

## UNIT 9

### REPORTED SPEECH

#### A) Introduction

Reported or indirect speech occurs when you tell somebody else what you or another person said before. Obviously, if you report what somebody else has said, you do not normally use the speaker's exact words (direct speech), but reported (indirect) speech. Therefore, you need to learn how to transform direct speech into reported speech. The structure is a little different depending on whether you want to transform a statement, question or request.

A series of brief rules can help you to know how to proceed, what to take into account and what to change when reporting speech:

- Choose an appropriate **reporting** or **introductory verb** - depending on the type of discourse.
- Be careful with **structure and word order** since reporting changes a bit depending on whether you report a statement, a question or a request.
- Change the **tenses** to their adequate form. However:

If the reporting verb is in a present tense, no tense changes are necessary ('I'll do it for you' → She says she'll do it for you).

The following modal verbs do not change in reported speech: *could*, *would*, *should*, *might*, *ought to* and *used to*.

- Don't forget to change **personal pronouns and adjectives** - depending on the speaker(s).
- Change **adverbs of time and place and demonstrative pronouns** if necessary.
- Reflect about (possible) **further changes and considerations** using your logic.

Let's see these aspects in more detail:

#### B) Reporting/introductory verbs

The most basic reporting/introductory verbs are: say, tell, reply and ask. However, there are many more options; there are a lot of other verbs you can use to describe or summarise what people say without repeating the same thing over and over again. These verbs give us the meaning of the original words without actually using them all.

Below you will find some of these 'reporting verbs' with their meanings and some (not all) possible grammatical structures, the most common ones.

VERB	STRUCTURE	DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH EXAMPLES
accuse	to accuse someone of doing something	"It was you who ate my chocolate, Elvira, wasn't it?" He accused Elvira of eating his chocolate.
admit	to admit doing something to admit that...	"OK, it was me. I ate your chocolate" Elvira admitted eating the chocolate. Elvira admitted that she had eaten the chocolate.
advise	to advise someone to do something	"Well, if I were you I'd start saving for my retirement." He advised me to start saving for my retirement
agree	to agree that...	"Yes, you're right, it's a terrible problem." She agreed that it was a terrible problem.
announce	to announce that...	"I'm afraid I've got some bad news. The company's closing." The manager announced that the company was closing.
apologise	to apologise (to someone) for doing something	"I'm sorry I didn't get to the meeting." He apologised for not going to the meeting.
ask	to ask someone to do something	"It's very hot in here. Would you mind opening the window?" She asked him to open the window.
blame	to blame someone for doing something	"We lost the match because you didn't save that penalty." He blamed the goalkeeper for losing the match.
complain	to complain about something	"The electrician said he was coming at ten o'clock so I took time off work and waited in all morning...." She complained about the electrician.
congratulate	to congratulate someone on doing something	"Well done! I knew you'd pass your driving test this time." She congratulated him on passing his driving test.
deny	to deny doing something to deny that...	"It most certainly wasn't me that left the front door open." He denied leaving the front door open. He denied that he had left the front door open.
explain	to explain why... to explain that...	"Sorry I'm late. The traffic was bad and then I couldn't find a parking space." He explained why he was late. He explained that the traffic was bad.
forget	to forget to do something	"Oh no, I haven't got any money. I didn't go to the bank."

		He forgot to go to the bank.
invite	to invite someone to do something	"Would you like to come to our house for dinner on Friday? He invited them to come to dinner on Friday.
offer	to offer to do something for someone	"Those bags must be heavy, John. Shall I take one?" She offered to carry a bag for him.
promise	to promise to do something	"Yes, honest, I'll be there on time. I won't be late." He promised not to be late.
refuse	to refuse to do something	"Well I'm not washing up. I did it last time." He refused to do the washing-up.
remind	to remind someone to do something	"Remember you have to go to the bank. You forgot yesterday." She reminded me to go to the bank.
suggest	to suggest that someone should do something to suggest that someone do something	"Why don't you go to the dentist if your tooth hurts?" She suggested that he should go to the dentist. She suggested that he went to the dentist.
threaten	to threaten to do something	"If you're late again we'll start without you." They threatened to start without him.
warn	to warn someone about something to warn someone (not) to do something	"Don't drive too quickly. The streets are very icy." He warned him about the ice. He warned him not to drive too quickly.

