QUANTITY

SOME, ANY, NO, NONE

1) We use some

• with plural countable nouns, and uncountable nouns in positive sentences; *There are some books in the cupboard.*

I need **some** advice.

But: There is **a** book on the table.

• in questions that are invitations, offers or requests.

Would you like **some** pizza? Could you give me **some** advice?

• to mean 'not all'.

Some people were drowned, but **others** survived.

2) We use any

• with plural countable nouns, in questions and negatives.

Are there **any** books in the cupboard? There aren't **any** books here.

• with uncountable nouns in questions and negatives with a singular verb; Is there any information about this subject? There isn't any water left.

●To mean 'whichever one you like'.

You can borrow **any** books you need from the library.

3) We use no

• with a noun to describe zero quantity or mass.

No animal can live for long without water.

4) We use none

• to mean 'not any', or 'not one' with countables and uncountables.

We looked for some chairs, but there was/were **none** free. I thought we had some milk, but ther is **none** left.

5) We use none of

• to mean 'not one' of a group.

None of the students had done the work.

QUANTITY: MUCH, MANY, FEW, LITTLE, ENOUGH

1) We use how many

• to ask questions about quantity with countable nouns.

How many tigers are there in the world today?

2) We use how much

• to ask questions about mass with uncountable nouns.

How much water is there on earth?

3) We use not many

• to make a negative statement about quantity of countables.

There aren't many tigers in the world today.

4) We use not much

●to make a negative statement about mass of uncountables.

If you want to save the tiger, there isn't much time left.

5) We use many and much

• in positive statements in formal and written language.

Many people hunt wild animals for sport. Much damage has been caused by this kind of hunting.

6) We use a few

• to talk about a small number of countable nouns in a positive way *We managed to see a few tigers in the distance.*

7) We use a little

• to talk about a small amount of an uncountable noun in a positive way.

There is **a little** water left in the bottle.

8) We use a lot (of), lots (of)

• to talk about a large number of countables or a large amount of an uncountable;

We saw **a lot** of / lots of animals close up and took **a lot** of / lots of photos.

There was **a lot of / lots of** rain last month;

9) We use few, very few, only a few

• to talk about countables in a negative way.

Unfortunately $\ensuremath{\textit{few}}$ conservatives believe that tigers in the wild have a future.

Unfortunately there are **only a few** biscuits left.

10) We use little, very little, only a little

• to talk about uncountables in a negative way.

There is little hope that tigers will survive, as they have very little space for their natural habitat.

11) We use too many

• with countables to talk about more things than are necessary or possible.

There are **too many** stars for scientists to count.

12) We use too much

• with uncountables to talk about a greater quantity than is necessary or possible.

Some plants are damaged by too much sunlight.

13) We use enough (of)

• for countables and uncountables when we say that the quantity or number is sufficient.

Have we got **enough** food? Have we got **enough**?

There are **enough** plates for everybody.

14) We use not enough

• for countables or uncountables when we say that that the quantity or number is not sufficient.

There is **not enough** information about this problem, and there are **not enough** scientists working to try and find a solution.

15) We use plenty of

• for countables or uncountables when we say that the quantity or number is more than enough.

Don't worry, we have **plenty of** time.

I've got **plenty of** pens if you need one.

Exercises

| Complete the sentences with a, an, some or any. |
|--|
| 1) I haven't got money. |
| 2) He wanted to use the computer to see e-mails he was expecting. |
| 3) I need to buy toothpaste before I go on holidays. |
| 4) I don't normally have lunch except sandwich. |
| 5) I don't need to take food on the trip. |
| 6) You've got great films in your DVD collection. |
| 7) We went skiing this weekend but there wasn't snow. |
| 8) I found Insect in my salad so we left the restaurant. |
| 9) I'd like Bread, please. |
| N2/N3 Complete the sentence with ONE word so that it means the same as the first sentence. |
| 1) What is the total amount of salt contained in the world's oceans and seas? |
| How salt is there in the world's oceans and seas? |
| 2) We don't know very much about the deep oceans. |
| Wet know very about the deep oceans. |
| 3) Water covers a large part of the Earth's surface. |
| of the Earth's surface is covered by water. |
| 4) There seems to be more than enough food for everyone in the world in the oceans. |
| There seems to be of food for everyone in the world in the oceans. |
| 5) In fact, large amounts of the food we eat come from the oceans. |
| In fact, aof the food we eat come from the oceans. |
| 6) It's impossible to swim in the Dead Sea because of the large amount of salt in it. |
| We can't swim in the Dead Sea because it contains too salt. |
| 7) There is a shortage of fish in some parts of the world. |
| There aren't fish in some parts of the world. |
| 8) The Sargasso Sea contains large amounts of seaweed. |
| There is of seaweed in the Sargasso Sea. |
| 9) There are areas near the Equator where the wind doesn't blow very much. |
| There are areas near the Equator where is not wind. |
| 10 Pollution affects nearly every one of the world's oceans areas. |
| There are areas of the world's oceans not affected by pollution. |
| |

COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES

FORM

One-syllable adjectives

To form the comparative add -*er* and to form the superlative add -*est* to adjectives such as *cheap*, *clean*, *dark*, *light*, *slow* and *tall*...

tall tall**er** the tall**est**

Add –r or –st to adjectives ending in –e such as large, late, strange, nice, safe...

safe safe**r** the safe**st**

Double the final consonant and add *-er* or *-est* to adjectives ending in one vowel and one consonant such as *hot*, *fat*, *big*, *sad*...

hot hot**ter** the hot**test**

Regular adjectives with two syllables and more

Change –y to –I and add –er or –est to adjectives ending in –y such as easy, lazy, noisy, happy, funny...

easy easier the easiest

Use *more* or *most* in front of the other two-syllable adjectives.

tiring more tiring the most tiring

You will see either form used in a limited number of adjectives such as *clever*, *common*, *cruel*, *gentle*, *narrow*, *polite*, *quiet*, *simple*, *stupid* and *tired*;

cleverer OR more clever

the clever**est** OR the **most** clever

However, if in doubt it is safer to use the *more / most* form;

Use *more* or *most* in front of all adjectives with more than two syllables such as *beautiful*, *expensive*, *intelligent*, *comfortable*, *interesting*...

expensive more expensive the most expensive

Irregular adjectives

good better the best bad worse the worst

far further/farther the furthest/the farthest

USE

We use comparatives and superlatives to show how people or things are different in some way. We normally use comparatives to compare two things. Comparatives show more of a quality or characteristic. We use *than* in sentences where two people or things are compared using a comparative adjective.

I am faster than John.

She is taller than me.

We use superlatives to talk about a person or thing who has more of a particular quality than all others of their type. We always use the infinitive article *the* before superlative forms.

Who is **the richest** person in the world?

Rio deJaneiro is one of the most beautiful cities in the world.

FORM: AS + ADJECTIVE + AS

We can compare two things which are equal with as + adjective + as. We can add *just* for emphasis. *For me chemistry is (just) as difficult as physics*.

We can use not so / as + adjective + as to compare things instead of the comparative form of the adjective with *than*.

Big differences and small differences

Small differences: a little, a bit, slightly, not quite, almost, nearly The blue chair is a little more expensive than the red one. I'm nearly as old as Bob. Big differences: a lot, much, far, not nearly Mexico City is a lot bigger than Rome. A DVD is **far better than** a video for watching films. FORM: LESS...than, the LEAST We can also use these forms to show differences; Life in the past was **less comfortable than** it is now. Jack is **the least hard-working** boy in the class. **ADVERBS** We can compare adverbs in a similar way to adjectives. I left school **earlier than** you. You didn't leave school as early as I did. **Exercises** 1) Complete the second sentence using the words in brackets. Example: Cycling is faster than walking (as) \rightarrow Walking is not as fast as cycling. 1) iPods are more fashionable than other types of mp3 player. (as) \rightarrow Other 3) Health is a lot more important than money. (nearly) → Money isn't 4) This year's course isn't nearly as easy as last year's. (much) → Last year's 5) This computer is much faster than the old one. (a lot) \rightarrow The old computer 6) Today's exam was much shorter than yesterday's. (a lot) → Yesterday's exam 2) Complete the sentence so that it means the same as the first sentence, and includes a superlative adjective. 1) I've never sat in a more comfortable classroom than this. This is the mostsat in. 2) I've never had a more useful English lesson than this. This is thehad. 3) I've never had a better friend than you. You are thehad. 4) I've never taken a longer test than this.

This istaken.

PRESENT

PRESENT SIMPLE

f- This exercise was easy.

