

# Entry 3

## Simple, compound, and complex sentences

### Variations in word order

STRUCTURE = To the east is the upland area.

The parts of a sentence are described as ‘subject’, ‘verb’, ‘object’, ‘complement’, and ‘adverbial’. There are five main structures which we use to make a simple statement: **subject + verb**, **subject + verb + object**, **subject + verb + complement**, **subject + verb + adverbial**, and **subject + verb + object + object**.

Look at this:

SUBJECT +	VERB +	ADVERBIAL
<i>The upland area</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>to the east.</i>
<i>The library</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>at the top of the building.</i>

And now look at this:

ADVERBIAL +	VERB +	SUBJECT
<i>To the east</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>the upland area.</i>
<i>At the top of the building</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>the library.</i>

We sometimes bring an adverbial phrase of place or direction to the beginning of a sentence. (This process is called ‘inversion’.) We do this to link a sentence more closely to the preceding sentence or to create emphasis or contrast.

*The coast lies to the west. **To the east** is the upland area.*

***Behind the chair** stood an old woman. **Into the room** walked two men wearing sunglasses.*

**TIP:** Inversion is only used with intransitive verbs (that is, verbs that do not have an object):  
*On the grass **sat** an enormous frog.*  
*In front of them **stood** a great castle.*

- ▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 2
- ▶ See OPGAdvanced p. 216 • See PEU p. 281

### Word order in complex sentences

STRUCTURE = Divali is a Hindu festival which takes place in autumn.

This sentence is complex in structure because it consists of **subject + verb + complement + relative clause**.

A relative clause (typically introduced by the relative pronouns *who*, *whom*, *which*, and *that*) gives additional information about the noun or noun phrase preceding it.

*The police have found the boy.*

*The police have found the boy **who disappeared last week**.*

**That**, **who**, or **which** can be the subject of the relative clause, like this:

	SUBJECT	
	<i>The girl</i>	<i>won.</i>
<i>I talked to the girl</i>	<i>who</i>	<i>won.</i>
	<i>The dog</i>	<i>attacked me.</i>
<i>That is the dog</i>	<i>that</i>	<i>attacked me.</i>

Or the object of the relative clause, like this:

	OBJECT	
<i>Ken sent</i>	<i>the card.</i>	
<i>The card</i>	<i>which</i>	<i>Ken sent was nice.</i>
<i>I saw</i>	<i>the man.</i>	
<i>The man</i>	<i>who</i>	<i>I saw was very rude.</i>

**TIP:** In each of these structures, there is no pronoun to refer back to the noun in the main clause:

(NOT ~~*That is the dog that it attacked me.*~~)  
(NOT ~~*The man who I saw him was very rude.*~~)

**TIP:** We can leave out the relative pronoun when it is the object of the relative clause:

*That's an old castle **that we visited**.*  
*That's an old castle **we visited**.*

- ▶ See OPGBasic Units 107–9
- ▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 137–9
- See PEU Entry 494

## There has/have been

STRUCTURES = There has been a revolution in the classroom. There have been riots in the streets.

We saw at Entry levels 1 and 2 that we use **There is/are** to talk about the existence of something.

See Entry 1, Simple sentences ‘*There is/are + noun (+ prepositional phrase)*’ and Entry 2, Simple sentences, ‘*There was/were/is going to be*’.

**There** can be used in this way with all tenses of *be*. The structure shown here uses the past perfect of *be*.

*There has been an increase in violent crime.*

Note that we use **there** in this way particularly with subjects that have indefinite articles, no article, or indefinite determiners like **some**, **any**, and **no**:

*There have been some good films at the cinema this month.*

*There has been no fresh bread in the shop today.*

*There has never been anyone like you.*

*There have been outbreaks of violence in the town.*

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- See PEU Entry 587
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## There will be/There was going to be

STRUCTURES = There will be two new students in the class next week. There was going to be a cinema here, but instead they built a supermarket.

