Intermediate Manual

This manual contains 24 lessons meant to be used as a six month English course. The lessons do not necessarily build upon each other so students can enter at anytime, but lessons will not be repeated. This ensures that those who are willing to attend each week for the full duration of the course are guaranteed to have heard each of the grammar principles contained in this manual. Teach one lesson each week, covering only the grammar principles contained in that lesson. Keep track of where you are so that other teachers could continue the course in the case of your absence.

The grammar principles are targeted at you, not the class. You must learn them well so that you can then teach them to your class, tailoring the lessons to the needs of your students. Feel free to teach with your own words and style, but make sure all of the principles are covered. Make things fun and keep your class involved. Although this manual is a collection of written grammar principle, our real goal is to help our students with their conversational English. Frequently have students read out loud and repeat after you. Let them hear your pronunciation and help them correct their own.

In a perfect world we will spend 20 minutes going over a few grammar principles, 20 minutes with some kind of activity that will have our students speaking English, and dedicate 10 minutes to new vocabulary words. To assure that all the required material can be covered in the allotted time, preparation before we begin our class is a must. Choose beforehand what learning activities will be done and in what order grammar, vocabulary, and conversational skills will be covered. Consider writing things on the board before students enter the classroom. Start on time and make sure each minute inside the classroom is dedicated to a worthwhile activity that will help our students in their comprehension of the English language.
Lesson One
Grammar Principles:
THE INFINITIVE

FUNCTION
The most common uses of the infinitive are:

To indicate the purpose or intention of an action (where the ‘to’ has the same meaning as ‘in order to’ or ‘so as to’):

- She’s gone to collect her paycheck.
- The three bears went into the forest to find firewood.

As the subject of the sentence:

- To be or not to be, that is the question.
- To know her is to love her.
  (Note: this is more common in written English than spoken)

With nouns or pronouns, to indicate what something can be used for, or what is to be done with it:

- Would you like something to drink?
- I don’t have anything to wear.
- The children need a garden to play in.

After adjectives in these patterns:

- It is + adjective +to-infinitive
  It is good to talk
- It is + adjective + infinitive + for someone + to-infinitive.
  It is hard for elephants to see mice
- It is + adjective + infinitive + of someone + to-infinitive.
  It is unkind of her to say that.

After an adjective + noun when a comment or judgment is being made:

- It was a stupid place to park the car.
- This is the right thing to do.
- It was an astonishing way to behave.

With too and enough in these patterns:

**too much/many (+ noun) + to-infinitive**
There’s too much sugar to put in this bowl.
I had too many books to carry.

**too + adjective + to-infinitive**
This soup is too hot to eat.
She was too tired to work.

**too + adverb + to-infinitive**
He arrived too late to see the actors.

**enough (+ noun) + to-infinitive**
I’ve had enough (food) to eat.

**adjective + enough + to-infinitive**
She’s old enough to make up her own mind.

**not enough (+noun) + to-infinitive**
There isn’t enough snow to ski on.

**not + adjective + enough + to-infinitive**
You’re not old enough to have grand-children!

THE INFINITIVE

1. Form
The infinitive is the base form of a verb. It may be preceded by ‘to’ (the to-infinitive) or stand alone (the base or zero infinitive).

2. Infinitive with or without ‘to’
The to-infinitive is used:

a. after certain verbs. e.g. want, wish, agree, fail, mean, decide, learn
b. after the auxiliaries to be to, to have to, and ought to
c. in the pattern ‘it is + adjective + to-infinitive’

Examples:
**with ‘to’**
- The elephant decided to marry the mouse
- The mouse agreed to marry the elephant
- You will have to ask her
• You are to leave immediately
• He ought to relax
• She has to go to Berlin next week
• It’s easy to speak English
• It is hard to change jobs after twenty years
• It’s stupid to believe everything you hear

without ‘to’
• I would rather visit Rome.
• She would rather live in Italy.
• Would you rather eat steak or fish?
• He would rather work in a bank.
• I’d rather be a forest than a tree.

THE INFINITIVE
NEGATIVE INFINITIVE

To form the negative infinitive, place not before the to- or zero infinitive:
e.g. not to worry:

It’s hard not to worry about exams.

Examples:
• I decided not to go to London.
• He asked me not to be late.
• Elephants ought not to marry mice.
• You’d better not smile at the crocodile.
• I’d rather not eat meat.

THE INFINITIVE
OTHER FORMS

The infinitive can have the following forms:

• The perfect infinitive
• The continuous infinitive
• The perfect continuous infinitive
• The passive infinitive

NOTE: as with the present infinitive, there are situations where the to is omitted, e.g. after most modal auxiliaries.

The perfect infinitive:

to have + past participle, e.g. to have broken, to have seen, to have saved.

This form is most commonly found in Type 3 conditional sentences, using the conditional perfect, e.g. If I had known you were coming I would have baked a cake.

Examples:
• Someone must have broken the window and climbed in.
• I would like to have seen the Taj Mahal when I was in India.
• He pretended to have seen the film.

• If I’d seen the ball I would have caught it.

The continuous infinitive:

to be + present participle, e.g. to be swimming, to be joking, to be waiting

Examples:
• I’d really like to be swimming in a nice cool pool right now.
• You must be joking!

• I happened to be waiting for the bus when the accident happened.

The perfect continuous infinitive:

to have been + present participle

Examples:
• to have been crying
• to be painting
  • The woman seemed to have been crying.
  • You must have been waiting for hours!
• He pretended to have been painting all day.

The passive infinitive:

to be + past participle, e.g. to be given, to be shut, to be opened

Examples:
• I am expecting to be given a pay-rise next month.
• These doors should be shut.

• This window ought to be opened.
Vocabulary:
To Coordinate- coordinare
To Cooperate- cooperare
To Execute- eseguire
To File- limare, archiviare
To Print- stampare
To Bite- mordere
To Calculate- calcolare
To Package- impacchettare
To Hang up- riattacare
To Relax- rilassare
To Type- scrivere a macchina
To Advance- avanzare
To Manipulate- manipolare
Exaggerate- esagerare
Sneeze- starnutare
Lesson 2
Grammar Principles
THE QUANTIFIERS

A few and few, a little and little
These expressions show the speaker’s attitude towards the quantity he/she is referring to.

A few (for countable nouns) and a little (for uncountable nouns) describe the quantity in a positive way:

- “I’ve got a few friends” (= maybe not many, but enough)
- “I’ve got a little money” (= I’ve got enough to live on)

Few and little describe the quantity in a negative way:

- Few people visited him in hospital (= he had almost no visitors)
- He had little money (= almost no money)

THE QUANTIFIERS
Graded Quantifiers
They function like comparatives and hold a relative position on a scale of increase or decrease.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INCREASE From 0% to 100%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>With plural countable nouns:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>many</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With uncountable nouns:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>much</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DECREASE From 100% to 0%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>With plural countable nouns:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>few</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With uncountable nouns:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>little</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples:
- There are many people in England, more in India, but the most people live in China.
- Much time and money is spent on education, more on health services but the most is spent on national defense.
- Few rivers in Europe are not polluted.
- Fewer people die young now than in the seventeenth century.
- The country with the fewest people per square kilometer must be Australia.
- She had less time to study than Paul but had better results.
- Give that dog the least opportunity and it will bite you.

THE QUANTIFIERS
Quantifiers with countable and uncountable nouns
Adjectives and adjectival phrases that describe quantity are shown below. Some can only go with countable nouns (friends, cups, people), and some can only go with uncountable nouns (sugar, tea, money, advice). The words in the middle column can be used

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Only with uncountable nouns</th>
<th>With uncountable and countable nouns</th>
<th>Only with countable nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How much?</td>
<td>How much? or How many?</td>
<td>How many?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a little</td>
<td>no/none</td>
<td>a few</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a bit (of)</td>
<td>not any</td>
<td>a number (of)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a great deal of</td>
<td>a lot of</td>
<td>a large number of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a large amount of</td>
<td>plenty of</td>
<td>a great number of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>lots of</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only with countable nouns

Note: much and many are used in negative and question forms.

Example:
- How much money have you got?
- How many cigarettes have you smoked?
- There’s not much sugar in the cupboard.
- There weren’t many people at the concert.

They are also used with too, (not) so, and (not) as: There were too many people at the concert - we couldn’t see the band. It’s a problem when there are so many people. There’s not so much work to do this week.

In positive statements, we use a lot of:

- I’ve got a lot of work this week.
- There were a lot of people at the concert.
QUESTION WORDS
WHICH, WHAT, WHOSE

In questions, these words ask which thing or person is being referred to. They are placed before the noun.

- **Which** dress are you going to wear tonight?
- **What** color is your dress?

**Whose** car are you going to use?

THE INFINITIVE
INFINITIVE AFTER QUESTION WORDS

These verbs: ask, decide, explain, forget, know, show, tell, understand, can be followed by a question word such as **where**, **how**, **what**, **who**, **when** or 'whether' + the 'to-infinitive'.

Examples:

- She asked me **how** to use the washing machine.
- Do you understand **what** to do?
- Tell me **when** to press the button.
- I've forgotten **where** to put this little screw.
- I can't decide **whether** to wear the red dress or the black one.

The question word **Why** is followed by the zero infinitive in suggestions:

Examples:

- **Why** wait until tomorrow?
- **Why not ask** him now?
- **Why walk** when we can go in the car?
- **Why not buy** a new bed for your bedroom?
- **Why leave** before the end of the game?

**Why not spend** a week in Beirut and a week in Baghdad?

KINDS OF ADVERBS
INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS

These are:

- **why**, **where**, **how**, **when**

They are usually placed at the beginning of a question.

Examples:

- **Why** are you so late?
- **Where** is my passport?
- **How** old is your house?
- **How** much is that coat?
- **When** does the train arrive?

Notice that **how** can be used in four different ways:

1. meaning 'in what way?':
   - **How** did you make this sauce?
   - **How** do you start the car?
2. with **adjectives**:
   - **How** tall are you?
   - **How** old is your house?
3. with **much** and **many**:
   - **How** much are these tomatoes?
   - **How** many people are coming to the party?
4. with other **adverbs**:
   - **How** quickly can you read this?
   - **How** often do you go to London?

Vocabulary:
All the question words: who, what, where, when, why, how, etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Italian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reassure- rassicurare</td>
<td>To attack- attaccare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To approach- avvicinarsi</td>
<td>To express- esprimere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrate- dimostrare</td>
<td>To doubt- dubitare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel- viaggiare</td>
<td>To impress- impressionare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete- completare</td>
<td>To flatter- adulare</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You could have the students make up questions and then ask them to other students using the new question words and verbs they've learned.
Lesson 3
Grammar Principles:
ADVERBS - FUNCTION

Adverbs modify, or tell us more about other words, usually verbs:

- The bus moved slowly.
- The bears ate greedily.

Sometimes they tell us more about adjectives:

- You look absolutely fabulous!

They can also modify other adverbs:

- She played the violin extremely well.
- You're speaking too quietly.

ADVERBS - FORM

1. In most cases, an adverb is formed by adding ‘-ly’ to an adjective:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cheap</td>
<td>cheaply</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quick</td>
<td>quickly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slow</td>
<td>slowly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples:

- Time goes quickly.
- He walked slowly to the door.
- She certainly had an interesting life.
- He carefully picked up the sleeping child.

If the adjective ends in ‘-y’, replace the ‘y’ with ‘i’ and add ‘-ly’:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>easy</td>
<td>easily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>angry</td>
<td>angrily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happy</td>
<td>happily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lucky</td>
<td>luckily</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the adjective ends in ‘-able’, ‘-ible’, or ‘-le’, replace the ‘-e’ with ‘-y’:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>probable</td>
<td>probably</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>terrible</td>
<td>terribly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gentle</td>
<td>gently</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the adjective ends in ‘-ic’, add ‘-ally’:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>basic</td>
<td>basically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>economic</td>
<td>economically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tragic</td>
<td>tragically</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Exception: public - publicly

Possibly run through a quick oral exercise here to check for comprehension.

Ex. Point to adjectives written on the board and have the students say out loud the adverb that would be formed

2. Some adverbs have the same form as the adjective:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective / Adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>early</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compare:

- It is a fast car.
- He drives very fast.
- This is a hard exercise.
- He works hard.
- We saw many high buildings.
- The bird flew high in the sky.
3. 'Well' and 'good'
'Well' is the adverb that corresponds to the adjective 'good'.

Examples:
- He is a **good** student.
- He studies **well**.
- She is a **good** pianist.
- She plays the piano **well**.
- They are **good** swimmers.
- They swim **well**.

KINDS OF ADVERBS
ADVERBS OF DEGREE

Adverbs of degree tell us about the intensity or degree of an action, an adjective or another adverb.

Common adverbs of degree:

Almost, nearly, quite, just, too, enough, hardly, scarcely, completely, very, extremely.

Adverbs of degree are usually placed:

- before the adjective or adverb they are modifying:
  - e.g. The water was **extremely cold**.
- before the main verb:
  - e.g. He was **just** leaving. She has **almost** finished.

Examples:
- She doesn't **quite** know what she'll do after university.
- They are **completely** exhausted from the trip.
- I am **too** tired to go out tonight.
- He **hardly** noticed what she was saying.

**Enough, very, too**

*Enough* as an adverb meaning 'to the necessary degree' goes after adjectives and adverbs.

Example:
- Is your coffee **hot enough**? (adjective)
- He didn't work **hard enough**. (adverb)

*It also goes before nouns, and means 'as much as is necessary'. In this case it is not an adverb, but a 'determiner'.

Example:
- We have **enough bread**.
- They don't have **enough food**.

**Too** as an adverb meaning 'more than is necessary or useful' goes before adjectives and adverbs, e.g.

- This coffee is **too hot**. (adjective)
- He works **too hard**. (adverb)

**Enough** and **too** with adjectives can be followed by 'for someone/something'.

Example:
- The dress was big **enough** for me.
- She's not experienced **enough** for this job.
- The coffee was **too** hot for me.
- The dress was **too** small for her.

We can also use 'to + infinitive' after **enough** and **too** with adjectives/adverb.

Example:
- The coffee was **too hot** to drink.
- He didn't work hard **enough** to pass the exam.
- She's not old **enough** to get married.
- You're **too** young to have grandchildren!

**Very** goes before an adverb or adjective to make it stronger.

Example:
- The girl was **very** beautiful. (adjective)
- He worked **very** quickly. (adverb)

If we want to make a negative form of an adjective or adverb, we can use a word of opposite meaning, or **not very**.

Example:
- The girl was **ugly** **OR** The girl was **not very** beautiful
- He worked slowly **OR** He didn't work **very** quickly.

**BE CAREFUL!** There is a big difference between **too** and **very**.

- **Very** expresses a **fact**:
  - He speaks **very** quickly.
• Too suggests there is a **problem**:
  He speaks **too** quickly (*for me to understand*).

**Other adverbs like very**

These common adverbs are used like very and not very, and are listed in order of strength, from positive to negative:

- *extremely*, *especially*, *particularly*, *pretty*, *rather*, *quite*, *fairly*, *rather*, *not especially*, *not particularly*.

**Note:** *rather* can be positive or negative, depending on the adjective or adverb that follows:

**Positive:** The teacher was *rather* nice.

**Negative:** The film was *rather* disappointing.

**Note on inversion** with negative adverbs:

Normally the subject goes before the verb:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>VERB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>goes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, some negative adverbs can cause an **inversion** - the order is reversed and the verb goes before the subject.

Example:

I have **never** seen such courage. ➔ **Never** have I seen such courage.

She **rarely** left the house. ➔ **Rarely** did she leave the house.