- long-term situations I **live** in France. **Does** he work in the US? - Routine activities *She goes to work by car*. When do you have English lessons? - Feelings and opinions Do you like jazz? I **agree** with you. - Facts Tickets cost £20. Spring **begins** on March 21st. PRESENT be + V-ing - Activities happening now They' re watching TV. - Temporary situations and activities I'm driving to work this week. - Present trends People are working long hours. - Fixed future arrangements She 's flying to New York next week. Exercises (N1) Put in the correct form of the verb (present simple or present be + V-ing) 1) Vegetarians are people who (not eat) meat. 2) Look out! My husband (come) 3) Some people think the sun(go) round the earth. 4) I (play) tennis every weekend. 5) "What (you / look) at?" " A strange bird." 6) I (stay) with John for a few weeks until my flat's ready. 7) We usually (stay) with Peggy when we go to Chicago. 8) I (play) badminton with Matthew tomorrow. 9) Scientists (believe) the weather (change) Write the negative form of the sentence. a-I went to London. b- He did his exam. c- They sent us the information. d- I watched TV last night. e- We were sure about the answer.

Complete the text with the past simple form of the verbs in the box.

| Live - | invent - | work - | σn – 1 | ise – sta | rt – wan | t – mak | e – chan | e - he |
|--------|----------|--------|---------------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|---------|
| LIVC - | mvcm – | WOIK - | 20 – t | isc – sta | ıı — wan | ıı — man | c – chan | בע - טכ |

| Henry Ford was born in Dearborn, Michigan in 1863. He (a) |
|---|
| farming area and (b) to a small local school. When he was young he was |
| very interested in machines. This was not very common at the time because farmers (c) |
| |
| Edison company and in the evenings he worked in a small garage. He |
| (e) to make a car. In 1896 he (f) |
| his first car. |
| From 1896 to 1905 Henry Ford produced about 15 cars. These cars were very expensive. In 1912 Ford |
| (g) producing cars for \$600. This was very cheap and many people |
| bought his cars. This completely (h) American society as a new |
| generation of younger people started to travel more. |
| Using special manufacturing techniques, Ford (i) |
| production'. As a result, by 1914 there (j) over half a million Ford cars in |
| America. |
| |
| Match the two halves of the sentences. Then put in the correct form of the verb in brackets (). |
| Ad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 0- My auntis staying (stay)with us this week |
| 1- I (go) to work by bike this week. |
| 2- My father (take) some medicine |
| 3- Anna is not in the office this week. |
| 4- Pauline needs some exercise. |
| 5- Weeat in a restaurant this week. |
| 6- Jill doesn't feel well |
| 7- Tom (study) more now. |
| |
| a- so he can't drink beer. |
| b- because she(work) at home. |
| c- so she (stay) at home today. |
| d- so Iam sleepingin the living-room. |
| e- because our oven is broken. |
| f- because he wants to get a good mark. |
| g- because I haven't got money for petrol. |
| h- so he(walk) to school this week. |

| Complete the question with do, does, did. |
|--|
| a you go to the cinema yesterday? |
| b you live in the USA? No, I don't. |
| c you watch TV last night? |
| dshe finish the project? No, she didn't. |
| e you smoke? On, I don't. |
| f he go to London last month? |
| g they speak French? No, they don't. |
| h you go to university before starting work. |
| Complete the sentences with the Present Simple (I do) or the Present Continuous (I am doing) |
| 1) I (leave) home at 7 o'clock every morning. |
| 2) She usually (work) in the Sales Department in London , but at the moment she |
| |
| (do) a training course in Bristol. |
| 3) Linda (wash) her hair every day. |
| 4) He (try) very hard in every game that he (play). |
| 5) Excuse me, I think that you (sit) in my seat. |
| 6) (you/ listen) to the radio very often? |
| 7) Don't talk to me now. I (write) an important letter. |
| 8) Why (they:/ drive) on the left in England? |
| 9) It usually (rain) here a lot, but it |
| (not/rain) now. |
| 10) A: What are you doing? |
| B: I |
| (I/do) something wrong? |
| 3)Write the sentences using the Present Simple or the Present Continuous. |
| 1)You/not/eat/very much at the moment. Are you ill? → |
| 2) She/know/three words in Italian! → |
| 3) I:take/the bus to work this week, but usually I /walk. → |
| 4) I/not/ remember / the name of the hotel. → |
| 5) you/watch/the television at the moment? → |

PAST SIMPLE

| 4) | |
|-----|---------------|
| | Formation: |
| | , i oi manom. |

1) We form the Past Simple of REGULAR VERBS by adding **-ed** to the verb:

walk→ walked watch→ watched open→opened ask→ asked

There are some exceptions:

►verbs ending with –e:

+-d live \rightarrow lived like \rightarrow liked

►verbs ending with a consonant and -y:

-y → -ied apply→ applied try→ tried

► verbs ending with one vowel and one consonant (one syllable verbs and two syllable verbs stressed on the second syllable)

We double the final consonant:

plan \rightarrow planned stop \rightarrow stopped We do <u>not</u> double the consonant when it is: y, w or x allow \rightarrow allowed enjoy \rightarrow enjoyed

Many verbs have AN IRREGULAR PAST SIMPLE FORM:

do→ did take→ took buy→ bought

2) We form THE NEGATIVE with didn't and the infinitive:

I didn't understand.

3) We form OUESTIONS with did and the infinitive:

Did you watch the film last night?

2) PRONUNCIATION

There are three ways to pronounce -ed.

[d][t][id]livedlikedinvitedopenedtalkeddecided

washed

3) USE:

1) We use the Past Simple to talk about <u>an action or situation in the past</u> which is <u>finished</u>. We often say when it happened.

Chris **phoned** me **yesterday**. He **wanted** to ask me something.

2) We can use the Past Simple with **for** to talk about something that continued for a period of time, and ended in the past.

I **lived** in Rome **for two years**. Then I went to work in Japan.

| Exercises 1) Complete the sentences using the Past Simple and the words in brackets. |
|--|
| 1) I (go) on holiday to Scotland. |
| 2) We(take) a taxi from the airport to the city centre. |
| 3) The man in the shop(say) something to the woman, but she (not / hear) him. |
| 4) We (walk) to the park and we (play) tennis. |
| 5) A:(you / understand) the film? |
| B: No, I (try) to understand it, but the actors |
| (speak) very quickly. |
| 6) A: (you/enjoy) the festival? |
| B: Yes. It (not / rain and we (listen) to some good music. |
| |
| Make sentences using the words given and the correct form of the Past Simple. |
| Example: (When / you / leave / the party?) \rightarrow When did you leave the party? |
| 1) (When / you / finish / your exams?) |
| 2) (I /wait / for an hour, but he / not / phone) |
| 3) (you / watch / the news on TV last night?) |
| 4) (He / ask / me /a question, but I /not / know / the answer) |
| |
| Use the prompts and a verb from the box to write past simple questions. (N1) |
| Read – walk – pay – give – eat – buy – win – go – study - play |
| 1) you / swimming vesterday? → Did you go swimming yesterday? |

| 1) you / swimming yesterday? → Did you go swimming yesterday? |
|---|
| 2) she / pizza last night? → |
| 3) they / tennis? → |
| 4) your teacher / you a test? → |
| 5) you / for the exam? → |
| 6) we / the bill? → |
| 7) your sister / you a present? → |
| 8) you / that book? → |
| 9) they / the game? → |
| 10) he / to the library? → |

PAST SIMPLE AND PAST be + V-ing - Exercises

| 1 |) Underl | line the | correct | form. |
|---|----------|----------|---------|-------|
| | | | | |

- 1) Dave *arrived / was arriving* at Sue's house at 19.30, but she wasn't there. She *did / was doing* some shopping at the supermarket.
- 2) At this time last week, we lay / were lying on a beach in the sun.
- 3) A: I *phoned / was phoning* you yesterday after school. Where were you? B: Oh. My mobile was off because I *rehearsed / was rehearsing* for the concert on Saturday.
- 4) I *watched / was watching* the episode on TV when the electricity went off. Can you tell me what *happened / was happening*?
- 5) What a coincidence! When you called / were calling I thought / was thinking about you.
- 6) The Titanic crossed / was crossing the Atlantic when it hit / was hitting an iceberg.
- 7) My uncle lived / was living in Berlin for two years. In fact he lived / was living there in 1999 when the Berlin wall came down.

| Use the prompts to write past continuous sentences about what Mr Jones did yesterday. |
|---|
| a-08.15/have/breakfast |
| b- O8.45/ read/a newspaper |
| c- 09.45/ wash/his car |
| d- 10.30/listen/music |
| e- 11.45/swim |
| f- 12.45/cook/lunch |
| g- 13.30/have/rest |
| h- 15.00/watch/TV |
| Use the prompts to write a past continuous question. |
| a-what/he/do/when you saw him? |
| |
| b- what/you/do/at 11.00? |
| |
| c- what/she/wear/last night? |
| |
| d- it/rain/when you went out? |
| |
| e- you/have/lunch/at 12.30? |
| |
| f- what/you/do/this time yesterday? |
| |

PRESENT PERFECT

We form the Present Perfect using the present tense of $\mathbf{have} + \mathbf{a}$ past participle. We use the Present perfect:

- to talk about recent actions

She's eaten her dinner.

