

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 ~~youngs~~ 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 = There was a frightened 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 participle (*-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/n **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** racket.
- 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.

However we **can't** use *absolutely, completely, totally*, or *utterly* to modify gradable adjectives:

I was ~~absolutely~~ angry when I heard the news.

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.

We **can't** use *a little, fairly, slightly, rather, quite, very, extremely*, etc. with non-gradable adjectives:

We were ~~a little exhausted~~ after a long day of shopping.

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

good = marvellous, wonderful, fantastic...

Gradable

Modifiers	Adjectives	Example
A little, fairly, slightly, rather, quite, very, extremely	Tired, hungry, bad, angry, pretty, embarrassed, disappointed	<i>I was very angry when I heard the news.</i>

Non-gradable

Modifiers	Adjectives	Example
Absolutely, completely, utterly, totally	Terrible, awful, dreadful, exhausted, furious, gorgeous, starving, mortified, devastated	<i>We were utterly exhausted after a long day's shopping.</i>

Complete the responses to these exchanges using non-gradable adjectives.

- A: Were you pleased with your results?
B: Pleased? I was completely _____.
- A: You must have been angry when you heard the news.
B: Angry? I was totally _____.
- A: She looked lovely in her wedding dress.
B: Lovely? She looked absolutely _____.
- A: I heard that the play was bad.
B: Bad? It was utterly _____.
- A: Were you tired and hungry after the walk?
B: Tired and hungry? We were absolutely _____ and _____.
- A: Were they disappointed to lose the match?
B: Disappointed? They were utterly _____.

2 Adverbs

2.1 Adverbs of frequency

1 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:

- 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.)
- 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.

- We *always take nearly* the train between Brussels and Paris.
- Tess and Jerry go to *cinema time the to time from*.
- Why don't we go to a restaurant? We *seem these eat hardly to days out*.
- I'm really fed up, *clothes he borrowing is my always* without asking.
- They used *on to tennis mornings always play Sunday* but since the baby *time ever they hardly have*.
- 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

Adjective	Adverb
fast	fast
hard	hard
good	well

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.

- 9 She is _____ third woman to be _____ minister of _____ education.
- 10 _____ fear of _____ snakes is much more common than you might think.

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.

Remember:

Spelling

i One syllable adjectives:

- If a one syllable adjective ends in a single vowel letter followed by a single consonant letter, the consonant letter is doubled
thin → *thinner*, *big* → *bigger*, *sad* → *sadder*,
slim → *slimmer*, *fat* → *fatter*.
- If an adjective ends in *-e*, this is removed when adding *-er*
wide → *wider*, *rude* → *ruder*, *brave* → *braver*.
- If an adjective ends in a consonant followed by *-y*, *-y* is replaced by *-i* when adding *-er*
dry → *drier*, *coy* → *coyer*.

ii Two syllable adjectives:

- Two syllable adjectives ending in *-ed*, *-ing*, *-ful*, or *-less* always form the comparative with *more* or *less*
worried → *more worried*, *boring* → *more boring*,
careful → *more careful*, *useless* → *more useless*.
- However with two syllable adjectives ending in *-y*, we use *-ier* instead of *more*
pretty → *prettier*, *happy* → *happier*,
healthy → *healthier*.
- With some other two syllable adjectives we can either precede them with *more* or add *-er* to the adjective
clever *cleverer/more clever*, *quiet* *quieter/more quiet*,
polite *politer/more polite*.

iii Three syllable adjectives:

- Three syllable adjectives take *more* or *less*
~~*expensiver*~~ → *more expensive*, *dangerous* → *more dangerous*, *difficult* → *less difficult*.
- The only exceptions are some three syllable words which have been formed using the prefix *-un*
unhappy → ~~*more unhappy*~~ *unhappier*,
unpleasant → ~~*more unpleasant*~~ *unpleasanter*.

Notice: *As* may be used to compare the way two things are similar or different.

Form: *as* + adjective + *as*

She is as old as her husband.

This one isn't as valuable/well-made as the other one.

It is used as a substitute for the superlative (see below).

There isn't a more expensive hotel in the town. (It's the most expensive hotel in town.)

It is also used when we want to show that actions and results are connected in a progressive way.

The older he gets the more stubborn he becomes.

5.2 Superlatives

Most superlatives are formed by adding *-est* to adjectives which are short (one or two syllables); and using *the most/least* before longer adjectives (three or more syllables).