**Negative inversion is used in writing,** not in speaking.

Other adverbs and adverbial expressions that can be used like this:

- **seldom**, **scarcely**, **hardly**, **not only** ..... **but also**, **no sooner** ..... **than**, **not until**, **under no circumstances**.

**Vocabulary:**

- To Lower- abbassare
- To Brag- vantare
- To Lift- sollevare
- To Redeem- redimere
- To Pat- accarezzare leggermente
- To Discuss- discutere
- To Wrestle- lotare
- To Exercise- esercitare
- To Insult- insultare
- To Offend- offendere
- To Dodge- schivare, evitare
- To Argue- litigare
- To Criticize- criticare
- To Shiver- rabbrividire, battere i denti
- To Hunt- cacciare
Lesson 4
Grammar Principles:
KINDS OF ADVERBS
ADVERBS OF CERTAINTY

These adverbs express how certain or sure we feel about an action or event.

Common adverbs of certainty: 
  certainly, definitely, probably, undoubtedly, surely

Adverbs of certainty go before the main verb but after the verb 'to be':
  • He definitely left the house this morning.
  • He is probably in the park.

With other auxiliary verb, these adverbs go between the auxiliary and the main verb:
  • He has certainly forgotten the meeting.
  • He will probably remember tomorrow.

Sometimes these adverbs can be placed at the beginning of the sentence:
  • Undoubtedly, Winston Churchill was a great politician.

BE CAREFUL! with surely. When it is placed at the beginning of the sentence, it means the speaker thinks something is true, but is looking for confirmation:

Example:
  • Surely you've got a bicycle?

KINDS OF ADVERBS
ADVERBS OF MANNER

Adverbs of manner tell us how something happens. They are usually placed after the main verb or after the object.

Examples:
  • He swims well, (after the main verb)
  • He ran... rapidly, slowly, quickly.
  • She spoke... softly, loudly, aggressively...
  • James coughed loudly to attract her attention.
  • He plays the flute beautifully. (after the object)
  • He ate the chocolate cake greedily.

BE CAREFUL! The adverb should not be put between the verb and the object:
  • He ate greedily the chocolate cake [incorrect]
  • He ate the chocolate cake greedily [correct]

If there is a preposition before the object, e.g. at, towards, we can place the adverb either before the preposition or after the object:

Example:
  • The child ran happily towards his mother.
  • The child ran towards his mother happily.

Sometimes an adverb of manner is placed before a verb + object to add emphasis:
  • He gently woke the sleeping woman.

Some writers put an adverb of manner at the beginning of the sentence to catch our attention and make us curious:
  • Slowly she picked up the knife.
  (We want to know what happened slowly, who did it slowly, why they did it slowly)

However, adverbs should always come AFTER intransitive verbs (=verbs which have no object).

Example:
  • The town grew quickly
  • He waited patiently

Also, these common adverbs are almost always placed AFTER the verb:
  • well
  • badly
  • hard
  • fast

The position of the adverb is important when there is more than one verb in a sentence. If the adverb is placed after a clause, then it modifies the whole action described by the clause.

Notice the difference in meaning between the following pairs of sentences:
  • She quickly agreed to re-type the letter (= her agreement was quick)
  • She agreed to re-type the letter quickly (= the re-typing was quick)
  • He quietly asked me to leave the house (= his request was quiet)
  • He asked me to leave the house quietly (= the leaving was quiet)
KINDS OF ADVERBS

ADVERBS OF PLACE

Adverbs of place tell us where something happens. They are usually placed after the main verb or after the object:

Example:
- after the main verb:
  - I looked everywhere
  - John looked away, up, down, around...
  - I’m going home, out, back
  - Come in

- after the object:
  - They built a house nearby
  - She took the child outside

‘Here’ and ‘there’

With verbs of movement, here means towards or with the speaker:
- Come here (= towards me)
- It’s in here (= come with me to see it)

There means away from, or not with the speaker:
- Put it there (= away from me)
- It’s in there (= go by yourself to see it)

Here and there are combined with prepositions to make many common adverbial phrases:
- down here, down there;
- over here, over there;
- under here, under there;
- up here, up there

Here and there are placed at the beginning of the sentence in exclamations or when emphasis is needed. They are followed by the verb if the subject is a noun:
- *Here* comes the bus. (followed by the verb)

Or by a pronoun if this is the subject (it, she, he etc.):
- *Here* it is! (followed by the pronoun)
- *There* she goes! (followed by the pronoun)

NOTE: most common adverbs of place also function as prepositions.

Examples: about, across, along, around, behind, by, down, in, off, on, over, round, through, under, up.

Go to Prepositions or Phrasal Verbs

Other adverbs of place: ending in ‘wards’, expressing movement in a particular direction:
- backwards
- forwards
- downwards
- upwards
- inwards
- outwards
- northwards
- southwards
- eastwards
- westwards
- homewards
- onwards

Example:
- Cats don’t usually walk backwards.
- The ship sailed westwards.

BE CAREFUL! ‘Towards’ is a preposition, not an adverb, so it is always followed by a noun or a pronoun:
- He walked towards the car.
- She ran towards me.

expressing both movement and location: ahead, abroad, overseas, uphill, downhill, sideways, indoors, outdoors

Example:
- The child went indoors.
- He lived and worked abroad.

KINDS OF ADVERBS

RELATIVE ADVERBS

The following adverbs can be used to join sentences or clauses. They replace the more formal structure of preposition + which in a relative clause:

where, when, why

Examples:
- That’s the restaurant where we met for the first time.
- (where = at/in which)
- I remember the day when we first met.
- (when = on which)
- There was a very hot summer the year when he was born.
- (when = in which)
- Tell me (the reason) why you were late home.
- (why = for which, but could replace the whole phrase ‘the reason for which’)

Vocabulary:
Chiaramente- clearly  Evidentemente- evidently  Avanti- forwards
Certamente- clearly  In dietro- backwards  In giù, In discesa- downwards
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In su, Verso l’alto- upwards</th>
<th>Laggiù- down there</th>
<th>Quassù- up here</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verso l’interno- inwards</td>
<td>Lassù- up there</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verso l’esterno- outwards</td>
<td>Quaggiù- down here</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lesson 5
Grammar Principles:
NOUNS

Nouns answer the questions "What is it?" and "Who is it?" They give names to things, people and qualities.

Examples: dog, bicycle, man, girl, beauty, truth, world.

NOUN GENDER
In general there is no distinction between masculine, feminine and neuter in English nouns. However, gender is sometimes shown by different forms or different words.

Examples:

Different words:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>woman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>father</td>
<td>mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uncle</td>
<td>aunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boy</td>
<td>girl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>husband</td>
<td>wife</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Different forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>actor</td>
<td>actress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prince</td>
<td>princess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hero</td>
<td>heroine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>waiter</td>
<td>waitress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>widower</td>
<td>widow</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some nouns can be used for either a masculine or a feminine subject.

Examples:

- Mary is a doctor. She is a doctor
- Peter is a doctor. He is a doctor.
- Arthur is my cousin. He is my cousin.
- Jane is my cousin. She is my cousin.

It is possible to make the distinction by adding the words 'male' or 'female'.

Example: a female student; a male cousin

For professions, we can add the word ‘woman’

Example: a woman doctor; a woman journalist.

In some cases nouns describing things are given gender.

Examples:

- I love my car. She (the car) is my greatest passion.
- France is popular with her (France’s) neighbors at the moment.
- I traveled from England to New York on the Queen Elizabeth, she (the Queen Elizabeth) is a great ship.

COMPOUND NOUNS & COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS

Formation

Words can be combined to form compound nouns. These are very common, and new combinations are invented almost daily.

They normally have two parts. The second part identifies the object or person in question (man, friend, tank, table, room). The first part tells us what kind of object or person it is, or what its purpose is (police, boy, water, dining, bed):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What type / what purpose</th>
<th>What or who</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>police</td>
<td>man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boy</td>
<td>friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>water</td>
<td>tank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dining</td>
<td>table</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bed</td>
<td>room</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The two parts may be written in a number of ways:

1. as one word.
   Example: policeman, boyfriend
2. as two words joined by a hyphen.
   Example: dining-table
3. as two separate words.
   Example: fish tank.

There are no clear rules about this - so write the common compounds that you know well as one word, and the others as two words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The two parts may be:</th>
<th>Examples:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>noun + noun</td>
<td>bedroom, water tank, motorcycle, printer cartridge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noun + verb</td>
<td>rainfall, haircut, train-spotting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Compound nouns often have a meaning that is different from the two separate words.

**Stress** is important in pronunciation, as it distinguishes between a compound noun (e.g. *greenhouse*) and an adjective with a noun (e.g. *green house*).

In compound nouns, the stress usually falls on the first syllable:

- A ‘greenhouse’ = place where we grow plants (compound noun)
- A green ‘house’ = house painted green (adjective and noun)
- A ‘bluebird’ = type of bird (compound noun)
- A blue ‘bird’ = any bird with blue feathers (adjective and noun)

* Many common compound nouns are formed from phrasal verbs (verb + adverb or adverb + verb).

Examples: breakdown, outbreak, outcome, cutback, drive-in, drop-out, feedback, flyover, hold-up, hangover, outlay, outlet, inlet, makeup, output, set-back, stand-in, takeaway, walkover.

### COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS

**Countable nouns** are for things we can count
Example: dog, horse, man, shop, idea.

They usually have a singular and plural form.
Example: two dogs, ten horses, a man, six men, the shops, a few ideas.

**Uncountable nouns** are for the things that we cannot count
Example: tea, sugar, water, air, rice.

They are often the names for abstract ideas or qualities.
Example: knowledge, beauty, anger, fear, love.

They are used with a singular verb. They usually do not have a plural form. We cannot say sugars, angers, knowledges.

Examples of common uncountable nouns:

- money, furniture, happiness, sadness, research, evidence, safety, beauty, knowledge.

We cannot use *a/an* with these nouns. To express a quantity of one of these nouns, use a word or expression like: some, a lot of, a piece of, a bit of, a great deal of...

Examples:
- There has been a lot of research into the causes of this disease.
- He gave me a great deal of advice before my interview.
- They’ve got a lot of furniture.
- Can you give me some information about uncountable nouns?

Some nouns are countable in other languages but uncountable in English. Some of the most common of these are:

- accommodation
- baggage
- behavior
- bread
- furniture
- information
- luggage
- news
- advice
- progress
- traffic
- travel
- trouble
- weather
- work

**BE CAREFUL** with the noun ‘hair’ which is normally **uncountable** in English:

**She has long blonde hair**

It can also be countable when referring to individual hairs:

**My father’s getting a few grey hairs now**

**Vocabulary:**

| Padre- father | Nonno- grandpa | Genitore- parent |
| Madre- mother | Nonna- grandma | Parente- relative |
| Figlio- son | Bisnonno- great grandpa | Zio- uncle |
| Figlia- daughter | Bisnonna- great grandma | Zia- aunt |
| Fratello- brother | Marito- husband | Nipote- nephew or grandchild |
| Sorella- sister | Moglie- wife | Cugino- cousin |
Suocero- father in law  
Suocera- mother in law  
Cognato- brother in law  
Cognate- daughter in law  
Genero- son in law  
Nuora- daughter in law  

Students could put together simple sentences describing their families.
Lesson 6
Grammar Principles

NOUNS

THE PLURAL OF NOUNS

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>boat</td>
<td>boats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hat</td>
<td>hats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>house</td>
<td>houses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>river</td>
<td>rivers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a cry</td>
<td>cries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a fly</td>
<td>flies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a nappy</td>
<td>nappies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a poppy</td>
<td>poppies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a city</td>
<td>cities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a lady</td>
<td>ladies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a baby</td>
<td>babies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Examples of irregular plurals:

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

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

Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sheep</td>
<td>sheep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fish</td>
<td>fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>species</td>
<td>species</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aircraft</td>
<td>aircraft</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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.
- **linguistics** — 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**

### THE POSSESSIVES

Possessive pronouns and possessive adjectives show who the thing belongs to.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERSON</th>
<th>ADJECTIVES</th>
<th>PRONOUNS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st (I)</td>
<td>my</td>
<td>mine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd (you)</td>
<td>your</td>
<td>yours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd (he/ she/ it)</td>
<td>his/ her/ its</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural (we/ you/ they)</td>
<td>our/ your/ their</td>
<td>ours/ yours/ theirs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Example:
- Jane's brother is married to John's sister. Her brother is married to his sister.

Examples:
- a. Peter and his sister.
- b. Jane and her father.
- c. Do you know where your books are?
- d. Is this their picnic? No, it is ours.
- e. I think this is your passport. Yes, it is mine.

**Would:** Contractions of would

In spoken English, would is contracted to 'd.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Interrogative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I would accept</td>
<td>I wouldn't accept</td>
<td>Would I accept?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You would accept</td>
<td>You wouldn't accept</td>
<td>Would you accept?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He would accept</td>
<td>She wouldn't accept</td>
<td>Would he accept?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We would accept</td>
<td>We wouldn't accept</td>
<td>Would we accept?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You would accept</td>
<td>You wouldn't accept</td>
<td>Would you accept?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They would accept</td>
<td>They wouldn't accept</td>
<td>Would they accept?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Vocabulary:**

Blender- frullatore
Microwave- microonda
Dishwasher- lavastoviglie
Teaspoon- cucchiaino
Tablespoon- cucchiaio
Cutting Board- tagliere
Strainer (Colander)- scolapasta
Frying Pan- padella
To Boil- bolire
To Bake- infornare
Napkin- tovagliolo
Tablecloth- tovaglia
Spatula- spatola
Garlic Press- il coso che schiaccia l'aglio
Hand Mixer- mescolatrice
Ladle- mestolo
Waffle Iron- schiacce
Butter Knife- coltello per il burro
Lesson 7  
Grammar Principles 
*-ING* FORM  
INTRODUCTION

The ‘-ing’ form of the verb may be a present participle or a gerund.

The form is identical, the difference is in the function, or the job the word does in the sentence.

**The present participle:**

This is most commonly used:

- as part of the continuous form of a verb, 
  *he is painting; she has been waiting*
- after verbs of movement/position in the pattern: 
  verb + present participle, 
  *She sat looking at the sea*
- after verbs of perception in the pattern: 
  verb + object + present participle, 
  *We saw him swimming*
- as an adjective, e.g. amazing, worrying, exciting, boring

**THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE**

The present participle of most verbs has the form base+ing and is used in the following ways:

a. as part of the continuous form of a verb

(See continuous tenses in VERB TENSES)

Example:

*i am working,  
he was singing,  
they have been walking.*

b. after verbs of movement/position in the pattern: verb + present participle

Example:

- She went *shopping* 
- He lay *looking* up at the clouds 
- She came *running* towards me

This construction is particularly useful with the verb 'to go', as in these common expressions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>to go shopping</th>
<th>to go walking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>to go ski-ing</td>
<td>to go swimming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to go fishing</td>
<td>to go running</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to go surfing</td>
<td>to go dancing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

c. after verbs of perception in the pattern:  
verb + object + present participle

Example:

*I heard someone singing.  
He saw his friend walking along the road.  
I can smell something burning!* 

**NOTE:** There is a difference in meaning when such a sentence contains a zero-infinite rather than a participle. The infinitive refers to a complete action, but the participle refers to an incomplete action, or part of an action.

Compare:

- I heard Joanna *singing* (= she had started before I heard her, and probably went on afterwards) 
- I heard Joanna *sing* (= I heard her complete performance)

d. as an adjective

Examples:

- amazing, worrying, exciting, boring.  
  - It was an amazing film.  
  - It's a bit worrying when the police stop you.  
  - Dark billowing clouds often precede a storm.  
  - Racing cars can go as fast as 400kph.  
  - He was trapped inside the burning house.  
  - Many of his paintings depict the setting sun.
e. with the verbs spend and waste, in the pattern: verb + time/money expression + present participle

Example:
- My boss spends two hours a day travelling to work.
- Don't waste time playing computer games!
- They've spent the whole day shopping.

f. with the verbs catch and find, in the pattern: verb + object + present participle:

With catch, the participle always refers to an action which causes annoyance or anger:
- If I catch you stealing my apples again, there'll be trouble!
- Don't let him catch you reading his letters.

