GRAMMAR LESSONS

Prepared by Hamed Aalaee

MICROSOFT
www.aalaee.com

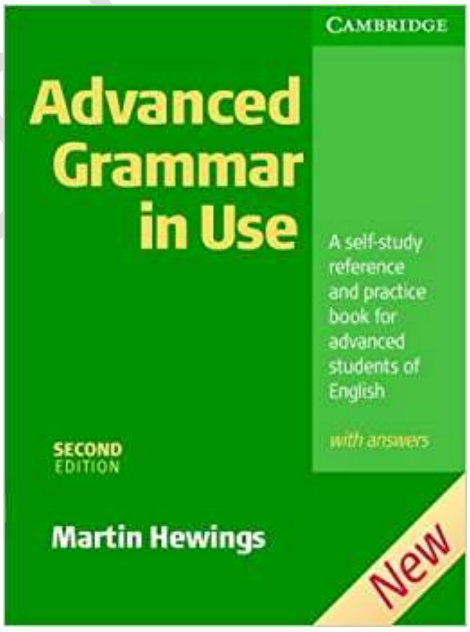
دوستان گرامی

این فایل در برگیرنده تعدادی از مباحث گرامری می باشد که بر اساس تجربه تصحیح رایتینگ و اسپیکینگ زبان آموزان، جزء نقاط ضعف و اشتباهات رایج زبان اموان می باشد. در انتهای این فایل هم چندین اشتباه رایج زبان آموزان ارائه شده است.

تمام مطالب این فایل از کتاب

Advanced Grammar in Use by Martin Hewing

انتخاب شده است.



در صورتی که از کتاب های دیگر استفاده می کنید می توانید سرفصل مطالب را در فهرست چک کرده و در منابع دیگر مطالعه نمایید.

Contents

Will and Would

We use will when we talk about WILLINGNESS to do something (e.g. in offers, invitations, requests, and orders) and will not (or won't) when we talk about UNWILLINGNESS to do something (e.g. reluctance, refusal):

• I'll give you another opportunity to get the correct answer.

• Mum! Sue won't give me back my pencil case.

Notice that we can also talk about the refusal of a thing to work in the way it should:

• The top won't come off. • The key won't fit the lock.

To talk about general or repeated willingness in the past we can sometimes use would, but we can't use would in this way to talk about a particular occasion in the past.

Compare: • Whenever I had to go to town, Ron would give me a lift. (= repeated) • I was late, so Ron gave me a lift to town, (not ...Ron would give me...) (= particular occasion)

However, we can use would not either when we talk about unwillingness in general or about a particular occasion.

Compare: • We thought that people wouldn't / would buy the book. (= general) • She wouldn't say what was wrong when I asked, (not ...would say...) (= particular occasion)

We use will (or won't) to indicate that we think a present or future situation is CERTAIN:

• You will know that John and Sheila are engaged. (= you already know) • 'Shall I ask Sandra?' 'No, don't disturb her - she'll be working.' • We won't see them again before Christmas.

We can use will (for the present) and would (for the past) to talk about characteristic behavior or habits, or about things that are or were always true: • Every day Dan will come home from work and turn on the TV. • During the war, people would eat all kinds of things that we don't eat now. • A baby will recognize its mother's voice soon after it is born. • Early passenger planes wouldn't hold more than 30 passengers.

We don't use would in this way to talk about a particular occasion in the past.

Compare: • Each time I gave him a problem he would solve it for me. • Last night I gave him a problem and he solved it for me. {not ...he would solve it...)

In speech, we can stress will or would to criticize people's characteristic behavior or habits:

• She will leave all the lights on in the house when she goes out.

• I was happy when Sam left. He would talk about people behind their backs.

When we use stressed would in this way, we can also use it to talk about a particular occasion in the past. We suggest that what happened was predictable because it was typical of a person's behavior:

• 'Jackie says she can't help because she's got a lot of work on.' 'Well she would say that - she always uses that excuse.'

If we want to talk about things that happened repeatedly in the past, but don't happen now, we can use would or used to + infinitive. Used to is more common in informal English:

• We would / used to lend him money when he was unemployed. • Tim would / used to visit his parents every other weekend. We use used to but not would when we talk about past states that have changed: n • The factory used to be in the city center. • I used to smoke heavily when I was at university.

When we use would we need to mention a specific time or set of occasions. Compare: • We used to play in the garden, {not We would play...) • Whenever we went to my Uncle Frank's house, we would / used to play in the garden. We don't use either used to or would when we say exactly how many times something happened, how long something took, or that something happened at a particular time: a • We visited Switzerland four times during the 1970s. • • She went on holiday to the Bahamas last week.

Study how we normally make questions and negatives with used to in spoken English:

• Did your children use to sleep well when they were babies? • I didn't use to like visiting the dentist when I was young.

However, in more formal spoken and written English the following negative and question forms are also used, although this question form is now rare:

• There used not to be so much traffic, {more likely is There didn't use to be...) • Used you to go to university with the Evans brothers? {more likely is Did you use to...?)

May, might, can, could and must: Past hypothetical statements

Compare these sentences:

• I'll write the date of the meeting in my diary, otherwise I may/might/could forget it. (= talking about present or future possibility)

• Jenny's late. She may/might/could have forgotten about the meeting. (= talking about past possibility)

We use may/might/could (not 'can') + have + past participle to say it is possible that something happened in the past:

л • I thought I saw Tom in town, but I may/might could have been wrong. • 'Where's Barbara's camera?' 'She may/might/could have taken it with her.'

We use might/could (not 'may' or 'can') + have + past participle to say that something was possible in the past, but we know that it did not in fact happen:

• If I hadn't come along at that moment, Jim might/could have been the one arrested instead of the real thief.

• The plan might/could easily have gone wrong, but in fact it was a great success.

We use might (not 'may') + infinitive to talk about what was typically the case in the past:

• During the war, the police might arrest you for criticizing the king. • Years ago children might be sent down mines at the age of six. (passive form)

We can also use could + infinitive in examples like this to talk about past ability. For example,

'During the war, the police could arrest you...' means that the police were legally able to arrest you.

We use may/might (not 'can') + have + past participle to say that by some time in the future, it is possible that something will have happened:

• By next Friday I may/might have completed the report. • His math may/might have improved by the time the exam comes round.

We use may/might (not 'can') + be + -ing to say it is possible that something is happening now or to talk about a possible future arrangement:

• Malcolm isn't in his office. He may/might be working at home today. • When I go to Vienna I may/might be staying with Richard, but I'm not sure yet.

Could can be used in the same patterns instead of may or might, particularly when we want to show that we are unsure about the possibility.

Notice that we can combine these two patterns to talk about possible situations or activities that went on over a period of time until

• David didn't know where the ball was, but he thought his sister might have been playing with it. (= from a past time until now)

We use may/might/could + well/conceivably/possibly + have + past participle to say it is likely that something would have happened in the past if circumstances had been different, or to say that by some time in the future it is likely that something will have happened. (Notice that we don't use 'can well (etc.) + have + past participle'):

• I may/might/could conceivably have been tempted to take the job if it had been nearer home, (passive form)

• By this time next week, I may/might/could well have left for Washington.

Must has no other forms than the present tense (no past tense, no participles, etc.) and in past tense sentences which say that it was necessary to do something, we use had to instead:

• Bill's not here. He had to leave early. • The car broke down and we had to get a taxi.

To draw a conclusion about something in the past, we use must + have + past participle:

- **You must have been upset when you heard the news.**
- **She must have played really well to win. I wish I'd seen the match.**

Using passive sentences

The choice between an active and passive sentence allows us to present the same information in two different orders. Compare:

Active • The storm damaged the roof. This sentence is about the storm, and says what it did. [The storm is the 'agent'.)

Passive • The roof was damaged by the storm. This sentence is about the roof, and says what happened to it. (The 'agent' goes in a prepositional phrase with by after the verb.)

Here are some situations where we typically choose a passive rather than an active.

• When the agent is not known, is 'people in general', is unimportant, or is obvious, we prefer passives. In an active sentence we need to include the agent as subject; using a passive allows us to omit the agent by leaving out the prepositional phrase with by:

• My office was broken into when I was on holiday, (unknown agent) • An order form can be found on page 2. (agent = people in general) • These boxes should be handled with care, (unimportant agent) • She is being treated in hospital, (obvious agent; presumably 'doctors')

• In factual writing, particularly in describing procedures or processes, we often wish to omit the agent, and use passives:

• Nuclear waste will still be radioactive even after 20,000 years, so it must be disposed of very carefully. It can be stored as a liquid in stainless-steel containers which are encased in concrete. The most dangerous nuclear waste can be turned into glass. It is planned to store this glass in deep underground mines.

• In spoken English we often use a subject such as people, somebody, they, we, or you even when we do not know who the agent is. In formal English, particularly writing, we often prefer to use a passive.

Compare: • They're installing the new computer system next month. • The new computer system is being installed next month, (more formal)

Notice also that some verbs have corresponding nouns. These nouns can be used as the subject of passive sentences, with a new passive verb introduced:
• The installation of the new computer system will be completed by next month.

• It is often more natural to put agents (subjects) which consist of long expressions at the end of a sentence. Using the passive allows us to do this. So, for example: • I was surprised by Don's decision to give up his job and move to Sydney.is more natural than 'Don's decision to give up his job and move to Sydney surprised me.'

Verbs with and without objects (Transitive vs Intransitive verbs

Some verbs (e.g. see, describe) are followed by an object. These are called transitive verbs. Other verbs that are transitive in their most common meanings include arrest, avoid, do, enjoy, find, force, get, give, grab, hit, like, pull, report, shock, take, tell, touch, want, warn.

Some verbs (e.g. arrive, cough) are not followed by an object. These are called intransitive verbs. Other verbs that are intransitive in their most common meanings include appear, come, fall, go, happen, matter, sleep, swim, wait. If a verb can't be followed by an object, it can't be made passive.

Some verbs can be both transitive and intransitive.

Compare: • I closed the door. and • The door closed.

Verbs like this are often used to talk about some kind of change. Other examples are break, burn, empty, increase, open, shut, spoil.

Some transitive verbs can have their objects left out when the meaning is clear from the context: • He has smoked (cigarettes) since he was 10. • She plays (the saxophone) beautifully.

Other verbs like this include answer, ask, cook, dance, drink, eat, fail, phone, read, sing, wash, win, write.

After some verbs we typically or always add a completion - a phrase which completes the meaning of the verb - which can be an adverb or prepositional phrase.

Compare: • He paused for a few moments. or • He paused, (no completion needed) • The disease originated in Britain, (not The disease originated.) (completion needed)

Some verbs which are typically or always followed by a completion are intransitive in their most common meanings: • I'm sure that blue car belongs to Matthew. • We had to contend with hundreds of complaints, (not We had to contend.)

