Grammar guide

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1 Adjectives

We use adjectives to classify or describe the qualities of something or someone. We use adjectives:
1 After the verb ‘to be’
   He is old.
   Form: to be + adjective
2 After ‘linking’ verbs such as look, seem, become and feel
   Are you OK, you look tired. No, I feel fine.
   Form: verb + adjective
3 Before nouns and pronouns
   Her new coat is beautiful.
   Form: adjective + noun

Remember:
i) Adjectives do not change according to the number or gender of the thing they describe:
   There were some young boys in the street.
ii) Adjectives come after the to describe a class or group of people:
   The rich, the unemployed, the homeless.
iii) Colour adjectives come before the noun:
   She was wearing a red dress, not a dress red.
iv) Some adjectives such as asleep, alive, afraid can only be used after a linking verb:
   The boy who was hiding in the cellar looked afraid.
   There was an afraid boy hiding in the cellar.

Which one of the following sentences is correct? Correct the rest.
1 There were four greens cars in front of their house.
2 That watch looks like expensive.
3 You look a lovely today.
4 He was feeling sad yesterday.
5 The government should look after the poors.
6 There was an asleep baby lying in its pram.

1.1 Participial adjectives

Many adjectives are formed from the present particle (-ing form) and past participles (-ed form) of verbs.
For example: to interest = interested, interesting.
1 Adjectives ending in -ing tell us a characteristic or quality of the person or thing being described. They also have an active sense. They show the effect someone or something has on someone or something else:
   It’s an interesting book = It makes me feel interested.
2 Adjectives ending in -ed have a passive sense and describe what has happened to the person or thing it describes. They describe states and feelings:
   The grammar class was boring = The class actively had that effect.
   Nikki was bored = That’s what happened to Nikki.

Choose the correct form of adjective in the sentences below.
1 We were worrying/worried about the news from Canada.
2 Am I boring/bored, Maria? People don’t listen to my stories anymore.
3 What’s the most embarrassing/embarrassed experience you’ve ever had?
4 We are exhausting/exhausted, baby Oliver kept us awake all night.
5 I’ve never eaten anything quite so disgusted/disgusting.
6 I enjoy watching Sumo wrestling, I think it’s a fascinated/fascinating sport.

1.2 Adjective order

1 When we use two or more adjectives before a noun then we generally follow this order: opinion – dimension – age – texture – colour – shape – origin – purpose
2 If we want to use more than two adjectives we will usually try to place some of them after the noun.
   She had short curly dark hair.
   Better: Her dark hair was short and curly.
   He carried a worn old leather briefcase.
   Better: He carried a worn old briefcase made of leather.
3 Opinion adjectives, where we give our point of view usually come before adjectives which give more factual information. Examples of opinion adjectives are beautiful, lovely, nice, pretty, awful, ugly, horrible.
   She wore a beautiful blue dress, made of silk.

Which one of these sentences shows a correct order of adjectives? Correct the others by putting the adjectives in the right order.
1 She put a plastic black long snake on her teacher’s chair.
2 He was a given a diver’s expensive Swiss watch for his eighteenth birthday.
3 She was wearing a shiny Japanese lovely dressing-gown silk.
4 He has bought a wonderful new graphite tennis raquet.
5 They have a grey big fat gorgeous cat Siamese.
6 Last night I watched a Swedish new fascinating documentary on TV.
1.3 Gradable and non-gradable adjectives

1 Gradable adjectives
Many adjectives and adverbs describe qualities which are gradable. In other words, they can have more or less of the quality in question. We can modify, or grade ordinary adjectives using: a little, fairly, slightly, rather, quite, very, extremely, etc.

We were fairly tired after a long day of shopping.

2 Non-gradable adjectives
Non-gradable adjectives describe qualities that are already at their limit. E.g. exhausted.

We can modify them to emphasise the degree of completeness with absolutely, completely, totally, or utterly.

We were exhausted after a long day's shopping.

3 Gradable adjectives like tired or angry may have one or more non-gradable counterparts.

**Gradable Modifiers**
A little, fairly, slightly, rather, quite, very, extremely

**Adjectives**
Tired, hungry, bad, angry, pretty, embarrassed, disappointed

**Example**
I was very angry when I heard the news.

**Non-gradable Modifiers**
Absolutely, completely, utterly, totally

**Adjectives**
Terrible, awful, dreadful, exhausted, furious, gorgeous, starving, mortified, devastated

**Example**
We were utterly exhausted after a long day's shopping.

3 Adverbs

2.1 Adverbs of frequency
We use adverbs of frequency to say how often we do something:

I sometimes go to the cinema at the weekend.

These are some of the most common adverbs of frequency: never – seldom – rarely – hardly ever – occasionally – sometimes – often – usually – always

2 Word order: adverbs of frequency follow 'to be':
She never is on time. She is never on time.

Otherwise, they usually come before the main verb, and between modal auxiliaries and the main verb:

We occasionally eat out.

We don't usually watch TV.

Customers will often arrive just before we close.

Notice that we can replace sometimes or occasionally with expressions such as from time to time, once in a while, every so often. These either come at the beginning or the end of a sentence:

Once in while we go to the cinema.
or We go to the cinema once in a while.

Remember:

i) We can use always with the present or past continuous to show annoyance or disapproval:
She's always borrowing my dictionary without asking me. (I wish she would stop.)

ii) When we want to emphasise something, we may begin the sentences with an adjective of 'negative force' e.g. never, seldom. (See Section 10 Inversion for more information on this.)

Put the parts of the sentences in italics into the correct order.

1 We always take nearly the train between Brussels and Paris.
2 Tess and Jerry go to cinema time the to time from.
3 Why don't we go to a restaurant? We seem these eat hardly to days out.
4 I'm really fed up, clothes he borrowing is my always without asking.
5 They used on to tennis mornings always play Sunday but since the baby time ever they hardly have.
6 Since I moved to Chicago I see my while only a once parents in.

2.2 Adverbs of manner
Adverbs of manner are used to describe how an action is performed:

She plays the piano beautifully.

We generally form them by adding -ly to adjectives:

Slow slowly.

We transform adjectives ending in -y with -ily in the adverb:

Angry angrily.
2.3 Irregular adverbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fast</td>
<td>fast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hard</td>
<td>hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>well</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

E.g. *She is a good singer, she sings well.*

(For comparative adverbs see Section 5 Comparatives and Superlatives.)

Complete the sentences by transforming the adjectives into adverbs. Make any other necessary changes.

1. He's a very good chess player.
   He plays chess ____________.
2. Greta is a very hard worker.
   Greta works ____________.
3. The way April sang that piece was beautiful.
   April sang that piece ____________.
4. Be careful how you handle that vase.
   Handle that vase ____________.
5. I'm happy to do that for you.
   I'll ____________.
6. He is an extremely persuasive speaker.
   He speaks ____________.

2.4 Introductory adverbs

Many adverbs can be used at the beginning of sentences to comment on what comes next.

*Basically/essentially* students have to sit down and learn their irregular verbs. (= this is my main point.)

*Obviously*, I need to improve my computer skills. (= it's obvious that...)

*Unfortunately/sadly*, Hamish failed the entrance exam for medical school. (= I regret to give you this news.)

*Hopefully* everything will be ready for the next time you come. (= if there are no problems.)

2.5 Meaning shifts from adjectives to adverbs

Changes of meaning between adjectives and adverbs. Adverbs generally retain the meaning of the adjectives from which they are drawn. However, sometimes there is an important change of meaning.

*Late* = not on time; *lately* = recently.

*Short* = not tall; *shortly* = soon.

*Hardly* is an adverb meaning almost not, or only a little.

His handwriting was so messy I could hardly read what he had written.

Replace the words in bold with a one-word adverb.

1. Oh dear, the dog is only just breathing, I hope she's OK.
2. I haven't seen Malcolm for a while, has he gone on holiday?
3. If everything goes according to plan we'll be at your place by six o'clock.
4. It's a pity but we won't be able to fix your car.
5. Would you mind waiting, I'll be with you in just a couple of minutes.
6. There's no question about it, we have to have the roof mended.
7. Well, *what I want to say* is you should eat five pieces of fruit a day.

3 Articles

Articles precede and modify nouns.