This is not the case with find, which is unemotional:
- We found some money lying on the ground.
- They found their mother sitting in the garden.

g. to replace a sentence or part of a sentence:

When two actions occur at the same time, and are done by the same person or thing, we can use a present participle to describe one of them:
- They went out into the snow. They laughed as they went. They went laughing out into the snow.
- He whistled to himself. He walked down the road. Whistling to himself, he walked down the road.

When one action follows very quickly after another done by the same person or thing, we can express the first action with a present participle:
- He put on his coat and left the house. Putting on his coat, he left the house.
- She dropped the gun and put her hands in the air. Dropping the gun, she put her hands in the air.

The present participle can be used instead of a phrase starting as, since, because, and it explains the cause or reason for an action:
- Feeling hungry, he went into the kitchen and opened the fridge. (= because he felt hungry...)
- Being poor, he didn't spend much on clothes.

Knowing that his mother was coming, he cleaned the flat.

Vocabulary:
respondere - to respond
morire - to die
desiderare - to desire
osare - to dare
preferire - to prefer
paragonare - to compare
confessare - to confess
dare fastidio a - to annoy
fallire - to fail
apprezzare - to appreciate
imbarazzare - to embarrass
giustificare - to justify
motivare - to motivate
rispondere - to reply
negare - to deny
Lesson 8
Grammar Principles
THE GERUND:

This always has the same function as a noun (although it looks like a verb), so it can be used:

- as the subject of the sentence:
  - Eating people is wrong.
- after prepositions:
  - Can you sneeze without opening your mouth?
  - She is good at painting
- after certain verbs, e.g. like, hate, admit, imagine
- in compound nouns, e.g. a driving lesson, a swimming pool, bird-watching, train-spotting

THE GERUND

This looks exactly the same as a present participle, and for this reason it is now common to call both forms ‘the -ing form’. However it is useful to understand the difference between the two. The gerund always has the same function as a noun (although it looks like a verb), so it can be used:

a. as the subject of the sentence:
  - Eating people is wrong.
  - Hunting elephants is dangerous.
  - Flying makes me nervous.

b. as the complement of the verb 'to be':
  - One of his duties is attending meetings.
  - The hardest thing about learning English is understanding the gerund.
  - One of life's pleasures is having breakfast in bed.

c. after prepositions. The gerund must be used when a verb comes after a preposition:
  - Can you sneeze without opening your mouth?
  - She avoided him by walking on the opposite side of the road.
  - We arrived in Madrid after driving all night.
  - My father decided against postponing his trip to Hungary.

This is also true of certain expressions ending in a preposition, e.g. in spite of, there's no point in...:
  - There's no point in waiting.
  - In spite of missing the train, we arrived on time.

d. after a number of 'phrasal verbs' which are composed of a verb + preposition/adverb

Example:
  - to look forward to, to give up, to be for/against, to take to, to put off, to keep on:
    - I look forward to hearing from you soon. (at the end of a letter)
    - When are you going to give up smoking?
    - She always puts off going to the dentist.
    - He kept on asking for money.

NOTE: There are some phrasal verbs and other expressions that include the word 'to' as a preposition, not as part of a to-infinitive: - to look forward to, to take to, to be accustomed to, to be used to. It is important to recognize that 'to' is a preposition in these cases, as it must be followed by a gerund:
  - We are looking forward to seeing you.
  - I am used to waiting for buses.
  - She didn't really take to studying English.

It is possible to check whether 'to' is a preposition or part of a to-infinitive: if you can put a noun or the pronoun 'it' after it, then it is a preposition and must be followed by a gerund:
  - I am accustomed to it (the cold).
  - I am accustomed to being cold.

e. in compound nouns

Example:
  - a driving lesson, a swimming pool, bird-watching, train-spotting

It is clear that the meaning is that of a noun, not of a continuous verb.
Example:
• the pool is not swimming, it is a pool for swimming in.

f. after the expressions:
can't help, can't stand, it's no use/good, and the adjective worth:
• The elephant couldn't help falling in love with the mouse.
• I can't stand being stuck in traffic jams.
• It's no use/good trying to escape.
• It might be worth phoning the station to check the time of the train.

GERUND OR INFINITIVE?
The two groups of verbs below can be followed either by the gerund or by the infinitive. Usually this has no effect on the meaning, but with some verbs there is a clear difference in meaning. Verbs marked * can also be followed by a that-clause.
Example: to prefer
I prefer to live in an apartment.
I prefer living in an apartment.

A. Verbs where there is little or no difference in meaning:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>allow</th>
<th>deserve</th>
<th>neglect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>attempt</td>
<td>fear*</td>
<td>omit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>begin</td>
<td>hate*</td>
<td>permit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bother</td>
<td>intend*</td>
<td>prefer*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cease</td>
<td>like</td>
<td>recommend*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>continue</td>
<td>love</td>
<td>start</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
1. Allow is used in these two patterns:
   a. Allow + object + to-infinitive:
      Her parents allowed her to go to the party.
   b. Allow + gerund:
      Her parents don't allow smoking in the house.

2. Deserve + gerund is not very common, but is mainly used with passive constructions or where there is a passive meaning:
   a. Your proposals deserve being considered in detail.
   b. These ideas deserve discussing. (= to be discussed).

3. The verbs hate, love, like, prefer are usually followed by a gerund when the meaning is general, and by a to-infinitive when they refer to a particular time or situation. You must always use the to-infinitive with the expressions 'would love to', 'would hate to', etc.

Compare:
• I hate to tell you, but Uncle Jim is coming this weekend.
• I hate looking after elderly relatives!
• I love dancing.
• I would love to dance with you.

Vocabulary:
Continuare- to continue
Preparare- to prepare
Rimanere- to remain
Ritornare- to return
Riuscire- to succeed
Salire- to go up
Scendere- to go down
Uscire- to exit
Accettare- to accept
Benedire- to bless
Incontrare- to meet
Imparare- to learn
Guardare- to watch
Insegnare- to teach
Lesson 9
Grammar Principles
THE QUANTIFIERS
NUMBERS

The **cardinal** numbers (one, two, three, etc.) are adjectives referring to quantity, and the **ordinal** numbers (first, second, third, etc.) refer to distribution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Cardinal</th>
<th>Ordinal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>two</td>
<td>second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>three</td>
<td>third</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>four</td>
<td>fourth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>five</td>
<td>fifth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>six</td>
<td>sixth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>seven</td>
<td>seventh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>eight</td>
<td>eighth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>nine</td>
<td>ninth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>ten</td>
<td>tenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>eleven</td>
<td>eleventh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>twelve</td>
<td>twelfth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>thirteen</td>
<td>thirteenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>fourteen</td>
<td>fourteenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>fifteen</td>
<td>fifteenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>sixteen</td>
<td>sixteenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>seventeen</td>
<td>seventeenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>eighteen</td>
<td>eighteenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>nineteen</td>
<td>nineteenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>twenty</td>
<td>twentieth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>twenty-one</td>
<td>twenty-first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>twenty-two</td>
<td>twenty-second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>twenty-three</td>
<td>twenty-third</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>twenty-four</td>
<td>twenty-fourth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>twenty-five</td>
<td>twenty-fifth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>twenty-six</td>
<td>twenty-sixth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>twenty-seven</td>
<td>twenty-seventh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>twenty-eight</td>
<td>twenty-eighth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>twenty-nine</td>
<td>twenty-ninth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>thirty</td>
<td>thirtieth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>thirty-one</td>
<td>thirty-first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>forty</td>
<td>fortyeth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>fifty</td>
<td>fiftieth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>sixty</td>
<td>sixtieth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>seventy</td>
<td>seventieth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>eighty</td>
<td>eightieth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>ninety</td>
<td>ninetieth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>one hundred</td>
<td>hundredth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>five hundred</td>
<td>five hundredth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>one thousand</td>
<td>thousandth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>one hundred thousand</td>
<td>hundred thousandth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>one million</td>
<td>millionth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples:
- There are **twenty-five** people in the room.
- He was the **fourteenth** person to win the award since 1934.
- **Six hundred thousand** people were left homeless after the earthquake.
- I must have asked you **twenty** times to be quiet.
- He went to Israel for the **third** time this year.

Fractions and decimals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Said</th>
<th>Written</th>
<th>Said</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>half</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>point five</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a quarter</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>point two five</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three quarters</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>point seven five</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Written</th>
<th>Said</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25%</td>
<td>twenty five percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50%</td>
<td>fifty percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75%</td>
<td>seventy five percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>a/one hundred percent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Units
### Written

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Written</th>
<th>Said</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$1,200</td>
<td>one thousand two hundred dollars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>£16,486</td>
<td>sixteen thousand four hundred and eighty-six pounds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>545 kms</td>
<td>five hundred and forty-five kilometers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$25.35</td>
<td>twenty-five dollars thirty-five cents</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Written</th>
<th>Said</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>Nineteen eighty-eight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1864</td>
<td>Eighteen sixty-four</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Nineteen ninety-nine</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### How to say '0'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>nought</th>
<th>used in mathematical expressions and decimals:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'nought' times three equals 'nought'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.3 = 'nought' point three' (or 'point three')</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.03 = 'point nought' three'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>zero</th>
<th>used in scientific expressions, especially temperatures:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20°C = minus twenty degrees or twenty degrees below zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>also used to mean 'the lowest point':</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The heavy rain reduced visibility to zero</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>'O' (the letter)</th>
<th>used in telephone numbers:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0171 390 0062 = '0 one seven one three nine 0 double 0 six two'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>nil/nothing</th>
<th>used to express the score in games such as football:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 - 0 = 'two nil' or 'two nothing'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### THE QUANTIFIERS

#### Some and Any

*Some* and *any* are used with countable and uncountable nouns, to describe an indefinite or incomplete quantity.

**Some**

- 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)

- 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**

- 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.

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 doesn’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 isn’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?

### THE QUANTIFIERS

#### Compound nouns made with SOME, ANY and NO

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Some +</th>
<th>-thing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Any +</td>
<td>-body</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No +</td>
<td>-one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-where</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Compound nouns with some- and any- are used in the same way as some and any.

Positive statements:
- Someone is sleeping in my bed.
- He saw something in the garden.
- I left my glasses somewhere in the house.

Questions:
- Are you looking for someone? (= I'm sure you are)
- Have you lost something? (= I'm sure you have)
- Is there anything to eat? (real question)
- Did you go anywhere last night?

Negative statements:
- She didn't go anywhere last night.
- He doesn't know anybody here.

NOTICE that there is a difference in emphasis between nothing, nobody etc. and not ... anything, not ... anybody:
- I don't know anything about it. (= neutral, no emphasis)
- I know nothing about it (= more emphatic, maybe defensive)

More examples:

SOMETHING, SOMEBODY, SOMEWHERE
- a. I have something to tell you.
- b. There is something to drink in the fridge.
- c. He knows somebody in New York
- d. Susie has somebody staying with her.
- e. They want to go somewhere hot for their holidays.
- f. Keith is looking for somewhere to live.

ANYBODY, ANYTHING, ANYWHERE
- a. Is there anybody who speaks English here?
- b. Does anybody have the time?
- c. Is there anything to eat?
- d. Have you anything to say?
- e. He doesn't have anything to stay tonight.
- f. I wouldn't eat anything except at Maxim's.

NOBODY, NOTHING, NOWHERE
- a. There is nobody in the house at the moment
- b. When I arrived there was nobody to meet me.
- c. I have learnt nothing since I began the course.
- d. There is nothing to eat.
- e. There is nowhere as beautiful as Paris in the Spring.
- f. Homeless people have nowhere to go at night.

ANY can also be used in positive statements to mean 'no matter which', 'no matter who', 'no matter what':

Examples:
- a. You can borrow any of my books.
- b. They can choose anything from the menu.
- c. You may invite anybody to dinner, I don't mind.

THE QUANTIFIERS

Enough + Noun

Enough is placed before the noun, to indicate the quantity required or necessary:

- There is enough bread for lunch.
- She has enough money.

Enough is also used with adjectives and adverbs - see these sections.

- We didn't have enough time to visit London Bridge.
- Are there enough eggs to make an omelette?
- Richard has enough talent to become a singing star.

Vocabulary:

Quelche- some
Qualscosa- something
Qualche cosa- some things
Qualun- someone
Qualiasi- any, whatever
Qualche volta- sometimes, a few times
Qualunque- whatever, any
Una volta- one time, once
Ogni- every, each
Tutto- all, everything
A volte- sometimes, at times
Qualche giorno- someday
Un giorno- a day
In qualche modo- somehow
Da qualche parte- somewhere
Lesson 10
Grammar Principles
TENSES
PRESENT CONTINUOUS

1. Present continuous, form
The present continuous of any verb is composed of two parts - the present tense of the verb to be + the present participle of the main verb.

(The form of the present participle is: base+ing, e.g. talking, playing, moving, smiling)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Interrogative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>+ to be</td>
<td>+ base+ing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>talking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example: to go, present continuous

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Interrogative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am going</td>
<td>I am not going</td>
<td>Am I going?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are going</td>
<td>You aren't going.</td>
<td>Are you going?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He, she, it is going</td>
<td>He, she, it isn't going</td>
<td>Is he, she, it going?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are going</td>
<td>We aren't going</td>
<td>Are we going?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are going</td>
<td>You aren't going</td>
<td>Are you going?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They are going</td>
<td>They aren't going</td>
<td>Are they going?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: alternative negative contractions: I'm not going, you're not going, he's not going etc.

2. Present continuous, function
As with all tenses in English, the speaker's attitude is as important as the time of the action or event. When someone uses the present continuous, they are thinking about something that is unfinished or incomplete.

The present continuous is used:
- to describe an action that is going on at this moment e.g. You are using the Internet. You are studying English grammar.
- to describe an action that is going on during this period of time or a trend, e.g. Are you still working for the same company? More and more people are becoming vegetarian.
- to describe an action or event in the future, which has already been planned or prepared (See also ‘Ways of expressing the future) e.g. We're going on holiday tomorrow. I'm meeting my boyfriend tonight. Are they visiting you next winter?
- to describe a temporary event or situation, e.g. He usually plays the drums, but he's playing bass guitar tonight. The weather forecast was good, but it's raining at the moment.
- with 'always, forever, constantly', to describe and emphasize a continuing series of repeated actions, e.g. Harry and Sally are always arguing! You're forever complaining about your mother-in-law!

BE CAREFUL! Some verbs are not used in the continuous form - see below.

3. Verbs that are not normally used in the continuous form
The verbs in the list below are normally used in the simple form, because they refer to states, rather than actions or processes:

List of common verbs normally used in simple form:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Senses / Perception</th>
<th>Opinion</th>
<th>Mental states</th>
<th>Emotions / desires</th>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>feel*, hear, see*, smell, taste</td>
<td>assume, believe, consider, doubt, feel (= think), find (= consider), suppose, think*</td>
<td>forget, imagine, know, mean, notice, recognize, remember, understand</td>
<td>envy, fear, dislike, hate, hope, like, love, mind, prefer, regret, want, wish</td>
<td>contain, cost, hold, measure, weigh</td>
<td>look (=resemble), seem, be (in most cases), have (when it means to possess)*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
1. 'Perception' verbs (see, hear, feel, taste, smell) are often used with 'can': e.g. I can see...
2. * These verbs may be used in the continuous form but with a different meaning, compare:
a. This coat feels nice and warm. (= your perception of the coat's qualities)
b. John's feeling much better now (= his health is improving)

a. She has three dogs and a cat. (= possession)
b. She's having supper. (= She's eating)

a. I can see Anthony in the garden (= perception)
b. I'm seeing Anthony later (= We are planning to meet)

Examples:

- I wish I was in Greece now.
- She wants to see him now.
- I don't understand why he is shouting.
- I feel we are making a mistake.
- This glass holds half a liter.

