CAE CPE

ADVANCED GRAMMAR

CAMBRIDGE ENGLISH

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Mixed Conditionals
Fronting
Dangling Participles
Cleft Sentences
Headers and Tails
Inversions
Causative verbs
Parallel Structure
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etc.

CAE CPE ADVANCED GRAMMAR
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ABSENCE OF vs LACK OF

LACK OF something : It implies a judgement - that the thing lacking is in some sense required.

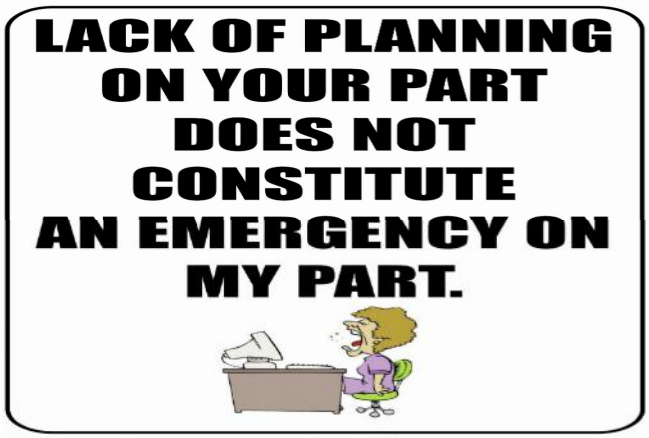
ABSENCE OF something : It merely reports a state of affairs - the negation of a presence (no judgement is implied).

An **ABSENCE OF** something can be a good thing.
A **LACK OF** something implies that something that is desired is in short supply.

'X is absent' = 'X is not here'
'X is lacking' = 'X is not here and X is desired' or 'X is not here in sufficient quantity, and X (in sufficient quantity) is desired'

Examples :

- There was a complete lack of trust between them.
  (trust is something desired or required – they need more of it)
- I closed the door to my room and silently rejoiced at the complete absence of noise for the first time that day.
  (We are just stating a fact.The absence of noise is something that we enjoy in this case- We don't want more noise)



Lack of planning on your part poster *by pdffun* Zazzle

ACROSS vs OVER vs THROUGH

ACROSS is used as a preposition (prep) and an adverb (adv).
Across means on the other side of something, or from one side to the other of something which has sides or limits such as a city, road or river:

- Across the room, she could see some old friends. [PREP]
- When I reached the river, I simply swam across. [ADV]
- She walked across the road. [ADV]

Across is used when something touches or stretches from one side to another:

- There is a beautiful old bridge across the river.
- She divided the page by drawing a red line across it.

Especially in American English, across from is used to refer to people or objects being 'opposite' or 'on the other side':

- The pharmacy is across from the Town Hall./ Helen's office is just across from mine.

ACROSS = Happening at the same time in many places (a city, country, company.)

- She's opened coffee shops across the city and they're very successful.
- The royal wedding was celebrated across the nation.

OVER is used as a preposition /adverb to refer to something at a higher position than something else, sometimes involving movement from one side to another:

- From the castle tower, you can see [PREP]over the whole city.
- Suddenly a plane flew [ADV]over and dropped hundreds of leaflets.

Especially when we use them as adverbs, over can mean the same as across:
We walked (***over / across) to the shop*** – the shop is on the other side of the road)
I was going across / over to say hello when I realised that I couldn't remember his name. (meaning 'to the other side of the street or room')

ACROSS vs THROUGH

When we talk about movement from one side to another but 'in something', such as long grass or a forest, we use through instead of across:
I love walking through the forest. (through stresses being in the forest as I walk)
Not: I love walking ~~across~~ the forest.
Periods of time from start to finish (US) : Monday through Friday
Periods of time from start to finish (UK) : From Monday to Friday
OVER is used to refer to periods of time from start to finish when a number is specified (of days, weeks, etc.): **We don't use THROUGH/this way.**
Over the last few days, I have been thinking a lot about quitting my job.
When moving from one side to another while surrounded by something, we use through not across:

- We cycled through the woods. ***Not: We cycled across the woods.***

ACROSS = extending or moving from one side to another.
The papers were spread across the table. / ***Not: The papers were spread on the table.***

ADJECTIVES POSITION AFTER SUCH vs SO , TOO, etc

Such , so and too are degree quantifiers.

Such goes before Noun Phrases and *so* goes before adjectives and adverbs; they're alternants.

- *She is so good [that she can make anything].*
- *She is so good at carpentry [that she can make anything].*
- *She is so good as a carpenter [that she can make anything].*
- *She is so good a carpenter [that she can make anything].*
- *She is such a good carpenter [that she can make anything].*

SUCH A+ ADJ+ NOUN --- SO + ADJ+ A+ NOUN

However, they usually come equipped with a *that* clause to show just what the standard is for the comparison. That's the normal use.

It's also common in some idiolects to use emphasized *so* or *such* -- without a *that* clause -- as a general emotional intensifier, like *very* or *extremely*, but with emotional expression. This can be overdone, and is often satirized, especially when attributed to women. But this is conversational only, not written.

- *She's* **so** *intelligent. = She's extremely intelligent (and that impresses me).*
- *He's* **such** *a cute little boy. = He's a very cute little boy (and I find that endearing).*

Adjectives : position after as, how, so, too, etc..

After as, how, so, too and this/that meaning so, adjectives go before a / an. This structure is common in a formal style.

As / how / so / too / this / that + adjective + (a / an) + noun

- I have **as** good a car **as** you.
- **How** good a fighter is he?
- I have never seen **so** beautiful a girl.
- That’s not **so** great an option.
- He is **too** nice a girl to refuse.
- I have **too** painful a headache to go clubbing tonight.
- I wouldn’t buy **that** expensive a car.
- It was so cold a day **that** I couldn’t go running.

The structure is not possible without a / an.

I like your sister - she's so beautiful. (NOT ~~I like your so beautiful sister~~.)
Those guys are too stubborn to accept.
(NOT ~~They are too stubborn guys to accept~~.)

ADJECTIVES + PREPOSITIONS

	ABOUT	AT	BY	FOR	IN	OF	THAT	TO	WITH
AFRAID				X		X	(X)	X	
ANGRY	X	X					X		X
ANNOYED		X					(X)	X	X
ANXIOUS	X			X			X	X	
BAD		X							
CAGEY	X								
CONFIDENT	X				X	X	X		
CURIOUS	X							X	
DEPRESSED	X								
DISAPPOINTED	X	X	X		X		X	X	X
ENTHUSIASTIC	X								
ENVIOUS						X			
EXCITED	X	X	X						
GLAD	X					X	X	X	
FEARFUL						X	(X)		
GOOD		X							X
GRATEFUL				X			X	X	
HAPPY	X						X	X	X
INDIFFERENT								X	
INDIGNANT		X							
INTERESTED					X			X	
JEALOUS						X			
NERVOUS	X					X		X	
OFFENDED							X		
PROUD						X	(X)	X	
RELIEVED							X	X	
RELUCTANT								X	
RESENTFUL		X				X			
SAD	X	X					X	X	
SHOCKED		X	X					X	
SURE	X					X	X		
SURPRISED		X					X		
TEMPTED								X	
UPSET	X						X	X	
WORRIED	X						X		

ALL vs WHOLE vs EVERY vs ENTIRE

Common Errors in English: All, Whole, Every

All and whole are determiners and we use them before nouns and with other determiners to refer to a total number or complete set of things in a group.

All my friends came to see me. (all + determiner + noun)
My whole group of friends came to see me. (determiner + *whole* + noun)

Don't say: "I invited all the class."

Say: "I invited the entire class." (more formal)

Or: "I invited the whole class." (more informal)

EVERY

Use **every** with singular, countable nouns:

- I exercise **every day.**
- **Every student** in the class has a computer.
- **Every necklace** in this store costs more than $1,000.

ALL

Use **all** with plural countable nouns OR with uncountable nouns to mean 100% of many things:

- **All** of this **equipment** is new.
  = many pieces of equipment
- **All** the **students** in the class have computers.
- **All** the **necklaces** in this store are expensive.

WHOLE / ENTIRE

Use **whole** or **entire** with uncountable or singular countable nouns to mean 100% of one thing:

- I ate the **whole** pizza. = 100% of one pizza.
- I finished reading the **entire** book in three days. =100% of one book.

ALL vs. WHOLE

Here are more examples that show the difference between **all** and **whole:**

- I ate the **whole** cake. = 100% of one cake.
- I ate **all** the cakes. = 100% of many cakes
- The **whole** apple is rotten. = 100% of one apple.
- **All** the fruit is rotten. = 100% of many apples, bananas, grapes, etc.

ALMOST VS NEARLY

ALMOST means practically the same thing as **NEARLY**, and in most cases they are interchangeable.

- Don't give up! You're almost there.
- It's time for bed. It's nearly 10 o'clock.
- Their CD has sold almost 90,000 copies in the last week.
- Nearly all my friends were in the photograph.

We also use **ALMOST** and **NEARLY** with extreme adjectives such as perfect, impossible or frozen:

- That guy is almost impossible.
- The chicken is still nearly frozen. I thought you'd taken it out of the freezer.

ALMOST means very nearly but not exactly or entirely.
Nearly means almost but not quite, but its primary meaning has more to do with proximity, i.e., in a close manner or relationship.

ALMOST is typically followed by adverbs.
Examples: almost always, almost certainly
NEARLY is usually followed by numbers.
Example: Nearly 72,000 people attended the Texans playoff game Sunday

NEARLY is often used in the following construction: not nearly as [adjective]
Example: He's **not nearly** as smart as he thinks he is.
Here's a suggestion: If you have used a lot of "almost" words on a single page, you can change things up a bit by using "nearly" a few of those times.

We use **ALMOST** (but not nearly) to soften statements:

- I almost wish I hadn't offered to pay his fine.

We use **ALMOST** before any and before negative words such as no, none, never, nobody, nothing. *We don't use **nearly** in this way:*
[describing computer software which traces the history of towns]

- Using this software, you can find the history of **almost any** building.
- They've **almost no** confidence that they can use the new phone properly.
- She **almost never** raises her voice.
  Not: She ~~nearly never~~ raises her voice.

AND vs & (Ampersand)

SMS and Twitter aside, the ampersand in standard English usage and composition should follow these rules:

F. **Business names.** Using the ampersand as part of a business name is appropriate. An example of this is **Dun & Bradstreet.** Also, many attorneys with multiple partners connect their names with an ampersand.

G. **Addresses.** Letters addressed to two people. For example, you may address your envelope like this: "**Mr. & Mrs. Smith**."

H. **Citing sources.** When more than one author appears in a citation, use an ampersand to connect the last two (**Nevid, Rathus, & Greene, 2008**). Keep in mind that some styles such as APA use the ampersand here while others such as Chicago write out the word "and." If you have questions about this, be sure to consult your appropriate style handbook.

I. **Screenplay.** When more than one name is attributed to a screenplay, the ampersand is used to connect the final two names.

J. **Et cetera.** Sometimes et cetera is abbreviated using an ampersand rather than the beginning "et." In other words, English usage permits either &c. or etc.

K. **Programming and special characters**. Most programming languages use the ampersand for concatenation, comparison operations, and other purposes. Programs such as Microsoft Excel also have special uses for the ampersand.

Except for these uses, always use "and."

ANNOYED BY / WITH/ ABOUT / AT / THAT

ANNOYED ABOUT/AT /BY SOMETHING / DOING SOMETHING

I bet she was **annoyed at** having to write it out again.
I was a little **annoyed about** the whole thing.
He was **annoyed by** her apparent indifference.
She was **annoyed by** his remarks.
We enjoyed the game but were rather **annoyed at** being beaten.

ANNOYED WITH SOMEBODY (FOR DOING SOMETHING)

He was beginning to get very **annoyed with me** about my carelessness.
I was **annoyed with myself** for giving in so easily.
She was **annoyed with** Duncan for forgetting to phone.

ANNOYED THAT …

I was **annoyed (that)** they hadn't turned up.
I was **annoyed that** he kept me waiting.
Mr Davies was **annoyed that** the books were missing.

ANNOYED TO FIND, SEE, ETC.

We were **annoyed to find** that the plane was overbooked.
She was **annoyed to see** that he was not home early, as he had promised.
He was **annoyed to discover** that his wife had taken his car keys.

TO GET ANNOYED

He was beginning to **get very annoyed** with me about my attitude.

APART FROM vs EXCEPT / EXCEPT FOR

Apart from and except for are multi-word prepositions.

APART FROM can mean either 'including' or 'excluding':

- **Apart from** Germany, they also visited Italy and Austria. (including Germany, in addition to Germany)
- I like all vegetables **apart from** tomatoes. (excluding tomatoes)
- **Apart from** Friday, I'll be in London. (excluding Friday)

EXCEPT FOR or **EXCEPT** only mean 'not including' or 'excluding':

- I like all vegetables **except for** tomatoes. (excluding tomatoes)
- **Except for** Jim, who is unwell, they are all ready to leave for America tomorrow.
- She enjoys all sports **except** swimming.

EXCEPT vs EXCEPT FOR

EXCEPT: to introduce the ***only thing or person*** that a statement does not apply to, ***or a fact*** that prevents a statement from being completely true.

- I wouldn't have accepted anything except a job in Europe. (THING)
- I got A's in all my classes except maths. (THING)
- I have all the toys except the large red dinosuar. (THING)
- Everyone had a good laugh except me. (PERSON)
- I would have visited the museum there except it was closed for renovations. (FACT)

EXCEPT FOR : to introduce the ***only thing or person*** that prevents a statement from being completely true.

- Everyone was late, except for Richard. (PERSON)
- I would be rich, except for all the money. (THING)
- My car is completely fixed, except for the windscreen wipers. (THING)
- Except for a few extremists, most people are comfortable with the idea of porn. (PERSON)
- Except for people with allergies, most people don't mind dogs. (PERSON)

ARRANGE vs SCHEDULE

ARRANGE verb (PLAN)

ORGANIZAR / ACORDAR / QUEDAR (EN HACER ALGO)

to plan, prepare for, or organize something:

- I'm trying to arrange my work so that I can have a couple of days off next week.
- The meeting has been arranged for Wednesday.
- [+ to infinitive] They arranged to have dinner the following month.
- I've already arranged with him to meet at the cinema.
- She's arranged for her son to have swimming lessons.
- [+ that] I'd deliberately arranged that they should arrive at the same time.
- [+ question word] We haven't yet arranged when to meet.

More examples

- My secretary will phone you to arrange a meeting.
- The company will arrange transport from the airport.
- I've specially arranged my trip so that I'll be home on Friday evening.
- We've arranged to stay overnight at my sister's house.
- They tried to arrange a ceremony with as little fuss as possible.

SCHEDULE verb **PROGRAMAR**

to arrange that an event or activity will happen at a particular time:

- The meeting has been scheduled for tomorrow afternoon.
- [+ to infinitive] The train is scheduled to arrive at 8.45, but it's running 20 minutes late.

More examples

- The orchestra has scheduled two major tours next season.
- The elections are scheduled for late November.
- Among those scheduled to attend are sculptor James West and painter Phoebe Watson..
- The world's largest casino is scheduled to open in New Orleans later this year.
- Open to under 14s, the competition is scheduled for July 3 and 5.

Note the differences in meaning between the following :

- **We will arrange a meeting for next week.**
  (We will organize everything so that the meeting can happen, i.e. we will agree on a time , look for a venue for the meeting to take place , invite people ,etc…)
- **We will schedule a meeting for next week.**
  (We will agree on a day and time for the meeting to happen and put it in the calendar.)

AS . . . AS vs SO . . . AS

The **AS …AS** structucture is used to compare two items either in a positive or a negative statement.

- The last structure is **as big as** the previous structures. [positive]
- The last structure is **not as big as** the previous structures. [negative]
- The meal was **as good as** the conversation. [positive]
- I can't type **as fast as** you (can). [negative]

The **SO…AS** structucture is used only for negative comparisons.

- The last structure is **not so big as** the previous structures.
- He is **not so intelligent as** his sister is.
- The cafeteria was **not so crowded as** it was earlier.

"Chocolate never tasted so good as when I sneak a piece while dieting."

AS IF / AS THOUGH

PRESENT TENSE + AS IF / AS THOUGH + PAST TENSE

Clauses that start with **as if / as though** describe an unreal or improbable situation if they are followed by an unreal tense (the past subjunctive or the past perfect subjunctive).

Example :

- He looks **as if** /**as though** he **knew** the answer.
  (he gives the impression that he knows the answer, but he (probably) doesn't know or we don't know whether he knows or not)
- He seems **as if** /**as though** he **hadn't slept** for days.
  (it seems that he hasn't slept for days, but he (probably) has or we don't know whether he has or not)

PRESENT TENSE + AS IF / AS THOUGH + PRESENT TENSE

Clauses that start with **as if / as though** express a true situation if they are followed by a present tense.

- He looks **as if** /**as though** he knows the answer. (he knows the answer.)
- It seems **as if** /**as though** he is fighting someone. (he is fighting someone.)
- He seems **as if** /**as though** he hasn't slept for days. (he hasn't slept for days)

PAST TENSE + AS IF /AS THOUGH PAST TENSE

If we put the verb preceding **as if / as though** into the past tense, the present simple knows changes into past simple, whereas the past subjunctive knew stays the same. Therefore, both sentences will read as follows:

- He looked **as if** /**as though** he knew the answer.
- He seemed **as if** /**as though** he hadn't slept for days.

Consequently, the meaning of these two sentences (whether he knew the answer or not / whether he had slept or not) can only be deduced from the context.

"See? It's not as if you were the only one."

"A fine? It's not as though I ran over more than one building inspector."

AS LONG AS vs SO LONG AS

AS LONG AS and **SO LONG AS** are conjunctions.

AS LONG AS:

We use ***AS LONG AS*** to refer to the intended duration of a plan or idea, most commonly referring to the future.

We ***always use the present simple to refer to the future*** after as long as:

- We are very happy for you to stay at our house **as long as** you like.
- I'll remember that film **as long as** I live.
- Not: … ~~as long as I will live.~~

AS LONG AS and SO LONG AS

As long as or so long as also means 'provided that', 'providing that' or 'on condition that':

- You are allowed to go **as long as** you let us know when you arrive.
- I can come **as long as** I can leave by 4.00.

SO LONG AS is a little more informal:

- You can borrow the car **so long as** you don't drive too fast.
- I will give you the book **so long as** you return it to me.

"He's fairly easy to work for . . . as long as you agree with everything he says."

"It's not important that we understand each other - just so long as you understand me."

ATMOSPHERE vs ENVIRONMENT vs AMBIENCE

ATMOSPHERE **ATMÓSFERA, AMBIENTE**

The pervading tone or mood of a place, situation, or creative work:

- The hotel has won commendations for its friendly, **welcoming atmosphere**
- There was a **friendly atmosphere** in the village.
- Soothing music playing in the background created a **relaxing atmosphere**, setting the tone for the evening.
- An **atmosphere of pervading** gloom hung in the air.
- Such festivals attract large groups of young people together in an **atmosphere of welcome**, adventure and celebration.

AMBIENCE **AMBIENTE**

the character and atmosphere of a place and how it makes you feel

- The **relaxed ambience** of the hotel.
- The **relaxed ambience** of the cocktail lounge is popular with guests
- Sunlight streams in through the windows, highlighting the artwork and contributing to the **relaxed ambience**.

ENVIRONMENT **ENTORNO**

1) The surroundings or conditions in which a person, animal, or plant lives or operates:

- An unhappy **home environmen**t may drive a teenager to crime
- We should protect the **environment** from destruction by modern chemicals etc.
- I lived in **hostile environments**, surrounded by religious bigotry where no one understood me.
- As one might expect, the **environments** in which farm animals are confined can also be significantly contaminated.
- They have no respect for their **environment**, their surroundings and their neighbours.

2) The setting or conditions in which a particular activity is carried on:

- It is all the more heartening when one considers that the **learning environment** is less than ideal.