Here are some more examples together with prepositions that commonly begin the completion: alternate between, aspire to, care for, culminate in, object to.

Other verbs which are typically or always followed by a completion are transitive in their most common meanings:

• I always associate red wine with France. • She put the report on the floor. (not I always associate red wine.) (not She put the report.)

Here are some more examples together with prepositions that commonly begin the completion: base...on, compare...with, interest...in, lend...to, mistake...for, prevent...from, regard...as, remind...of, supply...with.

Have/get something done; want something done , etc.

We can use get or have followed by an object + past participle when we want to say that somebody arranges for something to be done by someone else:

• We had/got the car delivered to the airport. (= it was delivered) • While I was in Singapore I had/got my eyes tested. (= they were tested)

Got in this pattern is normally only used in conversation and informal writing. Notice that the word order is important.

Compare: • We had the car delivered to the airport. (Someone else delivered the car) and • We had delivered the car to the airport. (= past perfect; we delivered the car)

We use have...

if it is clear that the person referred to in the subject of the sentence is not responsible for or has no control over what happens:

• I had my appendix removed when I was six.

• They had their car broken into again. However, in informal speech some people use get in sentences like this.

We use get...

when we say that the person referred to in the subject of the sentence does something themselves, causes what happens, perhaps accidentally, or is to blame for it:

• I'll get the house cleaned if you cook the dinner. (= I'll clean the house)

• Sue got her fingers trapped in the bicycle chain. (= Sue trapped her fingers)

We prefer have if we want to focus on the result of the action rather than the action itself:

• I'll have the house cleaned by the time you get home. • Sue had her fingers trapped in the bike chain for half an hour.

We use won't (or will not) have, not get, if we want to say that we won't allow something to happen to someone or something:

• I won't have him spoken to like that. • I won't have my name dragged through the dirt by the press.

We use need, prefer, want, and would like followed by an object + past participle to say that we need, prefer, etc. something to be done. Notice that we can include to be before the past participle form with a similar meaning. After need we can use an object + -ing with the same meaning, but we can't use to be with an -ing form:

Be careful washing those glasses! I don't want them (to be) broken. We needed the house (to be) redecorated, (or ...the house redecorating.) • I'd like my car (to be) serviced, please.

Reporting statements

When we report statements, we often use a that-clause in the reported clause

• He said (that) he was enjoying his work. • My husband mentioned (that) he'd seen you the other day. • The members of the Security Council warned that further action may be taken.

After the more common reporting verbs such as agree, mention, notice, promise, say, think, we often leave out that, particularly in informal speech. However, it is less likely to be left out after less common reporting verbs such as complain, confide, deny, grumble, speculate, warn; and also in formal writing; and after the verbs answer, argue, reply. We are also more likely to include it if the that-clause doesn't immediately follow the verb.

Compare: • She agreed (that) it would be safer to buy a car than a motorbike, and • She agreed with her parents and brothers that it would be safer to buy a car than a motorbike, (rather than ...and brothers it would be safer...)

Some reporting verbs which are followed by a that-clause have an alternative with an object + to-infinitive (often to be), although the alternatives are often rather formal.

Compare: • I felt that the results were satisfactory. • They declared that the vote was invalid.

• I felt the results to be satisfactory. • They declared the vote to be invalid.

Other verbs like this include acknowledge, assume, believe, consider, expect, find, presume, report, think, understand.

Study the following sentence: • I notified the bank that I had changed my address.

If we use a that-clause after the verb notify, then we must use an object ('the bank') between the verb and the that-clause, and this object can't be a prepositional object So we can't say 'I notified that I ...' or I notified to the bank that I ...' Other verbs like this include assure, convince, inform, persuade,

reassure, remind, tell. With advise, promise, show, teach, and warn, we sometimes put an object before a that-clause: • They promised (me) that they would come to the party. • A recent survey has shown (us) that Spain is the favorite destination for British holiday makers.

Study the following sentences: • She admitted (to me) that she was seriously ill. • We agreed (with Susan) that the information should go no further. • I begged (of him) that he should reconsider his decision. (Very formal; less formal would be 'I begged him to reconsider his decision.')

After admit, agree and beg we can use a that-clause with or without an object ('me', 'Susan', 'him') before the that-clause. However, if we do include an object, we put a preposition before it 'to', 'with', 'of'). This object is sometimes called a prepositional object.

Verbs with to + prepositional object: admit, announce, complain, confess, explain, indicate, mention, point out, propose, recommend, report, say, suggest

Verbs with with + prepositional object: agree, argue, check, confirm, disagree, plead

Verbs with of + prepositional object: ask, beg, demand, require

The tense we choose for a that-clause is one that is appropriate at the time that we are reporting what was said or thought. This means that we sometimes use a different tense in the that-clause from the one that was used in the original statement:

• 'Tim is much better.' —• She said that Tim was much better. • 'I'm planning to buy a new car.' —• Ian told me that he was planning to buy a new car. • 'I've never worked so hard before.' —> Our decorator remarked that he had never worked so hard before.

When the situation described in the that-clause is a PERMANENT SITUATION, or still exists or is relevant at the time we are reporting it then we use a present tense (or present perfect) if we also use a present tense for the verb in the reporting clause: • Dr. Weir thinks that he spends about 5 minutes on a typical consultation with a patient. (not ...spent about...)

• Australian scientists claim that they have developed a way of producing more accurate weather forecasts, (not ...they developed...)

• Jill says that Colin has been found safe and well, (not ...had been found...)

However, when we use a past tense in the reporting clause we can use either a present or past tense (or present perfect or past perfect) in the that-clause: • She argued that Carl is/was the best person for the job. • He said that he is/was living in Oslo. • I told Rosa that I don't/didn't like going to parties. • They noted that the rate of inflation has/had slowed down.

Choosing a present tense (or present perfect) in the that-clause emphasizes that the situation being reported still exists or is still relevant when we report it.

If we want to show we are not sure that what we are reporting is necessarily true, or that a situation may not still exist now, we prefer a past rather than a present tense: • Sarah told me that she has two houses. (= might suggest that this is the case) • Sarah told me that she had two houses. (= might suggest either that this is perhaps not true, or that she once had two houses but doesn't have two houses now)

When the situation described in the that-clause is in the past when we are reporting it, we use a past tense (simple past, past continuous, etc.):

• 'I don't want anything to eat.' Mark said that he didn't want anything to eat. • 'I'm leaving!' —• Bob announced that he was leaving. • 'The problem is being dealt with by the manager.' —• She told me that the problem was being dealt with by the manager.

When the situation described in the that-clause was already in the past when it was spoken about originally, we usually use the past perfect to report it, although the past simple can often be used instead: • 'I learnt how to eat with chopsticks when I was in Hong Kong.' -» Mary said that she had learnt/learnt how to eat with chopsticks when she was in Hong Kong.

• She posted the card yesterday. She reassured me that she had posted/posted the card. • 'I've seen the film before.' -> She told me that she had seen the film before. • 'I've been spending a lot more time with my children.' -» He mentioned that he had been spending a lot more time with his children.

The possessive ‘s form of nouns

To make the possessive form of nouns in writing, we add 's ('apostrophe s') to singular nouns and to irregular plurals that don't end in -s:

• Philip's car; the college's administrators; the women's liberation movement

and add ' (an apostrophe) to regular plurals: • the boys' football boots; the companies' difficulties.

We can use the possessive form of nouns with people or groups of people (e.g. companies), other living things, places, and times. To make the possessive form of names ending in -s (pronounced /z/) we can add either ' or 's: • It's Derek Jones' (or Derek Jones's) new sports car. Sometimes we add 's to the last word of a noun phrase, which may not be a noun: • She's the boy on the left's sister.

We can say: • That old car of Jo's is unsafe, and • A novel of Jim Kerr's has been made into a film.

When we are talking about relationships between people we can also use a noun without 's: •

• An uncle of Mark's, (or An uncle of Mark.)

The noun following a possessive form can be left out when we talk about someone's home or some shops and services (e.g. the newsagent's, the chemist's, the hairdresser's): • We're going to Linda's for the evening. (= Linda's home) • I must go to the butcher's this morning. (= the butcher's shop) (Notice that in cases like this we can also use the singular without 's: I must go to the butcher this morning.

We also usually leave out the noun when the meaning is clear in cases like: • 'Whose hat is this?' 'Richard's.' (rather than Richard's hat.)

Often we can use the possessive 's or of + noun with very little difference in meaning:

• Ireland's beauty or • the company's policy • the beauty of Ireland or • the policy of the company

However, sometimes we prefer to use the possessive form or the of form. In general, we are more likely to use the possessive 's form of a noun: • when the noun refers to a particular person or group of people: • Carolyn's illness [rather than the illness of Carolyn) • the children's coats (rather than the coats of the children)

When we are talking about time, as in: • next year's holiday prices (rather than the holiday prices of next year) • last night's TV programs (rather than the TV programs of last night)

• Notice that we can say: • We had two weeks' holiday in Spain, or We had a two-week holiday.

In general, we are more likely to use the of + noun form: • with an inanimate noun, i.e. referring to something that is not living: • the cover of the book (or the book cover) (rather than the book's cover) • the construction of the office block (rather than the office block's construction)

When we are talking about a process, or a change over time: • the establishment of the committee (rather than the committee's establishment) • the destruction of the forest (rather than the forest's destruction)

When the noun is a long noun phrase: • She is the sister of someone I used to go to school with, (rather than She is someone I used to go to school with's sister.)

Articles the/a/an

We use a/an with a singular noun when we describe someone or something or to say what type of thing someone or something is:

• English has become an international language. • Sydney is a beautiful city.

But if we say that someone or something is unique - that there is only one, or that it is the only one of its kind - we use the (or sometimes zero article, i.e. no article), but not a/an:

• English has become the international language of business. • Sydney is the capital city of New South Wales.

We use a/an to say what a person's job is, was, or will be:

• She was a company director when she retired. • Against her parents' wishes, she wants to be a journalist.

However, when we give a person's job title, or their unique position, we use the or zero article, not a/an.

Compare: • She's been appointed (the) head of the company, and • I'm a production manager at Fino. (= there may be more than one production manager)

We use the before a superlative adjective (the biggest, the most expensive, etc.) when the superlative adjective is followed by a noun or defining phrase:

• He is the finest young player around at the moment. • This painting's the most unusual in the collection.

However, we can often leave out the, particularly in an informal style, when there is no noun or defining phrase after the superlative adjective. • A: Why did you decide to stay in this hotel? B: It was (the) cheapest. / It was the cheapest I could find.