- To talk about something that happened in the past, but we do not say exactly when it happened:

I've sailed across the Atlantic.

He's seen this film before. (=before now)

We often use the Present Perfect in this way for things that happened in the past, and that have a result now:

I've seen this film before. I don't want to see it again now.

We often use the Present Perfect with ever (= at any time) and never (= at no time)

Have you ever met a famous person?

He has **never** worked in a factory.

We can use the Present perfect with **for** and **since** to talk about situations or **actions** in a period of time from the past until now. We use **for** with a period of time (**for** three months), and **since** with a point in time(**since** Tuesday)

Gone and been *He's been to Paris* = He is now at home again.

Six of these sentences are incorrect. Write them correctly.

He's gone to Paris. = He is in Paris now.

Exercises

| • |
|---|
| a-I have finished my work at two o'clock. |
| Correct/Incorrect: |
| b- I have worked here for three years. |
| Correct/Incorrect: |
| c- Have you see that film last night? |
| Correct/Incorrect: |
| d- The minister has visited the school twice. |
| Correct/Incorrect: |
| e- "Where's John?" "He's been to visit a client." |
| Correct/Incorrect: |
| f- I haven't seen you at the party on Friday. |
| Correct/Incorrect: |
| g- Mr Jones has arrived. |
| Correct/Incorrect: |
| h- The weather has been very bad last week. |
| Correct/Incorrect: |
| i- He lives here for five years now. |
| Correct/Incorrect: |

Complete the sentences with for or since.

- 1) Kathy has been off school last Thursday.
- 2) Graham has had his own PC a few months now.
- 3) We haven't had a holiday..... Easter.
- 4) The school has had that old microscope years.
- 5) I have known her three months.
- 6) I haven't painted the living room I moved in.

Rewrite these sentences in the present perfect. Use the verb in brackets.

- 1) I met him at school. (know)
- 2) Jane arrived here an hour ago. (be)
- 3) You bought that mobile last year. (have)

PAST PERFECT

We form the Past Perfect with **had** and the past participle of a verb (e.g.started, taken)

I had taken it OR I'd taken it.

They had not started OR They hadn't started.

Look at this sentence:

Jenny flew to Rome last year. She had never been on a plane before.

When we talk about an event or a situation in past time we use the Past Simple (e.g. **flew**); if we talk about an event before that time, we use the Past Perfect (e.g. **had been**).

We didn't need to queue because I had already bought the tickets.

If we talk about a series of past events in order, we use the Past Simple:

- A: I saw a beautiful bird in my garden.
- B: *I* went to get my camera.
- C: The bird **flew** away.
- D: I returned with my camera.

We need the Past Perfect to make it clear that one of the events is not in order:

- D: *I* returned with my camera.
- C: The bird **had** already **flown** away.

Also compare these sentences using when:

Past Simple: When I returned with my camera the bird flew away. (= it went after I returned)
Past Perfect: when I returned with my camera the bird **had flown** away. (= it went before I returned)

The Past Perfect is used in reported speech:

"I have suffered from asthma for many years."

→She told the doctor that she had suffered from asthma for many years.

Exercises

| Complete the sentences with one verb in the past simple and the other in the past perfect. |
|---|
| 1) They even though we them a special invitation. (not |
| come – send) |
| 2) It a good story but I it before. (be – hear) |
| 3) We |
| 4) As soon as we |
| Look at this narrative of a day at school. |
| I left home early and finished my homework at school. I had a hard morning, with tests in maths and |
| English, then at lunchtime I got a surprise. |
| Now the narrative starts at lunchtime and looks back. Complete with the right tense(s) |
| It was lunchtime and I was tired. I (leave) home early and |
| (finished) my homework at school. I (have) a hard morning, with tests in maths |
| and English. Then I got a surprise. |
| Now complete the following narrative, using the past simple or past perfect of the following verbs: |
| Ask, choose, tell, be, be, rush, happen |
| I got a message from the headmaster. Earlier in the week, the local TV station him to send a |
| student to appear in a quiz show. After talking to several teachers, he me. |
| He me, I going to represent the school. I So excited, I |
| hoe as fast as I could to tell my parents what |

THE FUTURE

A. Making predictions

We can use will + bare infinitive to express predictions or beliefs about the future

World temperatures will rise.

I'm sorry, but things won't get any better.

We often introduce predictions with *I think...will* or *I don't thinkwill*

I think the DVD *will disappear* in ten years.

I don't think money will become obsolete.

We can also use to be + going + bare infinitive to make predictions.

World temperatures are going to rise.

In situations where we are sure about the future because of something we seein the present, we use *going to* to make predictions, not *will*.

Look at those big black clouds! There's going to have a storm.

B. Plans and decisions

We can use *will, going to* and the present continuous to express decisions about future actions. We can use present simple for future events if they are parts of a timetable.

-We use *going to* when we have decided to do something, that is, when we are talking about our intentions or plans.

I'm going to buy a laptop so I can work on the train.

-We use present continuous to talk about future arrangements and plans, especially when they involve other people and have a time and date.

I'm going to see my tutor about my tests results. (My intention – perhaps, the tutor doesn't know) *I'm seeing* my tutor about my tests results on Monday at nine. (An arrangement with the tutor)

When future events are parts of a schedule we use present simple.

The train leaves at 11.25 and arrives at 12.35.

-We use will to show our intentions and attitudes towards other people or to express a desire or willingness to do things when :

a- reacting to present situations (making decisions at the moment of speaking)

"I can't do this" "Don't worry, I'll help you."

b- making threats or promises.

The next time you do that I'll send you out of the room.

c- making requests.

Will you carry this for me, please?

We use *shall* with *I* or *we* in question forms to:

a- make a request for advice.

What shall I tell him?

b- make a suggestion or an offer.

Shall we **go** to the cinema tonight?

Exercises

| (N1) Paul has decided what he is going to do in his life. Complete the sentences, using short forms |
|---|
| of be going to and the verbs in brackets. |
| 1) I (study) music at university. |
| 2) I (not / work) in an office. |
| 3) I (marry) Barbara. |
| 4) We (have) eleven boys. |
| 5) They (become) a football team. |
| 6) My wife (not / cook) or clean. |
| (N1) Keiko is Japanese. She's going to spend a week by the sea. Ask her some questions. Use be |
| going to, the verbs in brackets, and the following words. |
| an umbrella – in a luxury hotel – to a disco – in the sea – golf every day |
| 1) (play) → <i>Are you</i> ? |
| 2) (take)? |
| 3) (swim)? |
| 4) (go)? |
| 5) (stay)? |
| (N1) Use the following verbs with will or won't to complete these dialogues. Use short forms of will |
| where you can. take – be - win - phone – make |
| 1) A: Are you coming to the cinema on Sunday? |
| B: I'm not sure. I you on Saturday. |
| 2) A: Don't change your clothes now. We late. |
| B: No, we won't. We a taxi. |
| 3) A: Shethe tennis match tomorrow. |
| B: Why not? |
| A: She mistakes. She always makes mistakes in important matches. |
| What is your opinion? Use the prompts to write sentences with will or won't, and possibly, |
| probably, definitely. |
| 1) new medicines / cure Alzheimer's. \rightarrow New medicines genetics will probably cure Alzheimer's. |
| 2) a computer / recognize the human voice. |
| 3) cars / use water / fuel |
| 4) people / want robots to check their health. |
| 5) GPS / help fight crime. |

| Co | mj | plete the sentences, using the words in brackets and 'll or a form of be going to. | | | | |
|----|-----|---|--|--|--|--|
| 1 | A: | A: What (you / eat) tonight? What food have you bought? | | | | |
| | В: | I haven't bought any food. | | | | |
| | A: | Well, why don't you come to my house? (I / cook) us something nice | | | | |
| to | eat | i. | | | | |
| 2 | A | : I'm going to the town centre tomorrow | | | | |
| | E | 3: Oh, what (you / get)? | | | | |
| | P | A:(I / look) for a T-shirt and some jeans. | | | | |
| | E | 3: I'd like to go to the centre too (I / come) with you. | | | | |
| 3 | P | A: (I / leave) work late tomorrow. There is a meeting at 6p.m. | | | | |
| | | 3: Oh, I didn't know that. Well, | | | | |
| | | | | | | |
| Pu | t t | he verb in brackets in the most suitable form using will, going to or the present continuous. | | | | |
| 1) | A | What are your plans for this evening? | | | | |
| | В | We (see) | | | | |
| 2) | A | Do you want to go out for a meal next week? | | | | |
| | В | Yes, that would be nice. What about Wednesday? (do) | | | | |
| | | anything? | | | | |
| | | Did you see that new TV programme last night? | | | | |
| | | Yes, I expect it (be) popular for a couple of months and then people | | | | |
| | |) interest. | | | | |
| | | Have you decided what to do when you leave school? | | | | |
| | | More or less. I (have)a holiday for a couple of months and then I (start) | | | | |
| | | my university course. | | | | |
| | | Are you ready to order, sir? | | | | |
| | | I'm not sure. Oh! I know I (have) roast chicken. | | | | |
| | | I (take)you to the football match if you like. | | | | |
| | В | No, thanks dad! I've spoken to John and his dad (take)us. | | | | |
| | | Why are you turning on the TV? | | | | |
| | | I (watch)the news. | | | | |
| | | I (do)some shopping. | | | | |
| | | Are you? I haven't got any toothpaste. | | | | |
| | A | | | | | |

FUTURE AND TIME CLAUSES

The present simple is used to refer to future time in future time clauses (introduced by : *after, as, as soon as, before, by the time, until, when, while*)

When we get there, we'll have dinner.