With a few changes to his office environment, Dr. Bolsta made chiropractic care more kid-friendly.

- Some fantastic things are happening in terms of learning in the **workplace environment.**
- The fault may lie in domestic or **school environments** where negative situations may have arisen.

"I only come here for the ambience."

ATTEND vs ATTEND TO

ATTEND : [intransitive/transitive] to be present at an event or activity

- I've voiced my opinion at every meeting I've attended.
- Everyone in the office was expected to attend. ASISTIR

ATTEND : to go regularly to a place, for example to a school as a student or to a church as a member

- Born in India, he attended high school and medical school in Madras.

ATTEND :[transitive] very formal to exist with something else, or to happen as a result of it. ACOMPAÑAR (A ALGO)

- Secondary symptoms usually attend the disease.
- The occasion was attended by a mood of sadness.
- The publicity that attends a career in television.

ATTEND TO : attend to something/someone to deal with something or someone.

- We still have a number of other matters to attend to. TRATAR
- He likes work that requires him to attend to a lot of detail. OCUPARSE DE
- Please take a seat and I'll ask someone to attend to you. ATENDER

ATTEND TO : (NOTICE) PRESTAR ATENCIÓN

› [I] formal to give attention to what someone is saying:

- I'm afraid I wasn't attending to what was being said.

Everybody attended the meeting.

I have customers to attend to

BE RESPONSIBLE TO vs BE RESPONSIBLE FOR

BE RESPONSIBLE TO: somebody / something:
To be controlled by someone or something:
ser responsable ante alguien / estar bajo el mando de alguien

- In Australia, the prime minister and the Cabinet are **responsible to** the House of Representatives.
- You'll be **responsible to** the head of the Finance department.

BE RESPONSIBLE FOR something / someone / doing something (+ING) :
To have control and authority over something or someone and the duty of taking care of it, him, or her: **ser responsable de algo / de hacer algo**

- Paul is directly responsible for the efficient running of the office.
- Her department is responsible for overseeing the councils.
- We are responsible for ensuring delivery of the program.

BE RESPONSIBLE FOR something / doing something (BLAME)

- The company claims (that) it is not **responsible for** the pollution in the river. **Ser responsable / culpable de algo**
- To some extent, she was **responsible for** the accident.
- Those **responsible for** these crimes must be brought to court and punished.
- The car is **responsible for** causing a lot of damage to our environment.
- Who is **responsible for** this terrible mess?
- Last month's bad weather was **responsible for** the crop failure.

BECAUSE OF vs DUE TO

BECAUSE OF and **DUE TO** are not interchangeable.
The reason they are not is that they "grew up" differently in the language.
"Because of" grew up as an adverb (***adverbs*** usually ***modify verbs , adj & advs)***
"due to" grew up as an adjective (***adjectives modify nouns or pronouns***)

To be more precise, with their attendant words, "**DUE TO**" and "**BECAUSE OF**" operate as **adjectival and adverbial prepositional phrases**.
To understand how the functions of "due to" and "because of" vary, look at these sentences.
1. Their victory was due to their persistence.
2. They won because of their persistence.

In sentence #1, their is a possessive pronoun that modifies the noun victory. The verb "was" is a linking verb. So, to create a sentence, we need a subject complement after the verb "was." The adjectival prepositional phrase "due to their persistence" is that complement, linked to the subject by "was." Thus, it modifies the noun victory.

But in sentence #2, the pronoun "They" has become the sentence's subject. The verb is now "won" As reconstructed, "They won" could in fact be a complete sentence. And "due to" has nothing to modify. It's an adjective, remember? It can't very well modify the pronoun "They" , can it?

Use This Trick When in Doubt

One trick you can use is to substitute "**DUE TO**" with "**CAUSED BY**."
If the substitution does not work, then you probably shouldn't use "due to" there.

- My high marks on the exam were **due to** hard work.
- My high marks on the exam were **caused by** hard work.

Another example:

- The party was postponed due to bad weather. (Incorrect)
- The party's postponement was due to bad weather. (correct)

A good rule of thumb to use BECAUSE OF:
use "because of" if you can answer the question, "Why?" without a complete sentence. Why did they win? You'd answer, "Because of their persistence."

BEFORE vs UNTIL

The choice between 'before' and 'until' much depends on the aspect characteristics of a predicate verb: whether it indicates an instant action, or a state or process.

- He came home before noon. (instant action)
- He worked until noon. (process) / He slept until noon. (state)

Another factor is what your focus is on:
what happened = **BEFORE** / how long it lasted = **UNTIL**

- He was playing/played the piano before mother came.
  (What was he doing?)
- He played the piano until mother came. (How long did he do it?)

"Wait" indicates a state. So you mean it can be used in both sentences with different focuses.

- I'll wait before you come back.(What will I do?)
- I'll wait until you come back.(How long will I wait?)

- If she worked in the factory until 1990, she began work before 1990, and continued to work there for an unknown period of time. . She stopped work in 1990.
- If she worked in the factory before 1990, we do not know when she stopped working there, but we do know that 1989 was the last possible year.

"MOMMY PUTS ON A DISGUISE EVERY TIME, BEFORE SHE GOES TO WORK."

"The nurse will show you to your rooms shortly...why don't you discuss each other's ailments until she gets here?"

BELOW vs BENEATH vs UNDER vs UNDERNEATH

These words are all similar in meaning, but figuring out the differences between them can be a little tricky. First, it's helpful to know how common each word is:
1. "Under" is the most popular. 2. "Below" is used about 1/4 as often as "under"
3. "Beneath" is used 1/2 as often as "below" 4. "Underneath" is used less than 1/2 as often as "beneath"

"Under" is the default choice. In most situations, you can replace any of the other words with "under".

Compared to "below", "under" is more often used to talk about 3-dimensional objects. For example, you'd talk about something being under a table, under a book, etc.

"Under" is also good for talking about layers of something:

I have on a t-shirt under my jacket.

You can use "under" for numbers:

I did it in under 7 hours. / We were able to raise just under a thousand dollars.

Below : Compared to "under", you use "below" more often to talk about the level of something on a flat plane.

For example, if you're describing two photos that hang on a wall, you can say that one of them is "below" the other.

Use "below" to talk about the level of something, like a temperature:

It's supposed to drop below freezing tonight.

In writing, you can use "below" to talk about something later on:

Please read the instructions below before you begin.

"Beneath" is more formal than "under":

In the unlikely event of an emergency water landing, you may find a flotation device beneath your seat cushion.

It can also suggest being covered by something:

beneath the blankets / beneath the surface of the water

When you're talking about someone's actions or decisions, you use "beneath" to talk about the true emotions that a person is hiding:

- Beneath it all, She still loves him.

When you're talking about human relationships, being "beneath" someone is very negative. Things or people that are "beneath" you are disgusting. They're too low for someone with your social position:

- She acts like some kind of princess, like we're all beneath her.

Underneath" has a kind of casual and expressive feeling. You can choose "underneath" instead of "under" to explain the location of something with a little more emphasis.

A: You found it! Where was it?

B: It was underneath the sofa.

Think of "underneath" as a more emotional, exciting version of "under"

BE ON FOR SOMETHING vs BE UP TO SOMETHING
BE UP FOR SOMETHING vs BE IN FOR SOMETHING

BE ON FOR SOMETHING **SEGUIR ALGO EN PIE / APUNTARSE A ALGO**
To want to do something. Usually it means you have an appointment to do something:

- Are you still **on for** a trip to the coast on Thursday?
- Is anyone **on for** a drink after work?
- The meeting is still on on Saturday at 2pm.

BE ON TO /ONTO SOMETHING **IR POR BUEN CAMINO**
Have an idea or information that is likely to lead to an important discovery.

- In many ways I think Kevin **is onto** something very important here.
- In fact, professional skydivers have **been onto** the idea since the early 1990s and probably before.
- Scientists believe they **are onto** something big.

BE ON TO SOMETHING
To be onto something or someone is to be aware of information related to it or them, esp. when they are trying to deceive you: **ESTAR AL TANTO / ENTERADO DE ALGO**

- Everybody **is onto** your game -- why don't you admit you lied?
- I'**m onto** your tricks. / I **am onto** your games and I can play too

BE ONTO SOMEONE :
1 - to know about what somebody has done wrong **SEGUIRLE LA PISTA A ALGUIEN**

- She knew the police would be onto them.

2 - to be talking to somebody, usually in order to ask or tell them something

- They've **been onto me** for ages to get a job. **ESTAR ENCIMA DE ALGUIEN**

BE UP FOR SOMETHING **APETECER HACER ALGO**
to want to do something.

- We're going clubbing tonight if you're **up for** it.
- I'm **up for** a pizza. Anybody want to chip in?
- Are you **up for** going for a pint, Catherine?

BE UP TO SOMETHING / BE UP TO DOING SOMETHING
To good enough for a particular activity. To be able to do it, to be fit enough, to have the skill or knowledge, to be capable of doing it. Most frequently used in the negative or interrogative voice, i.e. when questionning somebody's capabilities or doubting that they are able to do something.
SER CAPAZ DE ALGO/ HACER ALGO

- It won't be easy, but it's a challenge. **Are** you **up to** it?
- A soldier can never say he **is** not **up to** doing the task.
- He wants to compete at international level, but frankly I don't think he's **up to it**.

BE UP TO SOMETHING
to be doing something, often something bad or illegal, usually secretly:

- She's up to no good (= doing something bad or forbidden) - you can always tell because she stays in her room. **TRAMAR ALGO**
- He looks very suspicious hanging around by the bins - I'm sure he's up to something.

BE IN FOR SOMETHING
(informal) to be going to experience something soon, especially something unpleasant.

- He's **in for** a shock! **ESPERARLE A ALGUIEN ALGO**
- I'm afraid we're **in for** a storm.
- We're **in for** a hard time. / You don't know what you're **in for**!

CANNOT vs CAN NOT

Both cannot and can not are acceptable spellings, but the first is much more usual. You would use can not when the 'not' forms part of another construction such as 'not only.'

- These green industries ***can not only*** create more jobs, but also promote sustainable development of the land.
- Paul can not only sing well, but also paint.

The Washington State University language site says:

These two spellings [cannot/can not] are largely interchangeable, but by far the most common is "cannot" and you should probably ***use it except when you want to be emphatic:***

- "No, you ***can not*** wash the dog in the Maytag."

Bottom line

There's no difference in meaning between cannot and can not

CAUSATIVE VERBS: LET, MAKE, HAVE, GET, HELP

The English verbs **let, make, have, get,** and **help** are called **causative verbs** because they cause something else to happen.

LET = permit something to happen

LET + PERSON/THING + VERB (base form)

- I don't **let** my kids **watch** violent movies.
- Mary's father won't **let** her **adopt** a puppy because he's allergic to dogs.
- Our boss doesn't **let** us **eat** lunch at our desks; we have to eat in the cafeteria.
- Oops! I wasn't paying attention while cooking, and I **let** the food **burn.**
- Don't **let** the advertising expenses **surpass** $1000.

Remember: The past tense of **let** is also **let;** there is no change!

Note: The verbs **allow** and **permit** are more formal ways to say "let." However, with **allow** and **permit,** we use **to + verb:**

- I don't **allow** my kids **to watch** violent movies.
- Our boss doesn't **permit** us **to eat** lunch at our desks.

MAKE = force or require someone to take an action

MAKE + PERSON + VERB (base form)

- After Billy broke the neighbor's window, his parents **made** him **pay** for it.
- My ex-boyfriend loved sci-fi and **made** me **watch** every episode of his favorite show.
- The teacher **made** all the students **rewrite** their papers, because the first drafts were not acceptable.

Note: When using the verbs **force** and **require,** we must use **to + verb.**

- The school **requires** the students **to wear** uniforms.
  "Require" often implies that there is a rule.
- The hijacker **forced** the pilots **to take** the plane in a different direction.
  "Force" often implies violence, threats, or extremely strong pressure

HAVE = give someone else the responsibility to do something

- **HAVE + PERSON + VERB (base form)**
- **HAVE + THING + PAST PARTICIPLE OF VERB**

Examples of grammatical structure #1:

- I'll **have** my assistant **call** you to reschedule the appointment.
- The businessman **had** his secretary **make** copies of the report.

Examples of grammatical structure #2:

- I'm going to **have** my hair **cut** tomorrow.
- We're **having** our house **painted** this weekend.
- Bob **had** his teeth **whitened;** his smile looks great!
- My washing machine is broken; I need to **have** it **repaired.**

Note: In informal speech, we often use **get** in these cases:

- I'm going to **get** my hair **cut** tomorrow.
- We're **getting** our house **painted** this weekend.
- Bob **got** his teeth **whitened;** his smile looks great!
- My washing machine is broken; I need to **get** it **repaired.**

GET = convince/encourage someone to do something

GET + PERSON + TO + VERB

- How can we **get** all the employees **to arrive** on time?
- My husband hates housework; I can never **get** him **to wash** the dishes!
- I was nervous about eating sushi, but my brother **got** me **to try** it at a Japanese restaurant.
- The non-profit **got** a professional photographer **to take** photos at the event for free.

HELP = assist someone in doing something

- **HELP + PERSON + (TO) VERB (base form) TO is optional**

After "help," you can use "to" or not – both ways are correct. In general, the form *without* "to" is more common:

- He **helped** me **carry** the boxes.
- He **helped** me **to carry** the boxes.
- Reading before bed **helps** me **relax.**
- Reading before bed **helps** me **to relax.**

CLEFT SENTENCES

We use cleft sentences, especially in speaking, to ***connect what is already understood to what is new to the listener***. In a cleft sentence, a single message is divided (cleft) into two clauses. This allows us to focus on the new information.

It-cleft sentences

It-clauses are the most common type of cleft clause. The information that comes after it is emphasised for the listener. The clause which follows the it-clause is connected using that and it contains information that is already understood. We often omit that in informal situations when it is the object of the verb:

A: Sharon's car got broken into yesterday, did it? / B: No. It was Nina's car that got broken into!

Focus (new information): it was Nina's car

Understood already (old information): a car got broken into

A: You've met my mother, haven't you?

B: No, it was your sister (that) I met!

Focus (new information): it was your sister

Understood already (old information): I met someone in your family

Is it August that you are going on holiday?

Focus (new information): the month August?

Understood already (old information): you are going on holiday

When a personal subject is the focus, we can use who instead of that. We often omit who in informal situations when it is the object of the verb:

- It was my husband who (or that) you spoke to on the phone.

(or It was my husband you spoke to on the phone.)

When a plural subject is the focus, we use a plural verb but It + be remains singular:

- It's the parents who were protesting most.

We can use negative structures in the it-clause:

- It wasn't the Greek student who phoned.

Wh-cleft sentences

Wh-cleft sentences are most often introduced by **WHAT,** but we can also use **WHY**, **WHERE**, **HOW**, etc. The information in the wh-clause is typically old or understood information, while the information in the following clause is new and in focus:

A: I don't know what to cook for them? I don't know what they like.

B: What they like is smoked salmon.

Understood already (old information): we are talking about what they like to eat

Focus (new information): they like smoked salmon

A: This remote control isn't working.

B: What we need to do is get new batteries for it.

Understood already (old information): there is something that we need to do to fix the remote control.

Focus (new information): we need to buy new batteries

It is sometimes very effective to use all instead of what in a cleft structure if you want to focus on one particular thing and nothing else:

- I want a new coat for Christmas. / All I want for Christmas is a new coat.
- A new coat is all I want for Christmas. / I touched the bedside light and it broke.
- All I did was (to) touch the bedside light and it broke.

CONCERN IN / CONCERN ABOUT /BY/OVER / CONCERN WITH

CONCERN IN SOMETHING : **INVOLUCRAR**

having a connection or involvement; participating , involved, interested, active, mixed up, implicated, privy to

- All those concerned in the robbery.
- I believe he was concerned in all those matters you mention.

CONCERN WITH SOMETHING : OCUPAR(SE)

1) If a book, speech, or piece of information is concerned with a subject, it deals with it.

- This chapter is concerned with recent changes.
- Nanotechnology is concerned with nanometer-size substances, materials and devices.

2) If someone is concern with something , they are involved in that …they have an association

- it is not necessary for us to **concern ourselves with** this point
- The inspectors **concerned with** business taxation….

CONCERN ABOUT/OVER /BY something **PREOCUPADO POR**

If you are concerned about/over/by something, you are worried about it.

- He was **concerned about** the level of unemployment.
- I've been **concerned about** you lately.
- Many people were **concerned over** moves to restore the death penalty.
- I'm **concerned by** the increase in traffic accidents.

"Have a seat and we'll discuss your concern about my lack of respect."

CONDITIONALS (IF CLAUSES)

Conditional are used to describe the result of something that might happen (in the present or future) or might have happened but didn't (in the past). Conditional sentences are divided into 4 different types.
It's not important which clause comes first

ZERO CONDITIONAL

We use the zero conditional to talk about ***things that are always true.***

- If you heat water, it boils.
- When the sun goes down, it gets dark.
- It lights up if you push that button.

Structure : ***If + Present ..... Present***

FIRST CONDITIONAL

We use the first conditional when we ***talk about real and possible situations***.

- I'll send her an invitation if I find her address.
- If it is cold, you must wear warm clothes.
- If you play the lottery, you may become a millonaire someday.
- If I study conditionals, I will speak better English

Structure : ***if + present simple ..... will/can/may/must + infinitive.***

SECOND CONDITIONAL

We used the second conditional to ***talk about 'unreal' or very unlikely or impossible things or situations.***

- If I didn't make mistakes I would never learn anything.
- Where would you live if you could live anywhere in the world?
- If you studied harder , you might pass the test.

Structure : ***if + past simple .... would/could/might + infinitive.***

THIRD CONDITIONAL

It talks about the past. It's ***used to describe a situation that didn't happen, and to imagine the result of this situation***.

- If I had found her purse , I would have given it to her.
  (but I didnt find it , so I couldn´t give it to her.)
- If I hadn't been so tired, I would have gone out last night.
  (but I was very busy , so I couldn´t help you.)
- If we had taken a taxi, we might not have missed the plane.

Structure: ***if + past perfect, ...would/could + have + past participle.***

<u>If the main clause is at the beginning of the sentence, don't use a comma.</u>

- ❖ Phosphorus burns if you expose it to air.
- ❖ I will send her an invitation if I find her address.
- ❖ I would travel around the world if I had a million dollars.
- ❖ He wouldn't have had that terrible accident if he had been careful.

<u>Main clause and/or if clause might be negative</u>.

- ❖ If *I don't see* him this afternoon, I will phone him in the evening.
- ❖ If he had been careful, he *wouldn't have had* an accident.

CONDITIONALS - MIXED CONDITIONALS

Sometimes Unreal Conditional sentences are mixed. This means that the time in the if-clause is not the same as the time in the result.

How conditional sentences are mixed

Unreal conditionals (type II + III) sometimes can be mixed, that is, the time of the if clause is different from the one of the main clause.

1 . P A S T → P R E S E N T ***If + Past perfect + would/could /might + infinitive***

- If I had taken an aspirin, I wouldn't have a headache now.
  But I didn't take an aspirin and I still have a headache..
- If I had won the lottery, I would be rich.
  But I didn't win the lottery in the past and I am not rich now.

2 . P A S T → F U T U R E ***if + past perfect ..... will/can/may/must.***

- If I had known that you are going to come by tomorrow, I would be in then.
  But I didn't know that you were going to comeby tomorrow and I won't be in.
- If she had signed up for the ski trip last week, she would be joining us tomorrow.
  But she didn't sign up for the ski trip last week and she isn't going to join us tomorrow

3 . P R E S E N T → P A S T ***if + simple past ..... would/could/might.***

- If she had enough money, she could have done this trip to Hawaii.
  But she didn't have enough money and that's why she didn't do the trip to Hawaii.
- If Sam spoke Russian, he would have translated the letter for you.
  But Sam doesn't speak Russian and that is why he didn't translate the letter.