When most before an adjective means 'very' or 'extremely' we can use a (with countable singulars) or zero article (with plurals and uncountables) - rather than the - when there is no following noun. Most is used in this way

particularly in a rather formal spoken style. In everyday conversation we generally use a word such as 'very' instead: • He was a most peculiar-looking man. (= a very peculiar-looking man) • It was most expensive petrol. (= extremely expensive)

We use the when we know that there is only one of a particular thing. For example:

the sun

the world

the travel industry

the environment

the North Pole

the arms trade

The same applies to the following things when we refer to them in a general way:

the weather

the climate the sky

the human race the ground

the atmosphere

the wind

the future

the seat

the public

the past

However, if we want to describe a particular instance of these we use a/an. Compare: • She could hear the wind whistling through the trees outside, and • There's a cold wind blowing from the north. • What are your plans for the future? and • She dreamt of a future where she could spend more time painting.

We use the when we expect the listener or reader to be able to identify the thing or person we are talking about, and we use a/an when we don't. Compare these pairs of sentences: • Helen's just bought a house in Wilson Street, and • Helen's just bought the house in Wilson Street. (= the house for sale we have previously talked about)

• A Korean student in our class has had to go home, and • The Korean student has had to go home. (= the Korean student we have previously talked about)

• There's a bus coming, and • The bus is coming. (= it's the bus we are waiting for) • There's a woman from the bank on the phone, and • He's in a meeting with the woman from the bank. (= you know which woman I mean)

We also use the when it is clear from the situation which person or thing we mean: • What do you think of the table? (= the table we are looking at) • This tastes lovely. What's in the sauce? (= the sauce here on my plate) • The tree looks beautiful now that it's spring. (= the tree here in the garden)

Study these examples: • Dorothy took a cake and an apple pie to the party, but only the apple pie was eaten.

We say 'an apple pie' when we first mention it, and 'the apple pie' after that, when the listener or reader knows which apple pie we mean.

There was a serious fire in a block of flats in Glasgow last night. The building was totally destroyed.

We say 'a block of flats' when we first mention it. We use 'the building' because the listener (or reader) will know which building we mean. Even if the person or thing hasn't been mentioned before, if the person or thing we mean can be understood from what has been said before, we use the: • We had a good time on holiday. The hotel (= the hotel we stayed in) was comfortable, and the beach (= the beach we went to) was only ten minutes away.

Notice that fictional writing (novels, short stories, etc.) will often mention something for the first time with the to build up suspense, expectation, etc. For example, a story might begin: • The woman opened the gate and looked thoughtfully at the house.

The is often used with nouns before a phrase beginning of.... The of... phrase connects this noun to a particular thing or person:

• Pictures can help students learn the meaning of new words. • The disease could have killed off half the population of the country. • He was woken up by the sound of gunfire.

Compare these sentences with: • Each new word has a different meaning. • The country has a rapidly expanding population. • He suddenly heard a sound like a gunshot.

Some nouns are commonly used in the pattern the...of... to refer to a particular place, time, etc., including back, beginning, bottom, end, middle, side, top:

• In the middle of his speech he started to cough uncontrollably.

Relative clauses

A relative clause gives more information about someone or something referred to in a main clause. Some relative clauses (defining relative clauses) are used to specify which person or thing we mean, or which type of person or thing we mean: • The couple who live next to us have sixteen grandchildren. • Andrew stopped the police car that was driving past.

Notice that we don't put a comma between the noun and a defining relative clause. Relative clauses begin with a relative pronoun: who, which or that. However, sometimes we omit the wh-word that and use a zero relative pronoun

• We went to a restaurant (which/that) Jane had recommended to us.

We prefer to put a relative clause immediately after or as close as possible to the noun it adds information to:

• The building for sale was the house which had a slate roof and was by the stream. (rather than The building for sale was the house by the stream which had a slate roof.)

When we use a defining relative clause, the relative pronoun can be the subject or the object of the clause. In the following sentences the relative pronoun is the subject. Notice that the verb follows the relative pronoun:

• Rockall is an uninhabited island which/that lies north west of mainland Scotland. • We have a friend who/that plays the piano.

In the following sentences the relative pronoun is the object. Notice that there is a noun (or pronoun) between the relative pronoun and the verb in the relative clause. In this case, we can use a zero relative pronoun: • He showed me the rocks (which/that) he had brought back from Australia. • That's the man (who/that) I met at Allison's party.

We can also use whom instead of who as object, although whom is very formal: • She's an actress whom most people think is at the peak of her career.

We use that as subject after something and anything; words such as all, little, much, and none used as nouns; and superlatives. (Which is also used as subject after something and anything, but less commonly.) We use that or zero relative pronoun as object after these:

• These walls are all that remain of the city, (not ...all which remain...) • She's one of the kindest people (that) I know, (not ...who I know.) • Is there anything (that) I can do to help? (rather than ...anything which I can do...)

You can't add a subject or object to the relative clause in addition to the relative pronoun: • The man who gave me the book was the librarian, (not The man who he gave me...) *Notice also that adding a pronoun to the main clause in addition to the relative clause is unnecessary, although it is found in speech: • A friend of mine who is a solicitor helped me. (or, in speech A friend of mine who is a solicitor - she helped me.)

Some relative clauses are used to add extra information about a noun, but this information is not necessary to explain which person or thing we mean: • Valerie Polkoff, who has died aged 90, escaped from Russia with her family in 1917. • We received an offer of £80, 000 for the house, which we accepted.

These are sometimes called non-defining relative clauses. We don't use them often in everyday speech, but they occur frequently in written English. Notice that we put a comma between the Qnoun and a non-defining relative clause, and another comma at the end of this clause if it is not •also the end of a sentence.

When we use a non-defining relative clause to add information about a person or people: • we use who as the subject of the clause • One of the people arrested was Mary Arundel, who is a member of the local council.

We use who or whom as the object of the clause, although whom is more formal and rarely used in spoken English: • Professor Johnson, who(m) I have long admired, is to visit the university next week.

When we use a non-defining relative clause to add information about a thing or group of things, we use which as the subject or object of the clause:

• These drugs, which are used to treat stomach ulcers, have been withdrawn from sale. • That Masters course, which I took in 1990, is no longer taught at the college.

That is sometimes used instead of which, but some people think this is incorrect, so it is probably safer not to use it. We also use which to refer to the whole situation talked about in the sentence outside the relative clause:

• The book won't be published until next year, which is disappointing. • I have to go to hospital on Monday, which means I won't be able to see you.

We can also use whose in a non-defining relative clause • Neil Adams, whose parents are both teachers, won first prize in the competition.

Notice that we don't use zero relative pronoun in a non-defining relative clause.

When we want to add information about the whole or a part of a particular number of things or people we can use a non-defining relative clause with of which or of whom after words such as all, both, each, many, most, neither, none, part, some, a number (one, two, etc.; the first, the second, etc.; half, a third, etc.) and superlatives (the best, the biggest, etc.): • The speed of growth of a plant is influenced by a number of factors, most of which we have no control over.

• The bank was held up by a group of men, three of whom were said to be armed. • The President has made many visits to Japan, the most recent of which began today.

We can use the following phrases at the beginning of a non-defining relative clause: at which point/time, by which point/time, during which time, and in which case: • It might snow this weekend, in which case we won't go to Wales. • The bandages will be taken off a few days after the operation, at which point we will be able to judge how effective the treatment has been.

• The next Olympics are in three years, by which time Stevens will be 34.

We use a relative clause beginning with whose + noun, particularly in written English, when we talk about something belonging to or associated with a person. Compare: • Stevenson is an architect. Her designs have won international praise, and • Stevenson is an architect whose designs have won international praise. • Dr Rowan has had to do all his own typing. His secretary resigned two weeks ago. and • Dr Rowan, whose secretary resigned two weeks ago, has had to all his own typing. We can use whose in both defining and non-defining relative clauses.

We sometimes use whose when we are talking about things, in particular when we are talking about towns or countries, and organizations:

• The film was made in Botswana, whose wildlife parks are larger than those in Kenya. •

• We need to learn from companies whose trading is more healthy than our own. • The newspaper is owned by the Mearson Group, whose chairman is Sir James Bex.

We can also use whose when we are talking about particular items, although it is often more natural in spoken English to avoid sentences like this: • I received a letter, whose poor spelling made me think it was written by a child. (more natural would be I received a letter, and its poor spelling...)

We often use the words where, when, and whereby as relative pronouns. But in formal English in particular, a phrase with preposition + which can often be used instead: • This was the place (where) we first met. (or ...the place at/in which we...) • He wasn't looking forward to the time (when) he would have to give evidence to the court. (or ...the time at which he would...)

• Do you know the date when we have to submit the first essay? (or ...the date on/by which we have to submit the first essay?)

• The government is to end the system whereby (= by which means) farmers make more money from leaving land unplanted than from growing wheat, (or ...the system in/by which farmers...)

We can also use why as a relative pronoun after the word reason. In informal English we can use that instead of why: • I didn't get a pay rise, but this wasn't the reason why I left, (or ...the reason (that) I left.)

We sometimes use relative clauses beginning with who or what. In this case, who means 'the people that' and what means something like 'the thing(s) that': • Can you give me a list of who's been invited? • I didn't know what to do next.

Notice that we can't use what in this way after a noun: •

• I managed to get all the books that you asked for. (not ...books what you asked for.)

Relative clauses beginning with whatever (= anything or it doesn't matter what), whoever (= the person/group who or any person/group who), or whichever (= one thing or person from a limited number of things or people) are used to talk about things or people that are indefinite or unknown:

• I'm sure I'll enjoy eating whatever you cook. • Whoever wins will go on to play Barcelona in the final.

• Whichever one of you broke the window will have to pay for it.

In formal styles we often put a preposition before the relative pronouns which and whom: • The rate at which a material heats up depends on its chemical composition. • In the novel by Peters, on which the film is based, the main character is a teenager. • An actor with whom Gelson had previously worked contacted him about the role. • Her many friends, among whom I like to be considered, gave her encouragement.

Notice that after a preposition you can't use who instead of whom, and you can't use that or zero relative pronoun: • Is it right that politicians should make important decisions without consulting the public to whom they are accountable? (not ...the public to who they are accountable.)

• The valley in which the town lies is heavily polluted, (not The valley in that the town...) • Arnold tried to gauge the speed at which they were travelling, (not ...the speed at they were travelling.)