*a/an* = indefinite articles

*the* = definite article

3.1 Indefinite article use

We use the indefinite article *a/an* in front of singular countable [C] nouns, when we use them in a general sense:

*They gave us a table for two.*

3.2 Definite article use

We use the definite article *the* with all types of noun, a for things which are specific:

1. When we want to refer to a particular thing
   *Where's the key?* (The specific key that opens this door.)
2. When mentioning something for the second time
   *They gave us a table for two. Unfortunately the table was right next to the door.*
3. With superlatives
   *It's the best film I've ever seen.*
4. With things which are unique
   *The world, the earth, the universe.*
5. With some geographical names
   *The Himalayas, the Channel.*
6. With some names of organizations and titles, particularly those with 'of' or the idea of 'of'.
   *The Head Teacher, the International Olympic Committee, the President (of France).*
7. With adjectives to describe a class or group of people
   *The unemployed, the elderly.*
8. For places and amenities known to everyone
   *I need to post this letter, I'm going to the post office. They took her to the hospital.*
9. When referring to something specific
   *I love wild animals, but the animals I saw at the zoo seemed tired and depressed. (Plural countable noun.)
   *I hardly drink coffee, but the coffee you gave me this morning was exceptional. (Uncountable noun.)
   *It was a terrible secret. She found the knowledge too hard to bear.*
   *The money he earned over the summer allowed him to go on holiday.*
10. With ordinal numbers
    *The next meeting is planned for the ninth of January.*
11. With musical instruments
    *She plays the violin and the flute.*
Remember:
Some countable nouns are used without articles in certain situations, such as seasons, institutions, meals, diseases and time of day:

i) I'm going to the home, I'm going home.
ii) I'm going to eat the dinner, I'm going to eat dinner.
iii) The spring is a good time to clean, Spring is a good time to clean.
iv) He is sick with the pneumonia, he is sick with pneumonia.

3.3 Zero article Ø

We don't use articles:
1 With plural countable nouns used in a general sense
   I love animals.
2 With uncountable, and abstract nouns
   Money makes the world go around.
   Knowledge is power.

Complete the sentences with a, the or Ø (no article).
1 ____________ two biggest problems we face are ____________ global warming and ____________ pollution.
2 She bought ____________ violin for her daughter who said she wanted to learn ____________ guitar.
3 There's no doubt about it, ____________ rich are getting richer and ____________ poor are getting poorer. ____________ government should do something about this and help ____________ homeless and ____________ unemployed.
4 ____________ famous author once said that ____________ past was ____________ foreign country.
5 Last month I bought ____________ pair of trousers for £80 then ____________ minutes later I saw exactly ____________ same ones for £50!
6 They say ____________ little knowledge is ____________ dangerous thing. I discovered ____________ truth of this when I tried to fix ____________ car. In ____________ end I had to call ____________ mechanic from ____________ nearest garage to repair it.
7 ____________ cost of ____________ materials like ____________ oil, ____________ copper and ____________ rubber keeps going up. ____________ last time I filled up my car I almost fainted when I saw ____________ price on ____________ pump.
8 ____________ money can't buy you ____________ happiness or ____________ love, but I'd rather be ____________ miserable rich person than ____________ miserable poor one.

4 Cleft sentences

Cleft sentences let us focus on what is important in a sentence. They are particularly common in spoken English and can add extra emphasis.

1 Sentences a–c all carry a similar message, although the emphasis of b and c is the year of the fire, rather than the fire itself:
   a The Great Fire of London took place in 1666.
   b It was in 1666 that the Great Fire of London took place.
   c What happened in 1666 was the Great Fire of London.

Notice that cleft sentences often begin with what and it and need the introduction of the verb to be.

2 a You should look for last minute flights on the internet.
   b What you should do is look for last minute flights on the internet.

3 a She took all of the money from her boyfriend's account.
   b What she did was take all of the money from her boyfriend's account.

4 a The thing that worries me is …
   b What worries me is that …

Rephrase these sentences.
1 Her last concert began at nine o'clock in the evening.
   It was _____________.

2 They took the legs off the piano and carried it through the window.
   What they did _____________.

3 She slipped on the ice and broke her arm.
   What happened _____________.

4 I think you ought to try a dating agency.
   What you _____________.

5 I find loud music in restaurants annoying.
   What annoys _____________.

6 They broke into our car while they were at the beach.
   What happened was _____________.

5 Making comparisons

5.1 Comparatives

We form comparative adjectives by adding -er to one syllable adjectives. For example:
soft softer, cheap cheaper, sweet sweet, short shorter.
5.3 Comparative adverbs

We use comparative adverbs when we want to contrast how actions are performed.

1. If we want to make adverbs comparative we use **more** or **less**.

   * **She has been working more conscientiously this term.**
   * **We don't use **-er** or **-est.**

There are important exceptions, as explained below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Comparative adverb</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>good/well</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>best</td>
<td>well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bad/badly</td>
<td>worse</td>
<td>worst</td>
<td>badly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hard/hard</td>
<td>harder</td>
<td>hardest</td>
<td>hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fast/fast</td>
<td>faster</td>
<td>fastest</td>
<td>fast</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Complete the sentences using a comparative or superlative form of the word in **bold**.

   1. It was a wonderful meal, in fact it was ___________ delicious I had ever eaten.
   2. Last term her English was excellent and she was the ___________ good in the class, but this term it's the ___________ bad, I wonder what has happened.
   3. Gordon is much ___________ happy than Harry and Russell, but Gerald is the ___________ successful and ___________ rich of all of them.
   4. Why is it that people who live the ___________ close to their work always arrive late?
   5. I feel much ___________ good this morning so I'll go to school.
   6. The exam wasn't as ___________ easy I had imagined.
   7. His brother doesn't speak ___________ good than him.
   8. Cristiano plays football more ___________ beautiful than any other player.
   9. Felicia swims ___________ fast than Samantha but not ___________ quick as Ana.
   10. Nobody works as ___________ hard Xu, he has learned all the irregular verbs even the ___________ hard.

2. Continue and complete the second sentence so that it has a similar meaning to the one above it.

   1. I have never felt so tired.
      * This ___________ ever felt.
   2. Nobody knew him better than Amanda.
      * Nobody knew him as ___________ Amanda.
   3. I have never had such a bad flight.
      * It was the ___________ ever had.
   4. Her car goes faster than mine.
      * My car doesn't ___________ hers.
   5. Do you have a more recent version of this song?
      * Is this the ___________?
      * The more I ___________, I understand.
6 Conditionals

Conditional sentences typically contain two clauses – a condition clause and a result clause.
They allow us to talk about possible and impossible/unreal situations and their consequences.

6.1 Zero conditional
We use the zero conditional:
1. To describe a straightforward cause and effect
   If you open that door, it makes a terrible noise.
2. To write a scientific truth
   If you mix oil and water the oil floats.

6.2 First conditional
We use the first conditional:
1. When we believe that something is likely (more probable) to happen, than not as the result of a future action
   If I have the money, I will buy the car.
2. For promises or threats
   If you pass your exam (condition), I’ll buy everyone a coffee (result).
   If you don’t do your homework, I’ll have to phone your Mum and Dad.
3. We use when and as soon as when the first action is sure to happen
   I’ll call you when/as soon as I get the results.
Form: If + present simple/will + infinitive (without ‘to’)

6.3 Second conditional
We use the second conditional:
1. When we think that the outcome of a future event is not very likely to happen
   If the students were more serious, they would have a better chance in the exam.
2. For unreal or imaginary situations in the present or the future
   If I ran Cambridge Examinations, I’d make the exam easier (but I’m just a candidate).
3. For polite requests
   Would you mind if I borrowed these DVDs?
Form: If + past simple/would/could/might + have + past participle

Remember:
Can, could may, might, should and ought to can replace would in second conditional sentences.

6.4 Third conditional
We use the third conditional:
To describe imaginary or ‘unreal’ situations in the past and to express regrets
If I had known he would be upset, I wouldn’t have said anything (but I did say something and he was upset).

(See Wish for more information on expressing regrets.)
Form: If + past perfect/would/could/might + have + past participle

6.5 Alternatives to ‘if’
1. Unless and otherwise
   We use unless meaning ‘if … not’ in the condition clause and otherwise before the likely result:
   You will lose marks unless you improve your spelling.
   We’d better hurry up. Otherwise we’ll miss the start of the film.

2. As long as/provided/on condition that
   We use provided/as long as/on the condition that when we want to make the condition stricter:
   I’ll lend you my dictionary provided/as long as/on the condition that you promise to bring it back.

3. Using inversion:
   If I had known he would be upset, I wouldn’t have said anything.
   Had I known he would be upset, I wouldn’t have said anything.

6.6 Mixed conditional
The mixed conditional combines the third conditional in the condition clause with the second conditional in the result clause. We use it to describe a past action which has a consequence in the present:
If I hadn’t eaten that seafood, I wouldn’t feel so awful now.