As soon as you hear any news, will you let me know?

This can happen even if the main verb does not have a future form, provided it refers to the future. *Phone me when you arrive.*

The present perfect can also be used instead of the present simple when the completion of the event is emphasised.

When we've had a rest, we'll go out.
I' ll wait here until you have finished.

Reported speech

We use the past simple in the time clause and the conditional in the main clause.

He told me that, when he travelled to Wales, he would visit us.

Be careful

If **when** is used in a question, it can be followed with a future form.

When will the war be over?

Indirect style:

I don't know **when** he **will come**.

After: *the day / the moment/ time when* or *date + when* we can use a future form (here *when* is a relative adverb)

The time will come *when* you *will know* the truth.

Exercise

| Put each verb in brackets into a suitable verb form. All sentences refer to future time. |
|--|
| 1) When I(see) you tomorrow, I(tell) you my news. |
| 2) As soon as we(get) there, we(phone) for a taxi. |
| 3) We(wait) here until the train(stop) |
| 4) I (take).£50 from the bank when it (open) |
| 5) After you (feel) better. |

FUTURE PERFECT (will have done)

It is used for time looked back on from a future point.

By the time the exam begins, I'll have forgotten everything!

This example looks into the future to "when the exam begins" (remember that in English we use Present instead of Future in Time Clauses) and then back from there. At that future point, the speaker can say: "I have forgotten".

Future Perfect continuous (will have been doing)

By the end of the month, *I'll have been working* at this company for ten years!

We often use the Future Perfect with expressions of time such as **by** *lunch-time*, **before** then, **by the time** you have to take it back.

Will, will be doing to and will have done (N2-N3)

Will be doing

1) We use the future continuous for an action over a period of time.

Andrew can't go to the party. He'll be working all day tomorrow.

2) We also use **will be doing** for an action which will happen in the course of events because it is part of a plan or part of a schedule of future events.

The party will be starting at ten o'clock. (part of the evening's events)

More than one form is often possible. Here, we can use the present continuous too.

Will have done

We use will have done for something that will be over in the future

Practice

Paul wants to be an artist. He's reading about a famous artist called Winston Plummer.

Winston Plummer was a great artist, who had a wonderful career. He won lots of prizes before he was twenty. By the age of twenty-five he had his own exhibition. He was the subject of a TV documentary by the time he was thirty. By the age of thirty-five he had become world-famous. He made millions of pounds from his pictures before he was forty.

Paul is daydreaming about his future career. What is he thinking?

CONDITIONALS

I) REAL CONDITIONALS

Factual conditional

We use a factual conditional to express a fixed connection that exists between two events now or always. (If + present tense + present tense)

If I wash the dishes, he dries them.

The first conditional

We use the first conditional to express a likely connection between one event (if + present tense) and another possible event (will).

If your friends **don't arrive** by five, we'll leave without them.

If I see Eva, I'll tell her.

The most common modal used in the main clause is will, but we also use other modals such as can.

If we get there early, we can sit at the front.

Be careful: We do not usually put *will* in the *if*-clause unless we are using the full emphatic form to mean 'if you insist'.

If you **will** put off doing your homework, then of course you'll get bad marks. or when it is part of a polite invitation or request.:

If you'll just follow me, I'll take you to your room.

II) UNREAL CONDITIONALS

The second conditional

We use the second conditional to express a distant and unlikely connection between one imaginary event (if + past tense) and another imaginary event (would).

If I **got** *the job, I'd* **move** *to London.*

If you **lived** closer, we'd visit you more often.

The most common modal in the main clause is *would* , but we also use other modals such as *could* or *might*.

If you came in the summer, you could stay with us.

Be careful: we do not use *would* in the *if*-clause unless we are using it to express a desired outcome.

If he **would** only behave himself, **I'd take** him with me.

The third conditional

We use the third conditional to express an imaginary connection between an event that never happened (if + past perfect) and another event that also never happened (would have + past participle).

If he had called me, I would have helped him. (= he did not call me. I did not help him) The most common modal is *would* but we can also use *might* or *could*.

If she had asked us, we might have known how to fix it.

Mixed unreal conditionals

In hypothetical conditionals, instead of connecting an imaginary event to a possible present or future event using *would*, we can connect it to a possible past event with *would have*

If we were rich, we would have offered to help those poor people who were suffering. In counterfactual conditionals, instead of connecting an imaginary past event to another past event using would have, we can connect it to a present event or situation using would.

If your parents had not met, we wouldn't be sitting here now.

Exercises

| (N1) Complete these sentences with $if + Present \ simple + will / won't$ using the words in brackets. |
|--|
| Sometimes you do not need to change the words in brackets. |
| 1) If (it / rain), (we / not / go) out. |
| 2) If (she / post) the letter now, |
| (they / receive) it tomorrow. |
| 3) If (the weather / be) nice tomorrow, |
| (we / drive) to the coast. |
| (N1/N2) 2 nd Conditional. Complete the sentences. |
| 1) If Sally lived in Brighton, she (be) near her parents. |
| 2) Fred would read more if he(not / work) so hard. |
| 3) Susan wouldn't go to work by car if she (live) near the station. |
| 4) If Pete didn't live in a flat, he (have) a dog. |
| 5) If Mark wanted to be healthy, he (not / smoke) |
| (N1/N2) 3 rd Conditional. Complete these sentences. |
| 1) Why didn't you phone? If I (know) you were coming. I (meet) |
| you at the airport. |
| 2) I wouldn't have got wet if I (have)an umbrella with me. |
| 3) If you had told me, I (help)you. |
| 4) Sure your letter hasn't arrived yet. If it (come) |
| it. |
| Make conditional sentences for each of the following situations. |
| 1) I didn't have enough money. I didn't take a taxi. |
| 2) I don't know Jason's phone number. I can't tell him what happened. |
| 3) We took the wrong turning so we arrived late. |
| 4) You spent so much money that you are angry now. |
| 5) He works too hard. That's why he always looks so tired. |
| 6) I haven't got a road map, so I can't help you with directions. |
| Write a second sentence so that it has a similar meaning to the first. Begin with the word(s) given. |
| 1) I haven't got a key, so I can't get in. If |
| 2) The baby didn't cry, so we had a good sleep. If |
| 3) I didn't have an umbrella with me so I got wet. I wouldn't |
| 4) Throw a stone into the water and it sinks. If |
| 5) You should have started your project earlier. You're so far behind. If |
| 6) Michael didn't buy the book because he didn't have any money. If |
| 7) You don't write to your friends because you are so busy. If |

LES AUXILIAIRES MODAUX

INTRODUCTION: LES DEUX VALEURS DES MODAUX.

Tous les modaux ont deux valeurs. Parfois, le contexte seul permet d'identifier la valeur du modal.

1)La valeur 1 : la modalité s'applique au sujet de l'énoncé . Ce sens regroupe des notions telles que la permission (may), l'obligation (must), la capacité (can), la volonté (will). L'énonciateur peut également souligner certaines propriétés du sujet de l'énoncé, ou une certaine attitude de celui-ci (capacité, volonté, ect)

It's late now, you must go

2) La valeur 2 : la modalité s'applique à l'ensemble de l'énoncé. Ce sens regroupe les notions du probable (may), de l'impossible (can't), de la quasi-certitude (must) ect ... L'énonciateur exprime un jugement de probabilité sur l'événement. Ce jugement peut aller du plus ou moins certain, exprimer le possible, l'éventuel, le quasi-certain ect...

Bob's not here this morning, he <u>must</u> be ill.

LES PRINCIPAUX MODAUX DANS LEUR VALEUR 1

1) shall - should

shall exprime la <u>contrainte</u> (émanant souvent de la loi)

You shall not kill

appliqué à we, à la forme interrogative, il exprime la suggestion

Shall we go now?

should (qui est la forme passée de shall) exprime le conseil ou la suggestion

You should buy a new car

Should have+ participe passé exprime le reproche

You should have told the truth

2) must

must exprime <u>l'obligation</u> qui pèse sur le sujet et qui est imposée ou assumée par celui qui parle (lorsqu'on s'adresse à *you*, l'énoncé est proche de l'ordre)

You must get up early

must et le passé: on n'emploie pas must pour exprimer l'obligation au passé; on emploie **have to** *They had to sell their house last year.*

. Le seul cas ou l'on trouve **must** dans un contexte passé est le style indirect

He felt he must make a decision

mustn't (must not) La négation porte sur le verbe. On oblige quelqu'un à faire quelque chose .On exprime une interdiction(= "obligation de ne pas")

You must keep it secret. You <u>mustn't</u> tell anybody.

needn't / don't have to:Si on veut nier l'obligation(= ce n'est pas la peine de) on emploie needn't ou don't have to

We've got plenty of time. We needn't / don't have to hurry.