In informal English we usually put the preposition later in the relative clause rather than at the beginning: • The office which Graham led the way to was filled with books. • Jim's footballing ability, which he was noted for, had been encouraged by his parents. • The playground wasn't used by those children who it was built for. this case we prefer who rather than whom (although 'whom' is used in formal contexts). **In defining relative clauses we can also use that or zero relative pronoun instead of who or which (e.g. ...the children (that) it was built for). If the verb in the relative clause is a two- or three-word verb (e.g. come across, fill in, go through, look after, look up to, put up with, take on) we don't usually put the preposition before the relative pronoun:** • Your essay is one of those (which/that) I'll go through tomorrow, (rather than ...through which I'll go tomorrow.)

• She is one of the few people (who/that) I look up to. (not ...to whom I look up.) In formal written English, we often prefer to use of which rather than whose to talk about things: • A huge amount of oil was spilled, the effects of which are still being felt, (or ...whose effects are still being felt.)

• The end of the war, the anniversary of which is on the 16th of November, will be commemorated in cities throughout the country, (or ...whose anniversary is on...)

Notice that we can't use of which instead of whose in these cases:

• Dorothy was able to switch between German, Polish and Russian, all of which she spoke fluently, (not ...all whose she spoke...)

We can sometimes use that...of instead of of which. This is less formal than of which and whose, and is mainly used in spoken English:

• The school that she is head of is closing down, (or The school of which she is head...)

Whose can come after a preposition in a relative clause. However, it is more natural to put the preposition at the end of the clause in less formal contexts and in spoken English:

• We were grateful to Mr Marks, in whose car we had travelled home, (or ...whose car we had travelled home in.)

• I now turn to Freud, from whose work the following quotation is taken, (or ...whose work the following quotation is taken from.)

Participle Clauses

We can give information about someone or something using an -ing, past participle (-ed) or being + past participle (-ed) clause after a noun. These clauses are often similar to defining relative clauses beginning with which, who, or that: • We stood on the bridge connecting the two halves of the building, (or ...which connects/connected the two halves...)

• The weapon used in the murder has now been found, (or The weapon that was used...) • The prisoners being released are all women, (or ...who are being released...)

We often use an -ing clause instead of a defining relative clause with an active verb: • The man driving the bus is my brother, (or The man who is driving the bus...) • The land stretching away to the left all belongs to Mrs Thompson, (or The land which stretches away to the left...)

• Police took away Dr Li and items belonging to him. (or ...items which belong/belonged to him.)

Sometimes, however, we can't use an -ing clause. For example: • when there is a noun between the relative pronoun and the verb in the defining relative clause: • The man who Tim is meeting for lunch is from Taiwan, (not ...the man Tim meeting...)

• when the event or action talked about in the defining relative clause comes before the event or action talked about in the rest of the sentence, except when the second event or action is the result of the first. Compare: • The snow which fell overnight has turned to ice. (not The snow falling overnight...) and • The snow which fell overnight has caused traffic chaos, (or The snow falling overnight has caused traffic chaos.)

• when we talk about a single, completed action in the defining relative clause, rather than a continuous action. Compare: • The girl who fell over on the ice broke her arm. (not The girl falling over...) and • I pulled off the sheets which covered the furniture, (or ...sheets covering the furniture.)

We often use a past participle or being + past participle clause instead of a defining relative clause with a passive verb: • The book published last week is his first written for children, (or The book that was published last week...)

• The boys being chosen for the team are under 9. (or The boys who are being chosen...)

Sometimes, however, we can't use a past participle or being + past participle clause. For example: • when there is a noun between the relative pronoun and the verb in the defining relative clause: • The speed at which decisions are made in the company is worrying, (not The speed at which decisions made...)

• The issue that club members are being asked to vote on at tonight's meeting is that of a fee increase... (not The issue being asked to vote on...)

• when the defining relative clause includes a modal verb other than will:

• There are a number of people who should be asked, (not ...people should be asked.)

Some present participles (-ing forms) and past participles (-ed forms) of verbs can be used as adjectives. Most of these participle adjectives can be used before the noun they describe or following linking verbs • She gave me a welcoming cup of tea. • I found this broken plate in the kitchen cupboard. • The students' tests results were pleasing. • My mother appeared delighted with the present.

We can use some participles immediately after nouns in order to identify or define the noun. This use is similar to defining relative clauses: • A cheer went up from the crowds watching, {or ...the crowds that were watching.) • We had to pay for the rooms used, {or ...the rooms that were used.)

A few participles are used immediately after nouns, but rarely before them:

• None of the candidates applying was accepted, (but not ...the applying candidates...)

• My watch was among the things taken, {but not ...the taken things.)

• Other participles like this include caused, found, provided, used.

Some participles can be used before or immediately after nouns. For example, we can say: • Rub the area infected with this antiseptic cream, or • Rub the infected area with this antiseptic cream.

Other participles like this include affected, broken, chosen, identified, interested, remaining, resulting, stolen.

Remember the differences between the following pairs of adjectives: alarmed - alarming, amazed - amazing, bored - boring, excited - exciting, frightened - frightening, pleased pleasing, surprised - surprising, tired - tiring, worried - worrying. When we use these adjectives to describe how someone feels about something, the -ing adjectives describe the 'something' (e.g. a surprising decision) and the -ed adjectives describe the 'someone' (e.g. I was surprised). Compare: • I'm pleased with the result. and • The bored children started to get restless.

• It's a pleasing result. and adjective, and connected by a hyphen: • I hope it will be a money-making enterprise. • They are well-behaved children. • The newly-built ship is on its maiden voyage.

• The play was really boring. We often form compound adjectives with a participle following a noun, adverb, or another

• A worried-looking lawyer left the court. • We walked past an evil-smelling pond. • A slow-moving lorry was causing the delays.

Notice that we can use some participle adjectives only when they are used in this pattern. For example, we can't say '...a making enterprise', '...behaved children', or '...a built ship' as the sense is incomplete without the adverb or noun.

In formal English, that and those can be used before a participle adjective: • The office temperature is lower than that (= the temperature) required by law. • Here is some advice for those (= people) preparing to go on holiday.

In examples like this, those normally means 'people'.

Prepositions after adjectives

Some adjectives are commonly followed by particular prepositions. You can find information about these in a good dictionary. Here we will look at some adjectives that can be followed by one preposition or another, depending on the meaning. Study these examples.

afraid + of/for • Janet had always been afraid of flying. • They tried to leave the country, afraid for their own lives.

angry or annoyed + about/with • She felt a little annoyed about the delay. (about something)

• I'm not angry with you, Paul. (with somebody) answerable + for/to • She is answerable for (= responsible for) the money that has disappeared.

• The committee is answerable only to (= has to explain its actions to) the President.

anxious + about/for • Ministers are increasingly anxious about (= worried about) the cost of health care.

• I'm anxious for (= want very much) the work to be done as soon as possible.

bad or good + at/for • She's very good/bad at languages. (= successful)

• You should drink this. It's good/bad for you. (= healthy or beneficial)

also

good + about/to/with • She felt good about winning the prize. (= pleased with herself)

• Tom was good to us (= kind) when times were hard.

• He's very good with his hands. (= skillful)

When a verb follows an adjective + preposition it takes an -ing form: • I don't agree with smacking children if they do something wrong. • He was famous for holding the world land speed record.

Compare: • You were right to report them to the police, and • You were right about seeing Mark in town. He's got a new job there. • We're anxious to avoid problems, and • I'm anxious about not having enough time.

Prepositions after verbs

concerned + about/with

I'm a little concerned about your exam results. (= worried)

• This section of the book is concerned with (= about) adjectives.

glad + for/of • I'm very glad for you. • I'd be glad of some help.

pleased + about/at/with • Was he pleased about/at the news? • He's really pleased with the car. (with something)

• She felt pleased with Paul. (with somebody)

right + about/for • You're right about Tom. He is moving to Spain.

• We're sending her to a school that we think is right for her.

sorry + about/for • I'm sorry about giving you such a hard time.

• I felt really sorry for Susan (= felt sympathy for her

Comparison with adjectives: -er/more...; enough, sufficiently, too ; etc.

We usually add the ending -er to one-syllable adjectives to make their comparative forms and -est to make their superlative forms. For adjectives with three or more syllables we usually add more/less and most/least.

Some adjectives with two syllables are only used or are most commonly used with more/less and most/least, particularly participle adjectives (e.g. pleased, worried, boring); adjectives ending in -ful and -less (e.g. careful, careless); afraid, alike, alert, ashamed, alone, aware; and also cautious, certain, complex, confident, eager, exact, formal, frequent, modern, recent. Most other adjectives with two syllables can take either form.

Some adjectives have a comparative or superlative meaning so they are rarely used with -er/-est or more/less/ most/least. These include complete, equal, favorite, ideal, unique.

An exception: 'All animals are equal but some animals are more equal than others.' (George Orwell: Animal Farm)

We use enough before nouns (e.g. 'Is there enough bread?') and after adjectives (and adverbs): • The house was comfortable enough but not luxurious, (not ...enough comfortable...) • We are not in a strong enough financial position to cut taxes, (not ...an enough strong...)

Compare the position of enough in these sentences with adjective + noun: • I haven't got big enough nails for the job. (= the nails that I've got aren't big enough) and • I haven't got enough big nails for the job. (= I've got some big nails, but not enough)

We use sufficiently before adjectives with a meaning similar to enough. Sufficiently is often preferred in more formal contexts:

• The policies of the parties were not sufficiently different, (or ...not different enough.)

Study these sentences with adjective + enough and too + adjective: • The beams have to be strong enough to support the roof. • She was too ashamed to

admit her mistake. • The garage was just about big enough for two cars to fit in. • The suitcase was too small (for him) to get all his clothes in.

We talk about an action in the to-infinitive clause. If we need to mention the things or people 'involved, we do this with for... .

In rather formal English we can use too + adjective + a/an + noun: • I hope you haven't had too tiring a day. (not ...a too tiring day.) (In a less formal style we might say 'I hope your day hasn't been too tiring.')

The sooner, the better.

To say that as one thing changes, another thing also changes, we can use sentences like:

• The better the joke (is), the louder the laugh (is). • The longer Sue stays in Canada, the less likely she will ever go back to England. • It almost seems that the more expensive the wedding, the shorter the marriage!

• Things would be easier if we only had a sufficiently simple system, (or ...a simple enough system.)

We use as... as with an adjective or adverb in between to say that something or someone is like something or someone else, or that one situation is like another: • Was the film as funny as his last one? • Andrew came round to my flat as quickly as he could.

Negative forms of sentences like this can use either not as or not so. In formal speech and writing it is more common to use less than: • The gap between the sides is not as wide as it was. (or ...is less wide than it was.) • The bees are plentiful, but not so common as last summer, (or ...but less common than last summer.)

• Some people find cooking easy, but others are not as/so fortunate (as these).

We use <u>not so</u> rather than <u>not as</u> in a number of common expressions.