In these structures, **there** is used with **will be** to express the future, and with **was going to be** to express the past.

We use **will** as a neutral form with which to talk about the future. We prefer **going to** to talk about future events that have some present reality, as plans or predictions. We can use **There was going to be** to talk about a past prediction or plan:

*There was going to be a swimming pool here.*

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- ▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 24, 99
  - See PEU Entries 213, 216, 218, 587
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## Complex sentences with one subordinate clause:

A clause is a group of words including a subject and a verb. A single clause can form a simple sentence, or can be combined with another clause to form a complex sentence. In this case the two clauses are linked by a conjunction.

*And*, *but*, and *or* are conjunctions linking clauses that are grammatically independent of each other (see Entry 2, ‘Clauses joined with conjunctions *and/but/or*’). Other conjunctions, such as *because*, *if*, and *although*, are called ‘subordinating conjunctions’. The subordinating conjunction and the clause that follows it form a ‘subordinate clause’. The other clause in the sentence is called the ‘main clause’.

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- ▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 150-2
  - See PEU Entry 510
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### (subordinate clause) of time

STRUCTURE = When the red light goes out, you press the button.

In this structure, **when** is a subordinating conjunction in a subordinate clause of time. Other conjunctions of time include *before*, *after*, *while*, and *since*. Here are some examples:

*I’ll phone you **when** I get to the station.*

***While** I was having a shower I slipped on the floor.*

*We must finish painting this wall **before** we go out.*

These clauses with **when**, **while**, etc. are adverbial in function. They can also be called ‘adverbial clauses of time’ or ‘time clauses’.

### (subordinate clause) of reason

STRUCTURE = I didn’t go to the doctor’s yesterday because I was too ill.

In this structure, the conjunction **because** expresses reason; the clause ‘because I was too ill’ is a ‘subordinate clause of reason’, or ‘reason clause’.

We can also use **as** and **since** in reason clauses.

***As** it was late, we decided to stop working.*

***Since** it’s raining, we’ll eat indoors.*

## (subordinate clause) of result

STRUCTURE = They didn't have an appointment this week so I had to make one for next week.

Here, **so** expresses result; the clause is a subordinate clause of result, or result clause.

Sometimes we use **so that** in a result clause:

*A tree had fallen during the storm, **so that** the road was blocked.*

Note that **so that** used in a result clause does not mean the same as **so that** ('in order that'), which is used in a purpose clause.

## (subordinate clause) of condition

STRUCTURE = If it rains, I'll stay at home.

The conjunction **if** expresses condition:

*If you don't work hard, you won't pass the exam.  
You won't hear the phone **if** you have the radio on.*

## (subordinate clause) of concession

STRUCTURE = Although she can't swim, she loves the seaside.

**Although** expresses concession. (When we are expressing 'concession', we are granting that something is true, or admitting to something.) We use it at the beginning of a clause containing information that contrasts or conflicts with the main clause. Other conjunctions used in this way include *though*, *even though*, and *whereas*.

***Though** I liked the sweater, I decided not to buy it.  
Tim was tired, **even though** he'd slept well.  
Yesterday it was very cold, **whereas** today it is quite warm.*

**TIP:** Subordinate clauses can go either first or last in a sentence, depending on what is to be emphasized. The most important information usually goes last.

*While I was having a shower, I slipped on the floor.* (emphasizes 'I slipped on the floor')  
*I slipped on the floor while I was having a shower.* (emphasizes 'while I was having a shower')

However, result clauses beginning with **so** can only go after the main clause.

*She has still not arrived, so I'll phone to see if she's OK.*

**TIP:** Words for repeated actions can usually be left out in the second of two independent, or coordinating, clauses, but not in a subordinate clause:

*She was depressed, and (she) didn't know what to do.*

*She was depressed because she didn't know what to do.* (NOT ~~*She was depressed because she didn't know what to do.*~~)

► See OPG Intermediate Units 150–2

● See PEU Entry 510

## Defining relative clauses using *who*, *which*, *that*

STRUCTURE = The car that I bought is quite old.