TENSES
PRESENT CONTINUOUS FOR FUTURE EVENTS

1. Present continuous for the future, form
See notes on form in section on Present Continuous.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>+ to be</th>
<th>+ base-ing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>meeting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Future: Present continuous for the future, function
The present continuous is used to talk about arrangements for events at a time later than now.
There is a suggestion that more than one person is aware of the event, and that some preparation has already happened. e.g.

a. I'm meeting Jim at the airport = and both Jim and I have discussed this.
b. I am leaving tomorrow. = and I've already bought my train ticket.
c. We're having a staff meeting next Monday = and all members of staff have been told about it.

More examples:

a. Is she seeing him tomorrow?
b. He isn't working next week.
c. They aren't leaving until the end of next year.
d. We are staying with friends when we get to Boston.

Note: in example (a), seeing is used in a continuous form because it means meeting.

BE CAREFUL! The simple present is used when a future event is part of a program or time-table. Notice the difference between:

a. We're having a staff meeting next Monday.
b. We have a staff meeting next Monday. (= we have a meeting every Monday, it's on the time-table.)

Vocabulary:

- Aspettare- to wait
- Cercare- to look for
- Domandare- to ask
- Offrire- to offer
- Penseare- to think
- Permettere- to allow
- Ricordare- to remember
- Vendere- to sell
- Giocare- to play a sport
- Suonare- to play an instrument
- Permettere- to allow
- Ricordare- to remember
- Soffrire- to suffer
- Sorridente- to smile
- Piangere- to cry
- Nuotare- to swim
Adjectives tell us more about a noun. They can:

**Describe feelings or qualities:**
- He is a lonely man
- They are honest people

**Give nationality or origin:**
- Pierre is French
- This clock is German
- Our house is Victorian

**Tell more about a thing's characteristics:**
- A wooden table.
- The knife is sharp.

**Tell us about age:**
- He's a young man
- My coat is very old

**Tell us about size and measurement:**
- John is a tall man.
- This is a very long film.

**Tell us about color:**
- Paul wore a red shirt.
- The sunset was crimson and gold.

**Tell us about material/what something is made of:**
- It was a wooden table
- She wore a cotton dress

**Express a judgment or a value:**
- A fantastic film
- Grammar is boring.

### COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

**COMPARATIVE + THAN**

To compare the difference between two people, things or events.

Examples:
- Mt. Everest is higher than Mt. Blanc.
- Thailand is sunnier than Norway.
- A car is more expensive than a bicycle.
- Albert is more intelligent than Arthur.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of syllables</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>one syllable</td>
<td>+ -er</td>
<td>+ -est</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tall</td>
<td>taller</td>
<td>tallest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one syllable with the spelling consonant + single vowel + consonant: double the final consonant:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fat</td>
<td>fatter</td>
<td>fattest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>big</td>
<td>bigger</td>
<td>biggest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sad</td>
<td>sadder</td>
<td>saddest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two syllables</td>
<td>+ -er OR more + adj</td>
<td>+ -est OR most + adj</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ending in: -y, -ly, -ow</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>these common adjectives - handsome, polite, pleasant, common, quiet</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happy</td>
<td>happier/ more happy</td>
<td>happiest/ most happy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yellow</td>
<td>yellower/ more yellow</td>
<td>yellowest/ most yellow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>simple</td>
<td>simpler/ more simple</td>
<td>simplest/ most simple</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tender</td>
<td>tenderer/ more tender</td>
<td>tenderest/ most tender</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**If you are not sure, use MORE + OR MOST +**

Note: Adjectives ending in ‘-y’ like happy, pretty, busy, sunny, lucky etc.: replace the -y with -ier or -iest in the comparative and superlative form.
Examples:
a. A cat is fast, a tiger is faster but a cheetah is the fastest
b. A car is heavy, a truck is heavier, but a train is the heaviest
c. A park bench is comfortable, a restaurant chair is more comfortable, but a sofa is the most comfortable

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

IRREGULAR COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES

These adjectives have completely irregular comparative and superlative forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bad</td>
<td>worse</td>
<td>worst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>little</td>
<td>less</td>
<td>least</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>much</td>
<td>more</td>
<td>most</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>far</td>
<td>further / farther</td>
<td>furthest / farthest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

COMPARISONS OF QUANTITY

To show **no difference**: as much as, as many as, as few as, as little as
- as many as / as few as + countable nouns
- as much as / as little as + uncountable nouns

Examples:
With countable nouns:
- They have as many children as us.
- We have as many customers as them.
- Tom has as few books as Jane.
- There are as few houses in his village as in mine.
- You know as many people as I do.
- I have visited the States as many times as he has.

With uncountable nouns:
- John eats as much food as Peter.
- Jim has as little food as Sam.
- You've heard as much news as I have.
- He's had as much success as his brother has.
- They've got as little water as we have.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

COMPARISONS OF QUANTITY

To show **difference**: more, less, fewer + than
To show **no difference**: as much as, as many as, as few as, as little as

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

COMPARISONS OF QUANTITY

To show **difference**: more, less, fewer + than

Examples:
With countable nouns: more / fewer
- Eloise has more children than Chantal.
- Chantal has fewer children than Eloise.
- There are fewer dogs in Cardiff than in Bristol
- I have visited fewer countries than my friend has.
- He has read fewer books than she has.

With uncountable nouns: more / less
- Eloise has more money than Chantal.
- Chantal has less money than Eloise.
- I spend less time on homework than you do.
- Cats drink less water than dogs.
- This new dictionary gives more information than the old one.

So, the rule is:
MORE + nouns that are countable or uncountable
FEWER + countable nouns
LESS + uncountable nouns

To show no difference see next page.

**COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES**
**AS + ADJECTIVE + AS**

To compare people, places, events or things, when there is no difference, use *as + adjective + as*:

- Peter is 24 years old. John is 24 years old. Peter is *as old as* John.

More examples:
- Moscow is *as cold as* St. Petersburg in the winter.
- Ramona is *as happy as* Raphael.
- Einstein is *as famous as* Darwin.

A tiger is *as dangerous as* a lion.

**FORM AND FUNCTION OF ADJECTIVES**
**ORDER**

Where a number of adjectives are used together, the order depends on the function of the adjective. The usual order is:

Value/opinion, Size, Age/Temperature, Shape, Colour, Origin, Material

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value/opinion</th>
<th>delicious, lovely, charming</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Size</td>
<td>small, huge, tiny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age/Temperature</td>
<td>old, hot, young</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shape</td>
<td>round, square, rectangular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colour</td>
<td>red, blonde, black</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Origin</td>
<td>Swedish, Victorian, Chinese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material</td>
<td>plastic, wooden, silver</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples:
- a *lovely old red* post-box
- some *small round plastic* tables
- some *charming small silver* ornaments

**Vocabulary:**

Cieco- blind
Zoppo- lame
Sordo- deaf
Muto- mute
Fresco- fresh
Intelligente- intelligent

Diverso- different
Simile- similar, like
Importante- important
Famoso- famous
Caldo- hot
Freddo- cold

Triste- sad
Felice- happy
Pulito- clean
Sporco- dirty
Lesson 12
Grammar Principles:
TENSES
FUTURE FORMS

Introduction
There are a number of different ways of referring to the future in English. It is important to remember that we are expressing more than simply the time of the action or event. Obviously, any ‘future’ tense will always refer to a time ‘later than now’, but it may also express our attitude to the future event.

All of the following ideas can be expressed using different tenses:

a. Simple prediction
b. Arrangements
c. Plans and intentions
d. Time-tabled events
e. Prediction based on present evidence
f. Willingness
g. An action in progress in the future
h. An action or event that is a matter of routine
i. Obligation
j. An action or event that will take place immediately or very soon
k. Projecting ourselves into the future and looking back at a completed action.

The example sentences below correspond to the ideas above:

a. There will be snow in many areas tomorrow.
b. I'm meeting Jim at the airport.
c. We're going to spend the summer abroad.
d. The plane takes off at 3 a.m.
e. I think it's going to rain!
f. We'll give you a lift to the cinema.
g. This time next week I'll be sun-bathing.
h. You'll be seeing John in the office tomorrow, won't you?
i. You are to travel directly to London.
j. The train is about to leave.
k. A month from now he will have finished all his exams.

It is clear from these examples that several tenses are used to express the future. The sections that follow show the form and function of each of these tenses.

TENSES
SIMPLE FUTURE

Simple future, form
The ‘simple’ future is composed of two parts: will / shall + the infinitive without ‘to’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>will</th>
<th>infinitive without to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>will</td>
<td>leave...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Affirmative
I will go
I shall go

Negative
They will not see
They won't see

Interrogative
Will she ask?

Interrogative negative
Won't she take?

Contractions:
I will → I'll
You will → you'll
He, she, will → he'll, she'll
We will → we'll
You will → you'll
They will → they'll

NOTE: The form ‘it will’ is not normally shortened.
Example: to see, simple future

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Interrogative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I'll see</td>
<td>I won't see/</td>
<td>Will I see/?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*I will/shall see</td>
<td>I shan't see</td>
<td>Shall I see?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You'll see</td>
<td>You won't see</td>
<td>Will you see?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He, she, it will see</td>
<td>He won't see</td>
<td>Will she see?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We'll see</td>
<td>We won't see/</td>
<td>Will we see/?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*We will/shall see</td>
<td>We shan't see</td>
<td>Shall we see?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You will see</td>
<td>You won't see</td>
<td>Will you see?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They'll see</td>
<td>They won't see</td>
<td>Will they see?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*NOTE: shall is slightly dated but can be used instead of will with I / we.
Simple future, function
The simple future refers to a time later than now, and expresses facts or certainty. In this case there is no 'attitude'.

The simple future is used:

a. to predict a future event: It will rain tomorrow.
b. (with I/we) to express a spontaneous decision: I'll pay for the tickets by credit card.
c. to express willingness: I'll do the washing-up. He'll carry your bag for you.
d. (in the negative form) to express unwillingness: The baby won't eat his soup. I won't leave until I've seen the manager!
e. (with I in the interrogative form) to make an offer: Shall I open the window?
f. (with we in the interrogative form) to make a suggestion: Shall we go to the cinema tonight?
g. (with I in the interrogative form) to ask for advice or instructions: What shall I tell the boss about this money?
h. (with you) to give orders: You will do exactly as I say.
i. (with you) to give an invitation: Will you come to the dance with me?

Will you marry me?

NOTE: In modern English will is preferred to shall.

Shall is mainly used with I and we to make an offer or suggestion (see examples (e) and (f) above, or to ask for advice (example (g) above).

With the other persons (you, he, she, they) shall is only used in literary or poetic situations, e.g.

"With rings on her fingers and bells on her toes, She shall have music wherever she goes."

THE POSSESSIVES

Possessive pronouns and possessive adjectives show who the thing belongs to.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERSON</th>
<th>ADJECTIVES</th>
<th>PRONOUNS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st (I)</td>
<td>my</td>
<td>mine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd (you)</td>
<td>your</td>
<td>yours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd (he)</td>
<td>his</td>
<td>his</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(she)</td>
<td>her</td>
<td>hers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(it)</td>
<td>its</td>
<td>its</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st (we)</td>
<td>our</td>
<td>ours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd (you)</td>
<td>your</td>
<td>yours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd (they)</td>
<td>their</td>
<td>theirs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Example:
Jane's brother is married to John's sister.
Her brother is married to his sister.

Examples:

a. Peter and his sister.
b. Jane and her father.
c. Do you know where your books are?
d. Is this their picnic? No, it is ours.
e. I think this is your passport. Yes, it is mine.

Vocabulary:
Risparmiare- to save
Sprecare- to waste
Porre- to lay, to place
Riporre- to replace
Comporre- to compose
Decomporre- to decompose
Disporre- to displace
Imporre- to impose
Supporre- to suppose
Tradurre- to translate
Condurre- to conduct, to drive
Ridurre- to reduce
Produrre- to produce
Riprodurre- to reproduce
Lesson 13
Grammar Principles

TO GET + direct object = to obtain, to receive, to buy:

**To obtain**
- She **got** her driving license last week.
- They **got** permission to live in Switzerland.

**To receive**
- I **got** a letter from my friend in Nigeria.
- He **gets** £1,000 a year from his father.

**To buy**
- She **got** a new coat from Zappaloni in Rome.
- We **got** a new television for the sitting room.

TO GET + place expression = reach, arrive at a place:
- We **got** to London around 6 p.m.
- What time will we **get** there?
- When did you **get** back from New York?

TO GET + adjective = to become, show a change of state:
- It's **getting** hotter.
- By the time they reached the house they were **getting** hungry.
- I'm **getting** tired of all this nonsense.
- My mother's **getting** old and needs looking after.
- It **gets** dark very early in the winter.
- Don't touch the stove until it's **gets** cool.

TO GET + preposition / adverb is used in many phrasal verbs. Here are some of the most common ones:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phrasal Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>get at</td>
<td>try to express</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get away with</td>
<td>escape punishment for a crime or bad action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get by</td>
<td>manage (financially)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get down</td>
<td>descend; depress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get off</td>
<td>leave a form of transport (train, bus, bicycle, plane)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get on</td>
<td>enter/sit on a form of transport (train, bus, bicycle, plane); have a relationship with someone; manage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get out of</td>
<td>avoid doing something, especially a duty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get over</td>
<td>recover (from an illness, a surprise)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get through</td>
<td>use or finish the supply of something</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get up</td>
<td>leave your bed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get up to</td>
<td>do - usually something bad</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples:
- a. He **got on** his bicycle and rode down the street.
- b. He **gets up** at 6.00 a.m. every morning.
- c. She **got out of** the washing-up every day, even when it was her turn.
- d. We **got off** the train just before the bomb exploded.
- e. We've **got through** all the sugar - can you buy some more?
- f. The children are very quiet - I wonder what they're **getting up to**.

PRE-DETERMINERS
SUCH, WHAT, RATHER, QUITE
These words are normally placed before the indefinite article. **Such** and **what** are often used to express surprise or other emotions:

Examples:
- a. **What** a lovely day!
- b. She's **such** a lovely woman!
- c. **What** an incredible film!
- d. He's **such** a fantastic guitarist!

**Rather** and **quite** are 'commenting' words, referring to the degree of a particular quality. They can express disappointment, pleasure, or other emotions, and are used before a/an + adjective + noun:

Examples:
- a. It's **rather** a small car. (= I'm a bit disappointed because it's small)
- b. It was **quite** a nice day. (= I was agreeably surprised.)
- c. He's had **quite** a bad accident. (= I'm worried)
- d. I've just met **rather** a nice man. (= I'm pleased)

EXCEPTIONS TO USING THE DEFINITE ARTICLE

There is no article:
• with names of countries (if singular)
  Germany is an important economic power.
  He’s just returned from Zimbabwe.
  (But: I’m visiting the United States next week.)

• with the names of languages
  French is spoken in Tahiti.
  English uses many words of Latin origin.
  Indonesian is a relatively new language.

• with the names of meals.
  Lunch is at midday.
  Dinner is in the evening.
  Breakfast is the first meal of the day.

• with people’s names (if singular):
  John’s coming to the party.
  George King is my uncle.
  (But: we’re having lunch with the Morgans tomorrow.)

