?). In *affirmative sentences* we often use **a lot of, lots of** or **plenty of** rather than **much (of)** and **many** to talk about large amounts and quantities, particularly in conversation and informal writing (I41). However, **many of** is common in affirmative sentences in both formal and informal contexts (I42).

All (of) (→ Unit 51)

I43 □ There is heating in *all (of)* the bedrooms in the house.

We use **all** or **all of** when we are talking about the total number of things or people in a group, or the total amount of something. In informal contexts we can leave out **of**.

I44 □ *Everyone* was waiting to hear the results.

In modern English we don't use **all** without a noun to mean 'everyone' or 'everything'. However, **all** can mean 'everything' when it is followed by a *relative clause* (e.g. I don't agree with *all* that he said. (= everything that he said)). We can also use **all** without a noun to mean 'the only thing' (e.g. *All* she wants to do is help.).

Each/every (→ Unit 51)

I45 □ *Every* newspaper had the same front page story.

I46 □ Following the flood, *every* building in the area needs major repair work.

We can use **each** and **every** with singular countable nouns (I45), and **each of** with plural nouns, to mean all things or people in a group of two or more (**each (of)**) or three or more (**every**). We use a singular verb (*...needs...*) after **each (of)** and **every** (I46). However, when **each** follows the noun or pronoun it refers to, the noun/pronoun and verb are plural (e.g. *Every* student *is* tested twice a year. They *are each* given a hundred questions to do.).

(A) few (of), less (of), (a) little (of) (→ Unit 52)

I47 □ *A few of* the boys were very good footballers.

I48 □ There is *little* evidence to support his claim.

We use **(a) few (of)** with plural countable nouns (I47) and **(a) little (of)** with uncountable nouns (I48).

I49 □ There's a lot *less* water in the lake than last year.

I50 □ The holiday cost *less* than I thought it would.

We use **less (of)** with uncountable nouns (I49) or in a general sense (I50).

I51 □ I've got *a few* close friends that I meet regularly.

I52 □ He has *few* close friends and often feels lonely.

We often use **a few** and **a little** in a 'positive' way (I51); for example, to suggest that a small amount or quantity is enough, or to suggest that it is more than we would expect. We often use **few** and **little** in a 'negative' way (I52); for example, to suggest that the amount or quantity is not enough, or is surprisingly low. Compare '*A few of* her songs were popular and she was very well known' (= 'positive') and '*Few of* her songs were very popular and eventually she gave up her musical career' (= 'negative'). This use of **few** and **little** is often rather formal.

J RELATIVE CLAUSES AND OTHER TYPES OF CLAUSE (→ Units 53–59)

Relative clauses have a similar function to adjectives in that they give more information about someone or something referred to in a main clause. Participle clauses (**-ing** and **-ed** clauses) can be used like relative clauses, but can also have an adverbial function, giving information about time, cause, etc.

Relative clauses (→ Units 53–55)

J1 □ Andrew stopped the police car *that was driving past*.

J2 □ My mother, *who is in her seventies*, enjoys hill walking.

Defining relative clauses (e.g. *...that was driving past*; J1) are used to specify *which* person or thing we mean, or which *type* of person or thing we mean. Notice that we don't put a comma between the noun and a defining relative clause.

Non-defining relative clauses (e.g. *..., who is in her seventies, ...*; J2) are used to add extra information about a noun, but this information is not necessary to explain which person or thing we mean. We don't use them often in everyday speech, but we do use them frequently in written English. Notice that we often put a comma before and after a non-defining relative clause.

J3 □ The house, *which is to the north of the road*, is owned by the council.

After a relative clause, we don't repeat the subject with a pronoun; so, for example, we wouldn't say 'The house which is to the north of the road it is owned by the council'. However, this is sometimes found in informal speech; for example, 'A friend of mine who is a solicitor – she helped me.'

-ing clauses (= present participle clauses) (→ Units 58 & 59)

J4 □ *Glancing over his shoulder*, he could see the dog chasing him.

J5 □ *Pushing her way through the crowds*, she just managed to get on the bus as it pulled away.