She's **my youngest** student and also **the most** intelligent.

We use the superlative:

1 To express the greatest degree of comparison.

*I think that Use of English is **the most difficult** part of the exam.*

2 To describe experiences or events.

*It's **the most frightening** ride I have ever been on.*

Form: superlative + present perfect

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.

2 We don't use *-er* or *-est*.

There are important exceptions, as explained below.

Adjective	Comparative adverb	Superlative	Adverb
good/well	better	best	well
bad/badly	worse	worst	badly
hard/hard	harder	hardest	hard
fast/fast	faster	fastest	fast

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 _____?

6 Each book I read adds to my understanding.

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?

Remember:

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

Form: If + past simple/would/could/might + infinitive (without 'to')

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 Contrasting 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/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.

1 Decide if the following sentences are correct or incorrect.

- 1 It was a perfect day although we had a wonderful time.
Correct [] Incorrect []
- 2 Nevertheless we were late, we managed to see the film.
Correct [] Incorrect []
- 3 He managed to pass his exams even though he hadn't studied.
Correct [] Incorrect []
- 4 Even though she went to bed she was tired.
Correct [] Incorrect []
- 5 Despite it was a long journey we enjoyed the trip.
Correct [] Incorrect []

2 Beginning with the word in **bold**, put the rest of the sentence in the right order.

- 1 **Even** – she – came – minister – poor – though – from – a – family – she – became – prime.
- 2 **In** – tired – of – the – time – didn't – spite – we – feel – too.
- 3 **The** – was – rough – managed – sea – the – port – sailors – nevertheless – reach – the – to.
- 4 **We** – a – raining – had – lovely – evening – fact – that – the – despite – it – was.

3 Rephrase the sentences using the words in **bold**.

- 1 She has lots of money but she never spends it. **despite**
- 2 He refused to wear a coat. It was cold. **nevertheless**
- 3 She had hurt her foot but she still won the race. **fact**
- 4 He felt tired but he still drove through the night. **even**

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 **an** information.*
*I asked for **some** information about language courses.* [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/There were no 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 to 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 Bremner _____ (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 get-up getting up early in the morning.

(*used to* = adjective made from the past participle.)

I'm looking forward to see 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

- We use the bare infinitive (infinitive without *to*)
 - After modal verbs:
We should listen to what she says.
 - After *make* and *let*:
They made me wear school uniform.
They wouldn't let me play.
- We use the full infinitive (with *to*)
 - 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).
 - After certain verbs such as *appear*, *manage*, *seem*, *want*, *would like*, and *prefer*.
 - With the 'lexical future': *intend*, *plan*, *decide*:
We intend, plan, decide to stay there for three nights.
 - 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*.

- 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.)
- 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.

- We tried **to open/opening** the door but it was locked from the other side.
- I didn't enjoy **to play/playing** rugby when I was at school.
- I hate **to tell/telling** you this but smoke is coming out of the engine.

- Would you mind **to check/checking** this form I have filled in?
 - Are you looking forward **to go/going** to college next year?
 - I know it's difficult, but have you tried **to tell/telling** her the truth?
 - Mildred likes **to keep/keeping** empty egg-boxes, it's a strange habit of hers.
 - The child stopped **to cry/crying** when we gave him an ice-cream.
 - Greg keeps on **to phone/phoning** Sarah – it's really annoying.
 - Did you remember **to post/posting** that letter I gave you this morning?
 - Would you like to come **round/coming round** for dinner tonight?
 - That's not true, I don't remember **to say/saying** that!
 - She didn't mean **to upset/upsetting** him by what she said.
 - They were tired after **to climb/climbing** the hill, so they stopped to have/having a rest.
 - Could you remind me **to take/taking** the car to the garage?
 - 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.
- I forgot to take my passport. **REMEMBER**
I _____.
 - Remind me to record that programme. **FORGET**
Don't let _____.
 - I can't wait to go to Canada next summer. **FORWARD**
I'm _____ next summer.
 - Do you think you could close the window, please? **MIND**
Would _____.
 - He was overweight so he went on a diet. **ORDER**
He went on a diet _____ weight.
 - How about going to a restaurant tonight? **LIKE**
Would _____ to a restaurant tonight?
 - 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.

- Inversion is used with *so* and *neither* in short answers to agree with something someone 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.

- 1 Match the statements with short replies which agree with what has been said.