Relative clauses beginning with the relative pronouns **who**, **which**, and **that** can be used to identify which person or thing we are talking about in the preceding noun or noun phrase.

**Who** refers to people, **that** and **which** refer to things.

*The girl **who** I sat next to on the coach was reading an interesting magazine.*

*The children saw the actual spacecraft **that** landed on the moon.*

*There are several restaurants **which** serve Sunday lunches.*

Sometimes, less commonly, **that** may refer to a person.

*Jake is the man **that** plays the guitar.*

We have seen that a relative pronoun can be either the subject or the object of the relative clause (see 'Word order in complex sentences', p. 24).

Now compare these two sentences:

*The first caller **who can give the correct answer** will win the prize.*

*The first caller, **who was from the London area**, won the prize.*

The clause in the first sentence identifies who we are talking about; it is essential to the meaning of the sentence. The clause in the second sentence gives additional, non-essential information.

Relative clauses of the first type are called 'defining' or 'restrictive' or 'identifying' relative clauses; those

of the second type are called ‘non-defining’, ‘non-restrictive’, or ‘non-identifying’ relative clauses.

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- ▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 137–41
  - See PEU Entry 495
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## A range of verbs + *-ing* form

STRUCTURE = I enjoy swimming.

We can use a range of common verbs with an *-ing* form. These verbs include *enjoy, finish, suggest, consider, delay, deny, imagine, resist, risk*. Some phrasal verbs, such as *give up, keep on*, can also be used with the *-ing* form.

*I enjoy travelling. He's finished mending the car. The doctor suggested taking a long holiday. She's given up smoking.*

These verbs do not normally take an infinitive: (NOT *I enjoy to travel.*) (NOT *He's finished to mend the car.*)

However, after some verbs, either an *-ing* form or an infinitive can be used. These include *advise, allow, begin, continue, forget, love, prefer, remember, see, stop, start, try*.

*He quickly began to make friends. He quickly began making friends.*

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- ▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 61–4
  - See PEU Entries 296, 299
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## Verbs + infinitive, with and without *to*

STRUCTURES = I want to know more. We saw the police arrive.

When a verb is followed by an infinitive, the infinitive is usually used with *to*:

*I want to know more. I'm hungry. I need to eat something. I want to go to the market.*

Many verbs can be followed by **object + infinitive with *to***:

*I want you to be happy. Will you ask her to go out with you?*

Other verbs are followed by **object + infinitive without *to***. These include *let, make, see, hear, feel, watch*, and *notice*:

*We saw the police arrive. She lets her children stay up very late. I didn't hear you come in.*

After the modal verbs *will, shall, would, should, can, could, may, might, and must*, we use the infinitive without *to*:

*I must go now.* (NOT *I must to go now.*)

*I can see you!*

See also Entry 2, Simple and compound sentences, ‘Verb + infinitive with and without *to*’, p.13.

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- See PEU Entries 281–2
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## Infinitive to express purpose

STRUCTURE = He went to France to learn French.

We can use ***to* + infinitive** to express purpose.

*My mother sat down to rest.* (NOT *My mother sat down for resting.*)

*He went to the supermarket to buy some fruit.*

*John phoned Nadeem to tell him about the gig.*

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- ▶ See OPGBasic Unit 95
  - ▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 151
  - See PEU Entry 289
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## Simple reported statements

STRUCTURE = She says she wants to study English.

When we tell someone else what someone has said or is thinking, we use reported speech (sometimes called ‘indirect speech’). In the structure shown, there is no change in time and both verbs are in the present tense. We are likely to use the present tense when talking about someone’s thoughts or beliefs:

*Phil says he hates his new job. Jo believes the industry is in decline.*

However, when there is a change in the time frame, and we are reporting what someone said in the past, we change the tense of the verb, for example from present simple to past simple and from present continuous to past continuous.