3) may-might

may exprime la permission, l'autorisation.

May I speak to Mr Llewellyn?

Dans un anglais moins formel can est utilisé à la place de may dans ce sens.

may peut aussi exprimer la possibilité pour le sujet et dans ce cas il est proche de **can** (c'est un emploi fréquent dans les textes techniques)

The jug may be made of aluminium or steel

might est le passé de may. La valeur de permission est atténuée

4) can-could

can exprime la <u>capacité du sujet</u>. **Can't** exprime <u>l'impossibilité (ou l'incapacité</u>) pour le sujet de faire l'action .

I hope I can fill the job

I can see.../ I can hear...Après les verbes de perception **can** renvoie à la faculté qu'a le sujet de voir ou d'entendre dans une situation particulière. On ne traduit pas **can**.

Could est le passé de can. Il peut exprimer :

1-la capacité dans le passé (style direct ou style indirect)

Now, I <u>can</u> still play golf but I <u>could</u> play rugby in those days

2-l'incapacité dans une situation imaginée

I <u>couldn't</u> kill him even if I wanted.

5) will-would

will exprime la volonté, le bon-vouloir du sujet, won't exprime le refus.

"<u>Will</u> you marry me?

She won't sign this letter..

would est le passé de will

would : comportement caractéristique, would « fréquentatif »

Would exprime un comportement caractéristique du sujet dans le passé ; il signifie souvent l'habitude. On le traduit par un imparfait.

My grandmother would have a small glass of wine before going to bed.

MODAUX ET « EQUIVALENTS »

have (to + V)- be allowed (to + V)- be able (to + V)

Certains verbes expriment des notions proches de celles exprimées par les modaux. On a souvent recours à ces expressions au <u>passé</u> et au <u>futur</u>. Mais à la différence des modaux ces <u>expressions non modales</u> excluent la relation entre celui qui parle et le sujet de l'énoncé; elles excluent donc toute prise de position de celui qui parle et présentent donc la permission, l'obligation sous l'angle de de la simple constatation ou comme une réalité objective. Au présent on emploie ces équivalents si on veut exprimer cette objectivité.

You have to wear trousers to visit St Paul's.

Ces expressions ne peuvent être les équivalents des modaux que dans leur sens 1 (valeur radicale)

have (to + V) exprime l'obligation

be allowed (to + V) exprime la permission

be able (to +V) exprime la capacité du sujet, son aptitude objective

LES PRINCIPAUX MODAUX DANS LEUR VALEUR 2

Dans leur valeur 2 les modaux permettent à celui qui parle d'exprimer un degré de certitude quant à l'énoncé qu'il propose.

1) Probabilité d'un fait présent, passé ou futur

Ce n'est <u>pas</u> le modal qui permet de situer le fait dans le présent, le le passé ou l'avenir. C'est <u>la forme du verbe qui le suit</u>

-Fait passé

Lorsqu'on exprime un jugement de probabilité sur un acte passé (« il se peut que cela se soit produit ») on utilise **have + participe passé** que l'on place après le modal

I've lost one of my gloves. I <u>must have dropped</u> it somewhere.

-Fait présent

Avec les verbes de d'action la forme $\mathbf{Be} + \mathbf{ing}$ peut permettre selon les modaux de situer l'action dans le présent (les verbes d'état ne peuvent pas se mettre à la forme $\mathbf{Be} + \mathbf{ing}$)

I don't want to phone now. They must be sleeping.

Fait futur

Lorsque le verbe qui suit le modal se présente sous forme de base verbale il est possible que l'action soit située dans le futur. C'est souvent le contexte qui nous renseigne.

According to the radio, it may rain tomorrow.

- 2) Degrés de probabilité
- -Probabilité faible
- -Forme affirmative :might could

The chances are against him, but who knows? He might win

To talk about the theorical possibility of something happening we use **could**, not **can**. However, we use can, not could, to say that something is possible and actually happens. Compare:

It **could** be expensive to keep a cat. (= if we had one, it could or it may not be expensive) It can be expensive to keep a cat. (=it can be, and it sometimes is)

- -Probabilité movenne
- -forme affirmative et négative : may may not

He may come at 9 o'clock

- -Probabilité forte
- On emploie must

You've been travelling all day. You must be tired

On emploie can't (et non PAS must not) lorsqu'on est certain que quelque chose est impossible Lorsque la certitude s'applique à un énoncé négatif ou lorque le probable est nié

Tom walked straight into the wall. He <u>can't</u> have been looking where he was going.

- -NB: Nécessité dans la probabilité: should
- -Après "suppose" pour exprimer une hypothèse improbable mais envisageable Suppose he <u>should</u> come (= imagine qu'il vienne)
- -Après certaines expressions:"there's no reason why", " it is strange that ...", "it is natural that..." etc There no reason why he should tell her!

Exercises

| | Fill the gaps in | n the sentences | with must, | mustn't, | needn't . | , shouldn't or | should |
|--|------------------|-----------------|------------|----------|-----------|----------------|--------|
|--|------------------|-----------------|------------|----------|-----------|----------------|--------|

- 1) We've run out of paperclips. I get some more in the morning. 2) You finish that report tonight if you're too tired. Midday tomorrow is the deadline. 3) What are you doing here? you be at the meeting downtown? 4) He really have told his brother about his deal. It was supposed to be absolutely confidential. 5)You clean the office because we haven't been using it today, but could you tidy
- the shelves in the storeroom, please?
- 6) Youmake so much noise. We'll be asked to leave otherwise.
- 7) I'm going to be in trouble. I have posted these yesterday and I completely forgot.
- 8) You have typed this a handwritten note would have been quite adequate.
- 9) The meeting's finished. Wefind out what's been decided any moment now.

Rewrite these sentences using must or can't

- 1) I'm sure she is at home =
- 2) I know that isn't Janet She's in America =
- 3) I bet I look silly in that coat =
- 4) I'm sure he didn't phone yesterday =
- 5) I'm sure he gave her some money =

Translate into English using a modal or an equivalent

- 1) Il se peut qu'il ne vienne pas. Il n'aime pas sortir.
- 2) Il se pourrait même qu'il se fâche.

8) How stupid of you to have left her!

- 3) Elle est probablement sortie acheter quelque chose à manger.
- 4) Il se peut que j'ai fait une erreur.
- 5) Vous avez dû avoir peur!

7) I want you to listen to me!

- 6) Le mur était tellement sale qu'il a dû le nettoyer
- 7) J'aurais dû vous prevenir.
- 8) Il a dû y avoir une erreur.
- 9) Il est venu à la maison si bien que je n'ai pas eu à lui téléphoner.
- 10) Puis-je m'en aller maintenant?
- 11) Il te faudra arrêter de fumer.
- 12) Je ne pense pas que nous aurons l'autorisation de lui parler.
- 13) Il se peut qu'il m'appelle ce soir.

EXPRESSING PURPOSE

- To

We can use the to-infinitive to express purpose.

Melanie was hurrying to catch the bus.

- In order to or so as to

We can also use **in order to** or **so as to** which are more formal than **to**.

The government took these measures **in order to** reduce crime.

The staff are working at weekends **so as to** complete the project in time.

We can use the negative **in order not to** or **so as not to** but we cannot use **not to** on its own.

- So that

After so that we use a subject and verb.

I'll post the card today **so that** it gets there on Daniel's birthday.

We often use will or can for a present purpose and would or could for a past purpose.

I'll give you a map **so that** you **can** find the way.

- To or for

We use **for** with a noun to say why we do something.

The whole family have gone **for** a bike ride.

To talk about the purpose of a thing, we use either a to-infinitive or a **for**+an ing-form.

This machine is used to cut / for cutting plastic.

But we do NOT use **for**+ an ing-form to talk about a specific action.

I put the heater **to keep** *the plants warm (for keeping the plant warm would NOT be correct)*

- For with the to-infinitive

We can use this structure to say why something is done.

The shop provides baskets **for** the customers **to put** their purchases in.

(see : Those products are beamed to eye-level billboards for the teenagers to see)

Exercises

Comment on what each person says. Use the words in brackets. Examples:

Iona: I'm learning English. I want to get a better job. (to) Iona is learning English to get a better job.

Vicky: I'm saving up. I'm planning a holiday.(for) Vicky is saving for a holiday.

1) Nick: I keep a dog. It guards the house. (to)

a - There are a lot of activities.

