

## **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 <del>afraid</del> 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 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/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 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. 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 was very angry when I heard the news.		

#### Non-gradable

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

Complete the responses to these exchanges using nongradable adjectives.

- 1 A: Were you pleased with your results?
  - B: Pleased? I was completely.
- 2 A: You must have been angry when you heard the news.
  - B: Angry? I was totally
- 3 A: She looked lovely in her wedding dress.
  - B: Lovely? She looked absolutely \_\_\_\_\_
- 4 A: I heard that the play was bad.
- B: Bad? It was utterly

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- 5 A: Were you tired and hungry after the walk?
  - B: Tired and hungry? We were absolutely and \_\_\_\_\_\_.
- 6 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:

- 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.

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## 2.3 Irregular adverbs

<b>Adjective</b> fast	<b>Adverb</b> 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 s	sentences	by transfor	rming	the	adjectives	into
adverbs. Make	any other	necessary	chang	ges.		

1	пез	d	very	goou	ciiess	player.	
	11	1.					

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.

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
- 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 articlesthe = 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.





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 in a general sense *I love animals*.
- 2 With uncountable, and abstract nouns Money makes the world go around. Knowledge is power.

Comple	ete the	sentences	with	a,	the	or	Ø	(no	article	)
--------	---------	-----------	------	----	-----	----	---	-----	---------	---

1		two biggest problems we face are
		global warming and
	pollution.	
2	•	violin for her daughter who
	said she wanted	to learn quitar.
3		about it, rich are
		d poor are getting
	•	government should do
	•	this and help
	•	unemployed.
4		famous author once said that
_		past was foreign
	country.	. past was foreign
5	•	ıght pair of trousers for
5		minutes later I saw exactly
		•
_		same ones for £50!
0		little knowledge is
		dangerous thing. I discovered
		truth of this when I tried to fix
		car. In end I had to
		mechanic from
	nearest garage to	•
7		cost of materials
		oil, copper
		rubber keeps going up.
		last time I filled up my car I
	almost fainted w	hen I saw price on
		pump.
8		money can't buy you
		love, but I'd rather
	be	miserable rich person than
		miserable poor one.

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9	She is	ı to be	
		minister of	education.
10		fear of	snakes is much
	more common th	an 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.
- 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 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  $\rightarrow$  thinner, big  $\rightarrow$  bigger, sad  $\rightarrow$  sadder, slim  $\rightarrow$  slimmer, fat  $\rightarrow$  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 → cover.
- 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
- 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

	Complete the sentences using a comparative or superlative form of the word in <b>bold</b> .
	1 It was a wonderful meal, in fact it was
	delicious I had ever eaten.
2	2 Last term her English was excellent and she was the
	good in the class, but this term it's the
	<b>bad</b> , I wonder what has happened.
3	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?
ı	5 I feel much good this morning so I'll
	go to school.
6	6 The exam wasn't as easy I had
	imagined.
-	7 His brother doesn't speak <i>good</i> than
	him.
8	8 Cristiano plays football more beautiful
	than any other player.
g	9 Felicia swims <i>fast</i> than Samantha but
	not <i>quick</i> as Ana.
1	O Nobody works as hard Xu, he has
	learned all the irregular verbs even the
	hard.
	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	2 Nobody knew him better than Amanda.
	Nobody knew him as Amanda.
3	3 I have never had such a bad flight.
	It was the ever had.
4	4 Her car goes faster than mine.
	My car doesn't hers.
į	5 Do you have a more recent version of this song?
	Is this the?
6	6 Each book I read adds to my understanding.

I understand.

The more I \_\_\_\_\_

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## **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		nange the verbs in brackets to form conditional entences.
	1	I (take) her to the station if she (do) my French homework!
		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
	٥	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)

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- 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 + qerund

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 [ ]
- 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
  - 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.

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## 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.  $\lceil \mathsf{U} \rceil$ 

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/anv/no + one/bodv/where/thina

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.

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, car
	you get more the next time you go
	shopping.
8	She won't do thing without first
Ĭ	checking with her boss.
9	Do you fancy coffee? There's
	new jar in the cupboard.
10	There isn't one
-0	can say or do – it's hopeless!
	can day or act too hopetooo.

