

# GRAMMAR HIGHLIGHTS

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گروه TOEFL مجموعه زبان  
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منابع:

1. Cambridge Advanced Grammar in Use - Martin Hewings
2. Communicate what You Mean: A Concise Advanced Grammar Book by Carroll Washington Pollock and Samuela Eckstut-Didier

این مجموعه شامل تعدادی از مباحث گرامری می باشد که در سطح پیشرفته می تواند به درک بهتر متون TOEFL و نگارش مقاله هایی با کیفیت بالاتر کمک نماید. بدیهی است بهبود گرامر نیازمند بررسی مباحث، پیدا کردن و تحلیل مباحث گرامری در متون و تلاش برای استفاده صحیح از مباحث در نگارش می باشد. معمولا این دید اشتباه وجود دارد که گرامر تنها حفظ نمودن یک سری قوانین می باشد. اما دوستانی که عملکرد خوبی در آزمون دارند به خوبی مباحث را درک، تحلیل و استفاده می نمایند. در کنار مباحث گرامری می توانید با Punctuation صحیح نیز آشنا شوید.

مباحث را مرور نمایید، در متون TPO بررسی کنید، در مقالات خود سعی نمایید از این مباحث استفاده کنید و از مصحح خود بخواهید مقالات شما را بررسی نماید.

موفق باشید.

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## Articles

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)

After the position of, the post of, or the role of we use zero article before a job title:

- Dr. Simons has taken on the position of Head of Department.

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 North Pole

the jet age

the international market

the travel industry

the arms trade

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

- the weather

the climate

the human race

the atmosphere

the sea

the public

the environment

the sky

the ground

the wind

the future

the past

However, if we want to describe a particular instance of these we use a/an.

- She could hear the wind whistling through the trees outside.
- What are your plans for the future?
- There's a cold wind blowing from the north.
- 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.

a • 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.

In generalizations we use zero article, but not the, with plural or uncountable nouns:

- Before you put them on, always check your shoes for spiders.
- I'm studying geography at university.
- I can smell smoke!

When we use 'the' with a plural or uncountable noun, we are talking about specific things or people:

- The books you ordered have arrived.

- All the information you asked for is in this file of papers.

Compare these pairs of sentences:

- Flowers really brighten up a room. (= flowers in general) and
- The flowers you bought me are lovely. (= particular flowers)
- Industry is using computers more and more. (= industry in general) and
- The tourism industry is booming in Malaysia. (= a particular industry)
- Children should be given a sense of how business works. (= business in general) and
- The aerospace business actually lost \$6 billion this year. (= a particular business)
- She's an expert on Swedish geology. (= among other Swedish things) and
- She's an expert on the geology of Sweden. (= specifically of Sweden)

We can use 'the' with a singular countable noun to talk about the general features or characteristics of a class of things or people rather than one specific thing or person. In

- Nowadays, photocopiers are found in both the office and the home.

we are talking about offices and homes in general rather than a particular office and home.

Notice that we could also say 'in both offices and homes' with little difference in meaning.

## Coordinating Conjunctions and Parallel Structure

Coordinating conjunctions are words that connect structures that are the same. This is called parallel structure. These are the coordinating conjunctions in English: and, but, for, nor, or, so, and yet.

- Coordinating conjunctions are used to connect:
- Men and women are the same. (Connecting Nouns)
- There is still plenty of food in the living room and in the kitchen. (Connecting Prepositional Phrases)
- I am sitting here and writing a letter. (Connecting Gerunds)
- When you go and what you do are not my concern. (Connecting Clauses)
- Jim loves Sue, and she loves him. (Connecting Sentences)
- Coordinating conjunctions cannot connect different structures. (#PARALLEL STRUCTURE)
- The journalist is successful (adjective) and well-liked (adjective).
- **Incorrect:** The journalist is a success (Noun) and well-liked (adjective).

• **Note:** Check the punctuation in the following sentences:

Independent Sentence + comma + coordinating conjunctions + Independent Sentence

- The phone rang, and someone knocked on the door.
- You don't have to study, nor do you have to stay home.
- You can stay home and study for the exam, or you can go out and enjoy yourself.

- Dr. Jones was very sick, but he taught the class.
- His voice was very weak, yet the students understood him.
- Dr. Jones couldn't lecture for the entire hour, for he had a sore throat.
- I've been working hard all year, so I'm going to take a vacation during the summer.

•1. When a coordinating conjunction connects two or more sentences, the statements on both sides of the conjunction must have a subject and a verb.

•I was going to call you last night, but my roommate was on the phone for three hours. I was too tired to wait, so I went to bed.

•2. The coordinating conjunction nor connects two negative ideas. As in questions, the subject and auxiliary verb must be inverted after nor.

•I don't speak Korean, nor do I write it. (I don't speak Korean. I don't write it.)