1. Change the verbs in brackets to form conditional sentences.
   1 I (take) ____________ her to the station if she (do) ____________ my French homework!
   2 I know it’s just a dream, but what (you do) ____________ if we (win) ____________ the lottery?
   3 If (you say) ____________ that again, I (tell) ____________ your father.
   4 She was lucky. If she (not miss) ____________ the flight she (not be) ____________ with us today.
   5 I don’t believe he’ll ever stop, but if he (give up) ____________ smoking his health (improve) ____________.
   6 When our guests (arrive) ____________, Lucy, (you call me) ____________ immediately?
   7 (you give) ____________ him the money if you (know) ____________ how he was going to spend it?
   8 If I (be) ____________ in charge I (make) ____________ some big changes, but I’m just a temporary worker.
   9 If Hannah (know) ____________ the truth about Duncan she (think twice) ____________ before marrying him.
   10 I’m so stupid, if I (remember) ____________ lock up my bike, it (not be stolen) ____________.
2 Rephrase these sentences using the words in **bold**.
1 We’ll miss the beginning of the film if you don’t hurry up. **unless**
2 If you leave your car there you’ll get a parking ticket. **you’d better not/otherwise**
3 You can borrow my car on condition that you fill it up afterwards. **provided**
4 I’ll tell your sister what you did unless you give me a sweet. **if**
5 Unless you promise to take care of it I won’t lend you my ipod. **I’ll/as long as**
6 If he doesn’t drive more carefully he’ll have an accident. **unless**

6.7 Contrasing ideas

1 Consequence
   He felt ill. He stayed at home.
   In the first pair of sentences there is not a contrast between the two ideas. After all, if we feel ill it is logical to stay at home. We can join these ideas with so:
   = He felt ill so he stayed at home.

2 Contrast
   He felt ill. He went to school.
   In this second pair, there is a contrast between the ideas:
   a We can show the contrast between these ideas with **but**:
      = He felt ill **but** he went to school.
   b We can show the contrast between these ideas with however/nevertheless:
      = He felt ill, however/nevertheless, he went to school.
   **Notice:** like **but**, **however** and **nevertheless** come after the original proposition, and introduce the contrast, that is, **between** the contrasting ideas.

3 Other ways of expressing contrast:
   a although/even though
      *Although he felt ill he went to school.*
      *Even though he felt ill he went to school* even though he felt ill
   b in spite of/ despite + gerund
      *In spite of/ despite feeling ill* the fact he felt ill He went to school.
   c in spite of/ despite + noun
      *In spite of/ Despite of his illness he went to school.*
   d Despite the fact (that) + tense
      *Despite the fact that he felt ill, he went to school.*
   **Notice:** These ways of expressing contrast introduce the original proposition, not the contrast.
   = Even though he was unhappy he was rich. Even though he was rich he was unhappy.

7 Countable and uncountable nouns and their determiners

7.1 Countable nouns
A countable noun is a clearly separate unit which can be easily counted. When there is more than one, they can be made plural: **tables, chairs, students, cats, ideas, thoughts, people, children**.

7.2 Uncountable nouns
Uncountable nouns are things or notions which cannot be counted (or only counted with difficulty) or abstract nouns and notions. They include liquids, mass, abstract nouns and things such as water, oil, butter, sand, information, happiness, hair, spaghetti.

**Remember:**
In some languages uncountable nouns such as **hair, information, news** and **advice** are countable.

7.3 Determiners
Determiners come **before** nouns. Which one we choose depends on whether the noun it introduces is countable or uncountable.

We can make uncountable nouns appear countable by putting the name of a container, a quantity/weight/its length, or a **piece of** before it:
A bottle of water, a jar of instant coffee, a slice of cake, a tin of soup, a packet of biscuits, 200 grams of butter, a grain of sand, a piece of information, etc.
7.4 Determiners with countable and uncountable nouns

1 We use all
   a Before plural countable nouns [C] and uncountable nouns [U] to express the idea of ‘all the ones’:
     All the students left early. [C]

2 We use every
   a Before single countable nouns and uncountable nouns to express the idea of ‘every one’ (we drop the use of a/the):
     Every student left early. [C]

3 We use some
   a Before plural countable nouns and uncountable nouns:
     She met some interesting people while she was on holiday. [C]
     I asked for some information. [U]
   b In requests and offers, particularly when we expect the answer to be ‘yes’:
     Could you give me some advice about which wallpaper to choose? [U]
     Would you pass me some more coffee, please? [C]
     Is there some of that lovely cake left? [C]

4 We use any
   a Before plural countable nouns and uncountable nouns to express the idea of ‘all or nothing’:
     Any child can use this computer programme. = all children. [C]
     You can come and see me any time. = there is no limit. [U]
     Oh dear, there isn’t any sugar left. = none at all. [U]

Remember:
1 We place not before any to express the idea of no.
   We use not any/no before plural countable nouns and uncountable nouns:
   There weren’t any students in the classroom. [C]

2 We place hardly before any to express the idea of ‘not a lot’:
   There were hardly any customers in the shop. [C]

3 We place have before any to ask about the existence or availability of something:
   Do we have any milk? [U]

4 Some/any/no + one/body/where/thing
   Add some/any/no before one/body/where/thing to create indefinite pronouns.
   These follow the same rules of form as some and any:
   There is someone outside.
   Really! I can’t see anyone/anybody.
   There was nowhere to park.
   We couldn’t find anywhere to park.

Complete the sentences with a, some or any.

1 Would you like ___________ cup of tea and ___________ biscuit, or perhaps ___________ piece of cake?
2 You don’t need to ask, you can sit ___________ where you want.
3 We’ve got ___________ eggs and ___________ cheese, but we don’t seem to have ___________ milk.
4 Could I have ___________ more tea, please, and is there ___________ more cake?
5 Ring me ___________ time you need ___________ advice, here’s ___________ card with my number.
6 I can’t get ___________ reply, there isn’t ___________ one there after five o’clock.
7 Oh dear, there aren’t ___________ rubbish-bags, can you get ___________ more the next time you go shopping.
8 She won’t do ___________ thing without first checking with her boss.
9 Do you fancy ___________ coffee? There’s ___________ new jar in the cupboard.
10 There isn’t ___________ thing ___________ one can say or do – it’s hopeless!

4 Much and many; a lot of and lots of
   a We use many with countable nouns, and much with uncountable nouns:
     Many students leave their revision to the last minute.
     The changes to the exam have encouraged much discussion.
   b However, a lot of/lots of are used with both countable and uncountable nouns. We tend to use them instead of much and many in positive statements:
     A lot of/lots of students use bi-lingual dictionaries.
     Harry wasted a lot of/lots of time trying to mend the Play Station.

Remember:
   i Lots of, loads of, plenty of are considered to be less formal than a lot of:
     Don’t worry about me, I’ve got lots/loads/plenty of friends.
   ii Much and many are generally reserved for negative statements and questions:
     How much time do we have before we need to leave?
     We don’t have much money left.
     How many people have you invited?
     We weren’t expecting so many people at the open-day.
5 Few and a few/little and a little
We use few/a few with countable nouns and little/a little with uncountable nouns. A few and a little mean ‘some’, while few and little mean ‘not much/many’, or ‘less than normal or what we would usually expect:
- A few (= some) students know how to pronounce ‘th’ properly.
- Few (= not very many) students carry on to take the Proficiency exam.
- There’s a little (= some) bit of coffee left, who would like to finish it?
- There’s little (= not much) point in trying to learn anything now.

6 Several
Several is used with countable plural nouns. It has a similar meaning to a few (i.e. three or four):
- There were several people waiting in the doctor’s surgery.

7 A great (large) number (amount) of/great (good) deal of
a We use a great/large number of with plural countable nouns:
- A great number of tourists were affected by the strike. Not: A great deal of tourists...
b We use a great/good deal of with uncountable nouns to mean ‘many’ or ‘much’:
- The strike caused a great deal of inconvenience. Not: The strike caused a large number of inconvenience.

Choose the correct word to complete the sentences
1 How many/much butter and how many/much raisins do we need for this recipe?
2 It doesn’t matter how much/many times you tell her, she never remembers.
3 Her ex-boyfriend is giving her a great number/deal of trouble.
4 There’s little/a little advantage in changing internet service providers.
5 The police found the fingerprints of few/several different suspects.
6 Were there much/lots of people at the procession on Sunday?
7 Not really, there weren’t much/many at all. Just a few/few regulars.
8 She’s lucky she has got a lots of loads of money and a big house.
9 She has got very little/few friends, she stays in her room watching TV all day.
10 Our advertisement received a great deal/number of replies.
11 There doesn’t seem to be many/much choice, let’s try the other place.
12 I called him loads/several of times but only got his answering machine.