4 . P R E S E N T → F U T U R E ***if + simple past ..... would/could/might.***

- If I didn't have so much vacation time, I wouldn't go with you on the cruise to Alaska next week.
  But I do have a lot of vacation time and I will go on the trip next week.
- If Cindy were more creative, the company would send her to New York to work on the new advertising campaign.
  But Cindy is not creative and the company won't send her to New York to work on the new campaign.

5 . F U T U R E → P A S T

if + past simple + would/could/ might + have + past participle.

- If I weren't going on my business trip next week, I would have accepted that new assignment at work.
  But I am going to go on a business trip next week, and that is why I didn't accept that new assignment at work.
- If my parents weren't coming this weekend, I would have planned a nice trip just for the two of us to New York.
  But my parents are going to come this weekend, and that is why I didn't plan a trip for the two of us to New York.

6 . F U T U R E → P R E S E N T

if + simple past/ past continuous ..... would/could/might.

- If I were going to that concert tonight, I would be very excited.
  But I am not going to go to that concert tonight and that is why I am not excited.
- If Seb didn't come with us to the desert, everyone would be very disappointed.
  But Seb will come with us to the desert and that is why everyone is so happy.

DANGLING PARTICIPLES

Participles of verbs are often used to introduce subordinate clauses, which give extra information about the main part of a sentence (known as the main clause).
It's important to use participles in subordinate clauses correctly.
The participle should always describe an action performed by the subject of the main part of the sentence. For example:

- ***Mrs Stevens, opening the door quietly, came into the room.***
  [subject] [participle]

In this sentence, the present participle (opening) in the subordinate clause refers to the subject of the main clause.
Mrs Stevens is both opening the door and coming into the room.

Sometimes writers forget this rule and begin a sentence with a participle that doesn't refer to the subject of their sentence.
They then end up with what's known as a dangling participle, as in this grammatically incorrect statement:

- ***Travelling to Finland, the weather got colder and colder.***
  [participle] [subject]

Strictly speaking, this sentence means that it is 'the weather' that is 'travelling to Finland', which obviously isn't what the writer was intending to say.
The sentence needs to be reworded to make the meaning clear and to make it grammatically correct, e.g.:

As I was travelling to Finland, the weather got colder and colder.
or:Travelling to Finland, I found that the weather got colder and colder.

DEFINITE ARTICLE: THE

We use the definite article in front of a noun when we believe the **hearer/reader knows** exactly what we are referring to.

• because there is **only one**:

The Pope is visiting Russia. / **The moon** is very bright tonight.

• because there is **only one in that place** or in those surroundings:

We live in a small village next to the church. = (the church in our village)

Dad, can I borrow the car? = (the car that belongs to our family)

• because we have **already mentioned** it:

A woman who fell 10 metres from High Peak was lifted to safety by a helicopter. **The woman** fell while climbing.

We also use the definite article:

• to say something about **all the things** referred to by a noun:

The wolf is not really a dangerous animal (= Wolves are not really dangerous animals)

The heart pumps blood around the body. (= Hearts pump blood around bodies)

We use the definite article in this way to talk about **musical instruments**:

Joe plays the piano really well.(= Joe can play any piano)

She is learning the guitar.(= She is learning to play any guitar)

• to refer to a **system** or **service**:

How long does it take on **the train**./ I heard it on **the radio**./You should tell **the police**.

• With **adjectives** like rich, poor, elderly, unemployed to talk about **groups of people**:

Life can be very hard for **the poor** / I think **the rich** should pay more taxes.

She works for a group to help **the disabled**.

• **countries** which have **plural nouns** as their names:

the Netherlands; the Philippines

• **geographical features**, such as mountain ranges, groups of islands, rivers, seas, oceans and canals:

the Himalayas; the Canaries; the Atlantic; the Atlantic Ocean; the Amazon; the Panama Canal.

• **newspapers**:

The Times; The Washington Post

• well known **buildings** or **works of art**:

the Empire State Building; the Taj Mahal; the Mona Lisa; the Sunflowers

• **organisations**:

the United Nations; the Seamen's Union

• **hotels**, **pubs** and **restaurants***:the Ritz; the Ritz Hotel; the King's Head..

*Note: We do not use the definite article if the name of the hotel or restaurant is the name of the owner, e.g.,Brown's; Brown's Hotel; Morel's; Morel's Restaurant, etc.

• **families**: the Obamas; the Jacksons.

DID NOT USE TO (DIDN'T USE TO) vs USED NOT TO (USEN'T TO)

We use **USED TO** when we refer to things in the past which are no longer true. It can refer to repeated actions or to a state or situation:

- He used to play football for the local team, but he's too old now.
- That white house over there used to belong to my family.
  (It belonged to my family in the past, but not any more.)

Negative: **DID NOT USE TO (DIDN'T USE TO)**

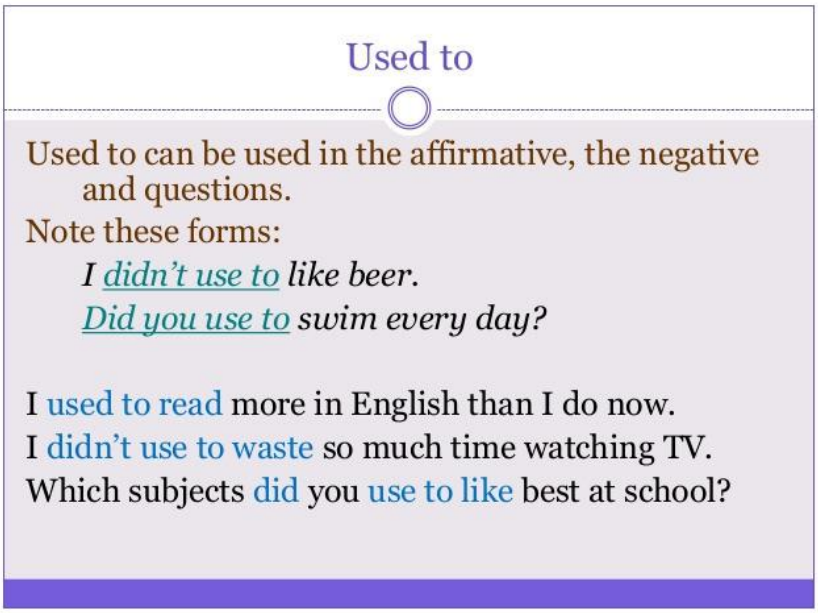
The negative of used to is most commonly didn't use(d) to. Sometimes we write it with a final -d, sometimes not. Both forms are common, but many people consider the form with the final -d to be incorrect, and you should not use it in exams:

- It **didn't use to** be so crowded in the shops as it is nowadays.
- I **didn't used to** like broccoli when I was younger, but I love it now.
  (Don't use this form in exams.)

In very formal styles, we can use the negative form used not to:

- She **used not to** be as rich as he is now.

USED NOT TO is called "formal style" by Michael Swan (a British writer) in Practical English Usage, 2e (Oxford University Press, 1995).
He lists "didn't use to" as an informal style.



DO IT vs DO SO

We use **DO SO** whenever we are referring to some sort of abstract idea or process. We can't use **DO IT** unless there's a definite NOUN earlier in the sentence that can serve as an antecedent for '**IT**'.

Examples:

- It is better to quit law school after one semester than to **DO SO** after four semesters.
  Here we have to say '**DO SO**', because we're referring to the action of quitting law school (and there's no NOUN in the sentence that refers to this action).

- Students who do the homework at night are just as successful as students who do it in the morning.
  In this case, there's a definite NOUN - 'homework' - to serve as the antecedent for 'IT'.

  Can we assume then that it is incorrect to say the following?
- Students who do the homework at night are just as successful as students who **DO SO** in the morning.

  Technically, the "DO SO" option is still okay. "DO SO" can refer to the entire action "do the homework" just as, in the other sentence, "DO SO" referred to the action "quit law school."

  It's a little awkward, though, because you're repeating the "do" - but that's not technically wrong.

In a nutshell **:** **DO SO :** Focuses on the action /process
DO IT : Focuses on a previously mentioned noun.

"If you wanted the no-smoking section, you should have said so."

FALL DOWN vs FALL OVER

FALL DOWN means to go from a vertical position to the ground. Usually from a height.
To fall down doesn't refer to what the subject was on; it refers either to the action of collapsing or to where the subject ended up (not where it began).

- The old oak tree in the garden fell down in the storm.
- I slipped on the sidewalk and fell down and hurt my back.
- A book fell down from a shelf.

FALL OFF requires that whatever is falling was on something to begin with.

- "The man fell of the roof" (he was on the roof.)
- When I was leaving, a book fell off the coffee table and landed on his foot.

Therefore we say :

- "The old lady fell down".

She didn't fall off anything, she was standing on the ground and fell to the ground.

- "The cat fell down the well".

The cat was on the surface, but this isn't referred to; it is where the cat ended up that is referred to (down the well).

FALL OVER involves falling from a standing to a lying position, rather than falling down a certain distance. **Tropezar**

- "He put his foot on a banana skin and fell over".
- She tripped and fell over.

FOR NOW / FOR THE TIME BEING / FO THE MOMENT

FOR NOW: indicates a temporary state or arrangement that is subject to change with time. **POR AHORA**

FOR THE TIME BEING / FOR THE MOMENT:
implies a state that is subject to change with surrounding circumstances.
DE MOMENTO

The trouble of interchangeability lies in that progression of time often brings about change in circumstance, but not always.

- It is cold this winter, so we will have to endure **for now.**

In this case time brings about spring, summer, etc. so with the change of time we will no longer have to endure.

- Our heater is broken and the handy man is busy, so we will have to endure **for the time being /for the moment .**

In this case, time itself will not fix the heater, the handyman will.
So for the time being emphasizes the role of the handyman in the temporary state of endurance. The handyman, however, will do it in his time.
Therefore interchangeability (winter/spring depends on time; time to fix heater depends on handyman) is quite convoluted.
A friend, after having lost several books I lent him, jokingly asked of me
"Can I borrow your car?"
My reply was "Lend me your motorcycle **for the time being**."

FRONTING

The most common word order in a declarative clause is subject (s) + verb (v) + object (o) or complement:
[S] [V]I bought [O]a new camera.
Sometimes, particularly in speaking, ***when we want to focus on something important, we bring it to the front of the clause***. This is called 'fronting':

- I bought a new camera. And a very expensive camera it was.
  (Most common word order: It was a very expensive camera.)

Some elements like adjuncts or complements do not typically belong at the beginning of a clause. When we want to focus on them, we bring them to the front or beginning of the clause. We often find this in written literary or formal contexts.

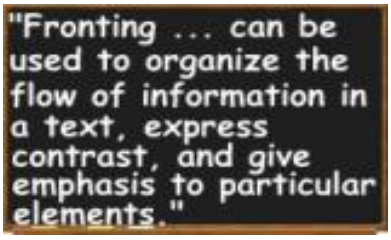
- Carefully, he removed the lid. (fronted so as to focus on carefully)
  He removed the lid carefully. (most common word order)
- All of a sudden, it started to snow. (fronted so as to focus on all of a sudden
  It started to snow all of a sudden. (most common word order)

When the fronting involves a prepositional phrase (on the corner, in front of me) we often change the order of the subject and the verb.

<u>fronted prepositional phrase followed by verb + subject</u>	<u>most common word order</u>
On the corner stood a little shop.	A little shop stood on the corner
In front of me was the President of Chile.	The President of Chile was in front of me.

In informal speaking we commonly take the subject or object from within the clause and put it at the front of the clause. We often do this when the noun phrase is long and we usually use a pronoun to replace it in the clause:

- That man over there with the dog, he works in the corner shop.
  (That man over there with the dog works in the corner shop.)
- That book you told me about, they've made it into a film.
  (They've made that book you told me about into a film.)



<u>Fronting is common with:</u>

- **Adverbials (place and movement)**

On the table stood a vase of flowers / (A vase of flowers stood on the table**)**

- **There is / there are**

Next to the window was a bookcase /(There was a bookcase next to the window)

- **Participles**

Gone were the designer sunglasses / (The designer sunglasses were gone)

GERUND FORMS

1. From verbs

a. In **active** forms

- **do** becomes **doing** and **having done** (do – did – **done**). The latter is rarely used.
- **type** becomes **typing** and **having typed** (type – typed – **typed**).

b. In **passive** forms

Examples:

- **do** becomes **being done** and **having been done**.
- **download** becomes **being downloaded** and **having been downloaded**.

2. From non-verbs

a. From **adjectives**

- **honest** becomes **being honest**.
- **late** becomes **being late**.

b. From **noun phrases**

- **a manager** becomes **being a manager**.
- **a computer programmer** becomes **a computer programmer**.

3. In negative forms

- **do** becomes **not doing**.
- **come** becomes **not coming**.
- **send** becomes **not sending**.

GERUND FUNCTIONS

1. As a subject

- **Swimming** (**subject**) *is John's hobby* (**predicate**). (**Swimming** is a **gerund** functioning as the **subject** of the predicate *is John's hobby*)
- **Making** a site about movies is my hobby.

2. As a subjective complement

- My hobby *is* **making** a site about movies.
- His job *is* **fixing** computers.
- My task *is* **improving** them.

3. As the object of a verb

- They *like* **browsing**.
- I *started* / *began* **learning** to use a computer when I was six.
- He has just *finished* **downloading** music from the Internet.
- I *enjoy* **surfing** the Web in my spare / leisure / free time.

4**. As the object of a preposition**

- Quite a few of them are interested *in* **studying** Information Technology.
- Has Tom succeeded *in* **finding** a job yet?
- Computers have made radical changes *in* **preparing** income tax returns.

5. In a noun phrase

- the **writing** of a program
- the **making** of plans
- data **processing**

Exceptions:

- The *needing* of … is *wrong*, but the **need**(**s**) of … is *right*.
- The **writing** of *it* is wrong, but the **writing** of *the program* is *right*.

6. After an expression

- *It is no use (no good)* **asking** her – she doesn't know anything.
- *It is a waste of time* **playing** computer games.
- *It is a waste of money* **buying** things you don't need.

GO ON TO DO SOMETHING / GO ON TO SOMETHING
GO ON DOING SOMETHING

GO ON TO DO SOMETHING :

Hacer algo a continuación / pasar a hacer algo

to do something after completing something else.

- The book **goes on to** describe his experiences in the army.
- After her early teaching career she **went on to** become a doctor.
- He **went on to** learn English and French.
  (He ended one period of time before this.)
- They eventually **went on to win** the championship.

GO ON TO SOMETHING: to do something after doing something else.

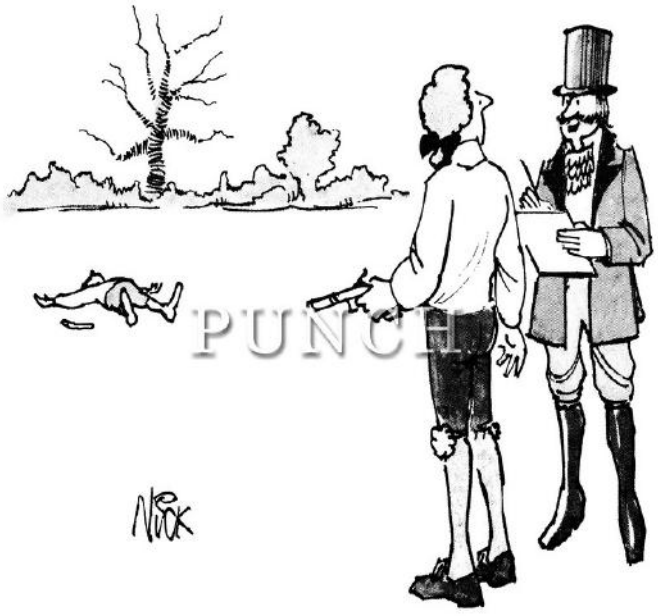
Seguir con algo / pasar a algo

- When you finish the first section of the test, **go on to** the next.
- Let's **go on to** the next item on the agenda.

GO ON DOING SOMETHING: **Continuar haciendo algo**

to continue happening or doing something as before or to continue an activity without stopping.

- He said nothing but just **went on working**.
- She can't **go on pretending** that everything is fine when it clearly isn't.



"You now go on to meet the Earl of Rutland in the semi-finals."

HARD vs HARSH vs TOUGH vs ROUGH

HARD: Use for things and situation with the meaning of *DIFFICULT*

- Working in construction is hard. **DURO / DIFICIL**
- The math problems we have for homework are hard.
- Vincent said that cooking French food is hard.

HARSH:

Use for things and situation with the meaning of *UNPLEASANTLY ROUGH.*

- The harsh weather in the winter makes life in the mountains difficult.
- There are harsh penalties for drinking and driving. **DURO / SEVERO**
- That soap is too harsh for a baby's skin.

TOUGH: Use for things and situation involving a great deal of *HARSHIP* or *DIFFICULTY.* (Challenges you face)

- Jack had a tough time when he lost his passport while traveling in Asia.
- Bob said loosing his job was a very tough situation.
- Being a college student is tough, so many students don't have a luxurious life. **DURO**

ROUGH:

Use for things and situation that are *DIFFICULT* or *UNPLEASANT*
(Things that happened to you)

- He's had a rough year , what with the divorce and then his father dying.
- I feel terrible – I had a rough night last night.
- I had a rough day at the office. **DURO / DIFICIL**

HAVE AN INTEREST vs TAKE AN INTEREST

HAVE AN INTEREST in someone / something means:
1) that you have an interest in a particular company or industry and probably you own shares in it: **TENER INTERÉS ECONÓMICO EN**

- I **have (an) interest in** a restaurant.
  (would mean that I have a financial role in the business, possibly ownership.)
- I **have an interest in** the company.
  (I have shares, or some other financial stake, in the company.)

2) You have a connection with something which affects your attitude to it, especially because you may benefit from or be affected by it in some way.

- The United States **had an interest in** giving military aid because it provided jobs for American workers. **TENER INTERÉS EN**

Organizations **have an interest in** ensuring that employee motivation is high.
(if employee motivation is high , they will benefit from it.)

- People **have an interest in** what the government does.
  (People are affected by what the government does.)

3) That something engages my attention and I like to spend my time doing thing related with that. **ESTAR INTERESADO/A POR**

- He **has a particular interest in** Italian art.
- I've always **had an interest in** astronomy.

TAKE AN INTEREST in someone / something : ***show that you are interested in***
To "take (an) interest" is a verb phrase that means the action of being interested, to take notice or to become concerned or interested in someone or something.

- Do you **take an interest in** your children? **INTERESARSE POR**
- You should **take an interest in** everything your child does.
- Do your parents **take an interest in** your hobbies?
- Does your husband **take an interest in** your work?
- I **took an interest in** martial arts when I was a kid.

"Ok, so he's not praying to God but at least he's taking an interest in religion."

HEADERS and TAILS

HEADERS and **TAILS** are common in speaking, but very uncommon in writing.

HEADERS:

We use headers when we place information at the front of what we say.
This can help our listeners to understand more easily what we are referring to.
Headers can consist of a noun phrase or noun phrases or whole clauses.
The header is followed by a pronoun (underlined in the examples) which refers back to the header:

- Anna, David's sister, she's going to New York for her birthday.
- That big house, is it where the doctor lives?
- Going to football matches, that's what my cousin Jim likes best.

TAILS occur at the end of what we say. They are commonly noun phrases.
Tails refer back to a pronoun (underlined in the examples), and commonly give more information about it. Like headers, they help a listener to understand more easily what we are referring to:

- They're not cheap to buy, cars in Singapore.
- She's a really good marathon runner, Alice.

More examples :

Headers.

- That leather coat, it looks really nice on you.
- Walking into that room, it brought back a lot of memories.
- My father, he's happy now.

Tails.