Adapted from: <http://valenciaenglish.netfirms.com/reporting.htm>

### C) Structure and word order

Reported **statements** follow the same structure as direct statements but they are introduced by a reporting verb, and the necessary tense, pronouns and adverbs changes have been incorporated:

"I'm afraid I've got some bad news. The company's closing." → The manager announced that the company was closing.

For changing a **question** into reported speech, you have to:

- Change the word order in the reported question to the same as a normal sentence (do not use the auxiliary verbs do, does or did):  
S+V+OBJECTS...

Why do you like working till late?' → He asked me why *I liked working till late*.

- Use *if/whether* to introduce questions where you expect a YES/NO answer:

Do you like working till late? → He asked me *if/whether* I liked working till late.

- Make the necessary tense changes (explained in section D).

Why *do you like* working till late?' → He asked me why I *liked* working till late.

- Use the same question words (when, where, what, how...).

Why do you like working till late?' → He asked me *why* I liked working till late.

- Use a full stop (.) instead of a question mark (?):

How long have you been here? → He asked me how long I had been there.

Just use a question mark when the introductory phrase is a question:

What are you doing here? → *Could you tell* me what you are doing here?

When modifying **requests**, check if you should change:

- pronouns
- place and time expressions

Tenses don't change with requests, so you only have to change the simple present into *to + infinitive* or *not to + infinitive* for a negative request.

'Can you pass me the newspaper?' → She asked me *to pass* her the newspaper.

Let me know! → She told me *to let* her know

Don't shout → She told me *not to shout*

## D) Tenses

Reported speech may or may not need a change in verbal tenses when converted from direct speech:

### **NO CHANGE:**

- As previously mentioned, at times, the reporting verb (e.g. he *says*, he *tells* me, etc.) is in the present. In this case, pronouns will change in indirect speech, but the tenses in the reported clause stay the same.

DIRECT SPEECH: He says, "I will do it".

REPORTED SPEECH: He says that he will do it.

- The past perfect tenses, the conditional tenses and the past of intention cannot be made more past, so these tenses do not change:

Past Perfect Simple	DIRECT SPEECH: He said, "I had gone to bed very early". REPORTED SPEECH: He said he had gone to bed very early.
Conditional	DIRECT SPEECH: They said, "We would like to visit Venice". REPORTED SPEECH: They said they would like to visit Venice.
Past of Intention	DIRECT SPEECH: She said, "I was going to win". REPORTED SPEECH: She said she was going to win.

- The following modal verbs have no past form and so they do not change either in reported speech: *could, would, should, might, ought to* and *used to*  
'You should go to the doctor' → He said I should go to the doctor
- Must doesn't change:
  - when it is negative: 'You mustn't tell Mary about John.' → Arnold told me I mustn't tell Mary about John.
  - When it expresses a deduction: 'Lorna must still be at home' → Hanna said that Lorna must still be at home.

### CHANGE:

- However, it is much more common that the reporting verb is in the past (she *said*, she *told* me, etc.) so that a change in tenses is needed in the reported clause. In this case the changes of tense are governed by what may be called the "ONE-TENSE-BACK" RULE, that is to say, the tense of the verb has to go one tense further into the past, as the conversion table below shows:

DIRECT SPEECH	REPORTED SPEECH
<b>Present Simple</b> She said, "I <b>am</b> happy". He said: "I <b>work</b> everyday".	➡ <b>Past Simple</b> She said that she <b>was</b> happy. He said that he <b>worked</b> everyday.
<b>Present Progressive (Continuous)</b> You said, "They <b>are swimming</b> ".	➡ <b>Past Progressive (Continuous)</b> You said that they <b>were swimming</b> .
<b>Present Perfect Simple</b> He said, "I <b>have bought</b> a car".	➡ <b>Past Perfect Simple</b> He said that he <b>had bought</b> a car.
<b>Past Simple</b> He said, "I <b>bought</b> a hamster".	➡ <b>Past Perfect Simple</b> He said that he <b>had bought</b> a hamster.
<b>Past Progressive (Continuous)</b> You said, "I <b>was working</b> ".	➡ <b>Past Perfect Progressive (Continuous)</b> You said that you <b>had been working</b> .
<b>Future of Intention ("going to")</b> She said, "I <b>am going to win</b> ".	➡ <b>Past of Intention ("going to")</b> She said that she <b>was going to win</b> .
<b>Future Simple</b> They said, "We <b>will lose</b> ".	➡ <b>Conditional</b> They said that they <b>would lose</b> .
<b>Future Perfect</b> She said, "I <b>will have bought</b> it by Friday".	➡ <b>Perfect Conditional</b> She said that she <b>would have bought</b> it by Friday.
<b>Future Progressive (Continuous)</b> She said, "I <b>will be having</b> tea at 8 pm".	➡ <b>Progressive (Continuous) Conditional</b> She said that she <b>would be having</b> tea at 8 pm.
<b>Present Perfect Progressive (Continuous)</b> She said, "I <b>have been painting</b> the ceiling".	➡ <b>Past Perfect Progressive (Continuous)</b> She said that she <b>had been painting</b> the ceiling.

Obtained from: <http://www.ompersonal.com.ar/firstcertificate2/grammar/grammar8.htm>

- The following modal verbs do also change:

Must → Had to

(see the section “NO CHANGE” above to see the cases in which “must” does not change tense).

You *must* do your homework → Her brother told her she *had to* do her homework.

May → Might

I *may* pay for you → Sarah suggested that she *might* pay for him.

Can → Could

I *can* play the piano but I can't play the violin → She said she *could* play the piano but she couldn't play the violin.

### E) Personal pronouns and adjectives

A change in speaker may mean a change of pronoun. Compare:

- Allison: “I am going home.”
- Mona: “Alice said that *she* was going home”.

In the example given above, Allison says *I* to refer to herself. However, Mona, talking about what Allison said, uses *she*.

#### General Rules for the change of Pronouns

1. First person pronouns (I, we, me, mine, us, ours) normally change to the third person (he, she, they, his, her, their, him, her, them).

He told her, “I want to meet **your** father.” → He told her that **he** wanted to meet **her** father.

2. There will be no change in the pronoun when the speaker reports her/his own words.

I said, “I am going.” → I said that I was going.

3. Second person pronouns (you, yours) change according to the person of the object of the reporting verb.

He told **her**, “I love **you**.” → He told her that **he** loved **her**.  
I told **him**, “**You** are a stupid.” → I told him that **he** was a stupid.

4. Third person pronouns do not normally change in the reported speech.

She said, “I love **him**.” → She said that **she** loved **him**.

## F) Adverbs of time and place and demonstrative pronouns

Certain words which are specific to the context in which direct speech happens also **NEED TO BE CHANGED**. The general rule is:

DIRECT SPEECH		REPORTED SPEECH
this	➡	that <i>or</i> the
these	➡	those <i>or</i> the
here	➡	there
now	➡	then
ago	➡	before
today	➡	that day
this morning	➡	that morning
last week	➡	the previous week
last month	➡	the previous month
last year	➡	the previous year
next week	➡	the following week
next month	➡	the following month
next year	➡	the following year
yesterday	➡	the day before
tomorrow	➡	the next day <i>or</i> the following day
the day before yesterday	➡	two days before
the day after tomorrow	➡	in two days time <i>or</i> two days later

Obtained from: <http://www.ompersonal.com.ar/firstcertificate2/grammar/grammar9.htm>

## G) Further (possible) changes and considerations

**OMISSION OF "THAT":** it is possible to omit the relative pronoun *that* after the reporting verb (he said that...; he told that...). In general, **USE** this relative pronoun when you are writing and **OMIT** it when you are speaking

**SAY / SAID vs. TELL / TOLD:** Use **SAY** when the person spoken to **is not mentioned** in the sentence: e.g. I said I was angry. Use **TELL** when the person spoken to **is given**: e.g. I told *him* I was angry.