• with titles and names:
  Prince Charles is Queen Elizabeth’s son.
  President Kennedy was assassinated in Dallas.
  Dr. Watson was Sherlock Holmes’ friend.
  (But: the Queen of England, the Pope.)

• After the ’s possessive case:
  His brother’s car.
  Peter’s house.

• with professions:
  Engineering is a useful career.
  He’ll probably go into medicine.

• with names of shops:
  I’ll get the card at Smith’s.
  Can you go to Boots for me?

• with years:
  1948 was a wonderful year.
  Do you remember 1995?

• With uncountable nouns:
  Rice is the main food in Asia.
  Milk is often added to tea in England.
  War is destructive.

• with the names of individual mountains, lakes and islands:
  Mount McKinley is the highest mountain in Alaska.
  She lives near Lake Windermere.
  Have you visited Long Island?

• with most names of towns, streets, stations and airports:
  Victoria Station is in the centre of London.
  Can you direct me to Bond Street?
  She lives in Florence.
  They’re flying from Heathrow.

• in some fixed expressions, for example:

  by car at school
  by train at work
  by air at University
  on foot in church
  on holiday in prison
  on air (in broadcasting) in bed

Vocabulary:
Use the phrasal verb table
  Treno- train
  Macchina- car
  Aereo- airplane
  Nave- boat
  Bicicletta- bicycle
  Università- university
  Prigione- prison
Chiesa-church
Lesson 14
Grammar Principles
THE DEMONSTRATIVES
THIS, THAT, THESE, THOSE

1. Function
The demonstratives **this, that, these, those**, show where an object or person is in relation to the speaker. This (singular) and these (plural) refer to an object or person near the speaker. That (singular) and those (plural) refer to an object or person further away. It can be a *physical* closeness or distance as in:

- Who owns *that* house? (distant)
- Is *this* John’s house? (near)

Or it can be a *psychological* distance as in:

- *That’s* nothing to do with me. (distant)
- *This* is a nice surprise! (near)

2. Position
a) Before the noun.
b) Before the word ‘one’.
c) Before an adjective + noun.
d) Alone when the noun is ‘understood’.

Examples:
- **This** car looks cleaner than *that* one.
- **This** old world keeps turning round
- Do you remember *that* wonderful day in June?
- I’ll never forget *this*.

**DEFINING WORDS**
WHICH AND WHOSE

In a statement, these words define or explain which thing or person is referred to:

Example:
- He went back to the house. (Which house?) The house *which* stood on the corner. = He went back to the house that stood on the corner.
- I saw the man. (Which man?) The man *whose* car you damaged. = I saw the man whose car you damaged.

More examples:
- He couldn’t remember *which* film he had seen.
- That’s the man *whose* wife works in my office.
- Tell me *which* coffee you like.
- The woman *whose* dog bit you is at the door.

**DIFFERENCE WORDS**
OTHER, ANOTHER

These words refer to something different, remaining, or additional.

They are placed before the noun.

*Another* is used with singular nouns, *other* with singular or plural.

- There are *other* jobs you could try.
- Where’s the *other* packet of cereals?
- Is there any *other* bread?
- Have another cup of tea.

**THE DISTRIBUTIVES**
ALL, BOTH, HALF, EACH, EVERY, EITHER, NEITHER

These words refer to a group of people or things, and to individual members of the group. They show different ways of looking at the individuals within a group, and they express how something is distributed, shared or divided.

**THE DISTRIBUTIVES**
ALL, BOTH, HALF

These words can be used in the following ways:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>-</th>
<th>Uncountable noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>the</td>
<td>or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ALL</strong></td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>my, your, etc.</td>
<td>Countable noun in the plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4a</td>
<td>this, that</td>
<td>Uncountable noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4b</td>
<td>these, those</td>
<td>Countable noun in the plural</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example:
1. All cheese contains protein  
   All children need affection
2. All the people in the room were silent.  
   Have you eaten all the bread?
3. I've invited all my friends to the party.  
   I've been waiting all my life for this opportunity.
4a. Who's left all this paper on my desk?
4b. Look at all those balloons!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Singular / Plural</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>my, your, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>the</td>
<td>my, your, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>these, those</td>
<td>my, your, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>these, those</td>
<td>my, your, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example:
1. Both children were born in Italy.
2. He has crashed both (of) the cars.
3. Both (of) my parents have fair hair.
4. You can take both (of) these books back to the library.

See note below

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Singular / Plural</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>Uncountable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>the</td>
<td>or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>my, your, etc.</td>
<td>countable noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>this, that, these, those</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example:
1. I bought half a kilo of apples yesterday.
2. You can have half (of) the cake.  
   She gave me half (of) the apples.
3. I've already given you half (of) my money.  
   Half (of) his books were in French.
4. Half (of) these snakes are harmless.
   You can take half (of) this sugar.

NOTE: All, both, half + OF: 'OF' must be added when followed by a pronoun:
All of you; both of us; half of them
It is also quite common to add it in most of the above situations except when there is no article (No.1 in all the tables above.)

TO GET
'To get' can be used in a number of patterns and has a number of meanings.

TO GET + direct object = obtain, receive, buy.
Example: I got my passport last week.

TO GET + place expression = reach, arrive at a place.
Example: How are you getting home tonight?

TO GET + adjective = become, show a change of state.
Example: I am getting old.

TO GET + preposition/adverb is used in many phrasal verbs.
Example: This rain is really getting me down.

TO GET has a number of other meanings:
a. Do you get it? (= understand)
b. He's getting dinner tonight. (= prepare a meal)
c. I'll get the bill. (= pay)
d. That really gets me! (= irritate, annoy)

Other expressions with GET:
- To get rid of something means to throw it away.
  Example: I'm going to get rid of all these old newspapers.
- To get out of bed on the wrong side means to be in a bad mood.
  Example: He got out of the wrong side of the bed this morning and he's been horrible all day.
- To get your own back means to have your revenge or punish someone.
  Example: She's getting her own back for all those rude things you said at the party last night.

THE PASSIVE VOICE
GET / HAVE SOMETHING DONE
This construction is passive in meaning. It may describe situations where we want someone else to do something for us.

Examples:
a. I must get / have my hair cut.
b. When are you going to get that window mended?
c. We're having the house painted.

If the verb refers to something negative or unwanted, it has the same meaning as a passive sentence:

d. Jim had his car stolen last night. (= Jim's car was stolen)
e. They had their roof blown off in the storm. (= Their roof was blown off in the storm)

The construction can refer to the completion of an activity, especially if a time expression is used:

f. We'll get the work done as soon as possible.
g. I'll get those letters typed before lunchtime.

In all these sentences, we are more interested in the **result** of the activity than in the person or object that performs the activity.

**'X' NEEDS DOING**

In the same way, this construction has a passive meaning. The important thing in our minds is the person or thing that will experience the action, e.g.

a. The ceiling needs painting (= the ceiling needs to be painted)
b. My hair needs cutting (= my hair needs to be cut)

**Vocabulary:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questo- this</th>
<th>Di chi- whose</th>
<th>Tutto- all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quello- that</td>
<td>Quale- which</td>
<td>Tutte e due, entrambi- both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questi- these</td>
<td>Altro- other</td>
<td>Meta- half</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quelli- those</td>
<td>Un altro- another</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lesson 15
Grammar Principles:
PERFECT CONDITIONAL, CONTINUOUS

1. Perfect conditional, continuous - Form
This tense is composed of two elements: the perfect conditional of the verb 'to be' (would have been) + the present participle (base + ing).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>would have been</th>
<th>base+ing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>would have been sitting</td>
<td>sitting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>would have been swimming</td>
<td>swimming</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Affirmative
I would have been studying.

Negative
You wouldn't have been living.

Interrogative
Would we have been traveling?

Interrogative negative
Wouldn't it have been working?

Examples: to work. Past continuous conditional

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I would have been working</td>
<td>I wouldn't have been working</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You would have been working</td>
<td>You wouldn't have been working</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He would have been working</td>
<td>She wouldn't have been working</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We would have been working</td>
<td>We wouldn't have been working</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You would have been working</td>
<td>You wouldn't have been working</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They would have been working</td>
<td>They wouldn't have been working</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interrogative Interrogative negative
Would I have been working? Wouldn't I have been working?
Would you have been working? Wouldn't you have been working?
Would he have been working? Wouldn't she have been working?
Would we have been working? Wouldn't we have been working?
Would you have been working? Wouldn't you have been working?
Would they have been working? Wouldn't they have been working?

2. Function
This tense can be used in Type 3 conditional sentences. It refers to the unfulfilled result of the action in the if-clause, and expresses this result as an unfinished or continuous action. Again, there is always an unspoken “but…” phrase:

- If the weather had been better (but it wasn't), I'd have been sitting in the garden when he arrived (but I wasn't and so I didn't see him).
- If she hadn't got a job in London (but she did), she would have been working in Paris (but she wasn't).

Examples:
- If I'd had a ball I would have been playing football.
- If I'd had any money I'd have been drinking with my friends in the pub that night.
- If I had known it was dangerous I wouldn't have been climbing that cliff.
- She wouldn't have been wearing a seat-belt if her father hadn't told her to.

TYPE 2 CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

1. Form
In a Type 2 conditional sentence, the tense in the ‘if’ clause is the simple past, and the tense in the main clause is the present conditional:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>‘IF’ CLAUSE</th>
<th>MAIN CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If + simple past</td>
<td>Present conditional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If it rained</td>
<td>you would get wet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you went to bed earlier</td>
<td>you wouldn't be so tired.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Present conditional, form
The present conditional of any verb is composed of two parts - the modal auxiliary would + the infinitive of the main verb (without 'to').

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>would</th>
<th>infinitive without to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>would learn</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Affirmative
I would go

Negative
I wouldn't ask

Interrogative
Would she come?
2. Function
In these sentences, the time is now or any time, and the situation is unreal. They are not based on fact, and they refer to an unlikely or hypothetical condition and its probable result. The use of the past tense after ‘if’ indicates unreality. We can nearly always add a phrase starting with “but”, that expresses the real situation:

- If I was the Queen of England, I would give everyone £100. (..but I'm not, so I won't)

Examples of use:
1. To make a statement about something that is not real at present, but is possible:
   - I would visit her if I had time. (= I haven't got time but I might have some time)
2. To make a statement about a situation that is not real now and never could be real:
   - If I were you, I'd give up smoking (but I could never be you)

Examples:
- a. If I was a plant, I would love the rain.
- b. If you really loved me, you would buy me a diamond ring.
- c. If I knew where she lived, I would go and see her.
- d. You wouldn't need to read this if you understood English grammar.
- e. Would he go to the concert if I gave him a ticket?
- f. They wouldn't invite her if they didn't like her.
- g. We would be able to buy a larger house if we had more money.

NOTE: It is correct, and very common, to say "If I were" instead of "If I was".

‘IF’ SENTENCES AND THE ‘UNREAL’ PAST
In this section you will find information on sentences containing the word ‘if’, the use of conditional tenses, and the ‘unreal past’, that is, when we use a past tense but we are not actually referring to past time.

IF AND THE CONDITIONAL
There are four main types of ‘if’ sentences in English:

1. The ‘zero’ conditional, where the tense in both parts of the sentence is the simple present:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IF’ CLAUSE</th>
<th>MAIN CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If + simple present</td>
<td>simple present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you heat ice</td>
<td>it melts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If it rains</td>
<td>you get wet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   In these sentences, the time is now or any time and the situation is real and possible. They are often used to refer to general truths.

2. The Type 1 conditional, where the tense in the ‘if’ clause is the simple present, and the tense in the main clause is the simple future:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IF’ CLAUSE</th>
<th>MAIN CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If + simple present</td>
<td>Simple future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If it rains</td>
<td>you will get wet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you don't hurry</td>
<td>we will miss the train.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   In these sentences, the time is the present or future and the situation is real. They refer to a possible condition and its probable result.

3. The Type 2 conditional, where the tense in the ‘if’ clause is the simple past, and the tense in the main clause is the present conditional:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IF’ CLAUSE</th>
<th>MAIN CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If + simple past</td>
<td>Present conditional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If it rained</td>
<td>you would get wet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you went to bed earlier</td>
<td>you wouldn't be so tired.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   In these sentences, the time is now or any time, and the situation is unreal. They are not based on fact, and they refer to an unlikely or hypothetical condition and its probable result.

4. The Type 3 conditional, where the tense in the ‘if’ clause is the past perfect, and the tense in the main clause is the perfect conditional:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IF’ CLAUSE</th>
<th>MAIN CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If + past perfect</td>
<td>Perfect conditional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If it had rained</td>
<td>you would have got wet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you had worked harder</td>
<td>you would have passed the exam.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   In these sentences, the time is past, and the situation is contrary to reality. The facts they are based on are the opposite of what is expressed, and they refer to an unreal past condition and its probable past result.

A further type if ‘if’ sentence exists, where Type 2 and Type 3 are mixed. The tense in the ‘if’ clause is the past perfect, and the tense in the main clause is the present conditional:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IF’ CLAUSE</th>
<th>MAIN CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If + past perfect</td>
<td>Present conditional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I had worked harder at school</td>
<td>I would have a better job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If we had looked at the map</td>
<td>now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If they had accepted</td>
<td>we wouldn't be lost.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   In these sentences, the time is past in the ‘if’ clause, and present in the main clause. They refer to an unreal past condition and its probable result in the present.

UNLESS
Unless means the same as if...not. Like if, it is followed by a present tense, a past tense or a past perfect (never by ‘would’). It is used instead of if + not in conditional sentences of all types:

Type 1 (Unless + present):
- a. You'll be sick unless you stop eating. (= You will be sick if you don't stop eating)
b. I won’t pay unless you **provide** the goods immediately. (= If you don’t provide them I won’t pay)
c. You’ll never understand English unless you **study** this grammar carefully. (= You’ll never understand if you don’t study...)

**Type 2: (Unless + past)**

a. Unless he **was** very ill, he would be at work.
b. I wouldn’t eat that food unless I **was** really hungry.
c. She would be here by now unless she **was** stuck in the traffic.

**Type 3: (Unless + past perfect)**

a. The elephant wouldn’t have seen the mouse unless she’d had **perfect eyesight.**
b. I wouldn’t have phoned him unless you’d suggested it.
c. They would have shot her unless she’d given them the money.

**Vocabulary:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Italian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Suggerire- to suggest</td>
<td>Alzarsi- to get up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provvedere- to provide</td>
<td>Inginocchiarsi- to kneel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riunirsi- to meet, to gather</td>
<td>Lavarsi- to wash</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vestirsi- to dress</td>
<td>Divertirsi- to have fun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Svegliarsi- to wake up</td>
<td>Spostarsi- to move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trasferirsi- to transfer</td>
<td>Radersi- to shave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scusarsi- to excuse</td>
<td>Fermarsi- to stop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambiarsi- to change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lesson 16
Grammar Principles:
MIXED CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

It is possible for the two parts of a conditional sentence to refer to different times, and the resulting sentence is a "mixed conditional" sentence. There are two types of mixed conditional sentence:

A. Present result of past condition:

1. Form

The tense in the ‘if’ clause is the past perfect, and the tense in the main clause is the present conditional:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>‘IF’ CLAUSE</th>
<th>MAIN CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If + past perfect</td>
<td>Present conditional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I had worked harder at school</td>
<td>I would have a better job now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If we had looked at the map</td>
<td>we wouldn't be lost.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Function

In these sentences, the time is past in the ‘if’ clause, and present in the main clause. They refer to an unreal past condition and its probable result in the present. They express a situation which is contrary to reality both in the past and in the present:

‘If I had worked harder at school’ is contrary to past fact - I didn’t work hard at school, and ‘I would have a better job now’ is contrary to present fact - I haven’t got a good job.