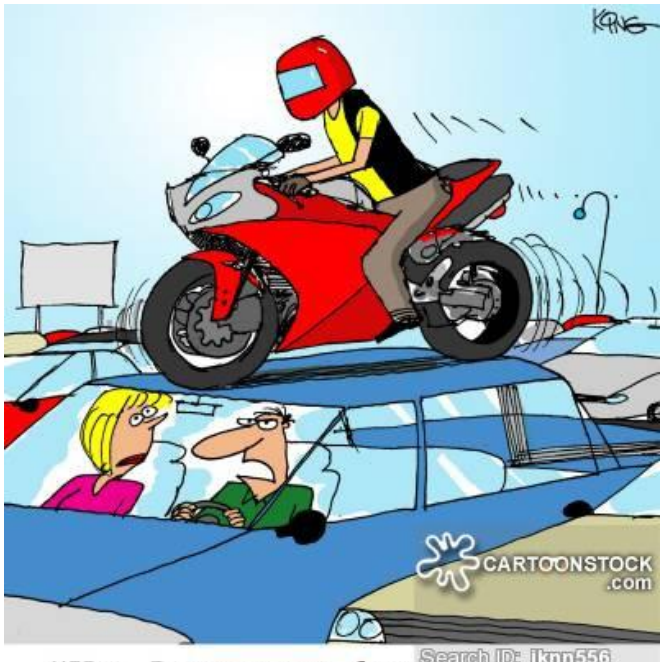
- He's amazingly clever, that dog of theirs.
- It looks great on you, that hat.
- He's happy now, my father.

I DIDN'T THINK OF THAT vs I HADN'T THOUGH OF THAT

I didn't think of that refers to a specific point in the past, at which you did not think of something. For example, if you are telling a story:
Person A: "I was in a lift and I couldn't get out"
Person B: "Did you call for help?"
Person A: "No - ***I didn't think of that".***

There is no link to the present, and no idea that the person subsequently thought of calling for help.

With the past perfect, there is a link to the present.
"I had not thought of that" means that up until this point, the idea had never occurred to me, but now it has. You cannot say "I haven't thought of that" at this point, because, well, after reading the person's post then you have thought of it.
Person A: "How can we get out of this lift?
Person B: "We can call for help?"
Person A: "OH! - I hadn't thought of that".



"Yes, I am angry, but not at him. I'm angry because I didn't think of doing it."

IF ONLY vs I WISH

There are three distinct types of I wish / if only sentences:
WISH, wanting change for the present or future with the simple past.
REGRET with the past perfect.
COMPLAINTS with would + verb.

Expressing a **WISH**: Form: If only / I wish + simple past

Talking about the present

- If only/ I wish I knew how to use a computer.
  (I don't know how to use a computer and I would like to learn how to use it)
- If only I didn't have so much homework I could go to the concert tonight. She has a lot of homework and she can't go to the concert.
- I wish you didn't live so far away. / I wish I knew what to do.

Use: To express a wish in the present or in the future. The simple past here is an unreal past. When you use the verb to be the form is "were".
Example:

- I wish I were a millionaire!

Expressing **REGRET:** Form: If only / I wish + past perfect

Talking about the past

- If only I had woken up early. (I didn't wake up early and I missed my bus.)
- I wish I'd studied harder when I was at school.
- He didn't study harder when he was at school.
- I wish I hadn't eaten all that chocolate. I feel sick.
- If only I'd known you were coming.

Use: To express a regret. The action is past.

COMPLAINING: Form: I wish / if only + would + verb

- I wish you wouldn't arrive so late all the time
  (I'm annoyed because you always come late and I want you to arrive on time)
- I wish you wouldn't borrow my clothes without asking.
- I wish it would rain. The garden really needs some water.
- I wish you'd give up smoking. it's really bad for you.

Use: To complain about a behavior or situation that you disapprove.
Expressing impatience, annoyance or dissatisfaction with a present action.

INVERSIONS IN ENGLISH

One of the most effective ways to ***make language more emphatic*** when using English is by inverting a sentence's regular word order. Emphasis in this way is often presented through written language and is of a highly formal register

Normal sentence : [S]She [V]sings. / [S]Joe [M]can [V]swim

Inverted sentence : [AUX]Does [S]she [V]sing? / [M]Can [S]Joe [V]swim?

When does inversion happen?

The most common type of inversion is question word order (see above).

Inversion also happens in other situations.

Negative adverbs : *Hardly, Never, Seldom, Rarely, Only then. Not only ... but No sooner ,Scarcely, Only later, Nowhere, Little , Only in this way , In no way On no account,etc..*

In formal styles, when we use an adverb with negative meaning (see above) in front position for emphasis, we invert the subject (s) and auxiliary (aux)/modal verb:

- Never [AUX]have [S]we witnessed such cruel behaviour by one child to another. (or We have never witnessed …)
- Seldom does one hear a politician say 'sorry'. (or One seldom hears …)

Expressions beginning with not

We also invert the subject and verb after not + a prepositional phrase or a clause in initial position:

- **Not** for a moment did I think I would be offered the job, so I was amazed when I got it.
- **Not** till I got home did I realise my wallet was missing.

HERE and THERE

Inversion can happen after here, and after there when it is as an adverb of place. After here and there, we can use a main verb without an auxiliary verb or modal verb:

- Here comes the bus! / Here's your coffee.
- I opened the door and there stood Michael, all covered in mud.
- She looked out and there was Pamela, walking along arm in arm with Goldie.

In the following expressions, the inversion comes in the second part of the sentence:

Not until/ Not since / Only after / Only when / Only by

- Not until I saw John with my own eyes did I really believe he was safe.
- Not since Lucy left college had she had such a wonderful time.
- Only after I'd seen her flat did I understand why she wanted to live there.
- Only when we'd all arrived home did I feel calm.
- Only by working extremely hard could we afford to eat.

SO and SUCH – Inversion can also happen after SO and SUCH

'so + adjective + verb + noun ...that':

So beautiful was the girl that nobody could talk of anything else.

'such +verb + noun...that':

Such was their excitement that they began to jump up and down.

Inversion in conditional sentences : Were/Had/Should + pronoun + verb

- Normal conditional: If I had been there, this problem wouldn't have happened.
  Conditional with inversion: Had I been there, this problem wouldn't have happened.
- Normal conditional: If she were to find out that he was cheating on her, she would go mad.
  Conditional with inversion: Were she to find out that he was cheating on her , she would go mad.
- Normal conditional : If you need more information , please so not hesitate to contact me.
  Conditional with inversion : Should you need more information , please do not hesitate to contact me.

IT , SHE or HE WHEN REFERRING TO ANIMALS?

An animal is referred as “it” unless the relationship is personal (like a pet that has a name). Then it’s OK to use “he” or “she” when referring to the animal. This also applies to using “who” and “whom.” If the animal has a personal relationship with the person, then use “who” or “whom.” Otherwise you must exclusively use “which” or “that.” Here’s an example that incorporates both of these rules:

Personal: My horse, whom I call Steve, is my best friend.
He comforts me when I ride him.
Generic: The stray dog, which I saw chasing its own tail, was shedding hair.

The “personal” rule also holds true if you’re writing a kids book and the animals can talk—as you’re giving them human traits and making them characters your readers can get to know. Even if the animals don’t have specific names, they are given personalities and this is enough to make them personal.

IT vs THIS

IT – REFERRING BACK

We use it to refer back to things or situations that have just been talked or written about. It does not give any particular emphasis.

REFERS TO A NOUN (NP)

Apple is going to release a new operating system. It will merge the laptop OS with the iPad and iPhone OS.
(It refers to the new operating system.)

REFERS TO A SITUATION (CLAUSE)

Another employee has lost an iPhone prototype. It set off an official search for the missing phone.
(It refers to the situation in the sentence.)

THIS – REFERRING WITH EMPHASIS

We use this or that to refer to something with special emphasis – indicating an interesting new fact has been mentioned.

REFERS TO A NOUN (NP)

Apple is going to release a new operating system. This will be a huge step in merging the laptop OS with the iPad and iPhone OS.
(This emphasizes the preceding noun, operating system.)

REFERS TO A SITUATION (CLAUSE)

Another employee has lost an iPhone prototype. This set off an official search for the missing phone. (This emphasizes the situation.)

IT – REFERS TO A FORMER TOPIC

We use it to refer to the main or the first mentioned topic of a discussion. The subject is usually a noun or noun phrase.

REFERS TO THE FORMER (first) TOPIC

AppleCar wants to market its auto in the United States first. It is the first tech company to do so.
AppleCar wants to market its auto in the United States first. It will be a limited release.
(IT refers to the car)
AppleCar plans a new venture in which it will produce cars with its lithium-ion batteries. It will require a lot of capital.

THIS – REFERRING TO A LATTER TOPIC

We use this or that to refer to a new topic, often the last thing mentioned. The reference could be a word, phrase or clause.

REFERS TO THE LATTER (last) TOPIC

AppleCar wants to market its auto in the United States first. This will allow the product to be tested before introducing it to the international market. (This refers to this fact)
AppleCar plans a new venture in which it will produce cars with its patented technology. This has upset the auto industry.

IT'S TIME vs IT'S ABOUT/HIGHT TIME

IT'S (ABOUT/HIGH) TIME + past subjunctive

It's (high/about) time + past subjunctive expresses that something should be done and that it is already a bit late: **YA VA SIENDO HORA**

- It's time you went to bed. You'll have to get up early tomorrow.
- It's high/about time I bought a new pair of jeans.
- It's about/high time this road was completed. They've been working on it for months.
- It's about time you grew up and became realistic.

Note:

We can also use this phrase with an infinitive "to".

- It's about time you went to bed.
- It's about time (for you) to go to bed.

IT'S TIME FOR SOMEBODY TO DO SOMETHING

When we say that the right time has arrived for something and we are still in time, we can use the following patterns: **YA ES HORA DE …**

- It's time (for you) to go to bed. / It's time to say goodbye.
- It's time for breakfast.
- It's about time for you to grow up and become realistic.

For the Past Time

IT WAS (HIGH/ABOUT) TIME + past subjunctive

The words "about/high" add more emphasis to the situation and they usually come with anger/complaint. **YA IBA SIENDO HORA**

- Dear Charles I thought **it was about/ high time I wrote** to you and told you what I've been up to.

IT WAS (HIGH/ABOUT) TIME + past perfect subjunctive

It's (high/about) time + past perfect subjunctive expresses that something should be have been done in the past but it wasn't done.

Tener que haber hecho algo…pero no hacerlo

- It was about time we had left , yet we didn´t.
- It was time you had told him the truth when you had the chance last night.
- It was high time he had stopped smoking, but he never did.

LAST vs LATEST

LAST Adjective **ÚLTIMO/A**

Final, ultimate, coming after all others of its kind.

Meaning at the end in the order od serial number. There is nothing coming afterwards. The final item in a temporal/spacial line..

- *We went there **last** year.*
- *Each of her paintings has been better than the last.*
- *He sits in the last bench.*

LATEST Adjective/ noun **MÁS RECIENTE**

Newest or more recent or modern.

Meaning the most recent. There is more to come, but it's still not here yet.

- *This phone is the lastest in mobile phone technology.*
- *Have you heard his latest single?*
- *Get the latest version of iTunes.*

Note the difference in meaning between the following :

- What is the latest movie you have watched?
  (the most recent movie you have watched- new movies in theaters)
- What is the last movie you have watched?
  (the last one up to now – you haven't watched any other)

LET ALONE / MUCH LESS / STILL LESS / EVEN LESS / NOT TO MENTION /

NOT TO MENTION: used for adding a comment that emphasizes the main idea of what you have already said: **POR NO HABLAR DE**

- The weather here is gorgeous, **not to mention** the wonderful food.
- He's one of the kindest and most intelligent, **not to mention** handsome, men I know.

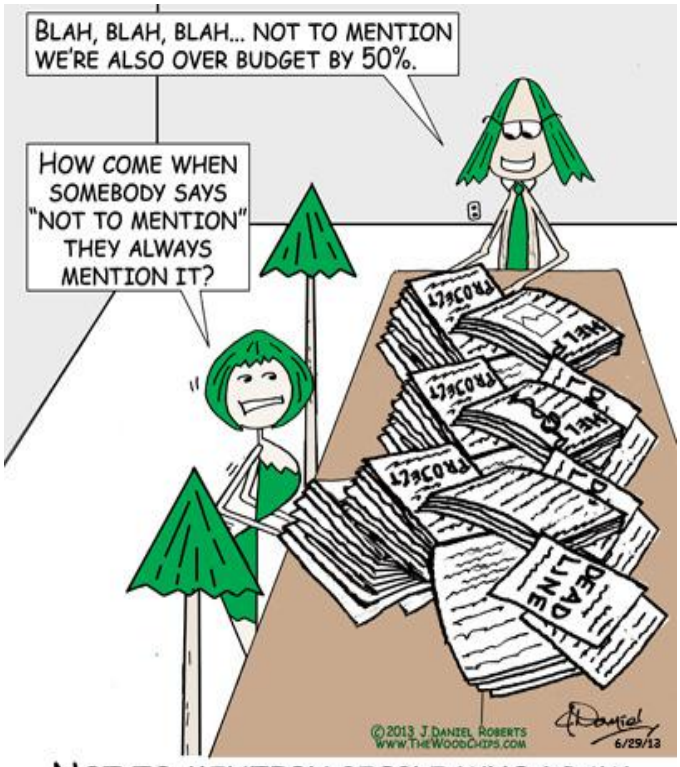
LET ALONE : used for saying that something is even less likely to happen than another unlikely thing: **Y MUCHO MENOS**

- I hardly have time to think these days, **let alone** relax.
- There's no room for all the adults, **let alone** the children.

MUCH/ STILL/ EVEN LESS: used after a negative statement in order to emphasize that it applies even more to what you say next:

- I am no one's spokesman, **much less** his. **Y MUCHO MENOS**
- I did not know that I was pregnant – **even less**, that I was carrying triplets
- I never suggested that he was incompetent, **still less** that he was dishonest.

How can I write the FAQs when users haven't even seen the application, let alone asked any questions about it?



NOT TO MENTION PEOPLE WHO DRAW CARTOONS ABOUT IT

MADE (OUT) OF vs MADE FROM vs MADE WITH

MADE OF : We usually use MADE OF when the material has not been radically changed or processed, but only shaped so that it is still apparent. It has a meaning similar to composed of.

- The temple is made of gold. **HECHO DE** (materia prima se ve)
- The house was made of wood with an iron roof.

MADE OUT OF : We usually use made out of when we talk about something that has been changed or transformed from one thing into another:

- In the 1970s, it was popular to have candle-holders made out of wine bottles. **UTILIZANDO COMO MATERIAL (materia prima se ve)**
- They were living in tents made out of old plastic sheets.

MADE FROM : We usually use **MADE FROM** when the material has been changed or processed so that it is not apparent. When we talk about how something is manufactured: **HECHO DE (materia prima no se ve)**

- He was wearing a suit made from pure silk.
- Plastic is made from oil.
- The earliest canoes were made from tree trunks.

Therefore we will say :

- A table is made of wood. (it is apparent that the material used was wood and can still see the wood)
- Paper is made from wood. (It's not apparent that the raw material used was wood since it has been changed into paper and you can't see the wood anymore)

However, in real life, this general rule (and most rules of grammar and usage) are not carved in stone. Native speakers sometimes do not follow the rule and will say **made from** when the material is apparent.

MADE WITH: We use made with most often to talk about the ingredients of food and drink: **HECHO CON (Ingredientes / materiales)**

- This dish is made with beef, red peppers and herbs.
- Is sushi always made with raw fish or do the Japanese use cooked fish too?
- The chair is made with wood and glue.

MAIN vs PRINCIPAL

*In some cases, **principal** is a little more formal while **main** is more informal.*

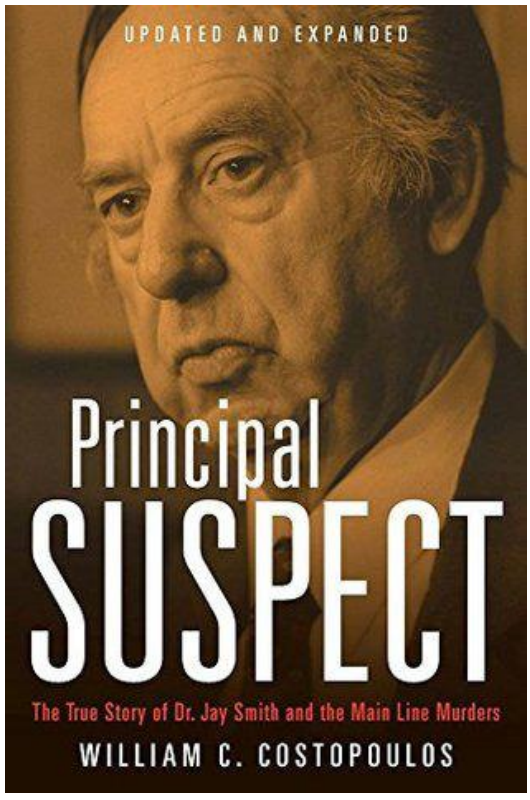
- The principal cause of the economic crisis is inflation.
- The main cause of the economic crisis is inflation.
- The main reason I've called you here is... (spoken by the coach)
- The principal reason I've called you here is... (spoken by the university president)

In other cases, there are common phrases that usually take one or the other.

- The main idea of the story is.... ✔ ("main idea" is a set phrase)
- The principal idea of the story is... ✘
- The main method that was used in the study... ✘ ("main method" is unnaturally alliterative)
- The principal method that was used in the study... ✔
- The rain in Spain falls mainly on the plain. ✔
- The rain in Spain falls principally on the plain. ✘

The Latin-based "principal" sounds fancier, like something a more educated person would say.
But the two words mean exactly the same thing in any context I can think of.
There is nothing really wrong with "main" in a formal context. If "principal" sounds awful, then use "main".

"Yep, it's just what I suspected: You've sprung a leak in the main corporate coffee supply line!"



MANDATORY vs COMPULSORY vs OBLIGATORY

These three adjectives are confusing because the main definition given in the dictionary for all three of these words is the same.
Compulsory, **mandatory**, and **obligatory** can all mean "***required by a law or a rule***," as shown in these example sentences:

- Massachusetts was the first state to pass a compulsory school attendance law. (=a law that requires everyone to attend school.)
- The company initiated mandatory drug testing for all employees. (=drug testing required for all employees)
- The meeting is obligatory for all employees. (=all employees must attend)

The difference between these words is in how commonly they are used, and in what contexts.

The word ***mandatory is the most common*** of the three choices, and it is ***the least formal***. It is particularly common in the phrases mandatory testing, mandatory sentencing and mandatory retirement.

Compulsory is less common. It is most often found in the phrases compulsory military service and compulsory education.

Obligatory is the least common of these three words, **and the most formal.**
It is rarely used in spoken language. Obligatory also has a second meaning that is quite different from the first. It can describe something that is not required, but has become so common or typical that it now seems overused and not very meaningful or effective, as in this example sentence:

- This action movie includes the ***obligatory*** chase scene.

In general, if you want to describe something that is required by law or by a rule, and you're not sure which adjective to use, mandatory is a good choice, because it is the most common.

MAY AS WELL vs MIGHT AS WELL

We can use **MAY AS WELL** and **MIGHT AS WELL** ***for making suggestions.*** We can use them to say what we think is the easiest or most logical course of action when we cannot see a better alternative.

They are both fairly informal. **MIGHT AS WELL is more common** than may as well:

- You might as well get a taxi from the station. It'll be quicker than me coming in to get you.
- A: What time does the film finish?
- B: I think it's ten o'clock.
- A: Uh-huh. We may as well eat in town before it, then.

We can make may as well and might as well stronger by using just after may or might:

- Well, I think if it's a choice between a job and a place at college, you may just as well take the job. At least you'll earn some money.
- We don't know anyone here and they're discussing stuff that doesn't concern us. We might just as well leave.