J6 □ 'Wait a minute,' said Frank, *running through the door*.

We can use an **-ing** clause to talk about something that takes place at the same time as (J4) or just before (J5) an action in the main clause. We often use an **-ing** clause in written narrative after quoted speech, when we want to say what someone was doing while they were talking (J6).

Note that the understood subject of **-ing** and **-ed** (see J8) clauses should be the same as the subject of the main clause. For example, in J4, 'he' is the unstated subject of 'Glancing over his shoulder...'.

J7 □ *Knowing exactly what I wanted*, I didn't spend much time shopping.

-ing clauses can be used to talk about reasons and results. This sentence has a similar meaning to 'Because I knew exactly what I wanted, I didn't spend much time shopping'.

-ed clauses (= past participle clauses) (→ Units 58 & 59)

J8 □ *Annoyed by the boys' behaviour*, she complained to the head teacher.

We can use an **-ed** clause to talk about something that happened before an action in the main clause. Often the event in the **-ed** clause causes the event in the main clause.

K PRONOUNS, SUBSTITUTION AND LEAVING OUT WORDS (→ Units 60–65)

Reflexive pronouns (→ Unit 60)

K1 □ 'What did you do to your hand?' 'I cut *myself* when I was chopping vegetables.'

When the subject and object of a sentence refer to the same person or thing, we use a **reflexive pronoun** as the object of a sentence rather than a personal pronoun. The singular forms of reflexive pronouns are **myself, yourself, herself, himself, itself**; the plural forms are **ourselves, yourselves, themselves**.

K2 □ We phoned the plumber and he came *himself*.

K3 □ My sister drew the picture *herself*.

K4 □ I was given this book by the author *herself*.

We can use reflexive pronouns for emphasis: for example, after an intransitive verb (K2) to emphasise the subject; after a transitive verb (K3) to emphasise that something is done without help; or after a noun to emphasise that noun (K4).

each other/one another

K5 □ They tried to avoid *each other/one another* at the party.

K6 □ John and Carmen first met (*each other/one another*) when they were working in Spain.

Some verbs, such as **avoid** (K5), can be used to describe actions in which two or more people or things do the same thing to the other(s). We use **each other** or **one another** with these. Other verbs like this include **attract, complement, face, help**, and **repel**. After the verbs **embrace, fight, kiss, marry** and **meet** we can use **each other** or **one another**, but this may be omitted when the subject is plural or has the form '...and...' (K6).

K7 □ The scheme allows students from many countries to communicate *with each other/with one another*.

K8 □ We *looked at each other/one another* and started to laugh.

With some verbs we have to use a preposition, often **with**, before **each other/one another** (K7). Verbs like this include **agree, coincide, collaborate, communicate, compete, contrast, co-operate, disagree, joke, mix, quarrel, talk**. Note that we can also use **compete against, talk to**, and **look at** before **each other/one another** (K8).

K9 □ The two children *each* blamed the *other* for breaking the window.

For emphasis we can separate **each** and **other**. This sentence is more emphatic than 'The two children blamed each other...'.

Substitution (→ Units 61-63)

K10 □ I had a racing bike when I was young, and *so did my brother*.

K11 □ 'Amy loves ice cream.' '*So do I.*'

K12 □ 'I didn't think much of the restaurant.' '*Neither did I.*'

We can use **so + auxiliary verb + subject** to say that a second person does the same things as the person already mentioned (K10 & K11). The corresponding negative form uses **neither** (K12), **nor** ('Nor did I'), or **not...either** ('I didn't either'). We often use this to avoid repetition (e.g. in K12 we use 'Neither did I' rather than 'I didn't think much of the restaurant either').

L ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS (→ Units 66-78)

Gradable and non-gradable adjectives (→ Units 67-68)

L1 □ They live in a very *large* house.

L2 □ Our teacher gave us an absolutely *impossible* problem to solve.