•I haven't done my writing assignment, nor have I done the reading one.

•3. The coordinating conjunction for is more common in formal writing. In informal speech because is more common.

•Formal: Dr. Jones couldn't lecture the entire hour, for he had a sore throat.

•Less formal: Dr. Jones couldn't lecture the entire hour because he had a sore throat.

- 4. Coordinating conjunctions have different meanings, so they show different relationships between the ideas in two clauses. The relationship must always be logical.

- Incorrect:** The grammar test on tenses was very long, but it took a long time to finish.

- Correct:** The grammar test on tenses was very long, so it took a long time to finish.

- 5. Remember that when a coordinating conjunction connects two complete sentences (independent clauses), a comma precedes the coordinating conjunction. If the clauses are short, the comma is not essential, but it is always safe to add the comma.

- I love you, but I can't marry you.

- I love you but can't marry you.

- When more than two sentences are combined, it may be necessary to make changes in the sentences so that they will sound smoother. For example, these sentences need to be connected:

- My parents wanted me to have the experience of studying in a foreign country. My parents wanted me to have the experience of learning another language. My parents do not want me to remain in a foreign country too long. My parents do not want me to change my cultural beliefs.

- The above four sentences could be combined into one sentence.

- My parents wanted me to have the experience of studying in a foreign country and learning another language, but they do not want me to remain here long, nor do they want me to change my cultural beliefs.

- When writing your own sentences, it is important not to produce a string of sentences.
- Good style:** You can study in the university library or in the dormitory quiet room, but you must find a quiet place to work soon.
- Poor style:** You can study in the university library, or you can study in the dormitory quiet room, but you must find a quiet place to study, and you must find it soon.

## Correlative Conjunctions

The correlative conjunctions either ... or mean one or the other. They indicate a choice or alternative and connect two affirmative ideas.

You must either tell the truth or go to jail. (connecting two verb phrases)

A person is either honest or dishonest. (connecting two adjectives)

I will see you either at home or in jail. (connecting two prepositional phrases)

I can call either your father or your mother. (connecting two noun objects)

- When two verbs or verb phrases are connected with auxiliaries, either follows the auxiliary verb. The auxiliary is not repeated after or.

You must either tell the truth or go to jail.

He has either lost his watch or misplaced it.

She is either crying or laughing very hard.

- When using either ... or to connect similar structures, remember to place either as close as possible to the structure it is identifying.

**Correct:** I can call either your father or your mother.

**Incorrect:** I can either call your father or your mother.

- Singular subjects joined by either ... or take a singular verb after or. Plural subjects joined by either ... or take a plural verb after or.

Either my roommate or I am going to go to the party. Either my parents or my sisters are going to visit me this summer.

- If one subject is singular and the other subject is plural, the verb agrees with the subject after or, that is, the subject closest to the verb.

Either my parents or my sister is going to visit me.

Either my sister or my parents are going to visit me.

- It is not possible to connect similar structures if the subjects of the sentences are different. Therefore, the similar structures in the following sentences cannot be connected.

>> You will tell the truth. I will report you to the police.

**Incorrect:** You will either tell the truth or report you to the police.

### • Connecting two Complete Sentences

- Either you must tell the truth, or you must go to jail.
- Either a person is honest, or a person is dishonest.

- When two complete sentences are connected, a comma follows the first sentence.

Either the baby is sick, or he is tired.

- A comma is not needed when similar structures are connected.

The baby is either sick or tired.

- Note that it is possible to connect two complete sentences even if the subjects of the sentences are different.

- The correlative conjunctions 'neither...nor' mean not one or the other. They connect two negative ideas

Neither money nor success is important to me. (connecting two noun subjects)

I want neither fame nor fortune. (connecting two noun objects)

This coffee is neither good nor hot. (connecting two adjectives)

Your son is neither outside nor inside. (connecting two adverbs)

Sue has neither arrived nor called. (connecting two verbs)

- When two verbs or verb phrases are connected with auxiliaries, neither follows the auxiliary verb. The auxiliary is not repeated after nor.

I have neither finished my composition nor completed the reading assignments.

Sue is neither coming nor planning to call.

- When there are two auxiliary verbs, neither follows the first.

I have neither been sleeping nor watching television.

- When neither ... nor connect similar structures, neither is placed as close as possible to the structure it is identifying.

**Correct:** I am neither happy nor sad today.

**Incorrect:** I neither am happy nor sad today.

- Singular subjects joined by neither ... nor take a singular verb after nor. Plural subjects joined by neither ... nor take a plural verb after nor.

- Neither Maria nor Jabria is coming to the party.

- If one subject is singular and the other subject is plural, the verb agrees with the subject after nor, that is, the subject closest to the verb.