- 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 Brusssels 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.



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#### 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 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 <b>going</b> t	0.				

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 my 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

- 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 correctform 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	Ι	forgot to	take	my	passport.	REMEMBER
	Т					

2	Remind	me	to	record	that	programme.	FORGET
	Don't le	t					

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 \_\_\_\_\_\_ weight.
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 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.



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.  $\rightarrow$  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	a	Neither can I
	the film	b	So are we
2	We don't often eat out	С	I did too
3	I am going to Italy this summer	d	So had we
4	We didn't mean to upset her	e	We didn't either
5	I can't ski very well	f	Neither do we
6	They had planned to leave after		
	lunch .		

- 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.
  - 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.

We use can

- 1 To talk about abilities:
  - She can skate beautifully.

11.1 Can (infinitive to be able)

- 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 ao.
- 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.



*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.

They might

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- 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	you
	head?									

	nead:
	you think before you speak?
2	You <b>should go</b> tonight.
	You to go tonight.
3	Your father <b>must have</b> been angry about your exam results.
	Your father happy about your exam results.
4	We were <b>able to</b> find somewhere to park.
	We find a place to park.
5	There's no <b>need to</b> help.
	You don't to help.
6	Maybe they left earlier.

## **12 Narrative tenses**

#### 12.1 Past tenses

1 Past simple

We use the past simple:

a 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.

- b To talk about past states
  I taught in that school for thirteen years.
- 2 Past continuous

We use the past continuous:

- a To describe past actions which were in progress at a given time or period in the past.
- b 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.
- c 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.

d 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

- a 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.
- b 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	
his luck with Isabelle again. He	
ring her, but each time she 4	
voice she 5 (ha	ang 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 sta	
to) be there. Isabelle 9	
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 sudo	denly a wild boar
14 (appear). 0l	ivier 15
(can not) avoid it and the car 16	5 (go into)
it with a tremendous bang - kill	
the boar 17 (no	
Olivier 18 (kno	w) his mother would never
Olivier 18 (kno believe what 19	_ (happen) without seeing
the evidence. With Isabelle's hel	p, they
20 (push) it in	to the back. Unfortunately
while they 21 (	
22 (break) so t	hey 23
(have to) spend ten minutes pick	
24 (finish) the	
(be) were ready to continue on t	
they 26 (hear)	
back – the boar 27	
28 (jump) out	
29 (watch) in I	
30 (destroy) th	e interior. When the police
32 (arrive) the	y 32
(have to) fire fifty shots into the	e 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 mayo
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.

•	We ased a targe seremaniver to ope	in the tal mination
	The car windowl	arge screwdriver.
9	A lot of people say Le Cheval Blanc	is the best restauran
	in the region.	
	Le Cheval Blanc is	_ in the region.
	100 C. T. B. L. W. L. & L. B. C. L. & L. W.	

8 We used a large screwdriver to open the car window

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 <del>down Sally/her</del>.)

**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 <del>looking forward really to</del> 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.)



- 1 She finally found out the truth about her real parents.

  Correct Incorrect
- 2 We got into the car and set off.

Correct Incorrect

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, looks
  - 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 warning? 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.* 

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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.

- 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

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.

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

 $to \ whom = who... to$ 

#### 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.

- 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. 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 whquestions

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 Gunther lives? Katia wanted to know if/whether we knew where Gunther 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

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Complete these ser	itences with <i>will, would, was</i> or <i>used to</i> .
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.

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 \_\_\_\_. a would stop interrupting.
  2 I wish I was able \_\_\_\_. b German
  3 I wish he \_\_\_\_. c to speak Chinese.
  4 I wish I had visited \_\_\_\_. d I spoke German and Chinese
  5 I wish I spoke \_\_\_\_. e speak Chinese.
  6 If only \_\_\_. 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 do eat go see	was/were did ate went saw	done eaten gone/been seen won
see win		won
WIII	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	come	come
run	run	run

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#### 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

be	ear	bore	born
W	ear	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 read	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

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