## LINKING WORDS FOR EXPRESSING CONTRAST

Linking words or connectors are crucial in order to add cohesion to discourse and to develop coherence within a paragraph, that is, in order to link one idea or argument to another. Here, we are going to focus on linking words or connectors for showing contrast. Below, you will find a table with the most significant contrast connectors and a sentence illustrating their use.

<b>Although</b>	<i>Although I've been trying hard, I cannot memorise that poem.</i>
<b>Even though</b>	<i>Even though you are an intelligent person, it is irritating that you don't devote your time to something more profitable.</i>
<b>While</b>	<i>Mary is rich, while I am poor.</i>
<b>Whereas</b>	<i>Whereas you have lots of time to do your homework, I have very little time indeed</i>
<b>However</b>	<i>I chose that film. However, I preferred to watch the other one.</i>
<b>Nevertheless</b>	<i>Maria and Monica said they wanted to pass the subject. Nevertheless, they never attended any classes.</i>
<b>Nonetheless</b>	<i>Children are not normally accepted. Nonetheless they can come in this time.</i>
<b>In spite of</b>	<i>In spite of her attitude, she's a really good girl.</i>
<b>Despite</b>	<i>I'm in love with him despite his bad mood.</i>
<b>In spite of the fact that</b>	<i>In spite of the fact that he constantly misbehave, his mother is constantly praising her.</i>
<b>Despite the fact that</b>	<i>Despite the fact that I don't normally eat meat, I'll eat what you have cooked.</i>
<b>But</b>	<i>It was expensive, but he bought the car.</i>
<b>In contrast</b>	<i>I was a good student. In contrast, my brother was a disaster.</i>



<b>On the contrary</b>	<i>I like the seaside. On the contrary, my family prefers the mountain.</i>
<b>On the one hand...On the other hand</b>	<i>On the one hand, I am against raising taxes. On the other hand, I see no other solution.</i>

### A bit of theory on the use of contrast linking words...

→ *Even though* is stronger (more emphatic) than *although*, which is rather formal, whereas *though* is the most informal one from the three.

→ The correct use of linking words does also necessarily imply a correct use of punctuation norms:

When a sentence begins with *although*, *even though*, *while* or *whereas*, we separate the two parts with a comma:

*Although I can see your point, I do not agree with you.*

However, when these words are placed in the middle, no comma is needed.

*Meryl Streep is a really good actress while Pamela Anderson has no talent at all.*

*However*, *nonetheless* and *nevertheless* normally start a new sentence and refer to the sentence before. They are normally followed by a comma:

*I think they phoned yesterday. Nonetheless, I'll check it.*

→ *But* can be used at the beginning of a new sentence:

*I hate the way he cooks. But don't tell him!*

→ *But* can also be used to join two sentences and in this case it is normally followed by a comma:

*I told you, but you never listen to what I say.*

### And some clarifying notes...

The English terms *in spite of* and *despite* are very similar in meaning and usage

#### **Despite**

*Despite* means "even though," "notwithstanding," or "regardless of." It's the opposite

of "because of/due to," and can be used with a noun or gerund. It is used before in the following structures:

*She had difficulty communicating in French **despite** all her years of study → NOUN PHRASE*

***Despite** not having an umbrella, I walked home in the rain → -ING FORM*

***Despite** the rain, I felt happy → NOUN*

### **Despite the fact that**

*Despite the fact that* has the same meaning as *despite* but it is used before a sentence:

*We lost the game, **despite the fact that** we practiced all week → SENTENCE*

### **In spite of**

*In spite of* means exactly the same thing and is used exactly the same way as *despite*:

*She had difficulty communicating in French **in spite of** all her years of study → NOUN PHRASE*

***In spite of** not having an umbrella, I walked home in the rain → -ING FORM*

***In spite of** the rain, I felt happy → NOUN*

### **In spite of the fact that**

*In spite of the fact that* means exactly the same thing and is used exactly the same way as *despite the fact that*:

*We lost the game, **in spite of the fact that** we practiced all week → SENTENCE*

**PLEASE! Never say/use DESPITE OF\* because it does not exist.**

## UNIT 10

### MODAL VERBS IN ENGLISH: MODAL VERBS TO EXPRESS CERTAINTY AND POSSIBILITY

#### A) Introduction

The ten main modal verbs in English are:

can	should	must	may	would
might	could	will	shall	ought to

The general features of modal verbs in English could be summarised as follows:

- They are INCOMPLETE VERBS. They don't have all the tenses. They use other verbs to complete the tenses. For example:  
CAN is completed with BE ABLE TO: *They can play the piano. // They will be able to play the piano in the future.*  
MUST is completed with HAVE TO: *You must come early. // You had to come early yesterday.*
- They don't have –s in third person singular of the present simple:  
*He can open the door.*  
*She must come early.*
- They are followed by an infinitive without "to" in most cases. However, NEED takes 'to' when expressing absence of obligation in the negative:  
*You don't need to stay if you don't want to.*  
OUGHT TO is a special case and you must learn it like that. It expresses convenience:  
*You ought to study more if you want to pass the exam.*
- They don't need auxiliary verb in the interrogative or negative form  
*Can I help you?*

*We shouldn't go to the toilet, the movie is about to start.*

Modal verbs are difficult to define in any language because of their wide range of pragmatic uses. Some of the more common definitions (in no particular order) of the modal verbs in English are:

- can – ability, permission, possibility, request
- could – ability, permission, possibility, request, suggestion
- may – permission, probability, request
- might – possibility, probability, suggestion
- must – deduction, necessity, obligation, prohibition
- shall – decision, future, offer, question, suggestion
- should – advice, necessity, prediction, recommendation
- will – decision, future, intention, offer, prediction, promise, suggestion
- would – conditional, habit, invitation, permission, preference, request, question, suggestion
- ought to – convenience

The following sentences are examples of usage of modal verbs in English. For example, the following four sentences all ask for permission but with different degrees and types of modality:

- Can I go to the bathroom? (asking for permission)
- May I go to the bathroom? (more politely asking for permission)
- Could I go to the bathroom? (asking for permission with less certainty)
- Might I go to the bathroom? (asking for permission with uncertainty)

The following sentences also demonstrate the subtle meanings in regards to modal verbs of suggestion:

- You could listen to me. (suggestion)
- You might listen to me. (uncertain suggestion)
- You should listen to me. (strong suggestion)
- You must listen to me. (stronger suggestion)
- You will listen to me. (strongest suggestion)

## **B) Modal verbs of certainty and possibility**

Certainty and possibility are mainly expressed with the modal verbs *must*, *can*, *could*, *may* and *might* (some of them also in their negative forms or in special constructions).

- ✓ We use 'must' + infinitive without 'to' when we are almost certain about something. 'Must' expresses certainty about the present:

*That must be Joe. He always forgets the keys.*

- ✓ 'Can't' or 'couldn't' are used for expressing 'negative' certainty about the present. Please, never use "mustn't" in this case.

*You can't be bored. We've been laughing all the night.*

- ✓ 'Must have' + past participle is used to express certainty about the past:

*It's late and he must be on his way home.*

- ✓ 'Can't have' and 'couldn't have' + past participle are used for expressing 'negative' certainty about the past:

*She can't have forgotten her mobile phone – I saw her speaking five minutes ago.*

- ✓ To express possibility about the present or future we can use 'may', 'might' or 'could':

'May' + infinitive without 'to' is used to say that something is a possibility; the speaker is not expressing an opinion:

*I'm going to heat some water.*

*Jack may want a tea when he arrives.*

*He sometimes does.*

'Might' is used to say something is possible but we think it's unlikely:

*Of course, he might stop at supermarket on his way home. He sometimes does, but he didn't say so on the phone.*

'Could' (also with + infinitive without 'to') can also be used to say that something is a possibility:

*I suppose he could have spent the day in the office, so he may want to go straight to bed.*

- ✓ In order to express "negative possibility" about the present or future we can use 'may not' or 'might not':

*Do not wait for me because I might be late tonight.*

- ✓ Finally, in order to express possibility about the past, the structures *may have* / *might have* / *could have* / *may not have* / *might not have* + PAST PARTICIPLE are used:

*It's strange that's they're not already here. They might have overslept.*

## UNIT 11

### MODAL VERBS IN ENGLISH: MODAL VERBS TO EXPRESS ABILITY

First of all, have a look at the “Introduction to modal verbs” included in the previous unit to refresh your knowledge on modal verbs.