- | | |
|--|--------------------------|
| 1 I laughed all the way through the film ____. | a Neither can I ____. |
| 2 We don't often eat out ____. | b So are we ____. |
| 3 I am going to Italy this summer ____. | c I did too ____. |
| 4 We didn't mean to upset her ____. | d So had we ____. |
| 5 I can't ski very well ____. | e We didn't either ____. |
| 6 They had planned to leave after lunch ____. | f Neither do we ____. |

- 2 Beginning with the word in **bold**, rephrase the sentences.

1 The moment he finished one job his boss gave him another. **Hardly**

2 The second I got the exam results I phoned my parents. **No**

3 I have never seen such an untidy bedroom! **Never**

4 She speaks Italian, Chinese and Japanese too. **Not**

5 I would have told him if I'd seen him. **Had**

11 Modals

Modal auxiliary verbs such as *can*, *must*, and *will* allow us to express concepts such as 'ability' and 'obligation'. We also use them to allow us to perform a wide range of functional tasks, such as making requests or speculating. The context in which modal verbs appear is important as each modal has a number of different uses.

Some modals **do not** have a future or past form.

We can't use two modals together.

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 say something 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

1 We use *need* to say when something is necessary or unnecessary:

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.

- Choose the correct modal verb.
 - According to the law, you **have to/must** pay your taxes by January 1st.
 - You **needn't have bought/didn't need to buy** this. We already have one. Take it back.
 - A: I need someone to help me with this.
B: I have nothing to do. I **'ll/d** help you.
 - They **must/might** be late. Julie rang earlier and said it's possible because Ray has to work late.
 - A: What **shall/will** we do tonight?
B: We could go to the cinema.
A: Good idea.
 - You **would/ought to** invite them too or they'll be insulted.
 - Are you able to/could** you give me the bill, please?
- Rewrite the first sentence using the words in the second sentence.
 - Do you** always say the first thing that pops into your head?
_____ you think before you speak?
 - You **should go** tonight.
You _____ to go tonight.
 - Your father **must have** been angry about your exam results.
Your father _____ happy about your exam results.
 - We were **able to** find somewhere to park.
We _____ find a place to park.
 - There's **no need to** help.
You don't _____ to help.
 - Maybe** they left earlier.
They might _____.

12 Narrative tenses

12.1 Past tenses

1 Past simple

We use the past simple:

- To talk about single past actions or a clear sequence of past actions.

Remember:

We don't have to repeat the subject if it doesn't change.
She opened the envelope, (she) took out the letter and smiled.

- To talk about past states

I taught in that school for thirteen years.

2 Past continuous

We use the past continuous:

- To describe past actions which were in progress at a given time or period in the past.
- At the beginning of a narrative we use the past continuous to set the scene:
The lawyers were looking through their papers preparing their arguments for the trial to come. The defendant's wife was anxiously twisting a handkerchief between her fingers.
- To show an action was in progress when another action took place:
We were watching TV when we heard a loud bang from the street below.
- To show that different actions were in progress at the same time:
While we were lying on the beach someone was going through our things in the hotel room.

Remember:

We can often leave out *was/were* and use the present participle on its own. As in the past simple, we don't have to repeat the subject if it doesn't change:

Shoppers were crowding round the counter, (they were) snatching bargains from under each other's noses.

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 1 _____ (go by) since the disaster at the beach so Olivier 2 _____ (decide) to try his luck with Isabelle again. He 3 _____ (try) to ring her, but each time she 4 _____ (hear) his voice she 5 _____ (hang up). This time; however, Olivier 6 _____ (have) a secret weapon! He 7 _____ (receive) an invitation to a smart party in a country château, and many stars 8 _____ (going to) be there. Isabelle 9 _____ (not able) to resist. This time Olivier 10 _____ (borrow) his mother's new BMW Isabelle 11 _____ (wear) a silk evening dress and pearls – she 12 _____ (never look) so wonderful. They 13 _____ (drive) through the forest to the château, when suddenly a wild boar 14 _____ (appear). Olivier 15 _____ (can not) avoid it and the car 16 _____ (go into) it with a tremendous bang – killing the creature! Fortunately the boar 17 _____ (not do) too much damage, but Olivier 18 _____ (know) his mother would never believe what 19 _____ (happen) without seeing the evidence. With Isabelle's help, they 20 _____ (push) it into the back. Unfortunately while they 21 _____ (do) this, Isabelle's necklace 22 _____ (break) so they 23 _____ (have to) spend ten minutes picking up the pearls. Once they 24 _____ (finish) they 25 _____ (be) were ready to continue on their journey when they 26 _____ (hear) a loud cry from the back – the boar 27 _____ (wake up)! They 28 _____ (jump) out of the car and 29 _____ (watch) in horror as the angry creature 30 _____ (destroy) the interior. When the police 32 _____ (arrive) they 32 _____ (have to) fire fifty shots into the car to kill it. Needless to say, they never 33 _____ (go) to the party!