Neither the director nor the teachers want an extra week of classes.  
Neither the teachers nor the director wants an extra week of classes.

- Neither ... nor are usually used to connect words and phrases that are similar in structure. They are rarely used to connect complete sentences.

- When not only ... but also are used to connect similar structures, not only and but also are placed as close as possible to the structures they identify.

- **Correct:** It is not only a big apartment but also an inexpensive one.

- **Incorrect:** It not only is a big apartment but also an inexpensive one.

Tom has not only a car but also a motorcycle. (connecting two noun objects)

He is not only a fast driver but also a good one. (connecting two adjectives + nouns)

He not only repairs motorcycles but also teaches motorcycle repair. (connecting two verbs)

- Singular subjects joined by not only .. . but also take a singular verb after but also. Plural subjects joined by not only ... but also take a plural verb after but also.

Not only Maria but also Jabria is coming to the party.

Not only the teachers but also the students want one week less of classes.

- When one subject is singular and the other subject is plural, the verb agrees with the subject after but also, that is, the subject closest to the verb.

- When not only ... but also are used to connect two complete sentences, but also can be kept together.

Not only do we need a stove, but also we need a refrigerator.

- But also can also be separated.

Not only do we need a new stove, but we also need a refrigerator.

- When not only ... but also are used to connect two complete sentences, the subject and auxiliary verb must be inverted after not only.

**Correct:** Not only do the children need new clothes, but also they need book bags.

- When two complete sentences are connected, a comma follows the first sentence.

Not only is the baby sick, but he is also tired.

- A comma is not needed when similar structures are connected.

The baby is not only sick but also tired.

- Subjects joined by both ... and always take a plural verb.

Both my mother and my father are coming.

Both my sister and my brothers are coming.

- Both ... and are usually used to connect words and phrases that are similar in structure. They are rarely used to connect complete sentences.

## 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:
  - It was three days until/before the letter arrived.
- if the main clause is negative:
  - 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 I 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.

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 hid 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.

## 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 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 noun and a non-defining relative clause, and another comma at the end of this clause if it is not used 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 healthier 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.

In 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.)

## Noun Clauses

- A noun clause has the same function as a single-word noun.

His house is beautiful. (single-word noun)

Where he lives is beautiful. (noun clause)

- Single-word nouns have many different functions in sentences; therefore, noun clauses have many different functions. Here, you will concentrate on the four most common functions:

- **subject of a sentence:** Whenever we start will be fine with me.
- **object of a sentence:** Did you know that they weren't going to help us?
- **object of the preposition:** Aren't you concerned about how long it will take?
- **complement of the adjective:** I'm not sure how much time we'll need.

- These words, called subordinating conjunctions or subordinators, introduce noun clauses.

- |             |            |
|-------------|------------|
| • who       | • how many |
| • which     | • whom     |
| • how       | • where    |
| • how much  | • Whose    |
| • whoever   | • etc.     |
| • whichever |            |

## Noun Clause as Subject of a Sentence

- Sometimes the subordinator introduces a noun clause that has its own subject and verb.

**Why my pet turtle stares at me all day** is beyond me.

- In informal spoken English, who and whoever, although incorrect, appear occasionally instead of whom and whomever. In speech and writing, whom and whomever are preferred.

**Correct:** **Whomever the company hires** should be willing to travel.

**Incorrect:** **Whoever he knows** should be invited.

- Be careful not to confuse noun clauses beginning with that and who and adjective clauses beginning with that and who.

Noun clause: I heard **that you passed the test.**

Adjective clause: Are you the one **that passed the test?**

- Remember that noun clauses follow verbs or indirect objects; adjective clauses follow nouns.

- When a noun clause is the subject of the sentence, the main verb of the completed sentence is singular in form.

**What they do in their free time** is none of my business.

**Whether or not they stay** makes no difference to me.

**The fact that fewer than 20 percent of the population voted** proves my point.

## Noun Clause as Object of a Sentence

- In a reply to a question, the tense of the verb in the noun clause does not change if the main verb of the completed sentence is in the simple present.

A: How long was she there?

B: I don't know **how long she was there.**

- If the main verb of the completed sentence is in the simple past, the tense of the verb in the noun clause changes.

A: When will they arrive?

B: Nobody told me **when they would arrive.**

I don't remember **who he is.**

We didn't hear **what they were talking about.**

Nobody knows **whether they passed.**

## Noun Clause as Object of a Preposition

Everyone believes in **whatever Tony says**.

- I never think about **how I will pay my bills**.
- I can't rely on **what you tell me**.

## Noun Clause as Adjective Complement

• A noun clause as an adjective complement completes the meaning started by the adjective.

I'm sure **that he'll succeed**. (He will succeed. I'm sure of it)

I'm convinced **that she's unhappy**. (She's unhappy. I'm convinced of that.)