For example: I'm not so sure; It's (= the situation is) not so bad; Not so loud! (= be more quiet); He's not so good (= not very well).

If you put a countable noun between the adjective and the second as, you should use a/an in front of the noun (if the noun is singular):

• Despite his disability, he tried to lead as normal a life as possible.

• She was as patient a teacher as anyone could have had.

The negative form of sentences like this can use either not as or sometimes not such: • He's not as good a player as he used to be. • He's not such a good player as he used to be. (Notice the different word order.) • They're not such terrible children as we'd expected. (We don't use not as with plural nouns.)

We can use how, so and too followed by an adjective in a similar way: • How significant a role did he play in your life? • It's not quite so straightforward a problem as it might at first seem. • 'Conspiracy' is perhaps too strong a word. • How big a piece do you want?

as...as is also used in sentences with much and many to talk about quantities: • She earns at least as much as Mark, and probably more. • London has twice as many banks as the rest of south-east England.

We also use as much/many as or as little/few as to say that a quantity or amount is larger or smaller than expected. Many and few are used before numbers; much and little are used with amounts such as $5 and 20%, and distances such as 3 meters:

• There is a small number involved, possibly as few as a hundred, (not ...as little as...) •

• Prices have increased by as much as 300 per cent.

We can use so followed by an adjective or an adverb and a that-clause in sentences such as: • The recipe was so simple that even I could cook it. (= because the recipe was so simple, even I could cook it)

• He was walking so slowly that before too long we caught him up. (= because he was walking so slowly...)

Less commonly we use so followed by an adjective and as to with a similar meaning: • The difference was so small as to not be worth arguing about. (= because the difference was so small, it wasn't worth arguing about)

Adverbial clauses

Here are some general rules to help you decide what verb tense to use in an adverbial clause beginning with after, as, as soon as, before, until, when, or while.

To talk about the present or past, use the same tense you would use in a main clause: • I normally look after the children while she is practicing. • When she heard the results, she was overjoyed.

To talk about the future, use a present tense: • Wait here until you're ready to go. • I'll look after the children while you are making dinner.

To talk about an action that is completed before another action described in the main clause, use either simple or perfect tenses:

As soon as you see / have seen her, come and tell me. • She wrote to me after she spoke / had spoken to Jim.

However, if we are talking about an action in the adverbial clause that takes place over a period of time, we generally prefer the present perfect:

• After I have written this book, I'm having a holiday, (rather than After I write...) • You can go when you've typed these letters, (rather than ...when you type...)

If the two actions take place at the same time, use a simple tense, not a perfect tense: • Turn the light out as you leave, (not ...as you have left.) • When I saw Kim, I asked her over for dinner, (not When I had seen...)

We use before if the action or event in the main clause has little or no duration and does not take place until the time represented in the adverbial clause: • She walked out before I had a chance to explain.

We can often use either until or before when a situation described in the main clause lasts until a time indicated in the adverbial clause. In particular: • to say how far away a future event is: • if the main clause is negative:

• It was three days until/before the letter arrived. • I didn't think I'd like skiing until/before I tried it.

Compare the use of until and before when the main clause is positive:

• He used to live with us until/before he moved down to London.

Here, until means 'up to the time'. Before means 'at some time before (but not necessarily right up to the time specified)'. If the adverbial clause also describes the result of an action in the main clause, we use until:

• He cleaned his shoes until they shone, ('shining' is the result of 'cleaning')

When we say that one event happened immediately after another we can use sentences with hardly, no sooner, and scarcely: • The concert had hardly begun before all the lights went out. • I had no sooner lit the barbecue than it started to rain.

We often use a past perfect in the clause with hardly, no sooner or scarcely and a simple past in the second clause. After hardly and scarcely the second clause begins with when or before; after no sooner it begins with than. In a literary style, we often use the word order hardly / no sooner / scarcely + verb + subject at the beginning of the first clause

• Scarcely had Mrs James stepped into the classroom when the boys began fighting.

We can use as, when or while to mean 'during the time that...', to talk about something that is or was happening when something else took place:

• As/When/While Dave was eating, the doorbell rang, or • The doorbell rang, as/when/while Dave was eating.

The word whilst can also be used in this way, but is today considered rather literary.

We use when (not as or while): • to talk about an event that takes place at the same time as some longer action or event (described in the main clause): • They were playing in the garden when they heard a scream. • Dave was eating when the doorbell rang,

• to talk about one event happening immediately after another: • When the lights went out, I lit some candles. • I knew there had been an accident when the police arrived.

• to talk about periods of our lives or periods of time past: • His mother called him Robbie when he was a baby.

• to mean 'every time': • I still feel tired when I wake up in the morning. • When I turn on the TV, smoke comes out the back.

We use either as or when (not while): • to talk about two short events that happen at the same moment, or if we want to emphasize that two events that in fact occur one after the other happen almost at exactly the same time, particularly if one causes the other:

• You'll see my house on the right as/when you cross the bridge. • As/When the can is opened, the contents heat automatically.

• when we want to say that when one thing changes, another thing changes at the same time. However, we prefer as to express this meaning: • As the cheese matures, its flavor improves, (rather than When the cheese matures...) • Her eyesight worsened as she grew older, (rather than ...when she grew older.)

We prefer while or as (rather than when):

• to talk about two longer actions that go on at the same time: » • I went shopping while/as Linda cleaned the house. We use while (or when) rather than as if 'as' could also mean 'because': • While you were playing golf, I went to the cinema. ('As you were playing golf...' could mean 'Because you were playing golf...')

Particularly in formal speech and writing, we can often leave out subject + be in clauses with when and while if the main and subordinate clause refer to the same subject: • The President was on holiday in Spain when told the news. (= when he was told) • When in doubt about taking the medicine, consult your doctor. (= when you are in doubt) • Mr Thomas found the coins while digging in his back garden. (= while he was digging)

• While on the boat, always wear a lifejacket. (= while you are on the boat)

We can begin a clause with these words to give a reason for a particular situation: • As it was getting late, I decided I should go home. • We must be near the beach, because / can hear the waves. • Since he was going to be living in Sweden for some time, he thought he should read something about the country.

• We could go and visit Sue, seeing that we have to drive past her house anyway.

Notice that: • It is also common and acceptable for because to begin a sentence, as in: • Because everything looked different, I had no idea where to go.

• To give reasons in spoken English, we most often use because (often spoken as 'cos'). So is also commonly used to express the same meaning. Compare:

• Because my mother's arrived, I won't be able to meet you on Thursday after all. • My mother's arrived, so I won't be able to meet you on Thursday after all.

• With this meaning, since is rather formal: • I didn't go out because I was feeling awful, ('since' is unlikely in an informal context)

• Seeing that is used in informal English. Some people also use seeing as in informal speech: • He just had to apologize, seeing that/as he knew he'd made a mistake.

We also give reasons with these phrases in formal or literary written English: • We must begin planning now, for the future may bring unexpected changes. • The film is unusual in that there are only four actors in it. • Clara and I have quite an easy life, inasmuch as neither of us has to work too hard but we earn quite a lot of money.

Because of, due to, owing to can also be used to give a reason for something. Because of is used before a noun or noun phrase: • We won't be able to come because of the weather. • The Prime Minister returned home because of growing unrest in the country.

Compare: • We were delayed because there was an accident, (not ...because of there was...) and • We were delayed because of an accident, (not ...because an accident.)

Due to and owing to also mean 'because of: • She was unable to run owing to/due to a leg injury. (= because of a leg injury.) • We have less money to spend owing to/due to budget cuts. (= because of budget cuts.)

Most people avoid using owing to after the verb be: • The company's success is largely due to the new director, (not ...owing to...)

We can use for and with to introduce reasons. For has a similar meaning to 'because of: • She was looking all the better for (= because of) her stay in hospital.

With this meaning, for is common in most styles of English. With has a similar meaning to 'because there is/are': • With so many people ill (= because so many people are ill), I've decided to cancel the meeting.

Notice we can use with, but not for, at the beginning of a sentence to introduce a reason.

To talk about the PURPOSE of something we can use in order / so as + to-infinitive: • He took the course in order to get a better job. • Trees are being planted by the roadside so as to reduce traffic noise.

In spoken English in particular it is much more common simply to use a to-infinitive without 'in order' or 'so as' to express the same meaning: • He took the course to get a better job.

To make a negative sentence with in order / so as + to-infinitive, we put not before the to-infinitive: • He kept the speech vague in order not to commit himself to one side or the other. • The land was bought quickly so as not to delay the building work.

You can't use a negative if you use only a to-infinitive: • I carried the knife carefully in order / so as not to cut myself, (not ...carefully not to cut...)

However, compare negative sentences with in order / so as / to-infinitive + but: • I came to see you not (in order / so as) to complain, but (in order /so as) to apologize.

We also use in order that and so that to talk about PURPOSE. Compare: • She stayed at work late in order / so as to complete the report, and • She stayed at work late in order that / so that she could complete the report. So that is more common than in order that, and is used in less formal situations.

Study these examples. Notice in particular the verbs and tenses: • Advice is given in order that / so that students can choose the best courses. • Did you give up your job in order that / so that you could take care of your mother? • She bid the present in order that / so that the children wouldn't find it.

Study these examples with for or to-infinitive used to talk about PURPOSE:

To talk about the purpose of an action: for + noun or to-infinitive

To talk about the purpose of a thing, or to define it: for + -ing

To talk about the use a person makes of something: to-infinitive

We use so...that to link a CAUSE with a RESULT. In speech, 'that' is often left out: • The train was so slow (that) I was almost two hours late. • It all happened so quickly (that) I never got a good look at his face.

For special emphasis, particularly in formal English, we can put So ... that at the beginning of a sentence and put the verb before the object: • So slow was the train that I was almost two hours late. • So quickly did it all happen that I never got a good look at his face.

We can sometimes use so...as + to-infinitive instead of so...that: • It was so unusual as to seem almost a joke. (= ...so unusual that it seemed almost...)

• I'm saving for a new car. • I'm saving to buy a new car.

• This is good for getting rid of headaches. • A mouse is a device used for moving the cursor around a computer screen.

• She used a heavy book to keep the door open.

We use although or though when we want to say that there is an unexpected contrast between what happened in the main clause and what happened in the adverbial clause:

• Although/Though Reid failed to score himself, he helped Jones score two goals, (or Reid failed to score himself, but he helped Jones score two goals.)

• She bought a car, although/though she was still too young to learn to drive, (or She was still too young to learn to drive, but she bought a car.)

We can usually use either although or though, but though is often less formal. Though, but not although, can also be used as an adverb to say that the information in a clause contrasts with information in a previous sentence: • I eat most dairy products. I'm not keen on yoghurt, though, (not ...although.) • 'That cheese smells awful!' 'It tastes good, though, doesn't it?' (not ...although...)