- 2) David: I'm going to be very careful. Then I won't have an accident. (so that)
- 3) Trevor: I often switch off the heating. It saves money. (to)
- 4) Sarah: I had to go to Birmingham. I had a business meeting. (for)
- 5) Emma: I wore boots because I didn't want my feet to get wet. (so that)
- 6) Jessica: I'm going on a diet. I want to lose weight. (to)

Write the advertisement for a holiday centre. Match the sentence pairs and write sentences with for and a to-infinitive Example:1) a+III: There are a lot of activities for guests to take part in.

I) you can enjoy them.

b - There's a fun pool.

c - There are quiet areas.

d - There are regular shows.

II) you can relax in them.

III) guests can take part in them.

IV) you can ride on it if you dare.

e - There's a giant roller-coaster. V) children can swim in it.

LA VOIX PASSIVE

LA VOIX PASSIVE (N1)

All passive sentences are formed in the same way. The tense of the verb *to be* changes to give the different tenses in the passive.

Subject + to be + past participle

It is made in Spain

is being sent to the cleaners.
was broken by my brother.

was being has been had been will

is going to be

USE

In the following sentences the person or the thing responsible for the action is:

- unknown Someone stole my bicycle yesterday.

-obvious They **arrested** the terrorist early this morning.

- **not important** *Someone services* the car every year.

Sometimes who or what causes an action is not important and we are not interested in what happens to a thing or a person. In the above situations the important information concerns the bicycle, the man and the car, and what happens or has happened to them. We can emphasize this using the passive.

My bicycle was stolen yesterday.

The terrorist was arrested early this morning.

The car **is serviced** every year.

If necessary we can use by to say who or what is responsible for the action.

The equipment is damaged **by** exposure to water.

The passive is more common in written than spoken English. It sounds more formal and impersonal, and for this reason is often used in

• Reports of crimes or legal procedures:

He was sentenced to two years in prison;

• Newspaper reports :

63 people were killed and 45 injured in the accident.

• Scientific writing:

Three millimetres of water **are added** to the mixture.

• Announcements :

Flight IB 302 to London is delayed by two hours.

Notices:

Customers are requested not to smoke.

- Be est l'auxiliaire de la voix passive, le verbe est au participe passé.

Be porte la marque du temps et de l'aspect.

LA VOIX PASSIVE (N2 N3)

- La voix passive place l'objet d'une action en position de sujet grammatical (en tête de phrase). Elle met l'accent sur l'objet de l'action et sur le résultat de l'action.

The murderer was arrested last night.

- Le complément d'agent (celui qui fait l'action) est introduit par by. On ne le mentionne que s'il a une importance particulière, le passif étant utilisé précisément quand on ne sait pas qui est l'auteur de l'action, qu'il est évident ou qu' il importe peu.

This beautiful castle was designed by Sir Geoffrey.

My bike has been stolen.

- La voix passive est **un choix stylistique** par rapport à la voix active. Il s'agit souvent d'un problème d'éclairage différent d'une situation.La voix active met l'accent sur l'événement. Alors que, comme il a été précisé plus haut, la voix passive met l'accent sur l'objet de l'action.

This book <u>will change</u> your life \neq Your life <u>will be changed</u> by this book.

- La voix passive est souvent utilisée dans les textes scientifiques.

The positive hydrogen atoms are attracted to the negative oxygen atoms.

- Le passif s'utilise davantage en anglais qu'en français.On emploie, par exemple, souvent le passif pour traduire le pronom «on».

An extension is being built.

Cependant les énoncés français en «on» ne correspondent pas systématiquement à une voix passive en anglais. Par exemple dans les énoncés à valeur généralisante «on» sera traduit par «one» ou par «you».

One / You should knock before going into someone's room.

Les verbes prépositionnels

On maintient la préposition à droite du verbe de la voix passive.

The doctor <u>was sent for.</u> (En français le calque est impossible: "on a demandé au médecin de venir") *My house <u>was broken into</u> when I was on holiday.*

Les verbes à deux compléments

Avec les verbes: give, allow, ask, award (award a prize), deny(deny the right to do Sth), grant, guarantee, lend, offer, promise, refuse, sell, send, show, teach, tell.

They gave her (complément d'attribution) a present.(COD)

Le complément d'attribution devient sujet:

She was given a present.

C'est la passivation la plus fréquente, car c'est un être humain qui vient en position de sujet.

Le COD devient sujet.

A present was given to her.

Le COD peut devenir sujet s'il est suffisamment déterminé.

The house was given to her est possible car on fait référence à une maison bien particulière, dans le cas d'un héritage par exemple.En revanche, il est difficilement concevable de prendre «a house» comme sujet.

Rapport de paroles et d'opinion

- On fait apparaître to à la voix passive.

They say that he is very rich. \rightarrow He is said to be very rich.

They say that he was very rich. \rightarrow He is said to have been very rich.

They said that he was very rich. \rightarrow He was said to be very rich.

They said that he had been very rich. \rightarrow He was <u>said to have been</u> very rich

- Le point de départ de ces énoncés peut être it :

It was expected that the damage would be extensive.

Au lieu de it + verbe au passif + proposition en that on peut aussi avoir :

Sujet + verbe au passif + infinitif complet

The damage <u>was expected to be</u> extensive.

Structure causative en make et verbes de perception

Là aussi on fait apparaître to à la voix passive

They made him stand up \rightarrow He was made to stand up.

They saw him take the bag. → *He was seen to take the bag.*

Valeur passive du gérondif

On trouve cette valeur après les verbes: want et need

This car <u>needs washing</u>.

This shirt wants ironing.

they are being watched. Which tense is it?

Exercises

| Both sentences in each pair have the same meaning. Complete the second sentence. | |
|---|--------------|
| The crowd was slowly filling the huge stadium. > The huge stadium | by the crowd |
| The waitress will bring your drinks in a moment. > Your drinks | in a moment. |
| The police have issued a description of the wanted man. > A description of the wanted man | a |
| You have to fill an application form. > An application form | |

Analyse the following sentence: The information commissioner warned that technology <u>was already</u> being <u>routinely used to track and record</u> the everyday activities and movements of Britons.

Make sure you know the difference between:

Used+to infinitive

Be+used+to (preposition)+gerund

Language in context, passive N3

Read the three texts that follow. The first is part of a written introduction to a TV programme (*Walk on the Wild Side*) which concerns attacks on young people and how they are affected by these attacks. The second is part of a report which describes some research into how animal metaphors are used in different languages. The third is an extract from the official document which sets out university examination regulations. Answer the questions which follow.

Text one

Mick was attacked with a cut-throat razor. Kevin was slashed by someone who jumped through his front window. Steven had his face cut by a Stanley's knife; Nick's attacker used a glass-cutter. All four victims bravely talk about their feelings and how their lives and attitudes were changed by the attacks.

Text two

Examples of the results of the second questionnaire are given in the Appendix. The results challenged the widely held view that animal metaphors are largely used to describe inferior and undesirable human habits and attributes ...Although negative attributes were suggested more frequently than positive ones, many animal attributes were viewed in a very positive light, and it also appeared that many animal terms could be used, within the same culture and language group, to criticize or praise, according to context.

Text three

Every dissertation shall be typewritten, in English, with proper attention to style and presentation; it shall be sent through the candidate's Tutor to the Secretary of the Faculty Board, accompanied by a list of books and articles used in its preparation, and in accordance with the detailed arrangements approved by the Board, so as to arrive not later than the third day of the Full Easter Term in which the examination is to be held.

Questions

- a For each of these passages give a general reason why so many passive constructions are used.
- **b** Identify all the passive constructions in text one and give precise reasons for their use.
- c Which of these constructions is causative in form?
- **d** Could an active construction be used in place of any of these without significantly changing the meaning or effect of the sentences?
- **e** Could any of the auxiliary verbs used in these passive constructions be replaced by another auxiliary without significantly changing the meaning or effect of the sentences?
- f This passage contains three instances of *by* and one of *with*. Could any of these prepositions be replaced with the other (e.g. using *by* instead of *with*) without significantly changing the meaning or effect of the sentences?
- **g** Re-write text three as if you were speaking to someone informally. How many passive constructions do you use in the re-telling?

LE STYLE INDIRECT

Remarque: Lorsqu'on transforme un énoncé au style indirect une interprétation de la valeur des énoncés est nécessaire. Il ne suffit pas toujours de «transférer» les formes verbales dans le passé, transformation du type: "Paul is looking at you" → He told her that Paul was looking at her

Exemple: la phrase:"Why don't you go to bed?" deviendra au style indirect: She advised him to go to bed

La transformation du discours direct au discours indirect entraîne des changements dans: les pronoms personnels et adjectifs possessifs utilisés, les formes verbales, les marqueurs de temps (et parfois les marqueurs de lieu) et dans l'ordre des mots.

Phrases interrogatives

-Questions en Yes / No.

"Are you coming?" \rightarrow He asked me whether (if) I was coming (or not).