Most adjectives describe qualities that can be measured or graded, and so can be used in comparative and superlative forms and with words such as 'very' or 'extremely'. These are referred to as **gradable** adjectives (for example, 'large' in L1). Some adjectives are not gradable because they refer to qualities that are completely present or completely absent. These **non-gradable** adjectives (such as 'impossible' in L2) are not usually used in comparative and superlative forms or with words such as 'very' or 'extremely'. They can often, however, be used with words such as 'absolutely' or 'completely'.

Order of adjectives

L3 □ I drank some *very good Brazilian* coffee.

When we use more than one adjective before a noun, there is often a *preferred* (although not fixed) order for these adjectives depending on what type of adjective they are: **opinion + size/physical quality/shape/age + colour + participle adjectives + origin + material + type + purpose + NOUN**. Here are some examples showing the most likely order: *an old plastic container* (= age + material + noun); *a hard red ball* (= quality + colour + noun); *a frightening Korean mask* (= opinion + origin + noun); *a round biscuit tin* (= shape + purpose (for holding biscuits) + noun); *a small broken plate* (= size + participle adjective + noun); *a useful digital alarm clock* (= opinion + type + purpose + noun).

To help you to learn this order, it can be useful to remember that *gradable* adjectives (describing *opinion*, *size*, *quality*, *shape*, and *age*) usually precede *ungradable* adjectives (*participle adjective* and adjectives describing *origin*, *material*, *type* and *purpose*).

Easily confused adjectives

L4 □ I was *surprised* to find that the film was quite *frightening*.

When we use the following adjectives to describe how a person feels about something or someone else, generally the **-ed** adjectives describe how the person feels (e.g. I was *surprised*...), and the **-ing** adjectives give an evaluation of the thing or other person (e.g. ...the film was quite *frightening*.): **alarmed – alarming, amazed – amazing, bored – boring, excited – exciting, frightened – frightening, interested – interesting, pleased – pleasing, surprised – surprising, tired – tiring, worried – worrying.**

Adjectives and adverbs: use (→ Unit 71)

L5 □ The staff in the shop always speak *politely* to customers.

L6 □ It was *strangely* quiet as we went into the room.

We use an *adverb*, not an *adjective*, to say how something happened or was done (L5) or to modify adjectives (L6).

Adjectives and adverbs: comparative and superlative forms (→ Unit 72)

L7 □ The building was *bigger* than I'd expected.

L8 □ It was the *most ridiculous* thing to say.

We usually add the ending **-er** to one-syllable adjectives and adverbs to make their comparative forms (L7) and **-est** to make their superlative forms. With three or more syllables we usually add **more/less** and **most/least** (L8). With two syllables we can usually use either.

Quite

L9 □ I was *quite* satisfied with the result.

L10 □ No, you're *quite* wrong!

L11 □ The food here is *quite* superb.

Quite has two meanings: to a particular degree, but not 'very' (= 'fairly') (L9); and to a large degree, or 'very much' (= 'completely') (L10). When **quite** is used with non-gradable adjectives it means 'completely' (L11).

M ADVERBIAL CLAUSES & CONJUNCTIONS (→ Units 79–87)

An adverbial clause is a type of subordinate clause, linked to a main clause. An adverbial clause adds extra information to the main clause about such things as time and conditions. Most adverbial clauses begin with a conjunction that indicates their link with the main clause. Example conjunctions are **after, before,** and **until** (time conjunctions); and **if** and **unless** (conditional conjunctions).

Tenses in adverbial and main clauses: general

M1 □ Because I'*m* overweight, my doctor *has put* me on a diet.

M2 □ I *felt* unwell when I *got* up this morning.

The verb in the adverbial clause is usually the same tense as the verb in the main clause. In M1 they are both present (present simple + present perfect), and in M2 they are both past (past simple + past simple).

Time clauses: tenses (→ Unit 79)

M3 □ Have something to eat before you *leave*.

To refer to the future after a time conjunction (*...before...*) we use present tenses.

M4 □ As soon as you *see*/*have seen* her, come and tell me.

M5 □ She wrote to me after she *spoke*/*had spoken* to Jim.

To talk about an action in the adverbial clause that is completed before another action described in the main clause, we can use either simple or perfect tenses (present as in M4 or past as in M5), but not **will** or **will have** + **-ed** (the future perfect).