12.2 Passive voice

The active voice emphasises the actions performed by people or things. The passive voice focuses on what happens to people or things as the result of the actions they experience.

Active:

a. *Debbie ate all the cakes.* = we are more interested in what Debbie did.

Passive:

b. *All the cakes were eaten by Debbie.* = we are more interested in the cakes and what happened to them.

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 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 photograph 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 adverbial 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 off them 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*
- which deal with states: *be, seem, look*
- 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.*

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.

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?

- e To talk about quantities, a number of repeated, completed actions

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.

- c 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 theatre than 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.

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

- Use defining relative clauses to complete sentences with essential information.
 Defining relative clauses often begin with the pronouns:
Who/that for people
There's the man who/that helped me.
Which/that for objects and animals
This is the computer that/which broke down.
Where for place
This is the restaurant where we first met.
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.

- 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... to

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~~ who had never eaten mangoes before, developed dark red patches all over his body.

Correct the pronouns in each sentence.

- Jurga is the man whose gave me my first job.
- This is my lodger, that I was telling you about.
- India, where is the place I first visited in 1980, is a country I'd like to return to.
- Christmas is a time in some countries that family and friends get together.
- The reason when I didn't call you was because my phone battery ran out of charge.
- My only sister, that lives in Toronto, is coming to visit next month.
- The church on which we got married is no longer here.
- 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. Steve told Malcolm/him (that) he had a headache.

Not: ~~Steve told to Malcolm/him that he had a headache~~
~~Steve said Malcolm.~~

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.)

Form: The *wh-* word is followed by a statement word order (subject followed by verb)

b *Yes/No* questions: Use *if* and *whether* to report *yes/no* questions

Katia: *Do you know where Günther lives?* Katia wanted to know *if/whether* we knew where Günther lived.

Form: verb + *if/whether* + word order is the same as reported statements

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.*

Form: suggest + *-ing*; suggest + *that* + past simple; suggest + *that* + (should) + infinitive without *to*

a *You ought to go on a diet.*

Dr Morris advised Henry *to go on a diet.* (Used to advise someone to do something.)

b *'Let's buy a drink', she said.*

She suggested *buying a drink.*

She suggested *that we buy a drink.*

She suggested *that we should buy a drink.*

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.

Steffi: *Don't forget to keep the receipt, Martyn.* Steffi **reminded** Martyn to keep the receipt.

Rees: *I think you should see a doctor, Milton.* Rees

advised/encouraged Milton to see a doctor

Katie: You must go and see Borat, it's hilarious.

Katie **recommended** seeing Borat.

or Katie **recommended** that we see Borat.

John: *You were stupid to leave your car unlocked, Martha.*

John **criticised** Martha for leaving her car unlocked.

5 Changes to place and time

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

Now then

Today that day

Before earlier

The day before yesterday two days earlier

This evening that evening

Last night the previous night/the night before

The next day the following day

1 Correct the sentences.

1 Paul said me to call this number.

2 Melinda told she felt tired.

3 Marissa told to Kevin to be careful.

4 He told to me the story.

5 She asked what time did the train leave?

6 Howard wanted to know from where we had bought the flowers.

2 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 that _____.

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 _____.

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.
 - 6 **Unfortunately** – to – fit – Lucy – enough – in – wasn't – final – play – the.
- 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.

Transitive verbs include *see*, *do*, *make*, and *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.* (I)

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.

be	was/were	done
do	did	eaten
eat	ate	gone/been
go	went	seen
see	saw	won
win	won	

19.2 Past simple and past participle (the same)

We can make sub-groups of similar verbs.

Ending in *-ought* or *-aught*

catch	caught	caught
bring	brought	brought
buy	bought	bought
seek	sought	sought
think	thought	thought

Ending in *-eep*, *-ept*

keep	kept	kept
sleep	slept	slept

Present and past participle the same

become	became	become
come	came	come
run	ran	run

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 *-awn*

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