We can give special emphasis to an adjective or adverb by putting it before though or as, especially when followed by a linking verb such as be,

appear, become, look, seem, sound, prove, etc. Notice that in this pattern you can't use although.

Compare: • Although/Though the night air was hot, they slept soundly, and • Hot though (or as) the night air was, they slept soundly, (not Hot although the night air...) • Although/Though it may seem extraordinary, London had less rain than Rome, and • Extraordinary though (or as) it may seem, London had less rain than Rome, (not Extraordinary although it may seem...)

Much as is used in a similar way before a clause, particularly to talk about how we feel about someone or something: • Much as I enjoyed the holiday, I was glad to be home. (= Although I enjoyed...)

We can use even though (but not 'even although') to mean 'despite the fact that' and even if to mean 'whether or not'. Compare:

• Even though Tom doesn't speak Spanish, I think he should still visit Madrid.

• Even if Tom doesn't speak Spanish, I think he should still visit Madrid.

We can use in spite of + -ing with a similar meaning to 'although': • In spite of playing with ten men, we won easily. (= Although we played with ten men...) • In spite of being full of water, the boat sailed on. (= Although the boat was full...)

In spite of can also be followed by a noun: • In spite of their poverty, the children seemed happy. (= Although they were poor...)

Notice that despite is often used instead of in spite of, particularly in written English: •

• Despite falling / In spite of falling midway through the race, she won.

Despite and in spite of are never followed by a clause with a finite verb. So, for example, you can't say 'Despite / In spite of she fell midway through the race...'. However, you can use a clause with a finite verb after the fact that:

• Despite / In spite of the fact that she fell midway through the race, she won.

Conditional sentences

Some conditional clauses beginning with if suggest that a situation is real - that is, the situation is or was true, or may have been or may become true: • If anyone phones, tell them I'll be back at 11.00. • If you really want to learn Italian, you need to spend some time in Italy.

Others suggest that a situation is unreal - that is, the situation is imaginary or untrue: • What would you do if you won the lottery? • If you had started out earlier, you wouldn't have been so late.

Compare: • If I go to Berlin, I'll travel by train. (= real conditional) and • If I went to Berlin, I'd travel by train. (= unreal conditional)

In the first, the speaker is thinking of going to Berlin (it is a real future possibility), but in the second, the speaker is not thinking of doing so. The second might be giving someone advice.

In real conditionals we use tenses as in other kinds of sentences: we use present tenses to talk about the present or unchanging relationships, and past tenses to talk about the past: • If you leave now, you'll be home in two hours. • If I made the wrong decision then I apologize.

• If water is frozen, it expands.

However, when we talk about the future, we use a present tense, not will: • I'll give you a lift if it rains, (not ...if it will rain...)

In unreal conditionals, to talk about present or future situations, we use a past tense (either simple or continuous) in the if-clause and would + bare infinitive in the main clause: • If my grandfather was/were still alive, he would be a hundred today. • If you were driving from London to Glasgow, which way would you go? • I'd (=would) offer to give you a lift if I had my car here.

Notice that we sometimes use if...were instead of if...was. When we talk about something that might have happened in the past, but didn't, then we use if + past perfect and would have + past participle in the main clause: • If I had known how difficult the job was, I wouldn't have taken it. • If she hadn't been ill, she would have gone to the concert.

In unreal conditionals, we can also use could/might/should (have) instead of would (have): • If I lived out of town, I could take up gardening. • They might have found a better hotel if they had driven a few more kilometers.

In some unreal conditionals we use mixed tenses. That is, a past tense in the if-clause and would have + past participle in the main clause, or a past perfect in the if-clause and would + bare infinitive in the main clause: • If Bob wasn't so lazy, he would have passed the exam easily. • If the doctor had been called earlier, she would still be alive today.

Notice that in unreal conditional sentences: • we don't use the past simple or past perfect in the main clause: • If we were serious about pollution, we would spend more money on research, (not ...we spent... or ...we had spent...).

• we don't use would in an if-clause:

• If I had a more reliable car, I'd drive to Spain rather than fly. (not If I would have...)

In unreal conditionals we use if...were + to-infinitive to talk about imaginary future situations: • If the technology were to become available, we would be able to expand the business. • If he were to have a chance of success, he would need to move to London. However, notice that we can't use this pattern with many verbs that describe a state, including know, like, remember, understand: • If I knew they were honest, I'd gladly lend them the money, (not If I were to know...)

We sometimes use this pattern to make a suggestion sound more polite: • If you were to move over, we could all sit on the sofa.

If the first verb in a conditional if-clause is should, were, or had we can leave out if and put the verb at the start of the clause. We do this particularly in formal or literary English: • Should any of this cost you anything, send me the bill. (= If any of this should cost...) • It would be embarrassing, were she to find out the truth. (= ...if she were to find out...) • Had they not rushed Dan to hospital, he would have died. (= If they hadn't rushed Dan...)

We use if it was/were not for + noun to say that one situation is dependent on another situation or on a person. When we talk about the past we use If it had not been for + noun: • If it wasn't/weren't for Vivian, the conference

wouldn't be going ahead. • If it hadn't been for my parents, I would never have gone to university.

In formal and literary language, we can also use Were it not for... and Had it not been for...: • Were it not for Vivian...

• Had it not been for my parents...

We often use but for + noun with a similar meaning: • But for Jim's support, I wouldn't have got the job. (= If it hadn't been for Jim...)

We don't usually use if...will in conditional sentences. However, we can use if...will when we talk about a result of something in the main clause. Compare: • Open a window if it will help you to sleep. or ...if it helps you to sleep.

('Helping you to sleep' is the result of opening the window.) • I will be angry if it turns out that you are wrong. not ...if it will turn out...' ('Turning out that you are wrong' is not the result of being angry.)

We also use if...will in requests: • If you will take your seats, ladies and gentlemen, we can begin the meeting.

If you want to make a request more polite, you can use if...would: • If you would take your seats, ladies and gentlemen...

In a real conditional sentence, we use if...happen to, if...should, or if...should happen to to talk about something which may be possible, but is not very likely. If...happen to is most common in spoken English: • If you happen to be in our area, drop in and see us. (or If you should (happen to) be...)

Notice that we don't usually use this pattern in unreal conditionals which talk about impossible states or events in the if-clause: • If the North Sea froze in winter, you could walk from London to Oslo, [not If the North Sea happened to freeze / should (happen to) freeze in winter...)

Unless is used in conditional sentences with the meaning 'if...not': • There's no chance of you getting the job unless you apply, (or ...if you don't apply.) • You can't travel on this train unless you have a reservation, (or ...if you don't have...)

With unless we use present tenses when we talk about the future: • Unless it rains, I'll pick you up at 6.00. (not Unless it will rain...)

In most real conditional sentences, we can use either unless or if...not with a similar meaning. However, we use if...not but not unless: • in most unreal conditional sentences: • He would be happier if he didn't take things so seriously, (not ...unless he took...) • If she hadn't gone to university, she would have gone into the police force, (not Unless she had gone...)

• when we talk about emotions: • I'll be amazed if Christie doesn't win. (not ...unless Christie wins.)

• in most questions: • If you don't pass the test, what will you do? (not Unless you pass...)

We use unless but not if...not when we introduce an afterthought.

• Without Philip to run it, the course can't continue - unless you want the job, of course, (not ... - if you don't want...)

In written English, the afterthought is often separated from the rest of the sentence by a dash.

We can use if or whether to say that two possibilities have been talked about, or to say that people are not sure about something: • They couldn't decide whether/if it was worth re-sitting the exam. • I doubt whether/if anyone else agrees with me.

Whether can usually be followed directly by or not.

Compare: • I didn't know if Tom was coming or not. (not ...if or not Tom was coming.) and • I didn't know whether or not Tom was coming, (or ...whether Tom was coming or not.)

We prefer whether rather than if: • after the verbs advise, consider, discuss: • You should consider carefully whether the car you are interested in is good value.

• before to-infinitives and after prepositions: • I couldn't decide whether to buy apples or bananas. • We argued about whether women are more liberated in Britain or the USA.

• in a clause acting as a subject or complement: • Whether the minister will quit over the issue remains to be seen. • The first issue is whether he knew he was committing a crime.

• in the pattern noun + as to + whether to mean 'about' or 'concerning': **• There was some disagreement as to whether he was eligible to play for France.**

Other nouns commonly used in this pattern are debate, discussion, doubt, question, uncertainty. These sentences include other words and phrases used to introduce conditional clauses:

• We'll have the meeting this afternoon, provided/providing (that) no-one objects.

• Supposing (that) they ask me why I resigned from my last job - what should I say?

• I'll write to you every week - as/so long as you promise to reply.

Reduced Adverb Clauses

Study the use of the preposition + -ing form in these sentences:

• While understanding her problem, I don't know what I can do to help.

• After spending so much money on the car, I can't afford a holiday.

We often use this pattern to avoid repeating the subject. Compare: • Since moving to London, we haven't had time to go to the theatre, and • Since we moved to London, we haven't had time to go to the theatre, (subject repeated)

Words commonly used in this pattern include after, before, besides, by, in, on, since, through, while, with, without.

We can sometimes use a passive form with being + past participle: • Before being changed last year, the speed limit was 70 kph. • He went to hospital after being hit on the head with a bottle.

• By working hard, she passed her math exam. • They only survived by eating roots and berries in the forest.

• On returning from Beijing, he wrote to the Chinese embassy. • John was the first person I saw on leaving hospital.

• In criticizing the painting, I knew I would offend her. • In choosing Marco, the party has moved to the left.

We can often use by + -ing or in + -ing with a similar meaning:

• In/By writing the essay about Spanish culture, I understood the country better. ('In writing...' = the result of writing was to understand...; 'By writing...' = the method I used to understand the country better was to write...)

However, compare: • By/In standing on the table, John was able to look out of the window. (= the result of the chosen method)

and

• In standing (not By...) on the table, John banged his head on the ceiling. (= the result; John did not stand on the table in order to bang his head)

With/without + -ing; what with + -ing With + -ing often gives a reason for something in the main clause. Notice that a subject has to come between with

and -ing: • With Louise living in Spain, we don't see her often. (= Because Louise lives in Spain...) • With sunshine streaming through the window, Hugh found it impossible to sleep. (= Because sunshine was streaming...)

In informal, mainly spoken, English, we can also use what with + -ing to introduce a reason. Notice that there doesn't have to be a subject between with and -ing: • What with Philip snoring all night, and the heavy rain, I didn't sleep a wink. • What with getting up early and travelling all day, we were exhausted by the evening.