Warning: May as well and might as well ***don't mean the same as*** **MAY ALSO** and **MIGHT ALSO**, in the sense of 'possibly in addition':

- Before you go hiking, buy yourself a good pair of boots. You may also need to buy thick walking socks. (**in addition to boots**, you might need to buy socks)

~~Not: You may as well buy …~~

"I figured if I have to be here every day. I'd might as well make a little money."

MAYBE vs PERHAPS vs PROBABLY

MAYBE and **PERHAPS** are adverbs that mean the same thing. We use them when we think something is possible, but we are not certain. ***(40% - 60% chance)*** We use maybe mostly in front or end position whereas perhaps is used in front, mid and end position:

- A:Have you seen my glasses? I can't find them anywhere.
- B: **Maybe** you left them at work.
- A: Do you think these shoes are too high?
- B: They are **perhaps**. (it's possible but I'm not certain)

MAYBE is never used before verbs..

- As you **perhaps** remember, I worked as an interpreter for three years in the European Parliament. Not: As you ~~maybe~~ remember …

PERHAPS is slightly more formal than **MAYBE**:

- He was, **perhaps**, a little too smartly dressed for a holidaymaker.
- **Maybe** I'll finish work early tomorrow and go shopping with you.
- Can I get you a drink, or something to eat, **perhaps**?

Don't confuse the adverb **maybe** (one word), which means 'perhaps', with **may be** (two words), which means 'could be':

✗ *In an earthquake your house maybe badly damaged.*

✓ *In an earthquake your house* **may be** *badly damaged.*

✗ *It maybe an unfulfilled dream.*

✓ *It* **may be** *an unfulfilled dream.*

✗ *May be Julie was right when she said I was jealous.*

✓ **Maybe** *Julie was right when she said I was jealous.*

Maybe and **perhaps** have the same meaning, but **maybe** is used mainly in spoken English and informal writing. In more formal English, **perhaps** is far more common:

- *Now,* **maybe** *I haven't explained myself very well.*
  There are, **perhaps**, *three principles which must be followed.*

PROBABLY – means that there is a good chance of something happening ***(70% – 95% chance)***

- I am probably going to the beach this weekend.
- It is probably going to rain on Saturday.
- We are probably going on a trip to Asia next year.

MIGHT HAVE vs MUST HAVE

MIGHT HAVE :

Might expresses an opinion: an uncertain guess, a speculation, based on very little information. **Might have** expresses an opinion about an earlier (past) situation.

A GUESS

- The car driver **might have** tried to pass between two buses.
- One of the bus drivers **might have** changed lanes without looking first.
- The bus drivers **might not have** been able to see the smaller, lower car.
- The road **might have** narrowed and so they all tried to move into the same lane.

MUST HAVE:

Must expresses an opinion: an inference, a conclusion, based on known details. Must have expresses an opinion about an earlier (past) situation.

A CONCLUSION

- The car driver **must have** panicked when he saw the buses moving in on both sides.
- The bus passengers **must have** heard a crunch. (sound)
- The car passengers **must have** escaped out the back. (No other exits were available.)
- The insurance company **must have** declared this car "totalled".

We use **may have** and **might have** to show that something has possibly happened now or happened at some time in the past:

It's ten o'clock. They **might have** arrived now.[= Perhaps they have arrived]

They **may have** arrived hours ago. [= Perhaps they arrived hours ago.]

MOST vs MOST OF THE

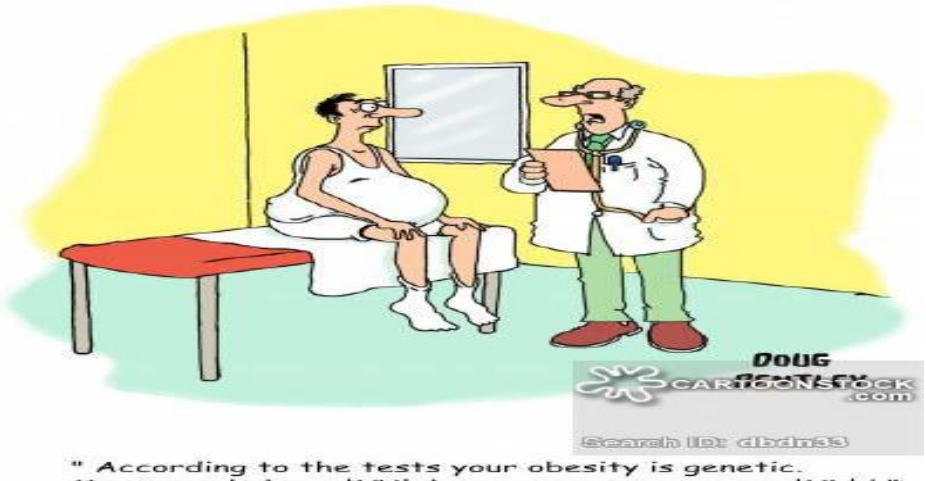
Use **MOST** to refer to a quantity of an unspecific group.
We use **MOST** when we are speaking in general and do not have a specific group of people or things in mind.

- Most students ask questions.
- Most people want to win the lottery.
- Most business meetings are held at the company's Bristol office.

Use **MOST OF THE** X to refer to a quantity of a specific group.
Note the expression includes a phrase defining the number to a specific group.

- Most of the students in my English class ask questions.
  most — specific to those who are in my English class
- In the school , most of the children are from the Chinese community.
  most — specific to those who are in the school.
- Most of the businesses that are successful have the proper management and right people to lead.
  most — specific to those business that are successful.

GENERAL	SPECIFIC
ALL students want to pass the exam.	ALL (OF) the students in my class want to pass the exam.
MANY students wan less homework	MANY OF the students in my class want less homework.
A FEW students stayed for a review session	A FEW OF the students who have low grades stayed for a review session
FEW students stayed for a review session.	FEW OF the students who have low grades stayed for a review session.
SOME students want to go to university.	SOME OF the students who have high marks want to go to university.



MUST vs OUGHT vs SHOULD

We can use all three verbs to express broadly similar meanings: the main distinctions between them are related to degrees of emphasis.

MUST is the most emphatic: you use it when you're confident about a conclusion, or when you want to stress that it's very important for someone to follow your recommendations. You also use must to refer to something that's required by a rule or law. Unlike SHOULD and OUGHT, must isn't used to make predictions:

✓ According to the forecast, it should be warm tomorrow.
✓ According to the forecast, it ought to be warm tomorrow.
X According to the forecast, it must be warm tomorrow.

OUGHT is less strong than MUST, and isn't used to talk about things that are compulsory. It often carries with it slightly more forcefulness and more of a sense of moral obligation or appropriateness than SHOULD.

SHOULD is the least forceful of the trio: it's mostly used to make suggestions and more tentative predictions and it is much more frequent in questions or negative constructions than OUGHT.

Compare the nuances of meaning in the following:

- If you have a mole that starts to bleed, you must see a doctor.

[it's vital, as it could be cancer]

- The fat content of the cheese must not exceed 44%.

[this is to obey a food regulation]

- The object of the exercise was to prevent the public from seeing what they ought to see. [it's morally desirable that people knew]
- I ought to eat more fruit and vegetables.

[it's a good idea and will make me healthier]

- You should see the size of the crowds he plays in front of!

[this is my opinion, but you don't actually need to see the crowds for yourself]

- I think I should go home. [I'm considering this as an option]

SHOULD is more common in questions, especially in daily conversation: **OUGHT** ***sounds rather formal when used interrogatively***. Additionally, speakers of North American English tend to use should rather than ought when expressing a negative idea (we shouldn't turn away from such opportunities rather than we oughtn't to turn away from such opportunities).

NEED vs DARE AS SEMI-MODALS (Modal phrases)

NEED AS A SEMI-MODAL (Modal phrase)

Need can behave either as a modal verb or as a main verb:
As a modal verb, *need* is most typically used in negative sentences or in affirmative sentences with a negative meaning. It expresses absence of obligation or necessity, and it is followed by a bare infinitive:

- *You* **needn't worry** *about that.*
- *No one* **need be** *surprised at what happened.*
- *You* **need** *only just* **ask**.
- *I doubt whether I* **need help** *you.*

Need as a modal verb also occurs in interrogative sentences, but this use is much more formal:
Need you **make** *so much noise?*

DARE AS A SEMI-MODAL (Modal phrase)

DARE means "have the courage to do something" and can behave either as a modal verb or as a main verb:
As a modal verb, dare is used in negative and interrogative sentences; it is followed by a bare infinitive:

- I daren't think how many victims there are.
- How dare she criticise us?

DARE as a main verb can be followed by a bare infinitive or a to-infinitive:

- Do you dare (to) tell him what happened to his bike?
- Who dares (to) argue with me?
- He didn't dare (to) look back.
- No one would have dared (to) think about it.

But in the expression Don't you dare..., it is always followed by a bare infinitive:

- Don't you dare interrupt me!

Negative statement

- No one dare go there. (semi-modal verb)

Affirmative question

- Dare anyone go there? (semi-modal verb)

Negative question

- Daren't he go there? (semi-modal verb)

Notice *that neither* ***NEED*** *nor* ***DARE*** *as semi-modals add an "s" to the end of the verb in the third person*

- He **need not** worry. Not - He ~~needs~~ not worry.
- She **dare not** take such a risk. Not - She ~~dares not to~~ take such a risk.

NEXT vs FOLLOWING

FOLLOWING - is the next thing in a specific order

- February is the month **following** January.
- We will meet **the following week**.
- We had to adjourn the meeting till **the following** week.

NEXT - come right after something or someone;

- I am **the next** person in line.
- I get off the bus at **the next** stop
- He thought he would buy one **the next** day (the day after).
- It was Friday. We were going to set off **the next** day.
- It was September. Mary was starting school **the next** week.

FOLLOWING vs THE FOLLOWING

We use following without the + noun phrase to mean 'after', 'in response to' or 'as a result of':

- Following the bad election results of May 8th, the Prime Minister has appointed three new ministers.
- Following a general strike in 1933, he fled the country and went to South America.

We use the following with a noun. It means 'the next':

- They only stayed at the hotel one night and left early the following morning.
- We went out on the boat. The sea was really rough and the following hour was the worst in my short life.

We also use the following without another noun to introduce things or people which we then list:

- I'm afraid I can't eat any of the following: tomatoes, cucumber, onions and cabbage.
- The following have helped me with this book of photographs: David Jones, Gill Farmer, Martin Weekes and Anthony Gray.

NEXT WEEK vs THE NEXT WEEK

Next week, next month , etc… is the week or month just after this one.

- If I am speaking in July, next month is August;
- If I am speaking in 1900, next year is 1901.

(Note that prepositions are not used before these time expressions)
Goodbye. See you next week. /I'm spending next Christmas with my family.
Next year will be difficult.

"The next week", "the next month" etc can mean the period of seven days, thirty days etc starting at the moment of speaking.

On July 15th, 1985, the next month is period from July 15th to August 15th; the next year is the period from July 1985 to July 1986.
I'm going to be very busy for the next week (the seven days starting today)
The next year will be difficult. (the twelve months starting now)

NO MORE THAN vs NOT MORE THAN

NO MORE THAN : used to emphasize that someone or something does not ***have a particular quality or would not do something:***

- He's no more fit to be a priest than I am!
- Until she passes her medical exams, she is no more qualified to be a doctor than I am.

NO MORE THAN : is also used with the meaning of ***Only, Merely***

- He had **no more than** entered the room when they began to question him.
- You will need **no more than** $50 for Saturday's trip.

NO MORE THAN : used to say that something is not too much, but exactly right or suitable:

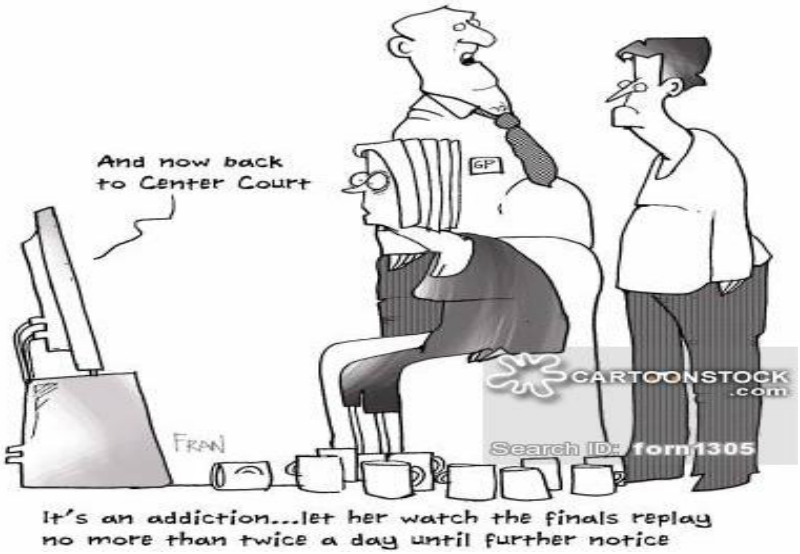
- It's **no more than** you deserve.
- Eline felt it was **no more than** her duty to look after her husband.

NO MORE THAN : also little more than used to say that someone or something is not very great or important:

- He's **no more than** a glorified accountant.
- He left school with **little more than** a basic education.

NO/ NOT MORE THAN used to ***emphasize that a particular number, amount, distance etc is not large:***

- It's a beautiful cottage **not more than** five minutes from the nearest beach.
- Opinion polls show that **no more than** 30% of people trust the government.



NOWHERE NEAR vs NOT NEARLY

NOWHERE NEAR is an adverb that is used for emphasis with the meaning of nor nearly or not in any way.

- They're **nowhere near** ready for the game. (+ adjective)
- We have **nowhere near** enough wood for the winter. (+ adverb)
- It was a long list and it was **nowhere near** complete. (+ adjective)
- The movie was **nowhere near** as bad as Erin said it was. (+adverb)
- Holzman was **nowhere near** the player Carey is. (+ determiner / pronoun)
- I'm **nowhere near** finishing the book – I'm only half-way through it. (+verb)

NOT NEARLY is an adverb that is used with the meaning of nothing like o far from.

- You're **not nearly** as clever as you think you are
- Two pounds of beef is **not nearly** enough to feed 50 people.
- The roast is **not nearly** cooked, so dinner will be delayed.

.

We don't use :

Not nearly + adjective without as or without being followed by a cause.

So we won't say : ~~Andy's Spanish isn't nearly fluent.~~

We'd say " Andy's Spanish is nowhere near fluent" instead.

Not nearly as ... as indicates that although the comparatives are distant, it might be a reasonable mistake to think that they were not too far apart.

Nowhere near as... as indicates that the comparative is not even in the same order of magnitude; the comparative is a ridiculous distance away from the original. This phrase is dismissive.

"YOU'RE NOT NEARLY AS GRIM AS I THOUGHT YOU'D BE."

ON vs ABOUT

She gave a lecture **ON / ABOUT** recycled plastics .

Should we use **ON** or **ABOUT** in the sentence above?

We can Use "**ON**" or "**ABOUT**"; it just doesn't matter. The meaning is perfectly clear either way. You could also say the same thing half a dozen other ways:

- She gave a lecture covering recycled plastics.
- She gave a lecture regarding recycled plastics.
- She gave a lecture explaining recycled plastics.

Be careful since sometimes using **ON** could lead to confusion , as in the following examples :

- He gave a lecture on an aircraft carrier deck.

(we don't know if he gave the lecture about it or on the aircraft itself)

- I once attended a lecture on the surface of Mars.

(the reader doesn't know if I gave the lecture about it or standing on it)

So what's the answer to the question about when to "use" on vs. "about?"

If the sentence means the same thing using either one, you get to choose.

If the sentence means something silly, or downright hysterical, you've chosen the wrong one.

"This concludes my lecture on non-verbal communication. Any comments or questions?"

ONLY vs EXCEPT THAT

ONLY

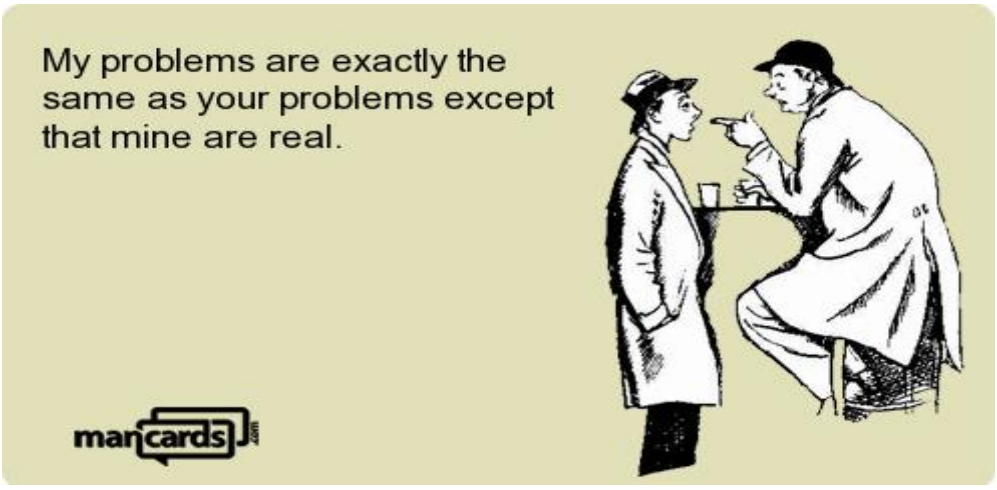
used to show what is the single or main reason why something mentioned in the first part of the sentence cannot be performed or is not completely true:

- I'd invite Frances to the party, only (= but I will not because) I don't want her husband to come. **PERO / LO QUE PASA ES QUE**
- I'd phone him myself, only (= but I cannot because) I've got to go out.
- I'd be happy to do it for you, only (= but) don't expect it to be done before next week.
- This fabric is similar to wool, only (= except that it is) cheaper.

EXCEPT THAT

Used to give a reason why something is not possible or true:

- I want to go, except that I'm tired. **LO QUE PASA ES QUE**
- I've a good mind to sue, except that it would only cause more bad publicity.
- The exam went pretty well, except that I misread the final question. **EXCEPTUANDO QUE**



ONTO vs ON TO

ONTO is used to show movement into or on a particular place.

- I slipped as I stepped **onto** the platform.
- The sheep were loaded **onto** trucks.

The preposition onto meaning 'to a position on the surface of' has been widely written as one word (instead of on to) since the early 18th century, as in the following sentences:

- He threw his plate onto the floor.
- The band climbed onto the stage.

Nevertheless, some people still don't accept it as part of standard British English (unlike into) and it's best to use the two-word form in formal writing.

In US English, onto is more or less the standard form: it seems likely that this will eventually become the case in British English too.
Remember, though, that you should never write on to as one word when it means 'onwards and towards'. For example:

- √ Let's move on to the next point. RIGHT
- X Let's move onto the next point. WRONG
- √ Those who qualify can go on to university. RIGHT
- X Those who qualify can go onto university. WRONG

"My wife had her face lifted -
Then it fell onto my foot!"

OPPORTUNITY vs CHANCE

CHANCE and **OPPORTUNITY** are two words that are used commonly in our daily lives. Though having nearly same meanings, they are used in different contexts and have different usages.

OPPORTUNITY is a word that signifies some specific results that are there to be taken (up for grabs).
Example:

- There are lots of job opportunities if you get an MBA degree.

This simply means that one can lay his hands or rather become qualified to get high paying jobs if he gets an MBA degree. There is nothing left for chance or probability.

CHANCE : When we talk of chance, we are referring to probabilities of an event occurring or taking place in future.
Example:

- There is an equal chance of a woman giving birth to a boy or a girl.
  One can never hope to put in opportunity in place of chance in this context.

Similarly, in a game of luck like roulette or poker, one always talks of chances in a game situation and never uses the word opportunity. When you throw a dice, you talk about chance of getting a 5 or 6 rather than opportunity of obtaining the results.
Chance and opportunity are both nouns but whereas
CHANCE IS A POSSIBILITY,
OPPORTUNITY IS AN OPENING OFFERED BY CIRCUMSTANCES.