If we had looked at the map (we didn’t), we wouldn’t be lost (we are lost).

Examples:
- I would be a millionaire now if I had taken that job.
- If you’d caught that plane you’d be dead now.
- If you hadn’t spent all your money on CDs, you wouldn’t be broke.

B. Past result of present or continuing condition.

1. Form

The tense in the If-clause is the simple past, and the tense in the main clause is the perfect conditional:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>‘IF’ CLAUSE</th>
<th>MAIN CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If + simple past</td>
<td>Perfect conditional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I wasn’t afraid of spiders</td>
<td>I would have picked it up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If we didn’t trust him</td>
<td>we would have sacked him months ago.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Function

In these sentences the time in the If-clause is now or always, and the time in the main clause is before now. They refer to an unreal present situation and its probable (but unreal) past result:

- ‘If I wasn’t afraid of spiders’ is contrary to present reality - I am afraid of spiders, and ‘I would have picked it up’ is contrary to past reality - I didn’t pick it up.
- ‘If we didn’t trust him’ is contrary to present reality - we do trust him, and ‘we would have sacked him’ is contrary to past reality - we haven’t sacked him.

Examples:
- a. If she wasn’t afraid of flying she wouldn’t have travelled by boat.
- b. I’d have been able to translate the letter if my Italian was better.
- c. If I was a good cook, I’d have invited them to lunch.
- d. If the elephant wasn’t in love with the mouse, she’d have trodden on him by now.

TYPE 3 CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

1. Form

In a Type 3 conditional sentence, the tense in the ‘if’ clause is the past perfect, and the tense in the main clause is the perfect conditional:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>‘IF’ CLAUSE</th>
<th>MAIN CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If + past perfect</td>
<td>Perfect conditional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If it had rained</td>
<td>you would have got wet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you had worked harder</td>
<td>you would have passed the exam.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perfect conditional - form

The perfect conditional of any verb is composed of two elements: would + the perfect infinitive of the main verb (=have + past participle):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>would</th>
<th>perfect infinitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>would</td>
<td>have gone...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>would</td>
<td>have stayed...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Affirmative

I would have believed...

Negative

She wouldn’t have given...

Interrogative

Would you have left...?

Interrogative negative

Wouldn’t he have been...?

Example: to go, Past conditional

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Interrogative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
In these sentences, the time is past, and the situation is contrary to reality. The facts they are based on are the opposite of what is expressed.

Type 3 conditional sentences, are truly hypothetical or unreal, because it is now too late for the condition or its result to exist. There is always an unspoken “but...” phrase:

- If I had worked harder I would have passed the exam (but I didn't work hard, and I didn't pass the exam).
- If I'd known you were coming I'd have baked a cake (but I didn't know, and I haven't baked a cake).

**NOTE:** Both would and had can be contracted to 'd, which can be confusing. Remember that you NEVER use would in the if-clause, so in the example above, “If I'd known” must be “If I had known”, and “I'd have baked” must be “I would have baked.”

Examples:
- If I'd known you were in hospital, I would have visited you.
- I would have bought you a present if I'd known it was your birthday.
- c. If they'd had a better goalkeeper they wouldn't have lost the game.
- d. If you had told me you were on the Internet, I'd have sent you an e-mail.
- e. Would you have bought an elephant if you'd known how much they eat?

**UNREAL PAST**

The past tense is sometimes used in English to refer to an 'unreal' situation. So, although the tense is the past, we are usually talking about the present, e.g. in a Type 2 conditional sentence:

*If an elephant and a mouse fell in love, they would have many problems.*

Although fell is in the past tense, we are talking about a hypothetical situation that might exist now or at any time, but we are not referring to the past. We call this use the unreal past.

Other situations where this occurs are:
- after other words and expressions like 'if' (supposing, if only, what if);
- after the verb 'to wish';
- after the expression 'I'd rather..'.

**Expressions like 'if'**

The following expressions can be used to introduce hypothetical situations:
- supposing, if only, what if. They are followed by a past tense to indicate that the condition they introduce is unreal:
  - Supposing an elephant and a mouse fell in love? (= but we know this is unlikely or impossible)
  - What if we painted the room purple? (= that would be very surprising)
  - If only I had more money. (= but I haven't).

These expressions can also introduce hypothetical situations in the past and then they are followed by the past perfect.

Examples:
- If only I hadn't kissed the frog (= I did and it was a mistake because he turned into a horrible prince, but I can't change it now.)
- What if the elephant had trodden on the mouse? (She didn't, but we can imagine the result!)
- Supposing I had given that man my money! (I didn't, so I've still got my money now.)

**The verb to wish**

The verb to wish is followed by an 'unreal' past tense when we want to talk about situations in the present that we are not happy about but cannot change:

- I wish I had more money (=but I haven't)
- She wishes she was beautiful (= but she's not)
- We wish we could come to your party (but we can't)

When we want to talk about situations in the past that we are not happy about or actions that we regret, we use the verb to wish followed by the past perfect:

- I wish I hadn't said that (= but I did)
- He wishes he hadn't bought the car (= but he did buy it.)
- I wish I had taken that job in New York (= but I didn't, so I'm stuck in Bristol)

**NOTE:** When we want to talk about situations we are not happy about and where we want someone else to change them, we use to wish followed by would + infinitive:

- I wish he would stop smoking. (= I don't like it, I want him to change it)
- I wish you would go away. (= I don't want you here, I want you to take some action)
- I wish you wouldn't squeeze the toothpaste from the middle! (= I want you to change your habits.)

**I'd rather and it's time...**

These two expressions are also followed by an unreal past. The verb is in the past tense, but the situation is in the present. When we want to talk about a course of action we would prefer someone else to take, we use I'd rather + past tense:

- I'd rather you went
- He'd rather you called the police
- I'd rather you didn't hunt elephants.

**NOTE:** the stress can be important in these sentences, to show what our preference is:

- I'd rather you went = not me,
- I'd rather you went = don't stay
- He'd rather you called the police = he doesn't want to
- He'd rather you called the police = not the ambulance service
Similarly, when we want to say that now is a suitable moment to do something, either for ourselves or for someone else, we use *it's time* + *past tense*:

- It's (high) time I went.
- It's time you paid that bill.
- Don't you think it's time you had a haircut?

**Vocabulary:**
- Accettare- to accept
- Diventare- to become
- Digiunare- to fast
- Perdonare- to forgive
- Ascoltare- to listen to
- Risolvere- to resolve
- Aspettare- to wait for
- Rivelare- to reveal
- Trovare- to find
- Cercare- to search for
- Camminare- to walk
- Correre- to run
- Volare- to fly
- Viaggiare- to travel
- Scivolare- to slip, to slide
Lesson 17
Grammar Principles:
DIRECT AND REPORTED SPEECH

You can answer the question "What did he/she say?" in two ways:
- by repeating the words spoken (direct speech)
- by reporting the words spoken (indirect or reported speech).

Direct Speech
Direct speech repeats, or quotes, the exact words spoken. When we use direct speech in writing, we place the words spoken between inverted commas ("....") and there is no change in these words. We may be reporting something that's being said NOW (for example a telephone conversation), or telling someone later about a previous conversation.

Examples:
- She says "What time will you be home?"
- She said "What time will you be home?"
- and I said "I don't know!"
- "There's a fly in my soup!" screamed Simone.
- John said, "There's an elephant outside the window."

Reported Speech
Reported speech is usually used to talk about the past, so we normally change the tense of the words spoken. We use reporting verbs like 'say', 'tell', 'ask', and we may use the word 'that' to introduce the reported words. Inverted commas are not used.

Examples:
- She said, "I saw him." She said that she had seen him.
- She said, "I saw him yesterday." She said that she had seen him yesterday.

REPORTED SPEECH
CHANGE OF TIME AND PLACE REFERENCE

Time/place references are also changed in reported speech.

Examples:
- "I will see you here tomorrow", she said. She said that she would see me there the next day.

The most common of these changes are shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time/Place Reference</th>
<th>Reported Speech Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Today</td>
<td>&quot;I saw him today&quot;, she said.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yesterday</td>
<td>&quot;I saw him yesterday&quot;, she said.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The day before yesterday</td>
<td>&quot;I met her the day before yesterday&quot;, he said.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tomorrow</td>
<td>&quot;I'll see you tomorrow&quot;, he said</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The day after tomorrow</td>
<td>&quot;We'll come the day after tomorrow&quot;, they said.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Next week/month/year</td>
<td>&quot;I have an appointment next week&quot;, she said.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Last week/month/year</td>
<td>&quot;I was on holiday last week&quot;, he told us.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ago</td>
<td>&quot;I saw her a week ago,&quot; he said.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this (for time)</td>
<td>&quot;I'm getting a new car this week&quot;, she said.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this/that (adjectives)</td>
<td>&quot;Do you like this shirt?&quot; he asked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>here</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that day</td>
<td>She said that she had seen him that day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the day before</td>
<td>She said that she had seen him the day before.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two days before</td>
<td>He said that he had met her two days before.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the next/following day</td>
<td>He said that he would see me the next day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in two days time/ two days later.</td>
<td>They said that they would come in two days time/ two days later.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the following week/month/year</td>
<td>She said that she had an appointment the following week.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the previous/week/month/year</td>
<td>He told us that he had been on holiday the previous week.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>before</td>
<td>He said he had seen her a week before.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that</td>
<td>She said she was getting a new car that week.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the</td>
<td>He asked if I liked the shirt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>there</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
He said, "I live here".

He told me he lived there.

Other changes:
In general, personal pronouns change to the third person singular or plural, except when the speaker reports his own words:

I/me/my/mine, you/your/yours ➔ him/his/her/hers
we/us/our/ours, you/your/yours ➔ they/their/their:

He said: "I like your new car." ➔ He told her that he liked her new car.

I said: "I'm going to my friend's house." ➔ I said that I was going to my friend's house.

Vocabulary:

Oggi- today
Domani- tomorrow
Ieri- yesterday
Dopodomani- the day after tomorrow
L'altro ieri- the day before yesterday

Fa- ago (due giorni fa, una settimana fa, etc.)
Prossimo- next (la prossima settimana)
Scorso- last (la settimana scorsa)
Salire- to go up

Scendere- to go down
Girare- to turn, to rotate
Accelerare- to accelerate, to speed up
Rallentare- to slow down
Frenare- to brake
Lesson 18
Grammar Principles:
RELATIVE CLAUSES

There are two different types of relative clause:

- A “defining” or identifying clause, which tells us which person or thing we are talking about.
- A “non-defining” or non-essential clause, which gives us more information about the person or thing we are talking about. This kind of clause could often be information included in brackets (...)

Example:
The farmer (his name was Fred) sold us some potatoes.

It is important to see the difference between the two types of clause, as it affects:

a. the choice of pronoun used to introduce the clause,
b. the punctuation - you must use commas with a non-defining clause.

RELATIVE CLAUSES
DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES
As the name suggests, these clauses give essential information to define or identify the person or thing we are talking about. Obviously, this is only necessary if there is more than one person or thing involved.

Example:
Elephants who marry mice are very unusual.
In this sentence we understand that there are many elephants, but it is clear that we are only talking the ones who marry mice.

Punctuation
Commas are not used in defining relative clauses.

Relative pronouns
The following relative pronouns are used in defining relative clauses:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Thing</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Reason</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>who/that</td>
<td>which/that</td>
<td>where</td>
<td>when</td>
<td>why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>who/whom/that/a</td>
<td>which/that/a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whose</td>
<td>whose</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
1. The relative pronoun stands in place of a noun. This noun usually appears earlier in the sentence:

The woman who/that spoke at the meeting was very knowledgeable.

2. Who, whom and which can be replaced by that. This is very common in spoken English.
3. The relative pronoun can be omitted (ø) when it is the object of the clause:

The mouse that the elephant loved was very beautiful.
OR The mouse the elephant loved was very beautiful.

Both of these sentences are correct, though the second one is more common in spoken English.

4. Whose is used for things as well as for people.

Examples:
The man whose car was stolen.
A tree whose leaves have fallen.

5. Whom is very formal and is only used in written English. You can use who/that, or omit the pronoun completely:

The doctor whom/who/that/ø I was hoping to see wasn't on duty.

6. That normally follows words like something, anything, everything, nothing, all, and superlatives.

Examples:
- There's something that you should know.
- It was the best film that I've ever seen.

Examples:
- A clown is someone who makes you laugh.
- An elephant is an animal that lives in hot countries.
- The plums that were in the fridge were delicious. I have eaten them.
- Where are the plums (that) I put in the fridge?
- Has anyone seen the book I was reading?
Nothing *that* anyone does can replace my lost bag.

Let's go to a country *where* the sun always shines.

They live in the house *whose* roof is full of holes.

**RELATIVE CLAUSES**

**NON-DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES**

The information in these clauses is not essential. It tells us more about someone or something, but it does not help us to identify them or it.

Compare:

1. **Elephants** *that* love mice are very unusual. (This tells us which elephants we are talking about).

2. **Elephants**, *which* are large and grey, can sometimes be found in zoos. (This gives us some extra information about elephants - we are talking about all elephants, not just one type or group).

3. **John's mother**, *who lives in Scotland*, has 6 grandchildren. (We know who John's mother is, and he only has one. The important information is the number of grandchildren, but the fact that she lives in Scotland might be followed with the words "by the way" - it is additional information).

**Punctuation**

Non-defining relative clauses are always separated from the rest of the sentence by commas. The commas have a similar function to brackets:

*My friend John has just written a best-selling novel. (He went to the same school as me)* > *My friend John, who went to the same school as me, has just written a best-selling novel.*

**Relative pronouns in non-defining clauses**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Thing</th>
<th>Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>who</td>
<td>which</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Object</td>
<td>whom/whom</td>
<td>which</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive</td>
<td>whose</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:**

1. In non-defining clauses, you cannot use *?that?* instead of *who, whom* or *which*.

2. You cannot leave out the relative pronoun, even when it is the object of the verb in the relative clause:

   *He gave me the letter, which was in a blue envelope.*

   *He gave me the letter, which I read immediately.*

3. The preposition in these clauses can go at the end of the clause, e.g. *This is Stratford-on-Avon, which you have all heard about.*

   This pattern is often used in spoken English, but in written or formal English you can also put the preposition before the pronoun:

   e.g. *Stratford-on-Avon, about which many people have written is Shakespeare's birthplace.*

4. Non-defining clauses can be introduced by expressions like *all of, many of* + relative pronoun:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Thing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>all of</td>
<td>+ whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>any of</td>
<td>+ whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) few of</td>
<td>+ whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both of</td>
<td>+ whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>each of</td>
<td>+ whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>either of</td>
<td>+ whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>half of</td>
<td>+ whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>many of</td>
<td>+ whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>most of</td>
<td>+ whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>much of</td>
<td>+ whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none of</td>
<td>+ whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one of</td>
<td>+ whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two of etc?</td>
<td>+ whom</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Examples:**

a. There were a lot of people at the party, *many of whom* I had known for years.

b. He was carrying his belongings, *many of which* were broken.

5. The relative pronoun *which* at the beginning of a non-defining relative clause, can refer to all the information contained in the previous part of the sentence, rather than to just one word.

a. Chris did really well in his exams, *which was a big surprise.* (= the fact that he did well in his exams was a big surprise).

b. An elephant and a mouse fell in love, *which is most unusual.* (= the fact that they fell in love is unusual).

**Examples:**


b. I spoke to Fred, *who explained the problem.*
c. The elephant looked at the tree, under which she had often sat.
d. We stopped at the museum, which we’d never been into.
e. She’s studying math, which many people hate.
f. I’ve just met Susan, whose husband works in London.
g. He had thousands of books, most of which he had read.