We can use without + ing to say that a second action doesn't happen: • I went to work without eating breakfast.

Often, however, it has a similar meaning to 'although' or 'unless':

> • Without setting out to do so, I have offended her. (= Although I didn't set out to do so...) • Without seeing the pictures, I can't judge how good they are. (= Unless I see the pictures...)

Some words (adverbs or prepositional phrases used as adverbs) are used to connect ideas between one sentence and a previous sentence or sentences:

• There was no heating in the building. As a result, the workers had to be sent home. • We could go skiing at Christmas. Alternatively, we could just stay at home.

Others (conjunctions or prepositions) are used to connect ideas within a single sentence: • While I was waiting, I read a magazine. • I'll be wearing a red jumper so that you can see me easily.

Many words used to connect ideas between sentences can also connect two clauses in one sentence when they are joined with and, but, or, so, a semi-colon (;), colon (:), or dash (-): • The building was extremely well constructed and, consequently, difficult to demolish. • You could fly via Singapore; however, this isn't the only way.

Here are some examples of adverbs that connect ideas. type of connection

between sentences

however, nevertheless, on the other hand, on the contrary, though, alternatively, instead, after all, in any case, in contrast, by contrast, otherwise, even so therefore, consequently, hence, as a consequence, in consequence (formal), thus, as a result, so in addition, furthermore, too, as well, likewise, similarly, moreover, what's more, also, meanwhile, at the same time, at that time, soon, then, afterwards, after that, before that, subsequently

within sentences

although, though, even though, while, yet, whereas

because, since, as, in order to, so that

while, as, when, whenever

after, before, as soon as, since

Even though is a conjunction used to say that a fact doesn't make the rest of the sentence untrue. It connects ideas within a sentence: • Even though much of the power of the trade unions has been lost, their political influence should not be underestimated.

Even so is a prepositional phrase used to introduce a fact that is surprising in the light of what was just said. It connects ideas between sentences:

• Much of the power of the trade unions has been lost. Even so, their political influence should not be underestimated.

Although however is often used to connect ideas between sentences, it can also be used to connect ideas within a sentence: • when it is followed by an adjective, adverb, or much/many: • We just don't have the money to do the work, however necessary you think it is.

• when it means 'no matter how':

• However she held the mirror, she couldn't see the back of her neck.

Prepositions after verbs

We use either about or of with learn and know when we talk about something that happens to somebody or something, or about a particular event. Of is more formal with these verbs: • I have just learnt about/of the death of Dr Brown. (= found out about) •

know & know about/of

We use know + noun when we talk about personal experience of people and things. Otherwise, we use know about/of + noun.

Compare: • My uncle knew Churchill, and •

• The whole country knew about/of Churchill's love of cigars.

learn about & know about

We use learn about and know about (not 'of') when we talk about particular subject that we study: • They began to learn about nutrition when they were at primary school. • Ten years ago we knew little about black holes.

ask about & enquire about

We use ask about or enquire (or inquire) about when we talk about

getting information about something or someone:

• He got angry when they started to ask about / enquire about his private life.

ask after & enquire after

We use ask after or enquire (or inquire) after to ask for information about a person (but not a thing), particularly concerning their health. Ask/enquire about can also be used:

• I'm phoning to ask (or enquire) after/about Mrs Brown. She's in Ward 4. ask for You use ask for (not 'enquire for') to ask someone to give you something or do something: • He finished the drink quickly and asked for another.

enquire into

When we enquire into (not 'ask into') some organization, event or person we try to find out facts in order to investigate them: • The body has been set up to enquire into near-accidents reported by airline pilots.

think of/about

Think of is preferred when you talk about something that suddenly enters your mind (it occurs to you) and think about when you talk about something that you consider over a longer period: • He suddenly thought of Hilary.

think about We use think about (rather than 'think of) when we talk about concentrating on • Your job is to think about safety and nothing else.

We use think of (rather than 'think about') to give opinions and ask about them, to talk about an idea, and to talk about remembering something. We also prefer of in the pattern (be) thinking of + -ing to talk about intentions: What do you think of my car? I've just bought it. I don't think a lot of his work. (= it's not very good) He thinks a lot of his sister. (= likes/respects her) He's always thinking of ways to increase our sales. I know it's here somewhere. I just can't think of where I've put it.

I'm thinking of selling my motorbike.

hear about/of

We can use either hear about or hear of when we talk about gaining information about someone or something: • I heard about/of this restaurant through Pam. • You don't often hear about/of people with cholera in Britain.

hear about

We use hear about {not 'hear of) to talk about getting some news about someone or something: • Have you heard about Jan's accident?

• Did you hear about the match? I won!

hear of

We use hear of (rather than 'hear about') to indicate whether we know about the existence of something or somebody: • You must have heard of the Amsterdam flower market. It's famous. • It was a book by an author I'd never heard of.

We use the expression won't hear of to mean that someone refuses to let you do something: • I want to repay Jim the money I owe him, but he won't hear of it.

hear from

We use hear from when we talk about receiving some communication - e.g. a phone call or letter - from somebody: • I heard from Pauline recently. She told me she's moving back to Greece. • When did you last hear from Don?

laugh about/at

We can say we laugh at an amusing person, thing or situation, or something we don't take seriously, when the amusing thing, etc., is present. We use laugh about when we are remembering the amusing person, thing or situation at a later date: • We spent a happy couple of hours laughing at photos from the party. • The program was so funny! We laugh about it every time we think of it.

If one person is the object of another person's amusement, instead of sharing in the amusement, and consequently suffers, we use laugh at. We don't use laugh about in this way: • When she fell off her chair, all her friends laughed at her and she started to cry.

agree with

We use agree with to say that two people have the same opinion; to say that you approve of a particular idea or action; or to say that two things match. We also use agree with to talk about things that make us feel healthy or happy: • Adam thinks we should accept the offer, and I agree with him. • I agree with letting children choose the clothes they want to wear. • Tom's story agreed with that of his son.

• Being on holiday agrees with me. I feel great.

agree to

We use agree to to say that someone allows something to happen, or to say that someone is prepared to do something:

• Once the government agreed to the scheme it went ahead without delay. • He agreed to the idea of a barbecue on condition that he could do the cooking.

agree on

We use agree on to say that two or more people decide something: • We agreed on a time and place to meet.

agree about

We use agree about to say that people have the same opinion on a particular subject. When a decision depends on people's opinions, we can use either agree on or agree about: • Something that everyone can agree about is that we all want to be happy.

• We couldn't agree on/about the color to paint the kitchen.

care about/for

We use either care about or care for to talk about feeling affection for someone: • If you really cared about/for me, you wouldn't spend so much time away from home. • Jim and Ann are always together. They seem to care about/for each other a lot.

care about

We use care about to talk about something we are (not) concerned about:

• Frank cared about his clothes more than anything else. • He doesn't seem to care about the effect smoking has on him.

care for

We use care for to say that we look after someone or something and keep them in good health or condition. We can use take care of in the same way: • Jean cared for her disabled mother until her death last year, (or Jean took care of...) • You need to consider how easy it will be to care for the garden, (or ...to take care of...)

We also use care for to mean 'like', particularly in negative sentences, and to mean 'want' in offers. Both these uses of care for are rather formal: • I don't care for the theater much.

• Would you care for a cup of coffee?

care + no preposition

We use care with no preposition before how, if, what, when, etc. to mean that something is (not) considered important or significant: • I must buy it. I don't care how much it costs.

• He often walks along the street singing loudly. He doesn't seem to care who is around. • I don't care if you're busy. I need the car today!

shout/point/throw at/to

You shout at someone because you are angry with them: • Don't shout at me, I'm doing my best!

You shout to someone who is a long way from you so that they can hear: • The taxi driver shouted to someone across the street. 'Is the station near here?'

We use point something at when we aim a knife, camera, finger, etc. in a particular direction: • She pointed the knife at me and started to laugh.

When you point at or point to something, you show where something is by holding out your finger (we can also use point towards): • The food's over there,' said Toni, pointing at/to/towards the corner of the room.

We use point to when we say that a particular fact suggests that something else is true or will happen: • The increase in house prices points to an upturn in the economy.

We throw something to someone for them to catch it: • Fletcher picked up the ball and threw it back to the goalkeeper.

We throw something at something or someone to try to hit them: • A monkey was sitting in the tree, throwing nuts at anyone who walked past.

wonder about

If we wonder about doing something, we think about doing it in the future, or say that we want to know about something or someone: • I've been wondering about visiting Lynn.

• John has looked tired recently, and I've started to wonder about his health.

wonder at

If we wonder at something, we say that we are surprised at it or impressed by it. This is a rather literary use: • The children had their faces pressed to the glass of the cage, wondering at the tigers they could see only inches away on the other side.

Inversion

In statements it is usual for the verb to follow the subject. Sometimes, however, this word order is reversed. We can refer to this as INVERSION.

Compare: • Her father stood in the doorway. In the doorway stood her father. • He had rarely seen such a sunset. • Rarely had he seen such a sunset. • He showed me his ID card. I only let him in then. • Only then did / let him in.

Inversion after adverbial phrases of direction and place

When we put an adverbial phrase, especially of direction or place, at the beginning of a sentence, we sometimes put an intransitive verb in front of its subject. This kind of inversion is found particularly in formal or literary styles: • Dave began to open the three parcels. Inside the first was a book of crosswords from his Aunt Alice, (or, less formally Inside the first there was a book of crosswords...)

With the verb be we always use inversion in sentences like this, and inversion is usual with certain verbs of place and movement, such as climb, come, fly, go, hang, lie, run, sit, stand:

• Above the fireplace was a portrait of the Duke, (not ...a portrait of the Duke was.) •

• In an armchair sat his mother, (rather than ...his mother sat.)

Inversion doesn't usually occur with other verbs. We don't invert subject and verb when the subject is a pronoun. So, for example, we don't say 'In an armchair sat she.'

In speech, inversion often occurs after here and there, and adverbs such as back, down, in, off, • I lit the fuse and after a few seconds up went the rocket.

• Here comes Sandra's car.

Inversion in conditional sentences We can use clauses with inversion instead of certain kinds of if/-clauses. Compare:

• It would be a serious setback, if the talks were to fail. > It would be a serious setback, were talks to fail.

• If you should need more information, please telephone our main office. >Should you need more information telephone our main office.

• If Alex had asked, I would have been able to help. >Had Alex asked, I would have been to help.

The sentences with inversion are rather more formal than those with 'if. Notice that in negative clauses with inversion, we don't use contracted forms: • Had he not resigned, we would have been forced to sack him. (not Hadn't he...)