8 Future
There are different ways of expressing the future. The form we use depends on the circumstances and how we view the future event.
1 We use the present continuous to talk about future personal arrangements and plans, especially when we mention the time and place:
   We’re leaving for Athens on Saturday.
2 We use the present simple when we refer to timetables or programmes:
   The next train to Brussels departs in fifteen minutes.
3 We use be going to:
   a to talk about things we have already decided to do.
      I’m going to take part in the Erasmus programme next year.
   b to make predictions based on what we can see right now.
      Oh my goodness, look at that child. She’s going to fall off her bike and hurt herself.

8.1 The future simple (will)
We use will (the future simple):
1 For facts and predictions:
   Anika will be three years old on Friday.
   Next season will be a good one for our team’s supporters.
2 For decisions made at the time of speaking.
   Don’t take the bus, I’ll drive you home.
3 To predict what is about to happen, or has just happened.
   There’s someone at the door.
   That will be the post woman (she always comes at this time).
   You’re right, she’s carrying a parcel.
   That will be the books I ordered. (They always come by mail and I ordered them last week.)

Remember:
We can also use should to make predictions based on experience and expected behaviour.
   What time do we get to Amersham?
   Well, we should be there at six o’clock (that’s the time the train usually arrives there).

8.2 Future continuous
We use the future continuous (will be + -ing) to talk about actions which will be in progress at a time in the future.
   Hi, Jen, it’s me. Just to say I’ll be arriving at 17.15. Can you pick me up?
   Sure, I’ll be waiting outside the station.

8.3 Future perfect
We use the future perfect to express the idea that something will happen before a specific time in the future.
   We’ll have taken our exam by July.
   Don’t worry about us, we’ll have already eaten.
8.4 Future perfect continuous

We use the future perfect continuous to describe activities which began before a point in the future and which are still in progress at that point in time:

By next September, she'll have been studying German for two years.
In six months’ time we’ll have been living in this house for ten years.

8.5 Was going to (the future in the past)

1 Was going to is used talk about something that, in the past, was thought would happen in the future:
Don’t blame me, I didn’t know he was going to react so badly to the news.
We were going to go camping, but then it rained so we decided against it.

2 Be to …
We use the verb to be + infinitive to make announcements:
The student exchange programme is to begin in the autumn.

8.6 Adjectives with a future meaning

1 Bound/likely and due + infinitive are adjectives with an implicit future meaning.
We use bound to when we are sure that a future event will happen:
The plane is bound to land late because of the fog.
We use likely to when we think it is highly probable that something will happen:
She is likely to be disappointed with her results.
We use due to when something which has been planned is expected to happen:
The reception is due to begin at six o’clock this evening.

1 Read the situations carefully and complete the sentences with will or going to.
1 You look nice, what’s the special occasion?
Thanks. I _____________ (visit) my boyfriend’s parents.
2 Come back to my place for dinner.
That’s kind, I _____________ (bring) some wine.
3 Have you made up your mind about your studies next year?
Yes, I’ve finally decided. I _____________ (study) hotel management.
4 I’m in the bath! Can you pick up the phone?
Sure, I _____________ (answer) it.
5 Have you heard? Max Brenner _____________ (play) for Chelsea next season.
6 Is that the time! Where can I get a taxi?
Don’t worry. I (give you) a lift ____________________.

2 Complete the conversation by choosing between the words in italics.

Jenny: 1 Are you doing anything/Do you do anything nice next weekend?
Katie: Yes, actually, 2 I’m going/I go to Bordeaux with Vincent.

Jenny: Lucky you! How 3 are you getting/do you get there?
Katie: Well, we 4 will take/are going to take the plane.
There’s a flight that 5 leaves/will leave at eight. It 6 is taking/is going to take just over an hour.
Jenny: Marvellous. Who 7 looks after/is going to look after your dog, Toffee?
Katie: Now there’s a problem, Maryse 8 was going to/ would look after the dog but now she says she can’t.
Jenny: Don’t worry, 9 I’ll/going to take care of her if you like.
When 10 will you come/are you coming back?
Katie: We 11 should/due be back on Sunday evening, by
nine o’clock. I 12 am going to/will pick her up then.
Katie: No, don’t bother. You 13 are feeling/are going to be tired after your trip. 14 I’ll drop/I’m going to drop her off at your place on my way to work.
Jenny: That’s really kind, 15 I’m waiting/I’ll be waiting for you outside. I will have taken/be taking her for a walk before you pick her up.

9 Gerund and infinitive

9.1 The gerund

The gerund is the noun form of the verb. We form it by adding -ing to the verb. Be careful not to confuse the gerund with the present participle:

Smoking is bad for you = gerund.
He is smoking his pipe = present participle.

We use the gerund
1 After verbs such as involve, avoid, consider, mind and risk:
Do you mind telling what you are doing in my room?
2 After many verbs which express likes and dislikes, such as hate, love, loathe, enjoy:
I love cooking but I loathe doing the washing-up.
3 As a subject or object:
Eating is not permitted on the premises.

4 After prepositions, phrasal verbs and expressions ending in a preposition:
He burned the letter after reading it.
She took up studying Ancient Greek in her spare time.

I’m tired of listening to your excuses.

Remember:

i Despite, and in spite of are prepositions/prepositional phrases. As such they are followed by the gerund or another noun:
She played tennis despite feeling tired.
She played tennis despite her tiredness.

Form: used to + doing / look forward to + doing

ii Although to is part of the ‘full infinitive’, it can also be a preposition and be followed by the gerund:
I’m used to getting up early in the morning.

(used to = adjective made from the past participle.)
I’m looking forward to seeing the latest film with Julia Roberts.

iii We can follow need with the gerund to lend it a passive sense:
These windows need cleaning = Someone needs to clean these windows.
9.2 The infinitive
1 We use the bare infinitive (infinitive without to)
   a After modal verbs:
      We should listen to what she says.
   b After make and let:
      They made me wear school uniform.
      They wouldn’t let me play.
2 We use the full infinitive (with to)
   a To express a reason or purpose:
      He enrolled in evening classes to improve his German
      (to achieve an outcome).
      She took off her shoes so as not to wake up the baby
      (to avoid an outcome).
   b After certain verbs such as appear, manage, seem, want,
      would like, and prefer.
   c With the ‘lexical future’: intend, plan, decide:
      We intend, plan, decide to stay there for three nights.
   d With some verbs which have two objects: encourage,
      request, advise, recommend, tell, and ask:
      His mother encouraged him to apply for the course.

9.3 Gerund or infinitive
Some verbs take both the infinitive or the gerund with little change in meaning e.g. like, try. Others have an important change in meaning e.g. stop, remember, and hate.
1 A small change in meaning:
   I like to go to the dentist every six months. (It’s a habit.)
   I like going for long country walks. (It gives me pleasure.)
   I tried to open the door. (This was my aim.)
   I tried turning the key in the lock and pushing it. (This is how I tried to do it.)
2 An important change in meaning:
   We stopped to look at the map. (We stopped in order to look at the map.)
   We stopped looking at the map and continued our journey. (We finished studying the map, afterwards, we continued.)
   I remembered to pay the bill. (I remembered I had to pay it, so I did.)
   I remembered leaving my bag on the bus. (I left my bag on the bus, later on I remembered.)
   We hated telling him the awful news. (We told him even though it was a painful and difficult task.)
   I hate to tell you this. (I am about to tell you something you won’t like.)
   I meant to post the letter but I forgot. (I intended to post the letter.)
   When we discovered the problem it meant starting from the beginning. (It involved starting from the beginning.)
1 Choose the correct form to complete the sentence.
   1 We tried to open/opening the door but it was locked from the other side.
   2 I didn’t enjoy to play/playing rugby when I was at school.
   3 I hate to tell/telling you this but smoke is coming out of the engine.
4 Would you mind to check/checking this form I have filled in?
5 Are you looking forward to go-going to college next year?
6 I know it’s difficult, but have you tried to tell/telling her the truth?
7 Mildred likes to keep/keeping empty egg-boxes, it’s a strange habit of hers.
8 The child stopped to cry/crying when we gave him an ice-cream.
9 Greg keeps on to phone/phoning Sarah – it’s really annoying.
10 Did you remember to post/posting that letter I gave you this morning?
11 Would you like to come round/coming round for dinner tonight?
12 That’s not true, I don’t remember to say/saying that!
13 She didn’t mean to upset/upsetting him by what she said.
14 They were tired after to climb/climbing the hill, so they stopped to have/having a rest.
15 Could you remind me to take/taking the car to the garage?
16 We got so lost, it meant to go back/going back the way we had come.
2 Complete the second sentence so that it has a similar meaning to the one above. Use the ‘key word’ in capital letters.
   1 I forgot to take my passport. REMEMBER
      I _________________________________
   2 Remind me to record that programme. FORGET
      Don’t let _________________________________
   3 I can’t wait to go to Canada next summer. FORWARD
      I’m _________________________________ next summer.
   4 Do you think you could close the window, please? MIND
      Would _________________________________
   5 He was overweight so he went on a diet. ORDER
      He went on a diet _________________________________
   6 How about going to a restaurant tonight? LIKE
      Would _________________________________ to a restaurant tonight?
   7 Even though he didn’t have a ticket he travelled to Athens to watch the match. SPITE
      He travelled to Athens to see the match _________________________________ a ticket.