- It was the sudden demise of the Prime Minster that the finance minister got an opportunity to become the leader of the government.
- I met my old classmate by chance when I went to see a movie.

When a doctor talks about the chance of a patient surviving an ailment, he is basing his opinion upon his medical condition. He is taking into account the probability of survival. On the other hand, taking a chance of doing a stunt is taking some type of a calculated risk.

In brief: Opportunity and Chance
• Opportunity smacks of possibilities that are real while **CHANCE IS PURE GAMBLING**.
• Opportunity is an opening that one gets because of circumstances or through his credentials while **CHANCE IS BY LUCK**.

OPTION vs ALTERNATIVE

As nouns the difference between option and alternative is the following :

OPTION : is one of the choices which can be made. **OPCIÓN**

- The best option would be to cancel the trip altogether.
- There are various options open to someone who is willing to work hard.
- Menu options at the café include soups, salads, and sandwiches.
- They didn't leave him much option - either he paid or they'd beat him up.

ALTERNATIVE: is a situation which allows a mutually exclusive choice. between two or more possibilities; a choice between two or more possibilities.

- We can agree to their terms or else pull out of the deal completely: those are the two alternatives.
- We had **no alternative but to** fire Gibson. **ALTERNATIVA**
- There is a vegetarian alternative on the menu every day.

As a verb **OPTION** is to purchase an option on something.
To buy or sell the right to own or use something, at some time in the future

- The novel has been optioned for the screen by his production company.
- We've optioned all her books, including future ones.
  COMPRAR LOS DERECHOS
- This is his first script to be optioned by a film company.

As a adjective **ALTERNATIVE** is relating to a choice between two or more possibilities. **ALTERNATIVO/A**

- An alternative venue for the concert is being sought.
- The opposition parties have so far failed to set out an alternative strategy.

'Hi, have you tried this interesting alternative to meat.'

PARALLEL STRUCTURE

Parallel structure adds both clout and clarity to your writing. When you use parallel structure, you increase the readability of your writing by creating word patterns readers can follow easily.

Parallel structure (also called parallelism) is the repetition of a chosen grammatical form within a sentence. By making each compared item or idea in your sentence follow the same grammatical pattern, you create a parallel construction.

Not Parallel:

- Ellen likes hiking, the rodeo, and to take afternoon naps.

Parallel:

- Ellen likes hiking, attending the rodeo, and taking afternoon naps.

OR

- Ellen likes to hike, attend the rodeo, and take afternoon naps.

Using Parallel Structure

With Coordinating Conjunctions (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, or so).

When you connect two or more clauses or phrases with a coordinating conjunction, use parallel structure.

Not Parallel:

- My best friend took me dancing and to a show.

Parallel:

- My best friend took me to a dance and a show.

With Correlative Conjunctions

When you connect two clauses or phrases with a correlative conjunction (not only…but also, either…or, neither…nor, if…then, etc.), use parallel structure.

Not Parallel:

- My dog not only likes to play fetch, but also chase cars.

Parallel:

- My dog not only likes to play fetch, but he also likes to chase cars.

OR

- My dog likes not only to play fetch, but also to chase cars.

With Phrases or Clauses of Comparison

When you connect two clauses or phrases with a word of comparison, such as than or as, use parallel structure.

Not Parallel:

- I would rather pay for my education than financial aid.

Parallel:

- I would rather pay for my education than receive financial aid.

With Lists

When you are comparing items in a list, use parallel structure.

Not Parallel:

- John Taylor Gatto criticizes public schools because they are compulsory, funded

by the government, and destroy students' humanity.

Parallel:

- John Taylor Gatto criticizes public schools because they are compulsory, government-funded, and normalizing.

OR

- John Taylor Gatto criticizes public schools because they require students to attend, receive money from the government, and destroy students' humanity.

PASSIVE VOICE

In English, all sentences are in either "active" or "passive" voice:

- Active: Cervantes wrote Don Quixote between 1605 and 1615.
- Passive: Don Quixote was written by Cervantes between 1605 and 1615.

Active sentence: The agent of the action in the sentence comes first.

Passive sentence : Object of the action comes first, and the agent is added at the end, introduced with the preposition "by.

We use the passive voice in the following cases :

When the actor is unknown:

- The cave paintings of Lascaux were made in the Upper Old Stone Age.

[We don't know who made them.]

When the actor is irrelevant:

- An experimental solar power plant will be built in the Australian desert.

[We are not interested in who is building it.]

When you want to be vague about who is responsible:

- Mistakes were made. [Common in bureaucratic writing!]
- Shots were fired.

When we are talking about a general truth:

- Rules are made to be broken. [By whomever, whenever.]

When we want to emphasize the person or thing acted on.

- Insulin was first discovered in 1921 by researchers at the University of Toronto.

When we are writing in a scientific genre that traditionally relies on passive voice. Passive voice is often preferred in lab reports and scientific research papers, most notably in the Materials and Methods section:

The sodium hydroxide was dissolved in water. This solution was then titrated with hydrochloric acid.

Impersonal Passive – It is said ... / He/she/they..are said

The phrase It is said ... is an impersonal passive construction.

We often use it in news.

Impersonal passive (used only with verbs of perception , i.e. say , think , know..)

- It is said that women live longer than men. (Impersonal passsive)
- They say that women live longer than men.
- Dogs are known to be more affectionate than cats. (Impersonal passive)
- We know that dogs are more affectionate than cats

PIED-PIPING vs PREPOSITION STRANDING

PIED-PIPING [is the] construction in which a preposition is moved to the front of its clause, just before its object.

Examples:

- To whom were you speaking?;
- With what did they hit it?;
- The shop from which I bought my gloves.

As can be seen, this construction is rather formal in English; the more colloquial equivalents are

- Who were you speaking to?;
- What did they hit it with?;
- The shop (which) I bought my gloves from,

All of them with preposition stranding."

 "In her yard she had an old catalpa tree of which the trunk and lower limbs were painted light blue."
(Saul Bellow, Henderson the Rain King. Viking, 1959)

 "We are talking about a society in which there will be no roles other than those chosen or those earned."
(V for Vendetta, 2005)

 "Identity attachment is defined here as the extent to which people consider their group membership to be an important part of how they see themselves."
(Deborah J. Schildkraut, Americanism in the Twenty-First Century. Cambridge University Press, 2011)

PREPOSITION STRANDING

A syntactic construction in which a preposition is left without a following object. A stranded preposition most often appears at the end of a sentence

- I love talking about nothing. It is the only thing I know anything *about*."
  (Oscar Wilde)

"When the preposition stays close to the verb, . . . we say that it is stranded, that is, displaced from its position in a PP [prepositional phrase]. The verb and the preposition stay together, with the stress usually on the verb. . . .

"The preposition is often stranded to the end of a clause and is separated from the nominal. Stranding is typical of spoken English, while the non-stranded counterparts are very formal:

- What's this about? ('What' functions as a complement of about: about what?)
- Which book are you referring to? (To which book are you referring?)"

Irregular Plural Nouns (less common plural markers)

Recognize nouns marked with plural forms: -ee-, -en, -oes, -a, -ae, -ices, -i

Mid-vowel Change vs. No Change

CHANGE MIDDLE VOWELS

In a few words, the mid-word vowels are changed to form the plural.

SINGULAR	PLURAL
mouse	mice /maɪs/
foot	feet /fit/
tooth	teeth /tiθ/
goose	geese /gis/
louse	lice /laɪs/

SINGULAR FORM (NO CHANGE)

In a few words, the singular form is used for both singular and plural.

SINGULAR	PLURAL
fish	fish
deer	deer
sheep	sheep
shrimp	shrimp[2] /ʃrɪmp/
offspring	offspring
series	series /ˈsɪər-iz/
species	species /ˈspi-ʃiz, -siz/
means	means
grapefruit	grapefruit[1]
aircraft	aircraft

Irregular Plural Nouns (less common plural markers)

Borrowed words -i, -en, -a, -es, -ae

LATIN WORDS

In words borrowed from Latin, the Latin plural forms are used.

SINGULAR—US	**PLURAL – i**
cactus	cacti cactuses
focus /ˈfoʊkəs/	foci /ˈfoʊsaɪ, -kaɪ/ (focuses)
fungus /ˈfʌŋ-gəs/	fungi /ˈfʌn-dʒaɪ,ˈfʌŋ-gaɪ/
nucleus /ˈnu-kli-əs/	nuclei /ˈnu-kli-ˌaɪ/
stimulus	stimuli
syllabus /ˈsɪl-ə-bəs/	syllabi /ˈsɪl-ə-baɪ/
SINGULAR—ON, —UM	**PLURAL –A**
phenomenon Greek / Latin	phenomena /fɪˈ-nɒ-mə-nə/
criterion Greek / Latin	criteria
bacterium Latin	bacteria
curriculum Latin	curricula
datum Latin	data /de-tə, dæ-tə, dɑ-tə/
medium Latin	media
memorandum Latin	memoranda
SINGULAR—A	Plural –AE
formula /ˈfɔrmyələ/ Latin	formulas / formulae /ˈfɔrm-yə-li/
vertebra Latin	vertebrae
SINGULAR—IX, —EX	Plural –ICES, –ES,
appendix /əˈpɛn-dɪks/ Latin	appendices / ixes /əˈpɛn-də-siz/
index Latin	indices / indexes

OLD ENGLISH WORDS OR GREEK WORDS

In some words, the plurals are derived (come) from older language forms.

SINGULAR	**PLURAL –EN**
*man /mæn/ from Middle English	men /mɛn/
**woman /ˈwʊmən/	women /ˈwɪmɪn/
child /tʃaɪld/	children /ˈtʃɪl-drən/
ox	oxen /ˈɒksən/

SINGULAR –IS from Greek	PLURAL –ES
analysis Greek	analyses
basis Greek	bases
crisis Greek	crises
emphasis Greek	emphases
hypothesis Greek	hypotheses
oasis /oʊˈeɪsɪs/ Greek > Egyptian	oases /oʊˈeɪsiz/
parenthesis /pəˈrɛn-θə-sɪs/ Greek	parentheses /pəˈrɛn-θə--siz/
/ˈθi-sɪs/ thesis Greek	/ˈθi-siz/ theses

PUT ONE'S HEART (AND SOUL) IN /INTO SOMETHING
SET ONE'S HEART (MIND) ON SOMETHING

PUT ONE'S HEART (AND SOUL) IN /INTO SOMETHING
Fig. to put all of one's sincere efforts into something. **Entregarse a fondo / tope**

- She **put her heart and soul into** the singing of the national anthem.
- Come on, choir. You can sing better than that. **Put your heart into it!**
- He wanted the restaurant to be a success and really **put his heart into it.**

SET ONE'S HEART ON SOMEONE OR SOMETHING / ON DOING SOMETHING **Anhelar**
Fig. to be determined to get or do someone or something.

- I am sorry you didn't get to pick the one you wanted. I know you had set your heart on Fred.
- Jane set her heart on going to London.
- She's set her heart on having a pony.

SET ONE'S HEART (MIND) ON SOMETHING
SET/PUT YOUR MIND TO STH **Proponerse algo / hacer algo**
to decide you are going to do something and to put a lot of effort into doing it:

- If you'd just put your mind to it, I'm sure you could do it.
- I can do many things if I set my mind to it.
- She's put her mind to improving her test results.
- I've set my mind on finding a job I really like

REDUCED RELATIVE CLAUSES

Reduced relative clauses are participle clauses which follow a noun. They are like relative clauses, but with the relative pronoun and auxiliary verb (if there is one) left out.

Because they modify nouns, (reduced) relative clauses are ***occasionally referred to as adjective clauses.***

Reduced relative clauses are used most often instead of defining relative clauses. Basic principles for making reduced relative clauses:

1. We can **only** make reduced relative clauses **when the relative pronoun is the subject** of the relative clause.

• Active / That woman ***who is talking*** to my wife is our local Member of Parliament. = That woman ***talking to*** my wife is ...

• That woman who my wife is talking to is our local …...

NOT That woman my wife talking to is ...

•Passive / The man ***who is being taken away*** by the police is our neighbour. = The man ***being taken away*** by the police...

2. Active tenses are replaced with a present participle (-ing form).

•Anyone wanting a ticket for the Final see me. (who wants - present simple)

•The train now ***arriving*** at Platform 3 is the 4.20 to Paddington (***which is now arriving*** - present continuous)

•Teams ***completing*** the first round go into the quarter-finals. (which have completed - present perfect)

•People arriving late were not allowed in until the interval. (***who arrived*** - past simple)

3. Passive tenses are replaced by the past participle (-ed forms and irregulars such as seen , done , taken ,etc) and being + past participle.

The past participle replaces passive simple forms while the being form replaces passive continuous forms

•The student ***chosen*** as winner will get a prize.(***that is chosen*** - present simple)

•The progress ***made*** yesterday will give us a head start. (***which was made*** - past simple)

•None of the models ***inspected*** so far have passed the test. (***that have been inspected***) - present perfect

•The saplings ***being planted*** today will one day grow into huge trees. (***which are being planted*** - present continuous)

REGRET DOING vs REGRET HAVING DONE

Regret + ing refers to present or past:

1) I regret leaving the firm after 20 years.

The regret is in the present , the leaving is in the present.

I regret that today I am leaving the firm after having worked here for 20 years.

Regret + having + past participle refers only to the past:

2) I regret having left would refer to the past only.

The regret is in the present, but the leaving is in the past.

I regret today that I left the firm last year after having worked there for 20 years.

I regret not spending more time on the internet.

SEE SOMEBODY DO SOMETHING vs SEE SOMEBODY DOING SOMETHING

There is a small difference in meaning when a verb of perception is followed by the simple form of the verb, and when it is followed by the -ing form, as in these sentences:

(a) Before we realized it, ***we saw a deer run*** across the road just in front of our car. Thankfully, he got to the other side safely, because we could not have avoided hitting him.

(b) Before we realized it, ***we saw a deer running*** across the road, right in front of us. We put on our brakes quickly and just missed hitting him by an inch, as he leapt quickly out of the path of the car.

Sentence (a) describes a ***completed action***; the observer saw the entire action of the deer's running across the road.
Sentence (b) describes an ***incomplete action***; the deer was in the middle of running across the road when we saw him. This sentence could be paraphrased to read: ".we saw a deer while he was running across the road."

The infinitive, after a verb of perception, ***gives the idea that the action was observed from beginning to end during the time of perception***, as in sentence (a) above and sentence (c) below.

The -ing form of the verb, after a verb of perception, ***gives the idea that the action is in progress but not completed at the time of perception***, as in sentence (b) above and sentence (d) below:

(c) When we were driving upstate, we heard the Eastern Regional Symphony **play** Beethoven's Fifth Symphony. It was excellent from beginning to end.

(d) When we were driving upstate, we heard the Eastern Regional Symphony **playing** Beethoven's Fifth Symphony. It was excellent, but unfortunately we couldn't hear all of it because we got out of range of the radio station.

Here's one more:
(e) Did you see the accused strike the victim?
(f) Did you see the accused striking the victim?

Clearly, sentence (e) refers to one complete action, a strike, while sentence (f) refers to a continuous action of striking, with no indication of beginning or end.

SEEM LIKE vs LOOK LIKE vs FEEL LIKE vs SOUND LIKE

Four of the main ways we express impressions in English are:

TO SEEM LIKE / TO LOOK LIKE / TO FEEL LIKE / TO SOUND LIKE

Use **SEEM LIKE** with: general impressions that are not seen physically, or specifically heard. *Seem* is usually not used with *I.*

- The winter is extremely cold, and the summer is extremely humid. It seems like there are only 10 nice days a year!
- She seems like a nice person, but I do not know her very well.

Use **LOOK LIKE** when: you can physically see something (you see or saw with your own eyes, in images, photos, or video)

- I saw a documentary about Montreal in the summer. It looks like it is really warm in the summer.
- You don't look so good. You look like you're going to faint. Maybe you have heat exhaustion.

Use **FEEL LIKE** when: expressing personal impressions. Often used to reflect.

- It is so hot today! I feel like I am melting!
- I feel like he doesn't think about me.

Use **SOUND LIKE** when: you have heard people talking about something

- My sister lives in Quebec. It sounds like a nice place to live, except for the weather.
- Thanks for telling me about your trip. It sounds like you had a lot of fun!

" It seems like only yesterday I was on my third life. "

SENSITIVE TO vs SENSITIVE ABOUT

1) To be **SENSITIVE TO** something :
to react quickly or strongly to something .
Examples : **ser sensible a algo**

- Coral is very **sensitive to** changes in water temperature.
- Kyle takes his work seriously and is **sensitive to** criticism.
- Some people's teeth are highly **sensitive to** cold.

---

2) To be **SENSITIVE TO** something:
to be aware and able to understand other people and their situations/ feelings.
Examples : **ser consciente de algo / tener presente algo**

- The police should be more **sensitive to** the needs of local communities.
- This situation has made me much more **sensitive to** the needs of the disabled.
- It is important to be **sensitive to** students' problems in today's academic climate.

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1) If you are **SENSITIVE ABOUT** something :
you are easily worried and offended when people talk about it.
Examples : **ser susceptible a/ en cuanto a algo**

- Laura's **sensitive about** her weight.
- I didn't realize she was so **sensitive about** her work.
- He was very **sensitive about** his scar and thought everyone was staring at him.

SET PHRASES vs VARIABLE PHRASES

Set Phrases / Fixed phrases

These phrases consist of more than one word and do not usually change.

In the set phrase "***in other words"***, we cannot say ***with other words*** or ***in other terms*** or ***in other remarks*** or ***in other phrases*** or ***other variations***, even though terms and remarks and perhaps phrases might seem to be able to fit.

- in other words not: in other terms (but terms are words)
- the bottom line not: the lowest line (but the bottom is the lowest)
- it's up to you not: it's above to you (but up and above are close synonyms)

Other set phrases must be worded in a certain order even though rearranging the ordering would not really affect the meaning. However, English conventions have locked these phrases into only one possible ordering:

- up and down not: down and up
- from head to toe not: from toe to head
- back and forth not: forth and back
- to and fro not: fro and to
- ladies and gentlemen not: gentlemen and ladies (though common in many languages)

Variable Phrases

While most of the components in variable phrases will stay the same, there is some variation. The variation often involves personal pronouns or some sort of possessive.

For example, a usual form of the opening line of many business letters, especially from companies writing to inform you of a problem, is ***It has come to our attention that*** . . . .

This line could easily be ***It has come to my attention that*** . . . if it were coming from your boss or coworker.

With other phrases , you can't change the word but it doesn't matter the order In which you write them.

Example :

- I have been studying French ***on and off*** for about eight years.
- I have been studying French ***off and on*** for about eight years.

Some other can be changed fo reasons of formality or politeness.

Example:

- A pain in the **neck** (polite.)
- A pain in the **backside** (a bit less polite, but still polite.)
- A pain in the **ass**. (rude)

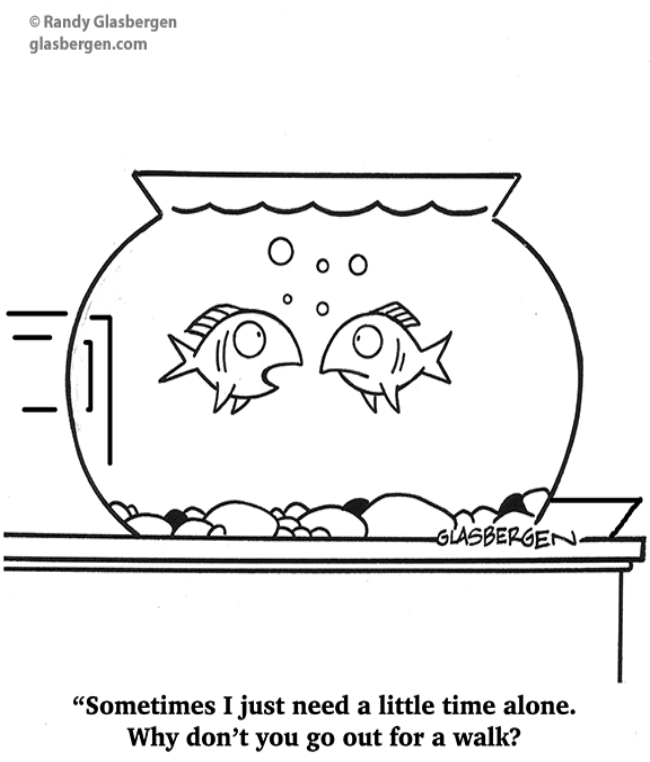
SHORT TIME vs LITTLE TIME

SHORT TIME : Being an amount of time that is less than average or usual.