M6 □ When I *saw* Kim, I asked her over for dinner.

If the actions in the main clause and the adverbial clause take place at the same time, we use simple, not perfect tenses.

M7 □ While the children *were swimming*, their mother kept a watchful eye on them.

M8 □ I read a book while I *waited*.

While is mainly used with continuous tenses (M7) and also with simple tenses (M8).

Conditional clauses (→ Units 83–86)

Real and unreal conditionals (→ Units 83 & 84)

Some conditional clauses beginning with **if** suggest that a situation is *real* – that is, the situation is or was true, or may have been or may become true (e.g. *If anyone phones*, tell them I'll be back at 11.00; *If you really want to learn Italian*, you need to spend some time in Italy). Others suggest that a situation is *unreal* – that is, the situation is imaginary or untrue. (e.g. What would you do *if you won the lottery*?; *If you had started out earlier*, you wouldn't have been so late).

Compare: *If I go to Berlin*, I'll travel by train. (= *real* conditional) and *If I went to Berlin*, I'd travel by train. (= *unreal* conditional). In the first, the speaker is thinking of going to Berlin (it is a real future possibility), but in the second, the speaker is not thinking of doing so. The second might be giving someone advice.

Real conditionals: tenses (→ Units 83 & 84)

M9 □ I'll give you a lift if it *rains*.
M10 □ If you *leave* now, you'll be home in two hours.
M11 □ If water *freezes*, it expands.
M12 □ If I *made* the wrong decision then I apologise.

In real conditionals we use a present tense to talk about the future (M9), the present (M10) or unchanging relationships (M11), and past tenses to talk about the past (M12).

Unreal conditionals: tenses (→ Units 83 & 84)

M13 □ *If* my grandfather *was/ were* still alive, he *would* be a hundred today.

To talk about *present* or *future* situations in unreal conditionals, we use a past tense (either simple or continuous) in the **if-clause** and **would + bare infinitive** in the main clause. In *unreal* conditionals we don't use the past simple or past perfect in the main clause. In *unreal* conditionals, we can also use **could/might (have)** instead of **would (have)** (e.g. If my grandfather *was/ were* still alive, he *might have* enjoyed looking after our garden; If I *lived* out of town, I *could* take up horse riding.). Notice that we sometimes use **if...were** instead of **if...was** (see Unit 85).

M14 □ *If* I *had known* how difficult the job was, I *wouldn't have taken* it.

When we talk about something that might have happened in the *past*, but didn't, then we use **if + past perfect** and **would have + past participle** in the main clause. We can also use **might/could have** instead of **would have** in the main clause (e.g. They *might have found* a better hotel *if* they *had driven* a few more kilometres.).

M15 □ *If* Bob *wasn't* so lazy, he *would have passed* the exam easily.
M16 □ *If* the doctor *had been called* earlier, Mary *would* still *be* alive today.

In some *unreal* conditionals we use mixed tenses. That is, a past tense in the **if-clause** and **would have + past participle** in the main clause (M15), or a past perfect in the **if-clause** and **would + infinitive** in the main clause (M16). We can use these patterns to talk about possible consequences if situations were or had been different. We can also use **might/could (have)** in the main clause instead of **would (have)** (e.g. ...he *could have* passed the exam easily.; ...Mary *might* still *be* alive today.).

M17 □ If I *had* a more reliable car, I'd drive to Spain rather than fly.

In *unreal* conditional sentences we don't normally use **would** in an **if-clause** (but see Unit 84).

Other types of *adverbial clause* give information about *place* (M18), *contrast* (M19 and Unit 82), *cause* or *reason* (M20 and Unit 80), *purpose* (M21 and Unit 81), and *result* (M22 and Unit 81):

M18 □ Can you put it back *where you found it*, please?
M19 □ My sister is blonde, *whereas my brother has dark hair*.
M20 □ He wasn't allowed in *because he was too young*.
M21 □ We got up early *so that we could watch the sunrise*.
M22 □ He played so badly *that he was easily beaten*.