10 Inversion
Sometimes, we may invert the verb and subject of a phrase.
1 Inversion is used with so and neither in short answers to agree with someone who has just said.
   A: I really enjoyed the play.
   B: So did I. Not: So I did.
   Notice: you use so for answering a positive structure.
   I don’t have any money left/I haven’t got any money left.
   Neither do I or I don’t either.
   Neither have I or I haven’t either.
   You use neither to provide a short answer with a negative structure.
Remember:
The short reply must use the right auxiliary. We can find this out by turning the original statement into a ‘yes/no’ question:

*She ate pasta for lunch.* ➔ *Did she eat pasta for lunch?*

So *did I.*

2 Inversion is used with adverbs of negative force to express surprise or emphasis. This use is common in more formal or literary writing:

**Not only did they steal** the kitchen equipment but also the food from the fridge/the food from the fridge too.

**Hardly had I opened** the door than I noticed a strange smell.

**No sooner had they left** the flat than Mary rang to say she couldn’t come.

**Never/Rarely/Seldom had we witnessed** such a terrible scene.

3 With the third conditional:

If we **had known** about his past, we wouldn’t have gone to the police.

Had we **known** about his past, we wouldn’t have gone to the police.

11 Mods

**11.1 Can (infinitive to be able)**

We use *can*

1 To talk about abilities:

*She can skate beautifully.*

2 To ask for permission:

*Can I borrow your dictionary?*

3 For requests:

*Can you lend £10?*

Remember:

i The infinitive form of *can* is *to be able to*:

I may be able to attend.

ii The simple past of *can* is *could* or was/were able to:

He could drive before the accident/He was able to drive before the accident.

11.2 Could

As well as being the past form of *can* we use *could*

1 To discuss alternatives and options:

*We could invite everyone to a restaurant, or else we could have a picnic on the beach.*

2 To make more polite requests:

*Could you bring me the bill, please?*

*Could you speak a little more slowly, please?*

3 We use can for speculating, guessing and discussing possibilities:

*The weather could be better tomorrow (it’s possible.)*

4 *Could or was able to*:

We use *could* to talk about general past abilities. He could run for miles and miles when he was younger.

However, if we want to say we succeeded in doing something on a particular occasion, or after a lot of difficulty we use be able to:

*I drove around for forty minutes, finally I was able to find somewhere to park.*

11.3 Must

We use *must*

1 For orders we give to ourselves:

*I must pay the phone bill, otherwise they will cut me off.*

2 To prohibit something (used in mainly written rules and regulations):

*You mustn’t speak on your mobile while you’re driving.*

Remember:

Non-native speakers can over-use *must*. It can sound rude or aggressive. To give orders, or to describe duties use *have to* instead. Make polite requests with *could you?* instead.

3 For a strong recommendation:

*You must see the new James Bond film, it’s wonderful.*

4 For making intelligent guesses and deductions:

*She must be Melanie’s twin sister. They are almost identical.*

5 For deductions in the past we use *must have been/can’t have been:*

*He must have been disappointed not to pass. His teacher can’t have been pleased either.*
For negative deductions we use can't be, not mustn't be.
My parents want me to revise all weekend – they can't be serious! (Not: They mustn't be serious.)

11.4 Have to
We use have to:
1 To talk about our duties or obligations
   I have to deal with phone calls and enquiries and give advice to students.
2 To show that something isn't obligatory or necessary.
   You don't have to bring a dictionary to school, we have one in every classroom.

11.5 May
We use may:
1 To talk about possibility
   It may rain this afternoon.
2 To ask for permission
   May I use your phone?

Remember:
'May I' is generally considered more polite than 'Can I'.

11.6 Might
We use might:
1 To express a more remote possibility than may, and to speculate
   It might be difficult to get a baby-sitter.
2 As a very polite or formal way of asking for permission, or making a request
   Might I stay here?
   Might I borrow your phone book for a minute?

11.7 Will
We use will:
1 For making predictions and talking about the future. (See Future for more information.)
2 When we make offers or decisions as we speak
   Leave the washing up, I'll do it later.
   Q: Can someone answer the door?
   A: I'll go.
3 To talk about habitual actions
   Most days, I'll normally take the 7:42 train to Marylebone.
4 To make requests or give orders
   Will you drop me off in front of the bus station, please?

Remember:
'Shall' can sometimes be used instead of will.
In formal, or more old-fashioned English, when the subject of the modal is I or we, we can use shall, although this is quite rare.
I shall give you my decision in the morning.
Shall is more commonly used with I and we for offers, or to ask for suggestions.
Shall I answer the phone?
What shall we do tonight?
Shall we go to the cinema?

11.8 Would
We use would:
1 To make polite requests.
   Would you look after my bag for a few minutes?
2 In conditional sentences. (See Conditionals.)
3 In reported speech as the reported form of will.
   He said he would help me, but he didn't.
4 To talk about past habits.
   When we were young we would sit on that old bench near the entrance to the park. (See Will, would and used to for more information.)

11.9 Should and ought to
We use should and ought to:
1 To give advice
   You should/ought to be more careful about what you say in front of her, she repeats everything.
2 To say what we think is morally right
   Rich countries should help developing countries.
3 To criticise a past action
   You should have made sure that the tickets were in the bag.
   You shouldn't have been so greedy.
   We tend not to use oughtn't to/oughtn't to have as it is too hard to say.
4 To make predictions based on previous experience, or what is expected.
   Don't panic, there should be another bus in a couple of minutes.

11.10 Need
We use need to say when something is necessary or unnecessary:
1 We need to enrol everyone for the exam before the deadline.
2 We use needn't to (don't need) to say that something is not necessary.
   You needn't buy/don't need to buy uniforms and equipment, everything is included in the fees.
Remember:

*Need* can be used both as a modal auxiliary, and as a full verb with an auxiliary. This can be used to make an important distinction of meaning in the past.

**Need as a modal:** *I needn’t have worn a suit because everyone else was dressed casually.* = I wore a suit, but it wasn’t necessary.

**Need as a full verb:** *I didn’t need to wear a suit, so I just dressed casually like everyone else.*

**Need as a modal:** *I needn’t have bought the tools because the company supplied everything.* = I bought the tools but it wasn’t necessary.

**Need as a full verb:** *I didn’t need to buy any tools because the company provided everything.* = It wasn’t necessary to buy any tools so I didn’t.

1. Choose the correct modal verb.
   1. According to the law, you **have to/must** pay your taxes by January 1st.
   2. You **needn’t have bought/didn’t need to buy** this. We already have one. Take it back.
   3. A: I need someone to help me with this.
      B: I have nothing to do. I **’ll/d’** help you.
   4. They **must/might** be late. Julie rang earlier and said it’s possible because Ray has to work late.
   5. A: What **shall/will** we do tonight?
      B: We could go to the cinema.
      A: Good idea.
   6. You **would/ought to** invite them too or they’ll be insulted.
   7. Are you **able to/could** you give me the bill, please?

2. Rewrite the first sentence using the words in the second sentence.
   1. **Do you** always say the first thing that pops into your head?
      __________ you think before you speak?
   2. You **should go** tonight.
      __________, to go tonight.
   3. Your father **must have** been angry about your exam results.
      Your father __________ happy about your exam results.
   4. We were **able to** find somewhere to park.
      We __________ find a place to park.
   5. There’s no **need to** help.
      You don’t __________ to help.
   6. Maybe they left earlier.
      They might __________.

3. Past perfect
   We use the past perfect
   - to show that an action happened earlier than a later action:
     By the time we got there, the film had already started.
   Remember:
   The past perfect is also used in the condition clause of the third conditional, and to express past regrets with wish. (See the Third conditional and/or Wish for more information on this.)

4. Past perfect continuous
   We use the past perfect continuous
   - to show that an action had started and was still in progress when another action took place:
     We had been standing there for ages when the night bus finally turned up.
   - to describe repeated actions up to a point in the past:
     I had been ringing her all morning but I couldn’t get a reply.
Complete the story by changing the verbs in brackets into a suitable narrative tense.