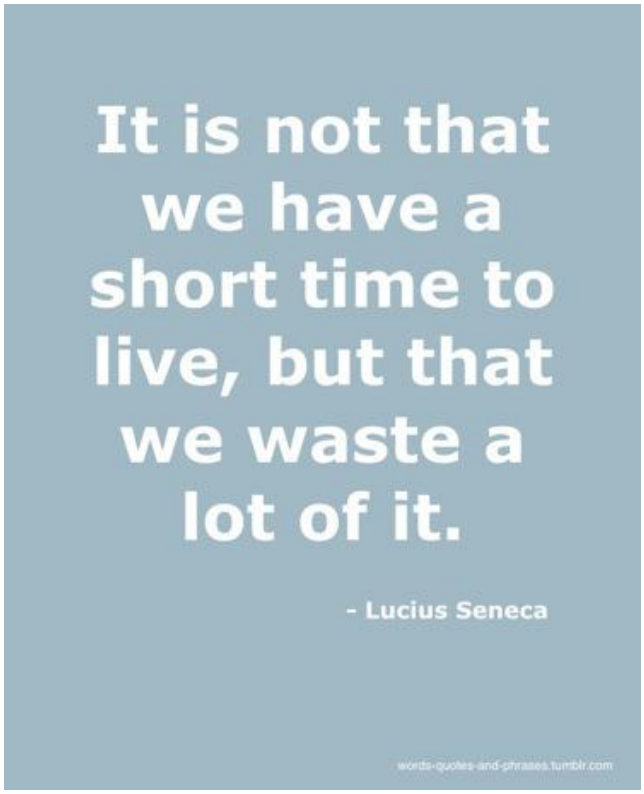
- I was dating him for **a short time.** **PERÍODO BREVE**
- He'd only lived in the apartment for **a short time.**
- Three males were arrested in the Coolock area **a short time** after the incident.

LITTLE TIME: A small amount of time. **(UN) POCO (DE) TIEMPO**

- We've got **a little time** at the weekend.
- Learning a new language and grammar is never easy. It will take **a little time** and effort – but the reward will be worth the work
- I have **little** time for TV .



"Sometimes I just need a little time alone. Why don't you go out for a walk?



SHOULD vs MUST vs OUGHT TO

SHOULD

Should expresses advisability, a suggestion. "It is advisable to..." or "This is a suggestion… " It is weaker than must. Should is followed by a plain form verb.

- People should protect the environment. It makes good sense.
- We should select cars so that they are more fuel-efficient.
- We should use re-usable bags when shopping.

MUST

We use ***must*** to express a stronger point of view. "We need to..." "We have to..." The modal must also expresses opinion, one person's point of view.

- We must protect our environment, or our resources will disappear.
- Engineers must redesign engines so that they are more fuel-efficient.
- Stores must give out recyclable plastic bags.

OUGHT TO

Ought to is used to express that something is the right thing to do, because it's morally correct, polite, or someone's duty:

You **ought** to admit that you made a mistake.
They **ought** not to be allowed to damage property without paying compensation.

SINCE / SINCE THEN / EVER SINCE

SINCE & SINCE THEN

We can use **since** or **since then** as an adverb of time when the time reference is understood from the context:

- His father doesn't talk to him. They had an argument a couple of years ago and they haven't spoken **since**. (since they had the argument)
- They bought the house in 2006 and they've done a lot of work on it **since then**. (since 2006)
- He left yesterday and I haven't seen him **since**. (since he left)

SINCE THEN vs EVER SINCE

SINCE THEN refers to ***a particular point*** in time and
EVER SINCE to a ***period of time.*** Which one we use depends on whether we want to focus attention on the point in time or on the continuing period of time. Compare the following:

- She left home in 1992 and hasn't contacted us **since then.**
  1992 (particular point in time)
- The company started making money in 2002 and has been growing **since then**. ***2002 (particular point in time)***

We use **EVER SINCE** as a stronger form of since or since then and to emphasise that something has been true from the beginning of a specific ***period of time***: **DESDE ENTONCES**

- The company started making money in 2002 and has been growing **ever since.** *(since 2002 until now = period of time)*
- I took my final exams five years ago and have been working as a doctor **ever since.** *(since I took my final exams until now = period of time)*
- When I was young, I had a little collie dog, but one day he bit me really badly. I've hated dogs **ever since.** *(since he bit me until now = period of..)*

continuously since that time: **DESDE QUE**
Formula: Ever since + pronoun + past

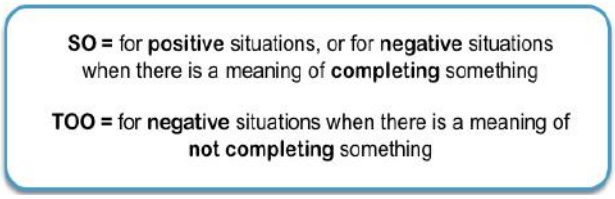
- **Ever since** she met Dave, she's given up on her other friends.
- **Ever since** we met, we have been such great friends.
- Mrs Leech doesn't go for walks on her own **ever since** she fell.
- She had lived alone **ever since** her husband died.

SINCE THAT TIME **DESDE ESA ÉPOCA / DESDE ENTONCES**

- The war started in 1939. Since that time, there have been many advances in science."

SO vs TOO

SO and **TOO** are both adverbs that are used to show degree and are used for emphasis. However, there is an important difference between them. "**SO**" means "very,"(positive) but "**TOO**" means "very" (negative) to the point that there is a problem that may prevent something.



- She finished the test **so quickly**. (positive)
- She finished the test **too quickly**. (negative)

Grammar: **SO / TOO + Adverb/ Adjective**

SO is also used with "that" to add extra information. There is usually a result or consequence."That" is optional and can sometimes be omitted.

- It was **so** dark (that) we could hardly see.

SO - is used to say something either positive or negative.

- I love you so much.
- I am so happy, that I am going to visit New York.
- The food is so hot, that I can't eat it. / It is so cold outside, that I got sick.

TOO – is usually used to state something negative.

- That doll is too expensive. / That house is too big.
- We want to buy a car but it is too expensive.

TOO is also used when we want to discuss what can't be done because of the degree of a quality is , prevents it. This is especially the case when the word 'too' is used in conjunction with '**TO**'.

- My daughter is too young to drive.
- The sumo wrestler is too fat to sit in the chair.
- Frank is too impatient to be a teacher.

TOO may also be used with an adjective that has a negative meaning when a reduction of degree makes the object acceptable. This is especially true when 'too' is used with the word '**FOR**'.

- This test is too hard for me. (Something less hard would be acceptable)
- This car is too expensive for me. (If it were less expensive, it would be acceptable)
- The teacher is too strict. (If the teacher were lss strict, it would be acceptable)

*Sometimes **TOO** can be used in a positive way:*

- You are too good hearted./ Your are too adorable.
- They are too generous.

SO LONG / SO FAR
ONLY SO MUCH/ ONLY SO MANY

SO LONG / SO FAR

used for saying that a number or amount is limited **HASTA CIERTO PUNTO**

- I can only listen to her complaints **for so long** before I start to get angry.
- A marathon runner can only run **for so long** before it needs a water break.
- You can only hold your breath **for so long** before you pass out and your body then takes over and causes you to breathe.
- You can **only** get **so far** before they stop you.
- I don't know about you, but I can only **drive so far** before I need to find a place to stop and pull over, get a cup of coffee, use the facilities, and stretch my legs.

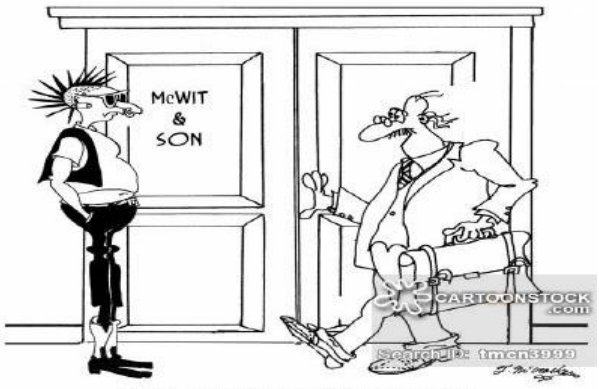
ONLY SO MUCH/MANY:

UN NÚMERO LIMITADO DE …(LLEGAR) HASTA CIERTO PUNTO

- We have **only so much** time before the exams start.
- There are **only so many** police officers available for controlling the crowds.
- Abolishing school fees will **only** do **so much** for equality of opportunity.
- There are **only so many** hours in your working day - you cannot possibly do all the work.
- A muscle can **only** grow **so much** without steroids.

ONLY +VERB + SO + ADJ **HASTA CIERTO PUNTO**

- We need time to get away from our day to day duties. You can **only work so hard** until you hit a point of pure exhaustion!
- You can **only run so fast** before you're out of breath, right?
- In modeling you can **only look so good**, and you can **only be so young.**
- The economy can **only fall so low**, but it can also only grow so much



"SON, I CAN OPEN MIND ONLY SO FAR BEFORE MY BRAIN FALLS OUT."

SOME vs MANY

Use **SOME** in a positive context (with countable and uncountable nouns) when ***you don't want to specify the number or quantity.***
UNOS CUANTOS/AS

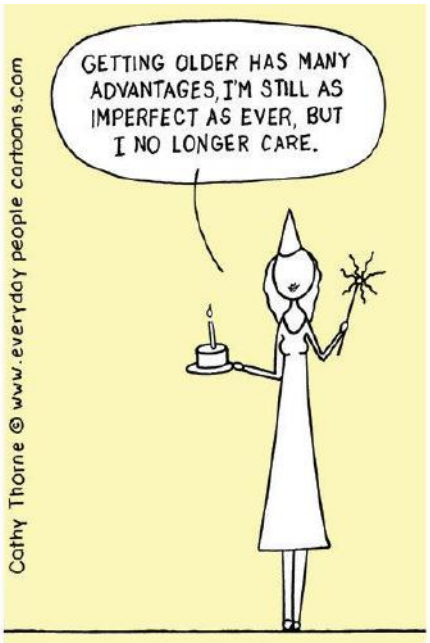
Use **MANY** with countable nouns, when ***you want to refer to a large but indefinite number.*** For example: **MUCHOS/AS**

- I bought **some** apples / I bought **many** apples.
- She made **some** friends in NY / She made **many** friends in NY

Examples for some / many

- The child put **some** sand into the bucket.
- I can lend you **some** money if you need it.
- There aren't **many** pears left. Only two.
- We had **some** cake with the tea.
- Don't eat so **many** sweets or you'll get fat.
- I had **some** beer last night at the bar.
- I don't have **many** friends.
- He brought **some** food with him.

"We've had some reports of fraud in this department, Milby. Know anything about it?"



SOON vs EARLY

These words have similar meanings. In fact, in many non-English languages there are no separate equivalents for two words.

SOON : occurring within a short time, or quickly.

- Get well **soon**. (NOT Get well early.)
- Reply **soon.**
- It's too **soon** to go to work. You've been very ill.

➢ ***Soon*** *can also mean 'a short time after then'.*

Driving in London was hard at the beginning, but **soon** she got used to it.
(NOT Driving in London was hard at the beginning, but ~~early~~…)

EARLY: ocurring at a time before expected ; sooner than usual.

- I usually get up **early** in the morning.
  (NOT I usually get up ~~soon~~ in the morning.)
- We take our holidays **early** in the year.
- We went for a walk **early** in the afternoon.
- The train arrived thirty minutes **early**. (= sooner than usual)
- I had to wait because I arrived **early**. (= sooner than others)

Early *can also be used as an adjective.*

- We expect an **early reply /** I caught **an early train.**
- I think Cathy is in her **early** thirties / I'm going to have an **early** night.

SPLIT INFINITIVES

What are split infinitives?
Split infinitives happen when you put an adverb between to and a verb, for example:

- She used to secretly admire him.
- You have to really watch him.

Are split infinitives grammatically incorrect?
Some people believe that split infinitives are grammatically incorrect and should be avoided at all costs. They would rewrite these sentences as:

- She used secretly to admire him.
- You really have to watch him.

But there's no real justification for their objection, which is based on comparisons with the structure of Latin. People have been splitting infinitives for centuries, especially in spoken English, and avoiding a split infinitive can sound clumsy. It can also change the emphasis of what's being said. The sentence:

You really have to watch him. [i.e. 'It's important that you watch him'] doesn't have quite the same meaning as:
You have to really watch him. [i.e. 'You have to watch him very closely']

To split or not to split?

The 'rule' against splitting infinitives isn't followed as strictly today as it used to be. Nevertheless, some people do object very strongly to them. As a result, ***it's safest to avoid split infinitives in formal writing,*** unless the alternative wording seems very clumsy or would alter the meaning of your sentence..

SUBSTITUTE FOR vs REPLACE WITH

In the phrase "replace X with Y", to use Y in place of X
Examples :

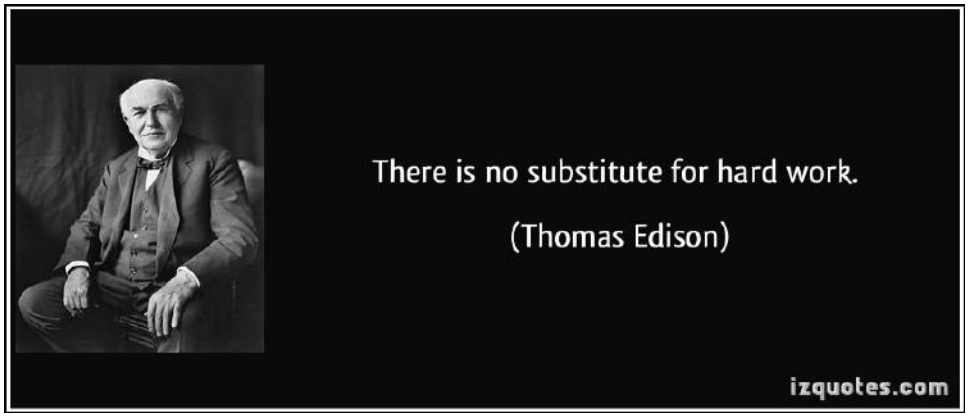
- I **replaced** my car **with** a newer model. **Reemplazar**
  (A new car takes the place of my old one)
- The batteries were dead so I **replaced** them **with** new ones.
  (New batteries take the place of the old ones)
- The factory **replaced** most of its workers **with** robots.
  (Robots take the place of the workers)

In the phrase "substitute X for Y", to use X in place of Y.
Examples :

- I had to **substitute** new parts **for** the old ones. **sustituir**
  (New parts take the place of the old ones)
- You can **substitute** oil **for** butter in this recipe.
  (Oil takes the place of butter)
- Dayton was **substituted for** Williams in the second half of the match.
  (Dayton took the place of William in the match)
- Can you **substitute for me** (on) Friday night?
  (Can you take my place?)

In the phrase "***substitute X with/by Y***", to use Y in place of X.
Examples :

- I had to **substitute** old parts **with** the new ones. (the new ones were used)
- Hydrogen was **substituted by** oxygen. (oxygen was used)
- Cstoms officers **substituted** the drugs **with** another substance.
- (another susbstance was used)



SURE IF vs SURE THAT

SURE IF is usually used when we are addressing a question of whether someone will or will not do something:

- Is Bob going to be there?
- We're not **sure if** he's coming; he may have to be in New York next week.

SURE THAT is more likely if we are correcting an assertion or assumption that someone will do something:

- I can give Bob the news at the party tonight.
- Well, we're not **sure that** he's coming; he left work early because he felt sick.

Note that the sentence is perfectly grammatical with **no** conjunction, which allows it to cover both uses:

- We're not **sure** he's coming to the party.

As a standalone statement, the first will be more natural - not that the second is wrong, just this phrasing of "binary outcome" is more common.

We are not **sure if** he is coming to the party or not.

The other one would be found with more alternatives:

- We are not **sure that** he is coming to the party, but he will likely meet Joan that evening anyway, and possibly he may help organizing the party too, or stay the first hour of it or so.

You'll use "**IF**" for the simple alternative "...**or not**".
You'll use "**THAT**" for a selection: the party being one of **multiple options.**

THAT vs WHICH

In many cases both words are equally correct.
√ She held out the hand **which was hurt**.
√ She held out the hand **that was hurt**.
In these sentences, *that* and *which* are introducing what's known as an essential clause.

Essential clauses are necessary to identify the person or thing that is being described. *They are essential to understanding the sentence.* They restrict the meaning to that specific person/thing.

- The box that is in the foreground of the picture is a sample box. (There are other boxes in the picture) Essential clause

Essential clauses can be introduced by *that, which , whose, who,* or *whom.*

Non-essential clauses are not essential to the understanding of the sentence since *they merely supply some additional information.* They can be omitted from the sentence without changing the basic meaning.

- The box ,which is in the foreground of the picture , is a sample box. (There is only one box in the picture.) Non-essential clause

Non-essential clauses can be introduced by *which, whose,* w*ho,* or *whom,* but you should **never use THAT to introduce them .**

A non-essential clause is **preceded by a comma** (so as to set off the extra information), whereas no comma should precede a restrictive clause (indicating that the information is essential, not extra):

- I bought a new dress, **which** I will be wearing to Jo's party. [non-essential]
- I was wearing the dress **that** I bought to wear to Jo's party. [essential]

If that has already appeared in a sentence, writers sometimes use which to introduce the next clause, whether it is essential or nonessential. This is done to avoid awkward formations.
Example:
That **which** doesn't kill you makes you stronger.
Instead of "**That that** doesn't kill you makes you stronger"

THE FORMER …THE LATTER

Have you ever got confused over the differences between “latter” and “former”?

It’s simple. Former means “the first of two” and latter means “the second of two.” Notice that you should use these terms when speaking of only two previously mentioned items.

If the options include three or more, former and latter do not apply.

When more than two have been mentioned, use **LAST**. For example:

- He preferred oranges to apples, because **the latter** were not as juicy.
- He saw Leathal Weapon 1, 2, and 3 and liked **the last** one most.

Here’s an example of how people use the two words:

- “I enjoy reading Entrepreneur and Inc, but prefer the latter over the former.”

“Former” refers to the first of TWO persons or things.

Example: “This item is available in wood and in metal, but I prefer the former.”(Wood: the first of two things)

“Latter” refers to the second of TWO persons or things.

Example: “Red and blue are popular colors, but the latter is more popular.” (Blue: the second of two persons)

Here’s a trick to remember the differences: the word “former” means “first” and both begin with the letter “f.” Once you know that former is first, the latter part is easy.

“Latter” and “last” both begin with an “l.”

Former: first / Latter: last

THINK OF SOMETHING vs THINK SOMETHING UP

There really isn't any difference and people use them interchangeably.
The only difference I could suggest is a connotation where thinking of an idea to fix the problem is thinking of a solution from his memory, thinking up a solution is inventing one. Very slight difference and I only think of the difference because you ask for one.

Think something up : to produce a new idea or plan. To invent something.

- I don't want to go tonight but I can't think up a good excuse.
- Don't worry. I'll find a way to do it. I can think something up in time to get it done. John thought up a way to solve our problem.

Think of something : to produce a new idea or plan. To bring some thought to mind by imagination or invention

- We'll have to think of a pretty good excuse for being late.
- No one thought of that idea before I did.
- "I don't think she's looking well, do you?" "She's probably with child again." "Oh. I hadn't thought of that.