-Questions ouvertes (Wh-questions)

"Where is your daughter"? → He asked me where my daughter was.

"How old are you?" → they wanted to know how old I was.

A la différence du français, on n'opère <u>pas d'inversion sujet-verbe</u> au style indirect_en anglais.

Phrases exclamatives et à l'impératif

Il faut interpréter le sens de l'énoncé au style direct pour choisir correctement le verbe qui introduit la phrase au style indirect.

"Hello! What a beautiful suit!" \rightarrow He greeted me and remarked what a beautiful suit I had. "You liar!!" \rightarrow He called me a liar.

Formes verbales qui introduisent le style indirect

Say et tell

Say est suivi d'une proposition en that qui rapporte des paroles

"I'll be late" \rightarrow She <u>said</u> that she would be late.

Tell est toujours suivi d'un complément (me, her...)

She told me(that) she would be late.

Exemples d'autres formes verbales:

Conseil, pression: advise:, suggest, had better, should, insist, urge...

Confirmation et contradiction: *admit (to) + ing, deny + ing...*

Order: order Etc

Transformation du prétérit au style indirect passé

a-Transformation du prétérit en pluperfect

Le prétérit devient pluperfect au style indirect passé lorsque le verbe renvoie à un événement spécifique et ponctuel

"I met Helen yesterday" → He said he had seen Helen the day before

b-Maintien du prétérit au style indirect

1-Lorsque le contexte indique la fréquence.

" he often saw her in those days"→ He said that he often saw her in those days.

2- Lorsque le verbe décrit un état

" I didn't phone because the phone was out of order" \rightarrow He said that he had not phoned because the telephone was out of order.

3- Dans une subordonnée de temps.

"I met her once when I was in Paris" \rightarrow He said that he had met her once when he was in Paris.

4-Lorsque le prétérit a valeur modale

"I wish he were back" \rightarrow She said she wished he were back.

Marqueurs de temps

Yesterday → the day before
Tomorrow → the next day, the following day
Next week → the following week
Last week → the week before
A year ago → a year before
Now, then → there, this time, that time

Le style indirect libre

Il est très fréquent chez les auteurs anglophones, il maintient à l'intérieur du discours indirect des formes appartenant au style direct. Il permet d'insérer le discours du personnage dans le récit sans qu'il y ait de véritable rupture.

Exemple The young man's name was Eddy Littlejohn, but over dinner he said, look here, would they call him Ginger; everyone else did. So they began to call him Ginger, and he said wouldn't it be a good idea if they had another bottle of fizz, and Nina and Adam said yes, it would. (Evelyn Waugh, Vile Bodies)

Exercises

N2 Use the questions to complete the second sentence.

8) A historic event happened in 1066. Have you any idea what?

9) The computer is broken. Do you know why?

10) Manuela is having a party. I can't remember when.

| 1)Where is his school? |
|--|
| →You haven't told mewhere his school is |
| 2) What time does the class usually finish? →Do you know |
| 3) Will he bring us any presents? →I wonder if |
| 4) Is Sarah coming to class today? →Do you know |
| 5) How much does a computer cost? →My mum doesn't know |
| 6) How often is there a bus? →Can you tell me |
| 7) How long can I park here for? →Have you any idea |
| 8) Have you ever done anything illegal? →Will you tell me |
| 9) Why did you speak so rudely to her? →I can't imagine |
| 10) What is your teacher's name? →Could you tell me |
| Combine the two sentences in one sentence. |
| 1)He went somewhere. Do you know where?Do you know where he went |
| 2) Jane kissed someone at the party. Do you know who? |
| 3) Someone kissed Jane at the party. Do you know who? |
| 4) They are going to meet somewhere tonight. Can you remember where? |
| 5) Mr Smith said something about the exam. Can you remember what. |
| 6) We have to buy a book for the history course. I'm not sure which. |
| 7) A scientist discovered penicillin. Does your book say which? |

LINKING WORDS

LINKING WORDS (N1)

I)CONJUNCTIONS

A conjunction definition

1) To express a cause: because, as

Because shows that the idea after the conjunction is the cause of the other idea;

I lost my job **because** I was often late.

As is a more formal word for because;

As I didn't know anyone at the party, I went home.

So and because / as

So, because and as are conjunctions which show relationships of cause and result. Compare:

result \rightarrow cause We didn't go to the match **because** /as we had to study. cause \rightarrow result We had to study so we didn't go to the match.

2) To express a contrast: although, though, even though

Although expresses a contrast between ideas. Though is informal, it means the same as although.

Although it was hot, he was wearing a coat.

Even though expresses extra emphasis between contrasting ideas.

I failed the exam **even though** I studied for it.

II) ADVERBIALES

Defintion de adverbiale

1) To express contrasts: however, on the other hand

Science can explain a lot of things. **On the other hand** there are many things we don't understand **PHRASE AVEC however**

2) To mean 'because of this': as a result

It was raining and all the buses were full. **As a result**, we were late for the match.

3) To give examples: for example, for instance

We can put *for example* and *for instance* at the beginning of the sentence but also in the middle (with a comma before and after) or at the end.

Some things are much better than in the past. **For example** education and health care have improved.

4) To modify or contradict ideas : actually, in fact

I didn't go to the film because I wasn't feeling well. **Actually**, I had a temperature of 39°. He said he was ill. **In fact**, he just wanted to stay at home.

5) To show possible consequences of something not happening :otherwise

Please be careful. **Otherwise**, you might have an accident.

6) To show sequence: then, next, finally

I got home at six and had tea. **Then** I did my homework.

7) To add new information: also, as well / too, apart from that, in addition

We usually put *also* before the verb and after the verb *to be*.

Too and as well always come at the end of a sentence or clause.

We did a lot of sightseeing in London.

We also went shopping.

We went shopping too / as well.

She was very tired. She was also very hungry.

He is very clever. **In addition / Apart from that** he is good at sport.

LINKING WORDS (N2 N3)

A) Linking words that join clauses within a sentence.

PURPOSE

-So (that)

We can use *so that* to express purpose (the reason why someone does something). *So that* is usually followed by *can could, will* or *would.*

The police locked the door **so (that)** no-one could get in.

-infinitive of purpose

We can use the infinitive to express purpose. The subject of the main clause and the purpose clause must be the same.

Jack went to England to study engineering.

If the two subjects are different, we can't use the infinitive of purpose; we have to use so that.

Jack went to England so that his brother would have some help working in a restaurant.

-In order to, so as to

These are more formal ways of expressing purpose.

Scientists used only local materials, in order to save money.

There are also negative forms: in order not to, so as not to.

The soldiers moved at night, so as not to alarm the villagers.

-For (+ noun or+gerund)

This describes how something is used.

This button is **for starting** the engine.

This is **for the lights**.

RESULT

-So, such a, such

So is used with an adjective or adverb.

Jim was so tall (that) he hit his head on the ceiling.

Jim drove **so quickly (that)** they reached the station twenty minutes early.

Such a is used with adjective+singular noun.

Helen is **such a busy person (that)**she never feels bored.

Such is used with adjective+plural or uncountable noun

They were **such** nice people that everybody liked them.

-so many, so much, so few, so little

So many/few are used with plural nouns. *So much/little* are used with uncountable nouns.

There **so many passengers (that)**we couldn't find a seat.

There was **so much noise (that)**I didn't get to sleep until 3 a.m.

- Too/Not enough+to

Too means more than is necessary or good. Not enough means less than is necessary or good. They can be both used with an adjective + to. Compare:

The bookcase was **too big to** get down the stair.

The bookcase was **not small enough to** get down the stairs.

CONTRAST

-Although, though, even though

Although often becomes though in speech. Though can come at the end of a sentence, although cannot.

Although I asked her, she didn't come. (speech and writing)

Though I asked her, she didn't come. (speech)

I asked her, (but) she didn't come, though. (speech)

Even though gives a stronger contrast than although.

Even though I asked her, she didn't come. (= which was really surprising)

-While, whereas

While and whereas are used in formal speech and writing. They compare two facts and emphasize the difference between them.

While(Manchester) United were fast and accurate, (Manchester) City were slow and careless.

-However, nevertheless

However is a way of expressing contrast in formal speech or writing. It can go at the beginning, middle or end of the sentence, and is separated by a comma (or a pause in speech).

Normally we don't refund money without a receipt. **However**, on this occasion I'll do it.

Normally we don't refund money without a receipt. On this occasion, however, I'll do it.

Nevertheless is a formal way of expressing *however*.

I'm not happy with your work. Nevertheless, I'm going to give you one last chance.

- Despite and in spite of

These expressions are followed by a noun (including the gerund used as a noun), and <u>not</u> by a clause (subject+verb).

In spite of the rain, we went out. (although it was raining, we went out.)

Despite losing, we celebrated. (Although we lost, we celebrated.)

REASON

- Because, as and since

As and since have the meaning of because and can begin a sentence.

As/since it was late, we decided to go home.

In formal, written language we can use for to mean because, but it cannot begin a sentence.