Inversion in comparisons with 'as' and 'than' • The cake was excellent, as was the coffee, (or ...as the coffee was.) • I believed, as did my colleagues, that the plan would work, (or ...as my colleagues did...) • Research shows that children living in villages watch more television than do their counterparts in inner city areas, (or ...than their counterparts do...)

We prefer to use inversion after "as" and "than" in formal written language. Notice that we don't invert subject and verb when the subject is a pronoun.

In formal and literary language in particular, we use negative adverbials at the beginning of a clause.

The subject and verb are inverted: • after the time adverbials never (before), rarely, seldom; barely/hardly/scarcely...when/before; no sooner...than: • Seldom do we have goods returned to us because they are faulty, (not Seldom we do...) • Hardly had / got onto the motorway when I saw two police cars following me.

• after only + a time expression, as in only after, only later, only once, only then, only when: • She bought a newspaper and some sweets at the shop on the corner. Only later did she realize that she'd been given the wrong change.

• Only once did / go to the opera in the whole time I was in Italy.

• after only + other prepositional phrases beginning only by..., only in..., only with..., etc.: • Only by chance had Jameson discovered where the birds were nesting. • Mary had to work at evenings and weekends. Only in this way was she able to complete the report by the deadline.

• after expressions with preposition + no, such as at no time, in no way, on no account, under/in no circumstances: • At no time did they actually break the rules of the game. • Under no circumstances are passengers permitted to open the doors themselves.

• after expressions with not..., such as not only, not until, and also not + object: • Not until August did the government order an inquiry into the accident. • Not a single word had she written since the exam had started.

• after little with a negative meaning: • Little do they know how lucky they are to live in such a wonderful house. • Little did / then realize the day would come when Michael would be famous.

Notice that inversion can occur after a clause beginning only after/if/when or not until: • Only when the famine gets worse will world governments begin to act. • Not until the train pulled into Euston Station did Jim find that his coat had gone.

>>> Inversion after 'so + adjective... that'; 'such + be...that'; 'neither.../nor...'

Compare these pairs of sentences: • Her business was so successful that Marie was able to retire at the age of 50. or • So successful was her business, that Marie was able to retire at the age of 50. • The weather conditions became so dangerous that all mountain roads were closed, or • So dangerous did weather conditions become, that all mountain roads were closed.

We can use so + adjective at the beginning of a clause to give special emphasis to the adjective. When we do this, the subject and verb are inverted.

We can use such + be at the beginning of a clause to emphasize the extent or degree of something. The subject and verb are inverted. Compare: • Such is the popularity of the play that the theatre is likely to be full every night, or • The play is so popular that the theatre is likely to be full every night.

We invert the subject and verb after neither and nor when these words begin a clause: • For some time after the explosion Jack couldn't hear, and neither could he see.

• The council never wanted the new supermarket to be built, nor did local residents.

Typical Errors and Corrections

1. This large goat is only living in the mountains of Switzerland. >This large goat only lives in the mountains of Switzerland.
2. John is resembling his older sister. >John resembles his older sister.
3. I work at the University for over ten years now. >I have worked at the University for over ten years now.
4. Charles is a gifted footballer, but up to now he didn't play well in international matches. > Charles is a gifted footballer, but up to now he hasn't played well in international matches.
5. We've seen Jean in town the other day. We saw Jean in town the other day.
6. Have you ever been to the opera when you lived in Milan? > Did you ever go to the opera when you lived in Milan?
7. I was meeting a lot of interesting people while I was working in Norway. >I met a lot of interesting people while I was working in Norway.
8. How long are you wearing glasses? > How long have you been wearing (or ...have you worn) glasses? (She is still wearing them.)
9. We've been staying with Paul and Jenny until last weekend. > We were staying with Paul and Jenny until last weekend. • (We don't use the present perfect continuous with an expression (e.g. 'until') that refers to a finished period of time.)
10. I've never been listening to any of Aguado's music before. > I've never listened to any of Aguado's music before.
11. The new bridge had been opened six months ago. > The new bridge was opened six months ago.
12. I had been knowing Helen for a number of years. > I had known Helen for a number of years.
13. When I went to school we must learn Latin. > When I went to school, we had to learn Latin.
14. I'm afraid I did a mistake in the calculation.> I'm afraid I made a mistake in the calculation.

15. The fence was collapsed during the storm. > The fence collapsed during the storm. • (With this meaning, 'collapsed' is intransitive.)
16. Before his lecture Professor Taylor was introduced us. >Before his lecture Professor Taylor was introduced to us.
17. John was decided to chair the meeting. > It was decided that John would/should chair the meeting.
18. I asked Tony how was he getting to Brussels. > I asked Tony how he was getting to Brussels.
19. Who are coming to your party?> Who's coming to your party?
20. He made me to do it. > He made me do it.
21. Did you remember buying some milk on your way home?> Did you remember to buy some milk on your way home? •
22. He advised me giving up smoking. > He advised giving up smoking, or He advised me to give up smoking.
23. She debated if to tell her mother about the accident. >She debated whether to tell her mother about the accident.
24. When I went to the dentist last week I got two teeth taken out. > When I went to the dentist last week I had two teeth taken out. (Although 'got' might be used in informal English, 'had' is more likely here because it is normally dentists that decide to take teeth out. The sentence with 'get' suggests that the speaker decided to have the teeth taken out.) I had two teeth out.' is also possible.
25. When Jenny phoned last week, she said that she will be arriving this morning. But she hasn't turned up. > When Jenny phoned last week, she said that she would be arriving this morning. But she hasn't turned up.
26. The equipments were faulty. > The equipment was faulty.
27. The contrast between Britain and other countries in Europe are striking. >The contrast between Britain and other countries in Europe is striking.
28. 40% of people under the age of 25 is unemployed. > 40% of people under the age of 25 are unemployed.
29. They went on a three months training course. > They went on a three-month training course. •
30. I've got two brother-in-laws.> I've got two brothers-in-law.
31. I hope to go on to study for a MA in Applied Linguistics. > I hope to go on to study for an MA in Applied Linguistics.
32. Soup I had last night was too salty. >The soup I had last night was too salty.

33. There isn't many traffic along the street where I live.> There isn't much traffic along the street where I live. (We use 'much', not 'many' with uncountable nouns.)
34. Before going into the temple, everyone has to take off his shoes. > Before going into the temple, everyone has to take off their shoes. • (We use 'their', referring back to 'everyone', when 'everyone' does not indicate a specific gender.)
35. It cost fewer than twenty pounds. > It cost less than twenty pounds.
36. The boy threw the stone who is wearing the yellow shirt. > The boy who is wearing the yellow shirt threw the stone.
37. The car that I had it in 1990 was blue. >The car that I had in 1990 was blue.
38. My older brother, you'll meet later, is a dentist. > My older brother, whom you'll meet later, is a dentist.
39. He lived at the top of an old house which attic had been converted into a flat. > He lived at the top of an old house whose attic had been converted into a flat.
40. "Do you like your present?" "It's just the thing what I was hoping for." > "Do you like your present?" 'It's just the thing (that) I was hoping for.' (or It's just what...)
41. You are free to do whatever you will want. > You are free to do whatever you want. (We use the present simple to refer to the future after whatever, etc.)
42. The valley in which the power station is located in is to the north of the city. > The valley in which the power station is located is to the north of the city. (If the relative clause begins with a preposition, we don't use a second preposition later.)
43. The man breaking the window wants to see you. > The man who broke the window wants to see you. (We can't use an -ing clause instead of a defining relative clause to talk about a single, completed action.)
44. I recognized Joan easily. She was the only woman worn a red and green hat. > I recognized Joan easily. She was the only woman (who was) wearing a red and green hat. (or woman who wore) (We don't use a past participle clause instead of a defining relative clause with an active verb.)
45. Opening the book, the pages had been drawn on. > Opening the book, I noticed that the pages had been drawn on. (The subject of the main clause should be the same as the implied subject of the -ing clause.)

46. I never dreamed the exhibition would be a such success.> I never dreamed the exhibition would be such a success. (We put 'such' before 'a/an'.
47. John was late, as I predicted he might. > John was late, as I predicted he might be.
48. The sorry boy apologized to his teacher. > The boy was sorry and he apologized to his teacher.
49. We apologize for any caused inconvenience. >We apologize for any inconvenience caused.
50. The report provides worried evidence of the spread of the disease.> The report provides worrying evidence of the spread of the disease.
51. The strikes were mainly concerned about working conditions. > The strikes were mainly concerned with working conditions.
52. We had always to wear a uniform at school. > We always had to wear a uniform at school.
53. We tomorrow are flying to Kuala Lumpur. > Tomorrow we are flying to Kuala Lumpur, or We are flying to Kuala Lumpur tomorrow.
54. We very admired their music. > We (very) much admired their music, (or ...greatly admired...)
55. Have something to eat before you will go. > Have something to eat before you go.
56. We stayed in Jim's flat during he was on holiday. > We stayed in Jim's flat while/when he was on holiday. • (or ...during the time that he was on holiday.) ('During' is a preposition, not a conjunction, so it comes at the beginning of a noun phrase, not a subordinate clause.)
57. I'd lost my watch, so I was late for the meeting. > (Because I'd lost my watch, I was late for the meeting, or I'd lost my watch, so I was late for the meeting, (We don't use 'because' and 'so' together in a sentence.) We couldn't go sailing because the weather. > We couldn't go sailing because of the weather.
58. I couldn't understand the instructions due to I don't know German. > I couldn't understand the instructions because I don't know German.
59. Although they played well, but they never looked like winning.> Although they played well, they never looked like winning, or They played well, but they never looked like winning. (We don't normally use two conjunctions in the same sentence.)

60. **Despite the snow was still falling heavily, she went out. > Despite the heavy snow, she went out. (or Although it was snowing heavily, or Despite the fact that it was snowing heavily) ('Despite' is a preposition, so it can't be followed by a clause with a finite verb.)**
61. **Peter had avoided the traffic jam if he'd set out a bit earlier. > Peter would have avoided the traffic jam if he'd set out a bit earlier.**
62. **If I would know what you wanted, I'd help you.> If I knew what you wanted, I'd help you.**
63. **If Schumacher will win today, he would become world champion. > If Schumacher were to win today, he would become world champion.**
64. **I will be grateful if you will send me a copy of your latest catalogue. > I would (or should) be grateful if you could (or would) send me a copy of your latest catalogue. • (In a formal request in a letter, we use the pattern 'I would/should be grateful if you could/would')**
65. **He won't be able to go to university unless he doesn't pass his exams. > He won't be able to go to university unless he passes his exams, (or ...to university if he doesn't pass...)**
66. **I don't know if or not it's true. > I don't know whether or not it's true, or I don't know if it's true or not.**