RELATIVE CLAUSE
WHERE TO PUT THE PREPOSITION IN A RELATIVE CLAUSE

There are often prepositions in relative clauses, and the relative pronoun is the object of the preposition. This means that the preposition can sometimes be omitted.

- The preposition is normally placed at the end of the relative clause:
  Is that the man (who) you arrived with?
  Do you know the girl (that) John is talking to?

- In formal or written English, the preposition is often placed before the relative pronoun, and in this case the pronoun cannot be omitted:

  The person with whom he is negotiating is the Chairman of a large company.
  It is a society to which many important people belong.

However, this is unusual in spoken English.

Examples:
- The jungle the elephant lived in was full of strange and unusual animals.
- He was very fond of the mouse that he lived with.
- The tree under which they had their home was the largest and oldest in the jungle.
- In the middle of the jungle was a river that all the animals went to every day.
- It was the stream in which the elephant and the mouse preferred to swim.

Vocabulary:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin (stem)</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volere- to want</td>
<td>Dubitare- to doubt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sperare- to hope</td>
<td>Desiderare- to desire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credere- to believe</td>
<td>Temere- to fear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insistere- to insist</td>
<td>Preferire- to prefer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pensare- to think</td>
<td>Imaginare- to imagine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insistere- to insist</td>
<td>Non sapere- to not know</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temere- to fear</td>
<td>Costare- to cost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desiderare- to desire</td>
<td>Rivelare- to reveal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefere- to prefer</td>
<td>Nevicare- to snow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imaginare- to imagine</td>
<td>Piovere- to rain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lesson 19
Grammar Principles
TENSES
PAST CONTINUOUS

1. Past continuous - form.
The past continuous of any verb is composed of two parts: the past tense of the verb to be (was/were), and the base of the main verb + ing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>was/were</th>
<th>base-ing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>were</td>
<td>watching</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Affirmative
She was reading
Negative
She wasn't reading
Interrogative
Was she reading?
Interrogative negative
Wasn't she reading?

Example: to play, past continuous

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Interrogative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I was playing</td>
<td>I was not playing</td>
<td>Was I playing?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You were playing</td>
<td>You were not playing</td>
<td>Were you playing?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He, she, it was playing</td>
<td>She wasn't playing</td>
<td>Was she playing?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We were playing</td>
<td>We weren't playing</td>
<td>Were we playing?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You were playing</td>
<td>You weren't playing</td>
<td>Were you playing?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They were playing</td>
<td>They weren't playing</td>
<td>Were they playing?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Past continuous, function
The past continuous describes actions or events in a time before now, which began in the past and was still going on at the time of speaking. In other words, it expresses an unfinished or incomplete action in the past.

It is used:
- often, to describe the background in a story written in the past tense, e.g. “The sun was shining and the birds were singing as the elephant came out of the jungle. The other animals were relaxing in the shade of the trees, but the elephant moved very quickly. She was looking for her baby, and she didn't notice the hunter who was watching her through his binoculars. When the shot rang out, she was running towards the river…”
- to describe an unfinished action that was interrupted by another event or action: “I was having a beautiful dream when the alarm clock rang.”
- to express a change of mind: e.g. “I was going to spend the day at the beach but I've decided to go on an excursion instead.”
- with ‘wonder’, to make a very polite request: e.g. “I was wondering if you could baby-sit for me tonight.”

More examples:
a. They were waiting for the bus when the accident happened.
b. Caroline was skiing when she broke her leg.
c. When we arrived he was having a bath.
d. When the fire started I was watching television.

Note: with verbs not normally used in the continuous form, the simple past is used. See list in Present continuous

TENSES
PAST PERFECT
Past perfect, form
The Past Perfect tense in English is composed of two parts: the past tense of the verb to have (had) + the past participle of the main verb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>had</th>
<th>past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>had</td>
<td>decided</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Affirmative
She had given.
Negative
We hadn't asked.
Interrogative
Had they arrived?
Interrogative negative
Hadn't you finished?

Example: to decide, Past perfect
**Past perfect, function**
The past perfect refers to a time earlier than before now. It is used to make it clear that one event happened before another in the past. It does not matter which event is mentioned first - the tense makes it clear which one happened first.

In these examples, Event A is the first or earliest event, Event B is the second or latest event:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Event A</th>
<th>Event B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>had decided</td>
<td>I hadn't decided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>had decided</td>
<td>You hadn't decided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He, she, it</td>
<td>had decided</td>
<td>He hadn't decided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>had decided</td>
<td>We hadn't decided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>had decided</td>
<td>You hadn't decided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>had decided</td>
<td>They hadn't decided</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Past perfect + just**
'Just' is used with the past perfect to refer to an event that was only a short time earlier than before now, e.g.

- a. The train *had just left* when I arrived at the station.
- b. She *had just left* the room when the police arrived.
- c. I *had just put* the washing out when it started to rain.

**TENSES**

**PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS**

**Past perfect continuous, form**
The past perfect continuous is composed of two elements - the past perfect of the verb to be (=had been) + the present participle (base+ing).

**Example:** to buy, past perfect continuous

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>had been</th>
<th>verb-ing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>had been</td>
<td>walking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Affirmative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>had been</th>
<th>verb-ing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>had been</td>
<td>trying</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Negative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>hadn't been</th>
<th>verb-ing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>hadn't been</td>
<td>sleeping</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Interrogative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>been</th>
<th>verb-ing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Had you</td>
<td>been</td>
<td>eating</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Interrogative negative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>been</th>
<th>verb-ing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hadn’t they</td>
<td>been</td>
<td>living</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example:** to buy, past perfect continuous

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>had been buying</th>
<th>I hadn’t been buying</th>
<th>Had I been buying?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>had been buying</td>
<td>You hadn’t been buying</td>
<td>Had you been buying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He, she, it</td>
<td>had been buying</td>
<td>He hadn’t been buying</td>
<td>Had she been buying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>had been buying</td>
<td>We hadn’t been buying</td>
<td>Had we been buying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>had been buying</td>
<td>You hadn’t been buying</td>
<td>Had you been buying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>had been buying</td>
<td>They hadn’t been buying</td>
<td>Had they been buying</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Past perfect continuous, function**
The past perfect continuous corresponds to the present perfect continuous, but with reference to a time earlier than ‘before now’. Again, we are more interested in the process.

**Examples:**

- a. *Had you been waiting* long before the taxi arrived?
- b. *We had been trying* to open the door for five minutes when Jane found her key.
- c. *It had been raining hard* for several hours and the streets were very wet.
- d. Her friends *had been thinking* of calling the police when she walked in.

This form is also used in *reported speech*. It is the equivalent of the past continuous and the present perfect continuous in direct speech:

Jane said “I have been gardening all afternoon.”  »—Jane said *she had been gardening* all afternoon.
When the police questioned him, John said "I was working late in the office that night."...When the police questioned him, John told them he had been working late in the office that night.

Vocabulary-
Provigginare- to drizzle
Usare- to use
Cader- to fall
Picchiare- to slap, to hit
Calciare- to kick
Pagare- to pay
Separare- to separate
Presentare- to present
Conoscere- to know
Riconoscere- to recognize
Osservare- to observe
Superare- to overcome
Firmare- to sign
Tenere- to have, to hold
Ottenere- to obtain
Lesson 20
Grammar Principles
THE PASSIVE VOICE
PASSIVE, FUNCTION

The passive voice is used to show interest in the person or object that experiences an action rather than the person or object that performs the action, e.g.

- The passive is used ...:
  We are interested in the passive, not who uses it.
- The house was built in 1654:
  We are interested in the house, not the builder.
- The road is being repaired:
  We are interested in the road, not the people repairing it.

In other words, the most important thing or person becomes the subject of the sentence.

Sometimes we use the passive voice because we don't know or cannot express who or what performed the action:

- I noticed that a window had been left open
- Every year people are killed on our roads.

If we want to say who or what performs the action, we use the preposition by:

- "A Hard Day's Night" was written by the Beatles
- ET was directed by Spielberg

The passive voice is often used in formal or scientific texts:

- A great deal of meaning is conveyed by a few well-chosen words.
- Our planet is wrapped in a mass of gases.
- Waste materials are disposed of in a variety of ways.

THE PASSIVE VOICE
PASSIVE, FORM

The passive voice in English is composed of two elements: the appropriate form of the verb 'to be' + the past participle of the verb in question:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>verb 'to be'</th>
<th>past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The house</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>built ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example: to clean

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>verb 'to be'</th>
<th>past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simple present:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The house</td>
<td>is cleaned every day.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present continuous:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The house</td>
<td>is being cleaned at the moment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple past:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The house</td>
<td>was cleaned yesterday.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past continuous:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The house</td>
<td>was being cleaned last week.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present perfect:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The house</td>
<td>has been cleaned since you left.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past perfect:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The house</td>
<td>had been cleaned before their arrival.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The house</td>
<td>will be cleaned next week.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future continuous:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The house</td>
<td>will be being cleaned tomorrow.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present conditional:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The house</td>
<td>would be cleaned if they had visitors.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past conditional:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The house</td>
<td>would have been cleaned if it had been dirty.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: 'to be born' is a passive form and is most commonly used in the past tense:

- I was born in 1976. When were you born?
- BUT: Around 100 babies are born in this hospital every week.

Infinitive form: infinitive of 'to be' + past participle: (to) be cleaned

This form is used after modal verbs and other verbs normally followed by an infinitive, e.g.
You have to be tested on your English grammar. John might be promoted next year. She wants to be invited to the party.

**Gerund or -ing form:** being + past participle: being cleaned

This form is used after prepositions and verbs normally followed by a gerund

Examples:

a. Most film stars hate being interviewed.
b. I remember being taught to drive.
c. The children are excited about being taken to the zoo.

NOTE: Sometimes the passive is formed using the verb to get instead of the verb to be:

a. He got arrested for dangerous driving.
b. They’re getting married later this year.
c. I’m not sure how the window got broken.

### **THE PASSIVE VOICE**

#### **PASSIVE TENSES AND ACTIVE EQUIVALENTS**

Notice that the tense of the verb to be in the passive voice is the same as the tense of the main verb in the active voice.

Example: to keep

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TENSE / VERB FORM</th>
<th>ACTIVE VOICE</th>
<th>PASSIVE VOICE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simple present</td>
<td>keeps</td>
<td>is kept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present continuous</td>
<td>is keeping</td>
<td>is being kept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple past</td>
<td>kept</td>
<td>was kept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past continuous</td>
<td>was keeping</td>
<td>was being kept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present perfect</td>
<td>have kept</td>
<td>have been kept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past perfect</td>
<td>had kept</td>
<td>had been kept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future</td>
<td>will keep</td>
<td>will be kept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional present</td>
<td>would keep</td>
<td>would be kept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional past</td>
<td>would have kept</td>
<td>would have been kept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present infinitive</td>
<td>to keep</td>
<td>to be kept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perfect infinitive</td>
<td>to have kept</td>
<td>to have been kept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present participle/gerund</td>
<td>keeping</td>
<td>being kept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perfect participle</td>
<td>having kept</td>
<td>having been kept</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example sentences:

**Active:** I keep the butter in the fridge.
**Passive:** The butter is kept in the fridge.

**Active:** They stole the painting.
**Passive:** The painting was stolen.

**Active:** They are repairing the road.
**Passive:** The road is being repaired.

**Active:** Shakespeare wrote Hamlet.
**Passive:** Hamlet was written by Shakespeare.

**Active:** A dog bit him.
**Passive:** He was bitten by a dog.

**Vocabulary:**
- Mantenere- to maintain
- Detenere- to hold
- Risparmiare- to save
- Sprecare- to waste
- Festeggiare- to party
- Ballare- to dance
- Celebrare- to celebrate
- Eseguire- to carry out, perform
- Assomigliare- to look like
- Pronunciare- to pronounce
- Osare- to dare
- Sognare- to dream
- Toccare- to touch
- Nascondere- to hide
- Dirigere- to lead
Lesson 21
Grammar Principles
TENSES
PRESENT PERFECT

1. Present perfect - form
The present perfect of any verb is composed of two elements: the appropriate form of the auxiliary verb to have (present tense), plus the past participle of the main verb. The past participle of a regular verb is base+ed, e.g. played, arrived, looked. For irregular verbs, see the Table of irregular verbs in the section called ‘Verbs’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Interrogative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>to have</td>
<td>has</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>has</td>
<td>has</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past participle</td>
<td>visited</td>
<td>past participle</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example: to walk, present perfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Interrogative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have walked</td>
<td>I haven't walked</td>
<td>Have I walked?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have walked</td>
<td>You haven't walked</td>
<td>Have you walked?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He, she, it has walked</td>
<td>He, she, it hasn't walked</td>
<td>Has he, she, it walked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We have walked</td>
<td>We haven't walked</td>
<td>Have we walked?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have walked</td>
<td>You haven't walked</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>They have walked</td>
<td>They haven't walked</td>
<td>Have they walked?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Present perfect, function
The Present Perfect is used to indicate a link between the present and the past. The time of the action is before now but not specified, and we are often more interested in the result than in the action itself.

BE CAREFUL! There may be a verb tense in your language with a similar form, but the meaning is probably NOT the same.

The present perfect is used to describe:

1. An action or situation that started in the past and continues in the present. Example: I have lived in Bristol since 1984 (= and I still do.)

2. An action performed during a period that has not yet finished. Example: She has been to the cinema twice this week (= and the week isn’t over yet.)

3. A repeated action in an unspecified period between the past and now. Example: We have visited Portugal several times.

4. An action that was completed in the very recent past (expressed by ‘just’). Example: I have just finished my work.

5. An action when the time is not important. Example: He has read ‘War and Peace’. (the result of his reading is important)

Note: When we want to give or ask details about when, where, who, we use the simple past. Example: He read ‘War and Peace’ last week.

Examples:

1. Actions started in the past and continuing in the present.
   a. They haven’t lived here for years.
   b. She has worked in the bank for five years.
   c. We have had the same car for ten years.
   d. Have you played the piano since you were a child?

2. When the time period referred to has not finished.
   a. I have worked hard this week.
   b. It has rained a lot this year.
   c. We haven’t seen her today.

3. Actions repeated in an unspecified period between the past and now.
   a. They have seen that film six times.
   b. It has happened several times already.
   c. She has visited them frequently.
   d. We have eaten at that restaurant many times.

4. Actions completed in the very recent past (+just).
   a. Have you just finished work?
   b. I have just eaten.
   c. We have just seen her.
d. Has he just left?

5. When the precise time of the action is not important or not known.
   a. Someone has eaten my soup!
   b. Have you seen ‘Gone with the Wind’?
   c. She’s studied Japanese, Russian and English.

TENSES

PRESENT PERFECT + ever, never, already, yet

The adverbs ever and never express the idea of an unidentified time before now e.g. Have you ever visited Berlin?

‘Ever’ is used

   a. in questions. e.g. Have you ever been to England? Has she ever met the Prime Minister?

   b. in negative questions e.g. Haven't they ever been to Europe? Haven't you ever eaten Chinese food?

   c. and in negative statements using the pattern nothing.......ever, nobody.......ever e.g. Nobody has ever said that to me before. Nothing like this has ever happened to us.

   d. ‘Ever’ is also used with ‘The first time.... e.g. It's the first time (that) I've ever eaten snails. This is the first time I've ever been to England.

‘Never’ means at no time before now, and is the same as not .... ever: I have never visited Berlin.

BE CAREFUL!

You cannot use never and not together:

I haven't never been to Italy.
I have never been to Italy.

Position: ‘Ever’ and ‘never’ are always placed before the main verb (past participle).