TO DO vs FOR DOING

TO DO : The meaning is about the INTENDED PURPOSE or SUGGESTED PURPOSE of an item (or person):
FOR DOING : The meaning of "as a consequence for" as a result of.
Note the following examples :

- "She has to go home to do the housework".
- "She has to go home for doing the housework".

These really do not have the same meaning. An English speaker would use the first construction only for this sentence. You will not hear an English speaker say the second. Here is why:
The first sentence means that "She has to go home IN ORDER TO DO the housework;" or, "She has to go home BECAUSE SHE NEEDS TO DO the housework."
The second sentence means that "She has to go home AS A CONSEQUENCE FOR DOING the housework;" or, "She DID THE HOUSEWORK, AND SO she had to go home." ***And this doesn't make sense.***

Look at it in another set of examples. Any verb may be substituted for "do":
"to X" (to sleep, to love, to give, etc.)
"for X-ing" (for sleeping, for loving, for giving, etc.)

He was sent home early from school **TO SLEEP.**
He was sent home early from school **FOR SLEEPING**.

The first means the teacher sent the student home IN ORDER TO sleep. He looked tired, and the teachers were merciful. They suggested that he go home FOR THE PURPOSE OF sleep.
In the second, the teacher sent the student home BECAUSE HE SLEPT in class. Going home was a CONSEQUENCE for sleeping when he should have stayed awake.
The only time these are interchangeable is when one of the following is true:
1) The meaning of "in order to" and "as a consequence for" will mean the same thing:
"He was paid $1000 **TO BUILD** the wall." (he paid before the word was done)
"He was paid $1000 **FOR BUILDING** the wall." (he paid after the work was done)
2) The meaning is about the INTENDED PURPOSE or SUGGESTED PURPOSE of an item (or person):
Ex. A: "A hammer can be used TO REMOVE nails."
Ex. B: "A hammer can be used FOR REMOVING nails."
Here, the meanings are quite the same.

TRY AND vs TRY TO

- Two Judges Try and Fail to Shut Down Union Rights
- It's better to try and regret, than not to try and regret.

In the first example, changing the "try and" to "try to" would leave the reader wondering why the judges tried to fail in their purpose: "Two judges try to fail to shut down union rights."

Changing "try and" to "try to" in the second example would result in the sentence, "It's better to try to regret, than not to try to regret." The original sentence, however, means something very different: "It's better to try [to do something] and regret [having tried], than not to try [doing something] and [then] regret [not having tried]."

The note at Oxford Dictionaries includes an explanation as to why "try and" remains questionable in formal usage despite its ubiquity in conversation:
Though "try to do" can always be substituted for "try and do," the latter has a shade of meaning that justifies its existence; in exhortations it implies encouragement–the effort will succeed–; in promises it implies assurance–the effort shall succeed. It is an idiom that should be not discountenanced, but used when it comes natural.

The construction **try and** is grammatically odd…in that it cannot be inflected for tense (e.g. sentences like *she tried and fix it or they are trying and renew their visa* are not acceptable, while their equivalents *she tried to fix it or they are trying to renew their visa* undoubtedly are). For this reason **try and** is best regarded as a fixed idiom used only in its infinitive and imperative form.

UNTIL THEN vs BY THEN
UNTIL THAT TIME vs BY THAT TIME

UNTIL THEN : gives a sense of duration over time; i.e. something is happening up until a point. **HASTA ENTONCES**

- I'm going to buy a car next week. **Until then** I'll have to walk to work.
  (I am going to walk to work from now until I buy a car.)
- I ate my first olive when I was 16. Up **until then** I was too scared to try one. (From being born up to the age of 16, I was too scared to try an olive.)

BY THEN : gives a sense of something happening at a single point in time.
In the examples above **PARA ENTONCES**

- I'm going to buy a car next week. **By then** I'll be tired from having had to walk to work every day.
  (At the point in time I buy my car I will be tired.)
- I ate my first olive when I was 16. **By then** I felt I was old enough to try one. (At the time I became 16, I was ready to try an olive.)

UNTIL THAT TIME : As until then , ***until that time*** gives a sense of duration over time; i.e. something is happening up until a point.
HASTA ESE MOMENTO

- **Until that time**, everyone was too tired to do anything.
  (Before that time everyone was too tired , but that time arrived and something happened that changed that. They were not tired anymore)

BY THAT TIME : As by then , ***by that time*** gives a sense of something happening before a single point in time.
In the examples above **PARA ENTONCES / LLEGADO ESE MOMENTO**

- **By that time**, everyone was too tired to do anything.
  (At that point in time everyone was too tired)

USED TO DO vs BE USED TO DOING

USED TO refers to actions and situations in the past which no longer happen or are no longer true. It always refers to the past:

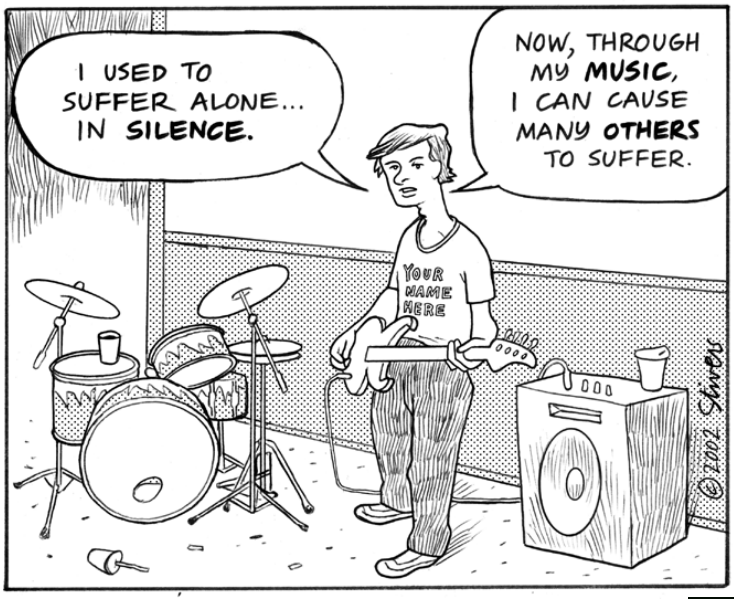
- She used to sing in a choir, but she gave it up.
  (She sang, but she doesn't sing any more)

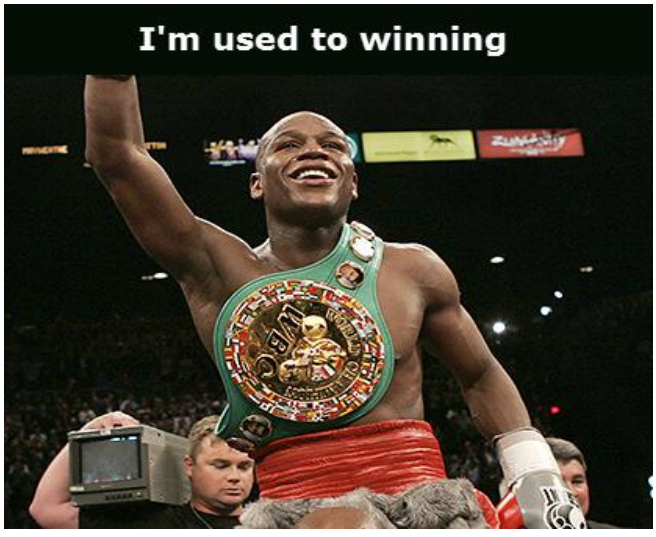
BE USED TO means 'be accustomed to' or 'be familiar with'. It can refer to the past, present or future. We follow be used to with a noun phrase, a pronoun or the -ing form of a verb:

- I work in a hospital, so I'm used to long hours.
  (I am accustomed to/familiar with long hours.)
- She lives in a very small village and hates traffic. She's not used to it.
- He was a salesman, so he was used to travelling up and down the country. (He was accustomed to/was familiar with travelling.)

We can also say get used to or (more formally) become used to:

- University is very different from school, but don't worry. You'll soon get used to it. (or, more formally, You'll soon become used to it.)





USUAL vs USUALLY

USUAL is an adjective that means 'regular/typical'. Use it before nouns:

- See you at the usual time.
- They asked the usual questions.
- It's just the usual crowd that gathers before football matches.

* **'AS USUAL'** is an idiom, it means 'the way it normally happens':

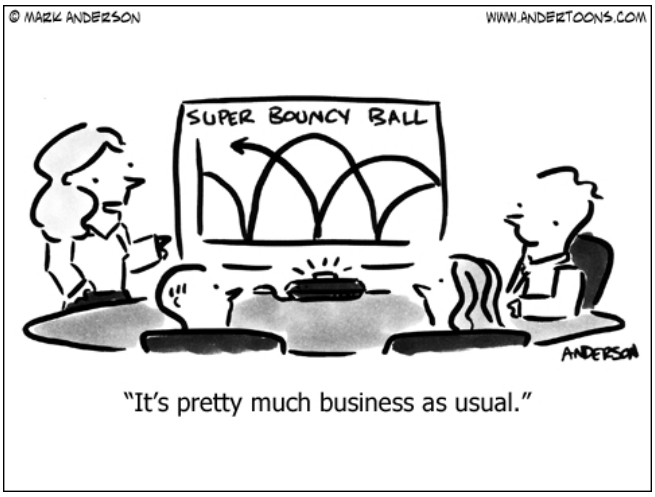
- As usual , he was late.
- She didn't ask me, as usual.

USUALLY is an adverb that means 'regularly/typically/habitually/normally'. Use it between SUBJECT and VERB:

- I usually go to work by car.
- My kids usually call me when they get home from school.
- Do you usually do housework on Sundays?

TYPICAL MISTAKE : ~~AS USUALLY~~ = WRONG

- He is in the bar , as usual. Not – He is in the bar, ~~as usually~~



WHETHER vs IF

Both whether and if are used to introduce a yes/no question.
Generally, whether is considered more formal than if.

❖ **They can often we used interchangeably:**

Condition/ Alternative –polar (yes or no) /Alternative (X or Y).

- I don't know **if** he is coming / I don't know **whether** he is coming.

They both mean that he may or may not come. You just don't know.

❖ **But sometimes they are not interchangeable :**

- John didn't know **whether** Jim would arrive on Friday **or** Saturday.
- John didn't know **if** Jim would arrive on Friday or Saturday.

When I use **WHETHER** above, you know that there are two possibilities: Jim will arrive on Friday or on Saturday.
When I use **IF**, in addition to arriving on Friday or Saturday, there is the possibility that Jim may not arrive at all.

The formal rule is to *use **IF** when you have a conditional sentence* and ***WHETHER** when you two or more alternatives are possible.*

IF with conditional sentences:

You English will improve if you study hard.
You have to start now if you want to see results soon.

WHETHER is used to introduce the first of two or more alternatives, and usually with the correlative or.

It matters little **whether we go or** stay.
The airline evaluates dozens of factors when deciding **whether** to begin, end **or** alter service to a destination.

We use WHETHER : Before "to infinitives" :

I don't know whether to buy one or two. RIGHT 
~~I don't know if to buy one or two.~~ WRONG 

We use WHETHER : After prepositions :

We were talking about whether we are exclusive. RIGHT 
~~We were talking about if we are exclusive~~. WRONG 

WHETHER OR NOT is used with the meaning of regardless of :

Call Susan **whether or not** you are going to arrive on Friday.
Call Susan regardless of whether you are going to arrive on Friday.

WHICH vs WHOSE

WHOSE **CUYO/A**

Whose is the possessive form of who and which. It means belonging to whom. Whose usually sits before a noun.

- Conscience is a mother-in-law **whose** visit never ends. (relative pronoun)
- **Whose** glasses are these? (interrogative pronoun)
- John knows the boy **whose** toy was stolen. (relative pronoun)
- That's the woman **whose** husband works in my company.

WHICH **QUE/EL CUAL/LA CUAL**

Pronoun used as the subject or object of a verb ***to show what thing or things you are referring to,*** or to add information about the thing just mentioned. It is usually used for things, not people:

Example:

- He went back to the house.
  (Which house?) The house **which** stood on the corner.
  = He went back to the house **which** stood on the corner.
- He couldn't remember **which** film he had seen.
- There is a lot of information, most of **which** is useless

WHOSE CAN BE USED WITH INANIMATE OBJECTS

Why we can't use "Which" to replace "Whose"

- I placed the iPhone **whose** screen was broken in the bin. CORRECT
- I placed the iPhone ~~which~~ screen was broken in the bin. INCORRECT
- I placed the iPhone, the screen **of which** was broken, in the bin. CORRECT

Why? Because "which" isn't necessarily a possessive noun.

"Whose" defines some sort of ownership, but "which" by itself doesn't. Not until "which" adds prepositions does it become a possessive (e.g. of which, on which). On its own, "which" is more of a questioning word that needs additional specification to determine exactly what you're talking about.

WHICHEVER vs WHATEVER

WHICHEVER refers to **things that have already been mentioned**.
WHATEVER refers to **an unlimited number of things**.

Only context (what has gone before) can determine the choice between them.

Let's assume that you are visiting me at my home, and so are the people who live in the house next to mine. I have introduced you to them.

A little later, I take you aside and say: "**WHATEVER** impression of these people you have, please be very pleasant to them, because they are my neighbors, and we have to get along.
" I have no idea what you may think of them; it could be anything at all. I have offered no possibilities.

Or, I can say: "Maybe you think these people are nice; maybe you think they are awful.
WHICHEVER impression of these people you have, . . . " I have mentioned specific possibilities.

More examples :

- **Whatever** you do, pay attention to the road when you are driving.
  (You can do anything as long as you pay attention to the road)

- They say you can buy **whatever** you desire in Harrods, as long as you have the money.
  (You can buy anything in Harrods, if you have enough money)

- The student was so intelligent that **whatever** we taught, she understood.
  (She understood everything that she was taught)

- The criminal said he would do **whatever** he could in order to get out of jail.
  (He would do everything or anything he could to get out of jail)

- Either Friday or Saturday – choose **whichever** day is best for you.
  (I have mentioned two specific options.)

WHO vs THAT

WHO should be used only when referring to people.
THAT can be used for referring to people and object/subjects.

Correct: The house **that** became known for its exquisite beauty
Incorrect: The house ~~who~~ became known for its exquisite beauty

An adjective clause can identify a noun. The clause comes right after the noun.
…
TO IDENTIFY A PERSON, AN ADJECTIVE CLAUSE CAN BEGIN WITH WHO(M), THAT,
…
The man who(m) … / The people who(m) …
The man that …. / The people that …

In the singular person, it is preferable to use "who". For example:
Peter, **who** was a fine marksman, shot the thief with expert accuracy.
Because you wouldn't say:
Peter, ~~that~~ was a fine marksman, shot the thief with expert accuracy.

However, you can use "that" on occasion for the singular person.

We might do this when referring to someone we don't know personally or have a name for. For example:

- The guy **that** came to fix my water pipes last year said the pipes were very worn.

Using "Who" and "That" In The Plural
In the plural, we can use "that" or "Who".

- Men that act in this way are quite despicable.
- Men who act in this way are quite despicable.

As a general rule of thumb use "who" in the singular person, and use "who" and "that" where appropriate in the plural person.
But never use "who" to indicate an object/subject, instead use "that" for that purpose.

WILL vs SHALL

An old distinction, more common in British than in American English, still comes up from time to time.

WILL is usually the simple future indicative:

- "This *will* happen," / "You *will* be surprised."

SHALL is related to the subjunctive, and means "Let it be so," which you might see in legal or business writing:

- "The employee *shall* produce all required documentation,"
- "A committee *shall* be appointed," and so forth.

(They're not just predicting that the employee's going to do it or the committee is going to form; they're declaring that they *must*, or at least *should*, happen.)

But this rule works only for the second person (*you*) and the third person (*he*, *she*, *it*, *they*).

The first person — *I* and *we* — reverses the rule, so "I *shall* do it" means I'm going to get around to it, while "I *will* do it" shows a mustering of resolve (let it be so).

A favorite example to clarify the two:

- "I *shall* drown, no one *will* save me!" is a cry of despair, simply predicting imminent death — both are simple futures.
- "I *will* drown, no one *shall* save me!" is a suicide vow, a declaration that no one had better try to stop me.

I know, it's confusing, but it's nothing to worry about. Just don't throw *shall* around unless you know what you're doing. [Revised 3 November 2000.]

"Thank you, I shall always be in your debt."

"Frankly, I can't really see the future, but I will sniff your hand."

WOULD vs USED TO

We can use used to or would to talk about things that happened in the past but don't happen anymore . When we use them both together, used to most commonly comes first, as it sets the scene for the actions being reported:

- When we were kids, we used to invent amazing games. We would imagine we were the government and we would make crazy laws that everyone had to obey.

USED TO

- We used to live in New York when I was a kid.
- There didn't use to be a petrol station there. When was it built?

We can use 'used to' to talk about PAST STATES.

- I used to go swimming every Thursday when I was at school.
- I used to smoke but I gave up a few years ago.

… or we can use 'used to' to talk about **REPEATED PAST ACTIONS**

Remember that '**USED TO'** is only for **past states/actions** that don't happen now – we can't use it for things that still happen now. Also, '**used to + infinitive**' should not be confused with '**be/get used to + 'ing' form**'.

WOULD

- *Every Saturday I would go on a long bike ride.*
- *My teachers would always say "Sit down and shut up!"*

We can use '**would**' to talk ONLY about :
REPEATED PAST ACTIONS. ***NEVER ABOUT PAST STATES***

Often either '**would**' or '**used to**' is possible. Both of these sentences are possible.

- *Every Saturday, I would go on a long bike ride.*
- *Every Saturday I used to go on a long bike ride.*

However, only '**used to**' is possible when we talk about past states.

- *We used to live in New York when I was a kid.*
- ~~*We would live in New York when I was a kid.*~~

IN A NUTSHELL:

USED TO + REPEATED PAST ACTION / PAST STATES
WOULD + REPEATED PAST ACTION

ACTIONS : GO, WRITE, SAY, MAKE, WAKE , RUN, ETC
STATES : LIVE, HAVE, LIKE , BELIEVE, KNOW, PREFER, ETC

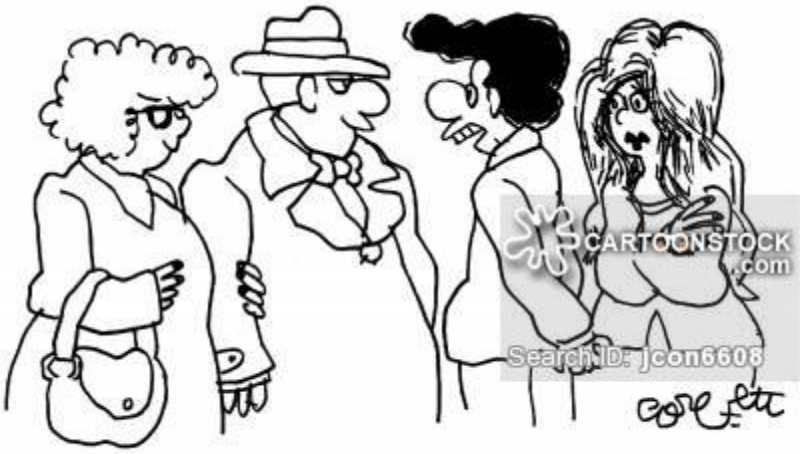
YOU vs YOUR with gerunds

Let’s first look at the differences between the following sentences:

- We appreciate **you** contacting the office.
- We appreciate **your** contacting the office.

Both are correct, but they have slightly different meanings. If you appreciate that someone contacted the office (the act of contacting), use "your." It's roughly equivalent to "We appreciate that you contacted the office." If you appreciate the person who contacted the office, use "you."

Typically, you want the possessive pronoun: We appreciate your contacting the office



"I appreciate your being a pal to me, Dad,
but double-dating is just going too far."

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