Peter has given up sailing, for he doesn't have time.

- Because of, on account of, due to and owing to

We can use all these words in place of because of.

Everyone was depressed **on account of/due to /owing to** the bad weather.

Note the difference:

Sue's success was due to her hard work. (noun + be + due to)

Sue **succeeded owing to** her hard work. (verb + owing to)

B) Linking words that join ideas across sentences and paragraphs: text organizers

Text organizers, which make clear the organization of what we say or write, **are more common in writing or formal speech**. They usually come at **the start of a sentence** and have **a comma** afterwards, but can come after a coma in the middle of a sentence.

-Sequencing

We often number or order the points we are making.

First (of all) ..., Secondly..., Next..., Then ..., Finally/lastly/last of all...

In narrative, the sequence of events can be introduced by:

First..., Then..., After all..., Finally/ in the end...

-Adding

We can introduce additional points.

Furthermore..., Moreover..., In addition to ..., As well as this..., Besides(this)...

-Giving opinions

We can introduce personal opinions.

Personnally..., In my own opinion/view...

-Giving examples

We can introduce examples.

For example..., For instance...

We can also use *such* as to give an example, but it is not used at the beginning of a sentence.

The factory produces electric goods, **such as** food mixers and other kitchen appliances.

-Showing a result

Part A gives some informal ways to show a result. Formal ways include:

Consequently..., As a result..., Thus...

-Making a contrast

Part A gives some informal ways to make a contrast. Formal ways include:

On the other hand..., However..., Nevertheless..., In contrast..., In comparison...

-Summarising

We can summarize all the points we have made.

In conclusion..., To sum up...

LINKING WORDS AND PHRASES

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Sue **succeeded owing to** *her hard work.* (verb + owing to)

Condition

- "If" clauses

-Type 1 conditional:

If he gets the job, he will move to Chicago.

-Type 2 conditional:

If he **got** the job, he **would move** to Chicago.

-Type 3 conditional:

If he had got the job, he would have moved to Chicago.

-Should. We can use should instead of if in a conditional sentence. It means if by any chance... and makes the action less likely.

Should you see John, can you give him a message?

- Unless, provided that, so long as, as long as, until, as soon as, once, supposing that

Unless you tell me the way, I'll get lost. (unless = if not)

Be careful:

I'll come **provided that / so long as/ as long as / once** you show me the way.

BUT: I won't come until / unless you show me the way.

OPINION

Verbs connected with beliefs and opinions: You already know think and believe; here are more.

- -I'm convinced we've met before. = very strong feeling that you are right.
- -I've always **held** that compulsory education is a waste of time. = used for very firm beliefs; **maintain** could be used here too.
- -*She* **maintains** *that we are related, but I'm not convinced.* = insists on believing, often against the evidence; **hold** could <u>not</u> be used here.
- -*I* **feel** *she should not be forced to do the job.* = strong personal opinion.
- -I **reckon** they'll get married soon. = informal, usually an opinion about what is likely to happen / to be true.
- -Mrs Bonner considers that she has been unfairly treated. = a formal word meaning to have an opinion about sth or sb after thinking carefully about them.
- -Aristotle was of the opinion that there would always be rich and poor people within society = a formal expression meaning to have a particular opinion, especially about an important matter that affects everyone.
- -I **doubt** we'll ever see total world peace. = don't believe.
- -I **suspect** a lot of people never even think about pollution when they are driving their own car. = have a strong feeling about something negative.

Phrases expressing opinion:

- -In my view (rather formal) / in my opinion
- -As far as I'm concerned: used when you think of sth in a particular way without considering what other people think
- -To my mind : fairly informal -If you asked me : informal
- -ii you asked life . iiifoffilai

Note how **point of view** is used in English:

From a teacher's **point of view**, the new exams are a disaster. (how teachers see things, or are affected)

Expressing agreement:

- -I (do) agree with you on the importance of reading.
- -I couldn't agree more!
- -Right / Quite right! / You're right! / Quite true! / How true!
- -Of course (not)!
- -Sure!

Expressing disagreement:

- -I don't agree with you on that subject / I (totally / entirely) disagree with you.
- -I'm afraid I can't agree with you.
- -I don't think so
- -Contrary to Mr Brown, I feel that it is urgent.
- **-On the contrary**, *I* **feel that** .the judge made the right decision.
- -It can't be true!
- -Surely not! / Definitely not!
- -You can't be serious!
- -This is nonsense / ludicrous / ridiculous! / stupid!

PHRASAL VERBS Verbes prépositionnels et verbes à particule

account for

Transportation still accounts for 40% of all hydrocarbon emissions. (représentent)

High humidity accounts for the difference between the two results.(*explique*)

add up

The capital requirements of developing countries will add up to a trillion dollars. (vont atteindre)

allow for

One has to allow for distribution costs. (*Il faut tenir compte*)

base on (upon)

This model is based on a throwaway cycle.(se base sur...)

bring about

The globalization of the automobile industry has brought about an unmistakable convergence in industry philosophy.(a *entraîné*)

carry on

I can only carry on one conversation at a time.(mener)

carry out

The scientists carried out DNA analysis in 1,000 criminal investigations.(ont effectué)

compensate for

It is hoped that the new car's style and design will compensate for its lack of speed. (compensera)

concern with

The remainder of this paper is concerned with predicting the effect of compartmentalisation.(s'attache \grave{a}) consist of (+ noun)

The plastic composites generally consist of resins such as polyester, epoxy, vinyl ester and urethane.(sont généralement constitués de)

consist in (+ gerund)

The test consists in checking the accurancy of the solution.(consiste à)

deduce from

The location and amount of slip can be deduced from surface measurements.(*peuvent être déduits des ...*) **depend on/upon**

The activity of the immune system depends on/upon a variety of highly specialized types of cells.(*dépend de*)

derive from

The purpose was to derive as much information as possible from a small sample. (de tirer de)

design for

The first algorithm is designed for parallel machines.(est conçu pour)

devote to

The remaining part of the paper is devoted to demonstrating...(est consacré à la démonstration) distinguish between

They could distinguish between two doughnut-shaped rings that looked and weighed the same.(*faire la distinction entre*)

draw up

Some researchers have drawn up plans for a lunar radio telescope. (ont dressé)

equip with

The potential of that industry, equipped with the tools to modify native molecules, is staggering.(*qui est doté des...*)

experiment with

Askin was experimenting with crystal. (faisait des expériences sur)

fit with

The cabin is fitted with seats, ceiling panels and overhead storage bins. (est equipée de)

focus on/upon

The team focused all their attention on finding a solution to the problem.(s'est fixé comme objectif)

hinge on/upon

The nature of the response will largely hinge on the availability of water. (dépendra en grande partie de)

infer from

Such a property could be quantitatively inferred from the analysis of Willson.(pouvait être déduite)

involve in

Another 25 companies are involved in the project. (sont impliquées dans)

make up

The atoms making up ceramics are locked together in inflexible chemical bonds.(*qui entrent dans la composition de*))

originate from

By 1938, astophysicists knew that the energy of stars must originate from nuclear processes.(*devait provenir de*)

participate in

About 50 companies participate in the project.(participent)

point out

The purpose of this note is to point out the numerical aspects of the analysis by Leblond and Mainardi.(*de mettre l'accent sur*)

prevent from

Impact catastrphes may also prevent evolution from bogging down.(peuvent aussi empêcher)

process into

Half of the bicarbonate ions are processed into calcium carbonate.(sont transformés en)

provide with

The description provides us with the necessary information.(*nous donne*)

react with

Only those cells that react with a given antigen survive and multiply.(qui réagissent à)

rely on/upon

All rely on/upon fiber-optic technology.(*repose sur*)

result from

The autoradiograph resulting from such a probe will show alleles of two distinct sizes.(issu de)

result in

Changing a neutron into a proton would result in a lighter atom.(aboutirait à)

screen out

The test was to be used only to screen out obvious mismatches.(*éliminer*)

set up

Suppliers won't set up outlets when demand for a given fuel is scare.(ouvrir)

submit to

Many practical problems in atmospheric acoustics submit to a straightforward application of geometrical acoustics. (*relèvent de*)

substitute for

If stations located in warmer places were substituted for ones at colder spots, the result would be a spurious overall warming trend.(*remplaçaient celles...*)

sum up

The main theoretical findings from the approach can be summed up in two propositions. (peuvent se résumer en)

take up

Marine organisms such as plankton and corals take up the calcium and bicarbonate ions.(absorbent)

take up

This is one of the questions we shall take up.(que nous reprendrons)

trace back

The beginning of the understanding of these mechanisms can be traced back to 1965.(*Il faut remonter* à ...pour voir)

turn out

Lotus turns out two cars a day.(produit)

turn out to

T cells, in particular, turned out to serve as a good laboratotry model of the immune response. (*s'avérèrent*)

work out

The process has been worked out in detail by Raymond Bridges.(a été étudié)

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