• That is the most commonly used subordinator in this pattern. It can be omitted from the sentence.

I'm sure **he'll succeed**.

- I'm convinced **she's unhappy**.

## -ever words in noun clauses

I'll invite **whoever (or whomever) you like**.

**Whoever shows up for dinner** is welcome.

The dog will eat **whatever you give her**.

• **Be careful not to confuse however when it is used to introduce a noun clause and however when it is used as a conjunctive adverb.**

- Compare: However you cook the meat is all right with me.
- I'll help you to cook it; **however**, I don't like rare meat.

## Noun clauses beginning with that

- That can often be omitted when it introduces a noun clause used as object of the verb.

- We assumed **our son was sick**.
- I could not believe **he had lied to us**.
- I hope **he will tell the truth soon**.
- Do you imagine **he knows our feelings**?

- That cannot be omitted when it introduces a noun clause used as subject of the sentence. That as subject of the sentence emphasizes the information in the noun clause.

**That he had lied to us** was unbelievable.

**That we accepted his apology** made him feel better.

**That small boys sometimes lie** should not surprise anyone.

- That as subject of the sentence is very formal. It rarely occurs in informal spoken English. Instead, in conversation, speakers of English often use the word *it* as subject of the sentence and place the noun clause at the end of the sentence. In this pattern, a noun clause may follow a noun, pronoun, or an adjective.

It is a fact **that the world is fighting a food shortage**. (**That the world is facing a food shortage** is a fact.)

It is true **that many people are starving**. (**That many people are starving** is true.)

- People also often use a noun clause beginning with the fact that as subject of the sentence in place of a noun clause beginning with that.

**The fact that everyone refused to attend the meeting** took us by surprise. (That everyone refused to attend the meeting took us by surprise.)

Subjunctive form of the verb in noun clauses

- When the following verbs have a noun clause as direct object, they require the form of the verb (the infinitive without to). The use of the base form stresses the urgency or importance of the statement

- **command demand insist**

- **propose recommend request require suggest urge**

The nurse had insisted **that Sheila's husband leave the room.**

She recommended **that he return in the morning.**

- The base form of the verb is used regardless of the tense of the main verb or the subject in the noun clause.

She recommends **that he be at the store as early as possible.**

She recommended **that he be at the store as early as possible.**

- The negative is formed by putting not before the verb in the noun clause.

The nurse recommended **that her husband not stay too long.**

- In informal English, the auxiliary should sometimes precedes the verb in the noun clause.

The doctor advised **that Sheila should remain in the hospital.**

The nurse recommended **that Sheila's husband should return in the morning.**

- The auxiliary should is not used with the verbs command and demand.
- The base form of the verb is also used in noun clauses as adjective complements after these expressions: it is important that, it is necessary that, it is essential that, and it is vital that.

It is important **that either your mother or your father sign these papers.**

It was necessary **that you be here at 8:30.**

## 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.

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'

## 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 theater.

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 semicolon (;), 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.
- 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.

## Double Comparatives

- 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!
  
- The more you study, the more you learn.
- The more time you take, the better the assignment you turn in.
- The less money I spend, the less I have to worry about saving.
- The less you worry about the others, the less they will bother you.

## Using double comparatives

As you can see from these examples, the format of double comparatives is as follows:

The (more / less) + (noun / noun phrase) subject + verb + , + the (more / less) + (noun) subject + verb

Double comparatives with 'more' and 'less' can be used with adjectives in the same way. In this case, the structure places the comparative adjective first:

The + comparative adjective + (noun) + subject + verb, the + comparative adjective + it is + infinitive

- The easier the test is, the longer students will wait to prepare.
- The faster the car is, the more dangerous it is to drive.

- The crazier the idea is, the more fun it is to try.
- The more difficult the task is, the sweeter it is to succeed.

These forms can be mixed up as well. For example, a double comparative might begin with a more / less plus a subject and then end in a comparative adjective plus the subject.

- The more money he spends with her, the happier he becomes.
- The less Mary thinks about the problem, the more relaxed she feels.
- The more the students study for the test, the higher their scores will be.

You can also reverse the above by beginning with a comparative adjective and ending with more / less plus a subject and verb or noun, subject and verb.

- The richer the person is, the more privilege he enjoys.
- The happier the child is, the more the mom can relax.
- The more dangerous the amusement park ride is, the less management worries about making a profit.

Double comparatives are often shortened in spoken English, especially when used as a cliché. Here are some examples of typical clichés using double comparatives.

- The more, the merrier

means...

The more people there are, the merrier everyone will be.

Double comparatives can also be turned into commands in the imperative form when recommending certain actions:

- Study more, learn more.
- Play less, study more.
- Work more, save more.
- Think harder, get smarter.

## 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.

## 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 I 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.