Already and yet:

Already refers to an action that has happened at an unspecified time before now. It suggests that there is no need for repetition, e.g.

   a. I've already drunk three coffees this morning. (and you're offering me another one!)
   b. Don't write to John, I've already done it.

It is also used in questions:

   a. Have you already written to John?
   b. Has she finished her homework already?

Position: already can be placed before the main verb (past participle) or at the end of the sentence:

   a. I have already been to Tokyo.
   b. I have been to Tokyo already.

Yet is used in negative statements and questions, to mean (not) in the period of time between before now and now, (not) up to and including the present. e.g.

   a. Have you met Judy yet?
   b. I haven't visited the Tate Gallery yet.
   c. Has he arrived yet?
   d. They haven't eaten yet.

Position: Yet is usually placed at the end of the sentence.

TENSES

PRESENT PERFECT OR SIMPLE PAST?

Always use the present perfect when the time is not important, or not specified.

Always use the simple past when details about the time or place are specified or asked for.

Compare:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present perfect</th>
<th>Simple past</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have lived in Lyon.</td>
<td>I lived in Lyon in 1989.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They have eaten Thai food.</td>
<td>They ate Thai food last night.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you seen ‘Othello’?</td>
<td>Where did you see ‘Othello’?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We have been to Ireland.</td>
<td>When did you go to Ireland?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is also a difference of attitude that is often more important than the time factor.
“What did you do at school today?” is a question about activities, and considers the school day as finished.

“What have you done at school today?” is a question about results - “show me”, and regards the time of speaking as a continuation of the school day.

**TENSES**

**PRESENT PERFECT + for, since**

Using the present perfect, we can define a period of time before now by considering its duration, with *for + a period of time*, or by considering its starting point, with *since + a point in time*.

*For + a period of time:*

- for six years, for a week, for a month, for hours, for two hours.
- I have worked here for five years.

*Since + a point in time:*

- since this morning, since last week, since yesterday, since I was a child, since Wednesday, since 2 o'clock.
- I have worked here since 1990.

More examples:

**present perfect with for:**

- She has lived here for twenty years.
- We have taught at this school for a long time.
- Alice has been married for three months.
- They have been at the hotel for a week.

**present perfect with since:**

- She has lived here since 1980.
- We have taught at this school since 1965.
- Alice has been married since March 2nd.
- They have been at the hotel since last Tuesday.

**Note:**

1. *For* and *since* can both be used with the past perfect.
2. *Since* can only be used with perfect tenses, *for* can also be used with the simple past.

**Vocabulary:**

- Strano- strange
- Disposto- willing
- Utile- useful
- Inutile- useless
- Pericoloso- dangerous
- Nervoso- nervous
- Calmo- calm
- Lungo- long
- Corto- short
- Bugiardo- liar
- Noioso- boring
- Intelligente- intelligent
Lesson 22
Grammar Principles
PRESENT CONTINUOUS CONDITIONAL

In type 2 conditional sentences, the continuous form of the present conditional may be used:

If I were a millionaire, I wouldn't be doing this job!

1. Present continuous conditional - form.
This form is composed of two elements: the present conditional of the verb 'to be' (would be) + the present participle of the main verb (base+ing).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>would be</th>
<th>base+ing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>would be</td>
<td>going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>would be</td>
<td>living</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Affirmative

| We      | would be | coming |

Negative

| You     | wouldn't be | working |

Interrogative

| Would   | you be     | sharing? |

Interrogative negative

| Wouldn't | they be    | playing? |

Example: to live, Present continuous conditional.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative, Negative, Interrogative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I would be living</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You would be living</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He would be living</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We would be living</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You would be living</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They would be living</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example:

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Example:

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<td>We would be living</td>
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<tr>
<td>You would be living</td>
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<tr>
<td>They would be living</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Present continuous conditional - function
This form is common in Type 2 conditional sentences. It expresses an unfinished or continuing action or situation, which is the probable result of an unreal condition:

- I would be working in Italy if I spoke Italian.
- (but I don't speak Italian, so I am not working in Italy.
- She would be living with Jack if she wasn't living with her parents.
- (but she is living with her parents so she's not living with Jack).

More examples:

- I wouldn't be eating this if I wasn't extremely hungry.
- If I had an exam tomorrow, I'd be revising now.
- You wouldn't be smiling if you knew the truth.

NOTE: This form is also found in: mixed conditional sentences (See section on Mixed Conditional Sentences); in indirect speech:

She said “I’ll be working in the garden.” — She said she would be working in the garden. (See section on Indirect Speech)

TENSES

PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS

Present perfect continuous, form
The present perfect continuous is made up of two elements: (a) the present perfect of the verb 'to be' (have/has been), and (b) the present participle of the main verb (base+ing).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>has/ have been</th>
<th>base+ing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>has been</td>
<td>swimming</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Affirmative

| She has been / She's been | running |

Negative

| She hasn't been | running |

Interrogative

| Has she been | running? |

Interrogative negative

| Hasn't she been | running? |
**Present perfect continuous, function**

The present perfect continuous refers to an **unspecified time** between ‘before now’ and ‘now’. The speaker is thinking about something that started but perhaps did not finish in that period of time. He/she is interested in the **process as well as the result**, and this process may still be going on, or may have just finished.

Examples:

1. **Actions that started in the past and continue in the present.**
   a. She has been waiting for you all day (=and she's still waiting now).
   b. I've been working on this report since eight o'clock this morning (=and I still haven't finished it).
   c. They have been traveling since last October (=and they're not home yet).

2. **Actions that have just finished, but we are interested in the results:**
   a. She has been cooking since last night (=and the food on the table looks delicious).
   b. It's been raining (= and the streets are still wet).
   c. Someone's been eating my chips (= half of them have gone).

**Note:**

**Verbs without continuous forms**

With verbs not normally used in the continuous form, use the present perfect simple. See list of these verbs under ‘Present Continuous’:

- I've wanted to visit China for years.
- She's known Robert since she was a child.
- I've hated that music since I first heard it.
- I've heard a lot about you recently.
- We've understood everything we've heard this morning.

**Vocabulary:**

Mentire- to lie
Raffreddare- to cool off, to chill
Riscaldare- to heat up
Predicare- to preach
Affettare- to slice
Friggere- to fry
Soffriggere- to sauté
Cucire- to sew
Accorciare- to shorten
Allungare- to lengthen
Bollire- to boil
Tagliare- to cut
Soccorrere- to help, to give aid
Trascorrere- to pass time
Organizzare- to organize
Lesson 23
Grammar Principles:
TENSES
FUTURE CONTINUOUS

Future continuous form,
The future continuous is made up of two elements: the simple future of the verb 'to be' + the present participle (base+ing)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>simple future, 'to be'</th>
<th>base+ing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>will be</td>
<td>watching</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Affirmative
I will be asking

Negative
She won't be leaving

Interrogative
Will they be retiring?

Interrogative negative
Won't we be staying?

Example: to stay, future continuous

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Interrogative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I will be staying</td>
<td>I won't be staying</td>
<td>Will I be staying?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You will be staying</td>
<td>You won't be staying</td>
<td>Will you be staying?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He, she, it will be staying</td>
<td>He won't be staying</td>
<td>Will she be staying?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We will be staying</td>
<td>We won't be staying</td>
<td>Will we be staying?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You will be staying</td>
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<td>Will you be staying?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They will be staying</td>
<td>They won't be staying</td>
<td>Will they be staying?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Future continuous, function
The future continuous refers to an unfinished action or event that will be in progress at a time later than now. It is used:

a. to project ourselves into the future and see something happening: This time next week I will be sun-bathing in Bali.

b. to refer to actions/events that will happen in the normal course of events: I'll be seeing Jim at the conference next week.

c. in the interrogative form, especially with 'you', to distinguish between a simple request for information and an invitation: Will you be coming to the party tonight? (= request for information) Will you come to the party? (= invitation)

d. to predict or guess about someone's actions or feelings, now or in the future: You'll be feeling tired after that long walk, I expect.

More examples:
a. events in progress in the future:
When you are in Australia will you be staying with friends?
This time next week you will be working in your new job.
At four thirty on Tuesday afternoon I will be signing the contract.

b. events/actions in normal course of events:
I'll be going into town this afternoon, is there anything you want from the shops?
Will you be using the car tomorrow? - No, you can take it.
I'll be seeing Jane this evening - I'll give her the message.

c. asking for information:
Will you be bringing your friend to the pub tonight?
Will Jim be coming with us?

d. predicting or guessing:
You'll be feeling thirsty after working in the sun.
He'll be coming to the meeting, I expect.
You'll be missing the sunshine now you're back in England.

TENSES
FUTURE PERFECT

Future perfect, form
The future perfect is composed of two elements: the simple future of the verb to have (will have) + the past participle of the main verb:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>will have</th>
<th>past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>will have</td>
<td>finished</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Affirmative
I will have left

Negative
They won't have gone
**Interrogative**
Will we have seen?

**Interrogative negative**
Won't he have arrived?

Example: to arrive, future perfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I'll have arrived</td>
<td>I won't have arrived</td>
<td>Will I have arrived?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>They'll have arrived</td>
<td>They won’t have arrived</td>
<td>Will they have arrived?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future perfect, function**
The future perfect refers to a completed action in the future. When we use this tense we are projecting ourselves forward into the future and looking back at an action that will be completed some time later than now. It is often used with a time expression using by + a point in future time.

Examples:

a. I’ll have been here for six months on June 23rd.
b. By the time you read this I’ll have left.
c. You will have finished your work by this time next week.

**Vocabulary:**
Riattivare- to reactivate
Recitare- to recite
Ungere- to anoint
Trattare- to deal with
Centrare- to center
Crescere- to grow
Sanguinare- to bleed
Prendere in giro- to make fun
Rimanere- to remain, to stay
Inghiottire- to swallow
Gridare- to yell
Peccare- to sin
Recitare- to recite
Lesson 23
Grammar Principles:
TENSES
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Future continuous form,
The future continuous is made up of two elements: the simple future of the verb 'to be' + the present participle (base+ing)

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</tr>
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<td>He, she, it will be staying</td>
<td>He won't be staying</td>
<td>Will he/she be staying?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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The future continuous refers to an unfinished action or event that will be in progress at a time later than now. It is used:

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TENSES
FUTURE PERFECT

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<td>Will you have arrived?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They'll have arrived</td>
<td>They won't have arrived</td>
<td>Will they have arrived?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future perfect, function**
The future perfect refers to a completed action in the future. When we use this tense we are projecting ourselves forward into the future and looking back at an action that will be completed some time later than now. It is often used with a time expression using *by* + a point in future time.

Examples:

a. *I'll have been* here for six months on June 23rd.
b. By the time you read this *I'll have left*.  
c. *You will have finished* your work by this time next week.

**Vocabulary:**
- Riattivare- to reactivate
- Recitare- to recite
- Ungere- to anoint
- Trattare- to deal with
- Centrare- to center
- Crescere- to grow
- Sanguinare- to bleed
- Prendere in giro- to make fun
- Rimanere- to remain, to stay
- Inghiottire- to swallow
- Gridare- to yell
- Peccare- to sin
- Recitare- to recite
Lesson 24
Grammar Principles:
TENSES
FUTURE PERFECT CONTINUOUS

Future perfect continuous, form
This form is composed of two elements: the future perfect of the verb to be (will have been) + the present participle of the main verb (base+ing):

Subject | will have been base+ing
We | will have been living

Affirmative
I | will have been working

Negative
I | won't have been working

Interrogative
Will | I have been working?

Interrogative negative
Won't | I have been working?

Example: to live, Future Perfect continuous

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Interrogative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I'll have been living</td>
<td>I won't have been living</td>
<td>Will I have been living?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You'll have been living</td>
<td>You won't have been living</td>
<td>Will you have been living?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He'll have been living</td>
<td>He won't have been living</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>They'll have been living</td>
<td>They won't have been living</td>
<td>Will they have been living?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Future perfect continuous, function
Like the future perfect simple, this form is used to project ourselves forward in time and to look back. It refers to events or actions in a time between now and some future time, that may be unfinished.

Examples:
- a. I will have been waiting here for three hours by six o'clock.
- b. By 2001, I will have been living here for sixteen years.
- c. By the time I finish this course, I will have been learning English for twenty years.
- d. Next year I will have been working here for four years.

FUTURE WITH GOING TO

1. Future with Going to - form
This form is composed of three elements: the appropriate form of the verb 'to be' + going to + the infinitive of the main verb:

Subject | 'to be' | going to | infinitive
She | is | going to | leave

2. Future with Going to - function
The use of 'going to' to refer to future events suggests a very strong association with the present. The time is not important - it is later than now, but the attitude is that the event depends on a present situation, that we know about. So it is used:

a) to refer to our plans and intentions:
We're going to move to London next year. (= the plan is in our minds now.)

b) to make predictions based on present evidence:
Look at those clouds - it's going to pour with rain! (= It's clear from what I can see now.)

Note: In everyday speech, 'going to' is often shortened to 'gonna', especially in American English.

More examples:
Plans and intentions:
- a. Is Freddy going to buy a new car soon?
- b. Are John and Pam going to visit Milan when they are in Italy?
- c. I think Nigel and Mary are going to have a party next week.

Predictions based on present evidence:
- a. There's going to be a terrible accident!
- b. He's going to be a brilliant politician.
- c. I'm going to have terrible indigestion.

Note: It is unusual to say 'I'm going to go to...' Instead, we use 'going to' + a place or event:

Examples:
We are going to the beach tomorrow.
She is going to the ballet tonight.
Are you going to the party tomorrow night?
TENSES
OTHER WAYS OF TALKING ABOUT THE FUTURE

1. IS TO + INFINITIVE

Form:
This form is composed of two elements: the appropriate form of the verb to be + to (am to, are to, is to), and the infinitive of the main verb without 'to'.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>to be to</th>
<th>infinitive without to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>are to</td>
<td>leave</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Affirmative
She is to travel
Negative
You are not (aren't) to travel
Interrogative
Am I to travel?
Interrogative negative
Aren't they to travel?

Function:
This form refers to an obligation to do something at a time later than now. It is similar to 'must', but there is a suggestion that something has been arranged or organized for us. It is not normally used in spoken English, but might be found in spy stories, e.g.

"You are to leave this room at once, and you are to travel by train to London. In London you are to pick up your ticket from Mr. Smith, and you are to fly to your destination alone. When you arrive, you are to meet our agent, Mr. X, who will give you further information. You are to destroy this message now."

2. BE + ABOUT TO + INFINITIVE

Form:
This form is composed of three elements: the appropriate form of the verb to be, present tense, + ‘about to’ + the infinitive of the main verb without ‘to’:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>be</th>
<th>about to</th>
<th>infinitive without to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>am</td>
<td>about to</td>
<td>leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>about to</td>
<td>arrive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Function:
This form refers to a time immediately after the moment of speaking, and emphasizes that the event or action will happen very soon:

Examples:
a. She is about to leave.
b. You are about to see something very unusual.
c. I am about to go to a meeting - can I talk to you later?

It is often used with the word ‘just’, which emphasizes the immediacy of the action:

We are just about to go to sleep.
Sally is just about to take an exam.

This form can also be used in the simple past tense to refer to an action that was imminent, but was interrupted. In such cases it is often followed by a 'when - clause':

She was about to leave when he arrived.
I was just about to telephone her when she walked into the house.

Vocabulary:
Sparare- to fire, to shoot
Gestire- to run, to manage
Mancare- to be missing
Piacere- to like
Inserire- to insert
Trattare- to deal with
Avvincinarsi- to get close
Allontanarsi- to move away from
Impiegare- to use, to employ
Govermare- to govern
Dominare- to dominate
Controllare- to control