A few months ________ (go by) since the disaster at the beach so Olivier ________ (decide) to try his luck with Isabelle again. He ________ (try) to ring her, but each time she ________ (hear) his voice she ________ (hang up). This time; however, Olivier ________ (have) a secret weapon! He ________ (receive) an invitation to a smart party in a country château, and many stars ________ (going to) be there. Isabelle ________ (not able) to resist. This time Olivier ________ (borrow) his mother’s new BMW Isabelle ________ (wear) a silk evening dress and pearls – she ________ (never look) so wonderful. They ________ (drive) through the forest to the château, when suddenly a wild boar ________ (appear). Olivier ________ (can not) avoid it and the car ________ (go into) it with a tremendous bang – killing the creature! Fortunately the boar ________ (not do) too much damage, but Olivier ________ (know) his mother would never believe what ________ (happen) without seeing the evidence. With Isabelle’s help, they ________ (push) it into the back. Unfortunately while they ________ (do) this, Isabelle’s necklace ________ (break) so they ________ (have to) spend ten minutes picking up the pearls. Once they ________ (finish) they ________ (be) were ready to continue on their journey when they ________ (hear) a loud cry from the back – the boar ________ (wake up)! They ________ (jump) out of the car and ________ (watch) in horror as the angry creature ________ (destroy) the interior. When the police ________ (arrive) they ________ (have to) fire fifty shots into the car to kill it. Needless to say, they never ________ (go) to the party!

In the first sentence, Debbie is the subject of the sentence and the cakes the object. In the second sentence, the cakes are the subject and Debbie the agent (i.e. the performer of the action); there is no object.

We use the passive:

1 When the agent (the person who performed the action) is assumed, unimportant, or unknown: 

   The poor old gentleman was taken directly to hospital
   (probably by ambulance, but this isn’t important.)

   My bag has been stolen (by an unknown person.)

2 When the action, event, and process is seen as more important than the agent. This is often the case in formal or scientific writing:

   The formula was checked carefully.

3 To put new information later in the sentence: 

   Pride and Prejudice was written by Jane Austen.

Remember:

The passive voice is not a tense. It always includes a form of the verb ‘to be’ and a past participle. The main changes are:

Present simple: She eats the cake/s. The cake/s is/are eaten.

Present continuous: She is eating the cake/s. The cake/s is/are being eaten.

Simple past: She ate the cake/s. The cake/s was/were eaten.

Past continuous: She was eating the cake/s. The cake/s was/were being eaten.

Present perfect: She has eaten the cake/s. The cake/s has/have been eaten.

Past perfect: She had eaten the cake/s. The cake/s had/have been eaten.

Going to future: She is going to eat the cake/s. The cake/s is/are going to be eaten.

Modals in present: She can/should/will eat the cakes. The cake/s can/should/will be eaten.

Future perfect: She will have eaten the cake/s. The cake/s will have been eaten.

4 The causative have (have something done)

   We use the causative have
   a To talk about services others perform for us: 
   She had her teeth whitened by a famous dentist.

   Form: have + something + past participle 
   She didn’t whiten them herself; the dentist did it for her.

   b To describe unfortunate incidents and accidents: 
   She had her handbag stolen from under the seat in the cinema.

Remember:

The present and past perfect continuous do not have a passive form (except for rare examples).
5. Intransitive verbs do not have a passive form
   a Get
   Get can be used in a similar way to the causative have:
     We got (had) our car repaired at that garage.
   Get is also used with adjectives like married and hurt:
     Luckily nobody got hurt in the crash.
   Get also has a passive sense:
     I thought we had bought too much food, but in the end all of it got eaten.
   
   Remember:
   Let does not have a passive form. We use allowed to in the passive:
   She doesn’t let us talk on the phone. We aren’t allowed to talk on the phone.

   b Need
   Need can be used with a passive sense.
   We use need when something has to be done without saying who should do it:
     We need to freeze the vegetables (active sense.)
     The vegetables need freezing (passive sense – gerund.)
     The vegetables need to be frozen (passive infinitive.)

   6 Passive with say, know and believe
   We use reporting verbs such as say, know and believe in the passive when we want to report widely-held views, or opinions which are common knowledge. It is also used to distance the speaker from the information, which is why it is commonly used in news broadcasts:
     The victim was known to have a large number of enemies in the underworld.
     Chinese silk is said to be the best in the world.
     He was believed to have a fortune in gold hidden in his house.

   7 Agent or instrument?
   With an instrument we use with rather than by:
     The cakes were eaten by Debbie. by = the agent.
     They broke into his desk with/by means of a paper knife. with = the instrument.

Continue the second sentence so that it has a similar meaning to the one above it.
   1 Architects have turned the building into luxury apartments.
      The building ____________ by architects.
   2 The mayor is going to open the new leisure centre.
      The new leisure centre ____________ the mayor.
   3 Someone should show Sally what to do.
      Sally should ____________ what to do.
   4 A journalist was writing the story as we waited.
      The story ____________ as we waited.
   5 A photographer is going to take my photographs tomorrow.
      Tomorrow, I’m ____________.
   6 We need to hide Melanie’s present before she sees it.
      Melanie’s present needs to ____________.
   7 Thieves broke into their apartment while they were on holiday.
      They had their ____________ while they were on holiday.

8 We used a large screwdriver to open the car window.
   The car window ____________ large screwdriver.
9 A lot of people say Le Cheval Blanc is the best restaurant in the region.
   Le Cheval Blanc is ____________ in the region.
10 His parents didn’t let him watch the match.
    He wasn’t ____________ watch the match.

12.3 Phrasal verbs

Phrasal verbs consist of the verb and one or two prepositional or adverbal particles. When combined in this way their meaning can be idiomatic.

Compare:
   He turned up the street (this just tells us where he turned, he could have turned down the street).
   He turned up three hours late (= He arrived three hours late. Here up is part of the phrasal verb turn up, meaning to arrive).

There are four principal types of phrasal verb. To fully appreciate the differences, we need to understand the differences between transitive and intransitive verbs (see Section 17).

   Type 1: intransitive no object, e.g. get on; to progress/have a relationship:
       How are you getting on?
   Intransitive phrasal verbs do not have an object. We can follow them with an adverbial or prepositional phrase:
       How are you getting on with your new flatmate?

   Type 2: transitive separable, e.g. let down.
   Transitive separable phrasal verbs have to take an object.
   If an object pronoun is used it must come between the verb and the particle. The pronoun can’t come after the particle:
       He let Sally/her down.
       (Not: He let down Sally/her.)

   Type 3: transitive inseparable, e.g. break into.
   The direct object and object pronoun cannot come between the verb and the particle. They must always follow the particle:
       They broke into my flat while I was on holiday.
       (Not: They broke my flat into while I was on holiday.)

   Type 4: three-part transitive (phrasal prepositional), e.g. look forward to.
   Here, the object always comes after the phrasal verb. Three part phrasal verbs are always inseparable:
       I’m really looking forward to seeing Ian again.
       (Not: I’m looking forward really to seeing Ian again.)

Remember:
   1 The same phrasal verb can have a different meaning and a different grammar.
      She turned up late = She arrived late. (Type 1 intransitive.)
      His trousers were too long so he turned them up. = He altered the trousers. (Type 2 transitive separable.)
Decide if these sentences with phrasal verbs are correct or incorrect.

1. She finally found out the truth about her real parents.
   Correct Incorrect
2. We got into the car and set off.
   Correct Incorrect
3. She can't turn up it at this time; class starts at half past eight.
   Correct Incorrect
4. Cigarettes were given up as a New Year’s resolution.
   Correct Incorrect
5. Can you look after while I go to the shops?
   Correct Incorrect
6. I have always looked up to my father.
   Correct Incorrect
7. Don’t worry about the lights, I switched them off before we left.
   Correct Incorrect
8. Guess what! I bumped her mother into at the supermarket.
   Correct Incorrect
9. Sorry I am late, the bus had been broken down.
   Correct Incorrect
10. They are really looking their holiday forward to.
    Correct Incorrect
11. My car was broken into while I was at the cinema.
    Correct Incorrect
12. Her illness was got over in five days.
    Correct Incorrect

12.4 Present tenses

1. Present simple
   We use the present simple:
   a. To talk about facts, routines and with adverbs of frequency
      She comes from the north of Brazil.
      I go to English classes three times a week.
      We usually order a pizza on Friday nights.
      They often take on extra staff at Christmas.
   b. We also use the present simple verbs with ‘stative verbs’:
      - which deal with likes and dislikes: like, love, prefer, hate, detest, dislike
      - with verbs of cognition: think, know, understand, believe, remember, mean
      - with verbs of perception: see, taste, hear, smell
      - with verbs of possession: own, belong
      - other verbs: need, want, cost.