#### A) Modal verbs of ability

Ability is normally expressed with the modal verbs *can*, *could*, *be able to* and *manage* (some of them also in their negative forms or in special constructions). Ability can be expressed in the past, present, or future and it can mean two things:

**General ability:** something that, once learned, can be done any time you want. For example: being able to read, ride a bike, swim or speak a language.

**Specific ability:** something that can or can't be done in a particular situation. For example: being able to lift something heavy, or find somewhere you are looking for.

#### B) Usage

	<b>CAN</b>
P R E S	<b>Can / can't</b> are used for things that are possible referring to both general and specific ability. <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• I can play the violin.</li><li>• She can speak Japanese.</li></ul>

E N T  U S E	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• He can't study– he's too tired.</li> <li>• We can't leave now.</li> </ul>
	<p><b>BE ABLE TO</b></p> <p><b>Am / is / are able to</b> is also used for things that are possible (but “can” is preferred when speaking because it is shorter).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• She's able to play the violin but she isn't able to play the piano.</li> </ul> <p><b>Am not/is not/aren't able to</b> are also used for expressing things that are impossible (but “can't” is also preferred when speaking because it is shorter).</p>

P A S T  U S E	<p><b>COULD</b></p> <p><b>Could</b> expresses general ability in the past:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I could speak when I was two.</li> <li>• She could play the violin when she was a child, but now she has forgotten it.</li> </ul> <p><b>Couldn't</b> is also used to express (lack of) general ability in the past but also to speak about one particular occasion.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• My grandfather couldn't swim when he was a teenager.</li> </ul> <p><b>Could + have + past participle</b> expresses an ability someone had in the past, but didn't use:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I could have played the violin well but I didn't practise enough.</li> </ul>
	<p><b>BE ABLE TO</b></p> <p><b>Was/were able to</b> is used to talk about a certain or particular ability or about a particular occasion:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Diana was trapped in the lift but she was able to phone the police.</li> </ul> <p><b>Wasn't/weren't able to</b> is also used to express (lack of) general ability in the past but also to speak about one particular occasion:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Jasmina wasn't able to swim till she was 21.</li> </ul>

F U	<b>BE ABLE TO</b>
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T U R E  U S E	<b>Will / won't be able to</b> are used to express general ability <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>At the end of the course, you will be able to speak basic Russian.</li> </ul>
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### C) Further information

- Remember to use “can” only in the present and “could” only in the past. For perfect and future tenses use “be able to”:

When you finish the course you'll be ready to start working here.

- Could have*, followed by a past participle indicates an ability **NOT** used and often shows disapproval:

He could have phoned me (but he didn't)

- Could not have* followed by a past participle indicates that an ability didn't exist in the past:

I couldn't have phoned you yesterday, because I lost your phone number.

- We use “can” or “could” with the senses verbs (see, hear, smell, etc.) to say that someone is aware of something through their senses:

I can smell the stew downstairs.

I could see a gorgeous moon in the sky last night.

I couldn't hear what she was commenting because of the noise.

- “Be able to” is used with other modals or when forming the 'ing' or 'to' infinitive forms:

I'm free tomorrow morning; I might be able to help you with the children.

You will have the satisfaction of being able to read my first novel.

She hopes to be able to study chemistry.

- Manage is used for expressing that you succeed in doing something quite difficult to do (could, however, is only possible for speaking in general):

She managed to pass the oral exam although she was feeling ill when she did it.



## AS / LIKE

**Like** and **as** are both used to talk about how things are similar so they are often confused in English.

### A) Like

- “Like” may mean “similar to” and is specially used with look, sound, smell, seem, taste, etc.:

*Like* my sister, I have brown eyes.

- “Like” is followed by a noun or pronoun:  
"I'm *like* my sister".

- “Like” may also mean “for example”:  
He enjoys all sorts of readings *like* novels, newspapers, etc.

### B) As

- “As” is used to express that someone or something IS that thing or HAS that function/role:

She works *as* a computer technician.

She uses her house *as* an office.

- “As” is followed by a subject and verb:

She's a good student, *as* her brother was before her.

However, in spoken English, “like” is often used instead of “as”.

She's a good student, *like* her brother was before her.

- “As” can also mean “because”:

As I'm free this evening, I'll watch a good film.

- “As” is used with a preposition:

As in the 1960's, the population explosion will cause some problems.

- “As” is used to mean “for example” in the phrase “such as”:

I love travelling to places such as Rome or Venice.

- As is also necessary after certain verbs such as: *consider as*, *regard as* or *describe as*:

I can describe her as extremely nice.

- We can use “as” in certain expressions, such as “as far as I know”, “as you know”, “as far as I'm concerned”, “as you requested”, “as far as I can see/tell”, “as we agreed”...

- We also use “as.....as” with adjectives and adverbs to express comparison:

He's as clever as his sister

- “As” is also used in the structure “same...as”:

You're wearing the same dress *as* me.

## LOOK, SEEM AND APPEAR

### A) Introduction

*Look, seem* and *appear* are used to express impressions and are thus referred to an outward aspect that may or may not be contrary to reality.

- SEEM is applied to something that has an aspect of truth and probability:  
It *seems* warmer today.
- APPEAR suggests the giving of an impression that may be superficial or illusory:  
The house *appears* to be deserted.
- LOOK suggests the use of the eye (literally or figuratively) or the aspect as perceived by the eye, that is, you use *look* to say how someone or something seems to you when you look at them:  
Maureen *looked* tired.

## B) Patterns

The verbs *look*, *seem* and *appear* are normally used with the following linguistic patterns:

- ❖ All of them can be followed by an adjective or an adjective and noun:

Look/seem/appear + [adjective] OR [adjective + noun]

She seemed happy.

He seems a nice man.

- ❖ *Seem* and *look* can be followed by “as if” or “as though” (but not just by “as”) in the following construction:

It looks/seems + as if /as though + sentence

It seems a small thing (NOT it seems as a small thing), but it's important.

It seemed as if he wanted us to leave (NOT it seemed as he wanted ...)

- ❖ *Look* can also be followed by “as if” and a sentence:

Subject + look + as if + sentence

You look as if you hadn't slept in all the night.

- ❖ *Seem* and *appear* can also be followed by a verb in the infinitive

Seem/appear + infinitive

His story seems to be an invention.

- ❖ *Look* and *seem* may be followed by “like” and a noun:

Look/seem + like + noun

She looks like his grandmother, and she's his mother!

## UNIT 12

### RELATIVE PRONOUNS AND RELATIVE CLAUSES

#### C) Introduction

Relative clauses are used to give additional information about something without starting another sentence. As a result, the text becomes more fluent and the repetition of certain words is avoided. Below you have an example of a simple relative clause (in italics):

The girl *who phoned* is my secretary.

The sentence above, with its relative clause (remember that a clause is part of a sentence), may have been formed after joining in a single sentence two separate sentences such as the one shown below:

A girl phoned. The girl is my secretary

#### D) Relative pronouns and relative adverbs

Relative sentences start with relative pronouns (who, which, whose, whom, that) or relative adverbs (where, when, why). The table below provides a closer look at these pronouns or adverbs and their function and use:

RELATIVE PRONOUN	USE	EXAMPLE
Who	Subject or object pronoun for people	I told you about the man <i>who</i> wrote that novel.
Which	Subject or object pronoun for animals and things	Do you see the dog <i>which</i> is barking to that cat?
Which	Referring to a whole sentence	He couldn't drive <i>which</i> surprised me.
Whose	Possession for people animals and things	Do you know the man <i>whose</i> son is a doctor?
Whom	Object pronoun for people, especially in non-defining relative clauses (in defining relative clauses we colloquially prefer <i>who</i> )	I was invited by the professor <i>whom</i> I met at the conference.
That	Subject or object pronoun for people, animals and things in defining relative clauses ( <i>who</i> or <i>which</i> are also possible)	I don't like the book <i>that</i> I took yesterday from the library.