2. Present continuous
   We use the present continuous:
   a. To talk about activities which are in progress
      Q: Hey, what are you doing in my room?
      A: I’m looking for the CD I lent you.
   b. To talk about ongoing activities. In other words, activities that began in the past, are going on now and into the future
      Justine studies at Bordeaux University; at the moment she is spending a term in Oxford.
   c. To talk about trends or a changing situation
      Unemployment is still going up by 1% a month.
   d. To express a future meaning (See Future forms).
   e. With always to add expression
      She’s always taking my things (to express annoyance).

3. Present perfect simple
   We use the present perfect simple:
   a. To talk about something which started in the past and continues into the present
      We have lived in this house for thirty years.
   b. To talk about past events when no specific time is given or suggested
      Have you ever eaten oysters?
      Mandy has been to Argentina.
   c. To talk about recent events where the result is still visible
      Your sitting room looks different. Have you painted it?
   d. With adverbs such as yet, just and already (especially in British English)
      Have you written your composition yet?
      She has done more than fifty parachute jumps.

4. Present perfect continuous
   We use the present perfect continuous:
   a. To talk about continuous activities which started in the past and continue into the present (with an emphasis placed on the duration of the activity)
      Your father has been working in the garden since eight o’clock this morning.
   b. To talk about repeated actions up to the present
      I’ve been trying to call the box-office all day, but I just can’t get through.

Remember:

Some of these verbs can also be dynamic, with a change in meaning:
- To be (stative) = natural state.
- To be (active) = to act/behave.

Dynamic verbs can be used in the present continuous to show the temporary nature of the action:
- What do you think about global warming? What’s your general opinion (stative sense.)
- Is everything OK? What are you thinking about? (right now – dynamic sense).
- She is lazy (it is her natural state).
- She is being lazy (at the moment).
- She is smelling the flowers. The flowers smell nice. The flowers smell are smelling nice.
- She is tasting the soup. The soup tastes good. The soup is tasting good.
To emphasise an activity rather than a quantity/result
She has been writing short stories for ten years (activity), she has written more than fifty (result).

d To talk about a recent activity where a result is still visible
Q: Why are you all red?
A: I've been sunbathing.

Remember:
Rather is not a verb. Not: I rather the cinema than the theatre but I prefer the cinema to the theatre. = I'd (would) rather go to the cinema.

If we want to include a noun or pronoun within the sentence then we have to use the simple past:

I'd rather go to the cinema.
I'd rather we went to the cinema. (See Time).

Choose the correct form.
1 They regularly leave/are leaving this early in the morning.
2 A: Where is she? We need to go.
   B: She be/is being difficult. She won't come out of her room.
3 A: What do you do/are you doing here?
   B: I work in the production department.
4 The price of oil actually falls/is actually falling around the world at the moment.
5 A: How's the cheese?
   B: It tastes/is tasting good!
6 They are working/have worked here for over ten years.
7 She's been revising/revised for over three hours. It's time she took a break.
8 The phone hasn't stopped/been stopping ringing all day.
9 This room looks nice. Have you redecorated/been redecorating it?
10 This room is looking nice. How long have you painted/been painting it?

13 Relative clauses

Relative clauses give us more information about the subject or object of a sentence. They link two ideas within the same sentence and can be defining, or non-defining.

13.1 Defining relative clauses

1 Use defining relative clauses to complete sentences with essential information.
   Defining relative clauses often begin with the pronouns:
   Who/that for people
   Which/that for objects and animals
   Where for place
   Whose for possession
   That's the stupid woman whose dog bit me.
   When for time
   Do you remember the time when Mary and Jack came to stay?

Whom (In more formal written or spoken English whom is used as the object pronoun)
   Here is the man whom we told you about
   Why for reason
   He gave the reason why he couldn't come.

2 In writing and more formal speech we may use prepositions with a pronoun:
   on which = when e.g. This is the day on which we got married.
   in which = where
   for which = why
   to whom = who...

Remember:
In defining relative clauses, who, which and that can be left out when they refer to the object of the verb in the relative clause.

   Do you want to watch the DVD (which/that) I got for my birthday?
   The person (who/that) I spoke to yesterday said it would be free.
   Sam bought the jeans (which/that) she'd seen last week.

13.2 Non-defining relative clauses

Non-defining relative clauses give extra information which is not absolutely essential for the main meaning of the sentence. In written English we separate them from the main clause by commas. In speech, the speaker will generally pause an instant before continuing with the extra information:

The Colossus of Rhodes, which/that stood by the harbour, was destroyed by an earthquake.

Notice: We can't use that in non-defining relative clauses.

Vincent, that had never eaten mangoes before, developed dark red patches all over his body.

Correct the pronouns in each sentence.
1 Jurga is the man whose gave me my first job.
2 This is my lodger, that I was telling you about.
3 India, where is the place I first visited in 1980, is a country I'd like to return to.
4 Christmas is a time in some countries that family and friends get together.
5 The reason when I didn't call you was because my phone battery ran out of charge.
6 My only sister, that lives in Toronto, is coming to visit next month.
7 The church on which we got married is no longer here.
8 My car, which I left at home had a flat tire yesterday.

14 Reported speech and reporting verbs

We use reported speech to say what someone else has said. We usually take one step further back in the past when we report. This is called 'backshift'.

Jenny: I am going to see Barry  Jenny said she was going to see Barry.
**Form: present continuous + past continuous**

1. Use say and tell to report statements
   - Steve: I’ve got a headache, Malcolm. Steve said that he had a headache.
   - Steve said to Malcolm that he had a headache. **Note:** Steve told to Malcolm/him that he had a headache.

2. Tell is generally used to report instructions and orders
   - Mum: Tidy up your bedroom, Felix. Felix’s Mum told him to tidy up his room.

3. Reported Questions
   - a. *Wh*-questions: Use ask and want to know to report *wh*-questions
      - Katia: Where does Günther live, Rita? Katia asked (Rita) where Günther lived.
      - Katia wanted to know where Günther lived. (We don’t know who Katia asked.)

   - b. Yes/No questions: Use if and whether to report yes/no questions
      - Katia: Do you know where Gunther lives? Katia wanted to know if/whether we knew where Günther lived.

**Form: verb (+ that) + clause**

2. Tell is generally used to report instructions and orders
   - Mum: Tidy up your bedroom, Felix. Felix’s Mum told him to tidy up his room.

**Form: verb + object + infinitive with to**

3. Reported Questions
   - a. *Wh*-questions: Use ask and want to know to report *wh*-questions
      - Katia: Where does Günther live, Rita? Katia asked (Rita) where Günther lived.
      - Katia wanted to know where Günther lived. (We don’t know who Katia asked.)

   - b. Yes/No questions: Use if and whether to report yes/no questions
      - Katia: Do you know where Gunther lives? Katia wanted to know if/whether we knew where Günther lived.

4. Advice and suggestions.
   - Terry: Let’s go for a bike ride.
     - Terry suggested going for a bike ride.
     - Terry suggested that we go for a bike ride (less formal).
     - Terry suggested our going for a bike ride (more formal).
     - Terry suggested that we should go for a bike ride.

5. Changes to place and time
   - Remember that using reported speech may involve making changes to references to place and time.

6. Use the reporting verb you are given to change the sentences from direct to reported speech. Make any other necessary changes to the words in **bold**.

   - 1. Lionel: You really should apply for the job, Romain. **Lionel encouraged** ____________.
   - 2. Sam: I wouldn’t walk round **this** part of town after dark, Derek. **Sam warned** ____________.
   - 3. Joan: Let’s visit the ruins **tomorrow**. **Joan suggested** ____________.
   - 4. Lori: I’m sorry I was late **the day before yesterday**, Kim. **Lori apologised to** ____________.
   - 5. Patrick: Don’t forget to collect **my** prescription from the chemist’s, Charlene. **Patrick reminded** Charlene ____________.
   - 6. Paul: I didn’t call you **last night**, Sarah, because I couldn’t find your new number. **Paul explained to** Sarah why ____________.
   - 7. Doctor: You should try to go to bed earlier, Mr. Rossi. **The doctor advised** ____________.
   - 8. Penny: You shouldn’t have brought the subject up, Nick. **Penny criticised** ____________.

**Remember:**

Some reporting verbs contain the sentiment of the original statement. It is important that the correct forms and word pattern follow the reporting verbs in question.

**Form: verb + to + infinitive (offer, refuse, threaten, promise, agree)**

**verb + object + to + infinitive (convince, persuade, tell, advise, encourage, remind, warn)**

**verb + gerund (suggest, propose, recommend, deny, admit, mention)**

- Cindy: I’m sorry about breaking the vase. **Cindy apologised** for breaking the vase.
- Paul: Don’t touch that switch, Ben. **Paul warned** Ben not to touch the switch.
15 Will/would and used to

15.1 Will and would

1 Will is used to talk about expected behaviour:
   The cat scratched me when I tried to pick him up.
   Ah yes, he will do that with strangers. (He has done this with other people.)