RELATIVE ADVERB	MEANING	USE	EXAMPLE
When	In/on which	It refers to a time expression	I remember the day <i>when</i> we met him.
Where	In/at which	It refers to a place	This is the place <i>where</i> I met him
Why	For which	It refers to a reason	I can't tell you the reason <i>why</i> I left him.

## E) Subject and object pronouns

In the tables above, the distinction subject/object pronouns is often made. Subject and object pronouns cannot be distinguished simply by form but:

- If the relative pronoun is followed by a verb, then the relative is a SUBJECT PRONOUN. Subject pronouns can never be omitted:

The book **which** is on the table

- If the relative pronoun is not followed by a verb but by a noun or pronoun, then it is an OBJECT PRONOUN. Object pronouns can normally be omitted in defining relative clauses.

The book (**which**) *Joana* put on the table.

But, what is a defining relative clause?

## F) Defining and non-defining relative clauses

Compare these two examples:  
People *who eat too much* tend to have poorer health. (DEF.)  
Sportsmen, *who pay attention to their diet*, are not usually over-weight. (NON-DEF.)

The first sentence contains a defining relative clause whereas the second one contains a non-defining one:

- A "**defining**" relative clause is one which is essential for the understanding of a statement. They tell you the person or thing the speaker is talking about and provide specific data relevant for understanding the whole sentence.  
Example:

Protestors *who smash windows* will be arrested.

In this example, it is clear that "**all** protestors who smash windows", specifically this "kind" of protestors, will be arrested. The word "protestors" in this example is restricted by the relative clause that defines it.

More features of defining relative clauses are:

- Commas are NOT required before and after defining relative clauses.
- Defining relative clauses use "who", "which", "whose", "where", "when" and "why".
- "That" can be used instead of "who" or "which".
- "Who", "which" and "that" can be omitted when they are the object (not the subject) of the clause.

- In “**non-defining**” relative clauses, the relative clause is not essential for an understanding of the sentence, it just provides extra information:

Protestors, *who are mostly aged under 30*, want to express an opinion.

In this example, the question of age is not an essential bit of information. The relative clause can be omitted without making the sentence meaningless.

More features of non-defining relative clauses:

- Commas are usually required before and after the relative clause (or pauses in spoken English).
- In non-defining relative clauses “that” is not used.
- The relative pronoun cannot be omitted.

### G) Further information

- ✓ When the relative pronoun is subject of a clause and refers to a human, the relative pronoun “who” is generally used (The boy *who* lives next door is a little genius). However, sometimes, “who” can be replaced by “that”, especially in American English and in spoken language (The boy *that* lost his watch was careless).
- ✓ After the antecedent “those”, “who” is almost always required (Those *who* are taller should sit at the back)
- ✓ The relative pronoun as object: when the relative pronoun is the direct object of the clause, and refers to a human, the pronoun used is either *whom* or *that* (The woman *whom/that* I saw is not your teacher). Alternatively, the relative can be omitted, particularly in spoken language: (The woman *whom/that* I saw is not your teacher). *Whom* is not used very often: *that*, or omission of the relative pronoun, are much more common.
- ✓ When the relative pronoun is the direct object of the clause, and refers to an inanimate object, the pronoun used is either *which* or *that* (The film *that/which* you were watching is my favourite one).
- ✓ The relative pronoun as a possessive: *Whose* is required with both animate and inanimate antecedents (That’s the person *whose* sister/car I saw yesterday). Relative clauses can start with a preposition (He is a person *with whom* I would never get on well).
- ✓ As has already been mentioned, relative clauses can qualify whole sentences, not just nouns or pronouns. In this case, the pronoun used must be *which* (He was very worried, *which* is why he was crying).