2 Would is used to describe past habits and repeated actions:
   When mother came home from working in the shop all day long she would sit in the armchair and put her aching legs up.
   Would can’t be used to talk about past states:
   He would be fat when he was a child.

3 Used to is used
   A As an auxiliary
   Used to + base form can be used to describe both discontinued past habits and states:
   She used to be skinny when she was a teenager (= a state).
   I used to play tennis every Saturday morning (= a habit).

   Form: used to + base form

Remember:
If we give precise information about how long a state or habit lasted then we use the simple past.
Not: I used to smoke for ten years; but: I smoked for ten years.

Q: Do you smoke Martin?
A: Not any more, but I used to (Notice the short reply)

b As an adjective.
   We use ‘be used to + gerund’ or ‘get used to + gerund’ to express the idea of being, or becoming accustomed/familiar with something.
   Sally is used to getting up early. (She is accustomed to getting up early, it’s not a problem for her.)

   Form: be used to + gerund
   When Sam went to university he missed his family a lot, but now things are better, he is getting used to living away from home. (He is developing the habit of being away from home.)

   Form: get used to + gerund

Complete these sentences with will, would, was or used to.
1 Nigel ______________ do that when he’s tired, I’m afraid.
2 We ______________ always walk this way home when we were children.
3 She ______________ have black hair didn’t she?
4 They ______________ always be late – even when they were children.

16 So and such; too and enough

1 Use so and such clauses to show a relationship of cause and effect between clauses. So and such appear in the cause clause.
   The lesson was boring. I fell asleep at my desk.
   Cause effect
   The lesson was so boring that I fell asleep at my desk.

   Form: so + adjective
   It was such a boring lesson that I fell asleep at my desk.

   Form: such + (adjective) + noun
   A less usual variation is
   It was so boring a lesson that I fell asleep at my desk.

   Form: so + adjective + a (indefinite article)

2 Use too and enough to show that too much or too little of something prevented something else from happening. Too and enough provide an explanation for what happened or didn’t happen:
   Julian wanted to join the army. He was only 15 years old.
   = He was too young to join the army.

   Form: too + adjective + infinitive
   He wasn’t old enough to join the army.

   Form: not + adjective + enough + infinitive

Remember:
We put enough before nouns, but after adjectives.
   She didn’t have enough money to rent a flat.

   Form: enough + noun
   She wasn’t rich enough to rent a flat.

   Form: adjective + enough

1 Beginning with the word/s in bold, put the sentences into the right order.
   1 She – have – finish – enough – didn’t – time – exam – the – to.
   2 The film – was – all – made – me – that – so – laugh – it – day – funny.
   3 They – too – holiday – children – were – poor – take – to – their – on.
   4 He cried – because – day – he – sad – all – so – was.
   5 Rupert was – such – that – a – in – mood – to – refused – bad – me – he – to – speak.

2 Continue the second sentence so that it has a similar meaning to the one above.
   1 We were so tired after the journey that we went straight to bed.
   It was ____________________________.

   2 She is too young to travel on her own.
   She isn’t ____________________________.

   3 His exam results were such a disappointment for his parents.
   His parents ____________________________.

   4 There isn’t enough space for an extra suitcase.
   The suitcase ____________________________.
17 Transitive and intransitive verbs

17.1 Intransitive verbs
Intransitive verbs (I) only concern the subject (the person who performs the action) and the verb (the action). There is no direct object. Examples of intransitive verbs are arrive, go, come, sleep, watch, move, vanish and disappear:

- The bus came.
- The boat disappeared.

We can introduce another person or thing with an adverbial phrase or a prepositional phrase:

- Melinda finally arrived twenty minutes late.
- The boat disappeared in the storm.

Form: subject + verb

17.2 Transitive verbs
Transitive verbs (T) concern or affect another person or thing (the object) as well as the subject.

1. They cannot stand alone and must take an object.
2. Transitive verbs include see, do, make, own.

- I found. = incomplete.
- I found her watch. = complete.

Form: subject + verb + object

2. Transitive verbs, unlike intransitive verbs can be made passive:
- Her watch was found under the sofa.

3. Many transitive verbs can be used intransitively:

Q: What did you do this morning, children?
A: We played. (T)
A: We played tennis. (T)

Remember:
Do not confuse intransitive verbs and their transitive equivalents.
- die (I) kill (T); rise (I) raise (T); vanish/disappear (I) lose (T)

Are these sentences correct or incorrect? Write or .

1. She slept.
2. I own.
3. We played golf.
4. We play.
5. Three hundred people died.
6. Three hundred people were died.
7. Magically, the wizard vanished.
8. What have you found?

18 Wish

We use wish:

1. To express our hopes for what we want to happen or not to happen in the future:
   - I wish I knew the answer (= but I don’t).

   Form: subject + simple past
   - I wish I could speak Arabic (= but I can’t).

   Form: subject + wish + could/was able to + infinitive (without to)

2. For present/future situations you would like to change we use would:
   - I wish he would stop whistling, (but I don’t think he will).

   Form: wish + would + infinitive (without to)

3. For regrets about things which happened entirely in the past and which we are unable to change we use wish + past perfect:
   - I wish I hadn’t said anything.

   Form: wish + past perfect (had + past participle)

Remember:
To express regrets, wishes and lost opportunities in the past we can substitute if only for wish:
If only I hadn’t said anything.

Match the two halves of the sentences.

1. I wish I could ____.
2. I wish I was able ____.
3. I wish he ____.
4. I wish I had visited ____.
5. I wish I spoke ____.
6. If only ____.

- a would stop interrupting.
- b German
- c to speak Chinese
- d I spoke German and Chinese
- e speak Chinese.
- f Germany last year.

19 Verb groups

19.1 Irregular verbs can be organized into groups which behave in a similar way. Some verbs, including some of the most common, do not follow a pattern.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Simple Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be</td>
<td>was/were</td>
<td>done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>eaten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eat</td>
<td>ate</td>
<td>gone/been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>go</td>
<td>went</td>
<td>seen</td>
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<tr>
<td>see</td>
<td>saw</td>
<td>won</td>
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<tr>
<td>win</td>
<td>won</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

19.2 Past simple and past participle (the same)

We can make sub-groups of similar verbs.

Ending in -ought or -aught

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Past Simple</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>catch</td>
<td>caught</td>
<td>caught</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bring</td>
<td>brought</td>
<td>brought</td>
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<td>buy</td>
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<tr>
<td>seek</td>
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<td>sought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>think</td>
<td>thought</td>
<td>thought</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ending in -eep, -ept

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Past Simple</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>keep</td>
<td>kept</td>
<td>kept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sleep</td>
<td>slept</td>
<td>slept</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Present and past participle the same

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Past Simple</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>become</td>
<td>became</td>
<td>become</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>come</td>
<td>come</td>
<td>come</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>run</td>
<td>run</td>
<td>run</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ending in t or d
| get       | got       | got/gotten (US) |
| learn    | learnt    | learnt         |
| mean     | meant     | meant          |
| meet     | met       | met            |
| sit      | sat       | sat            |
| find     | found     | found          |
| have     | had       | had            |
| hear     | heard     | heard          |
| hold     | held      | held           |
| make     | made      | made           |
| stand    | stood     | stood          |
| understand | understood | understood |
| lend     | lent      | lent           |
| send     | sent      | sent           |
| spend    | spent     | spent          |
| sell     | sold      | sold           |
| tell     | told      | told           |
| pay      | paid      | paid           |
| say      | said      | said           |

**Change from -i to -a to -u**

| begin     | began     | begun         |
| ring      | rang      | rung          |
| swim      | swam      | swum          |

**Change from -ear to -ore to -orn**

| bear      | bore      | born          |
| wear      | wore      | worn          |

**Change from -ow or -y to -ew to -own or -own**

| fly       | flew      | flown         |
| grow      | grew      | grown         |
| know      | knew      | known         |
| draw      | drew      | drawn         |

**No change**

| cost     | cost      | cost          |
| cut      | cut       | cut           |
| forecast | forecast  | forecast      |
| hit      | hit       | hit           |
| put      | put       | put           |
| read     | read      | read          |

**Past participle in -en**

| beat     | beat      | beaten        |
| break    | broke     | broken        |
| choose   | chose     | chosen        |
| fall     | fell      | fallen        |
| forget   | forgot    | forgotten     |
| freeze   | froze     | frozen        |
| give     | gave      | given         |
| hide     | hid       | hidden        |
| rise     | rose      | risen         |
| speak    | spoke     | spoken        |
| take     | took      | taken         |
| write    | wrote     | written       |