*'I live in a small flat', she said. → She said she lived in a small flat.*

Note that it is not necessary to use **that** in reported speech:

She says (that) she knows the answer.

**TIP:** Compare **say** and **tell** in these examples:

She **says** she lives in a small flat.

She **tells me** she lives in a small flat.

We **say something**. We do not **say someone something**:

She **says** she is going to be late. (NOT ~~She says me she is going to be late.~~)

We **tell someone something**. We do not **tell something**:

He **tells me** he will pay me immediately. (NOT ~~He tells he will pay me immediately.~~)

► See OPGBasic Unit 100 ■ See TGGB pp. 246–7

## A wide range of *wh*- questions

STRUCTURES = Which colour do you prefer? How's Maria?

Most *wh*- questions begin with a question word, such as *who*, *what*, *which*, *whose*, *where*, *when*, *why*, and *how*, followed by an auxiliary verb or *do* and the subject.

*Where have you put the map? When can we travel safely? How do you open this gate?*

**Who** and **what** can be the subject of a question and the object of a question:

*Who saw you?* (subject: Someone saw you.)

*Who did you see?* (object: You saw someone.)

*What will happen next?* (subject: Something will happen.)

*What will they do next?* (object: They will do something.)

**Which**, **whose**, **how many**, and **how much** can also be either the subject or the object:

*Which program will work best?* (subject)

*Which program will you use?* (object)

**Who** and **what** can also be the object of a preposition, such as *to* or *with*:

*Who was talking to you?* (Subject: Someone was talking to you.)

*Who were you talking to?* (Object: You were talking to someone.)

Here are some more examples of prepositions in *wh*- questions:

*Where are you from? OR Where do you come from?*

*Who are we waiting for? What's Nick laughing at?*

We can use **what ... for** to ask about purpose:

*What are these bricks for?*

*What did you buy the computer magazine for?*

We can use **what ... like** to ask if something is good or bad, interesting or boring:

*What was the party like?*

*What's Josh's new girlfriend like?*

We use **how** to ask about someone's well-being:

*'How are you?' ~ 'I'm OK, thanks.'*

Here are some common question phrases with **what** and **how**:

*What time is Tim arriving?*

*What kind of / What sort of cake is it?*

*How often do you two meet?*

*How long will he be in London for?*

*How much money have you got?*

*What colour are his eyes? How old is your sister?*

*How far is the centre of town?*

*How many children has Nadia got?*

□ See HEW pp. 210–12

► See OPGIntermediate Units 36–8

## Simple embedded questions

STRUCTURE = Do you know where the library is?

Sometimes a question is embedded within another question or a statement. This is sometimes called a 'reported question'. Here are some examples:

*How can we find out?* (direct question)

*I was wondering how we can find out.* (embedded question)

*Where can we eat?* (direct question)

*They're asking where they can eat.* (embedded question)

In an embedded question, the subject comes before the verb, as in a statement.

We sometimes use an embedded question after a phrase such as 'Could you tell me' or 'Do you know', especially when we wish to be polite:

*Could you tell me where the post office is?*

(question = 'Where is the post office?')

*Do you know if there's another train to London this evening?*

(question = 'Is there another train to London this evening?')

□ See HEW p. 251 ► See OPGIntermediate Unit 135

## Question words including *whose*

STRUCTURE = Whose bag is this?

We use **whose**, often with *this*, *that*, *these*, or *those*, to ask about possession:

*Whose coat are you wearing?*

*Whose car is that?* (= Who does that car belong to?)

*Whose keys are these?* (= Who do these keys belong to?)

The word **whose** does not change with gender or number:

*Whose book is that? Whose books are those?*

We can also use **whose** without a noun:

*Whose is this bag?*

**TIP:** **Whose** sounds the same as **who's** but it is different in meaning:

*Whose apple is this?* (NOT ~~*Who's apple is this?*~~)

**Who's** is a contraction of **who is** or **who has**:

*Who's coming to dinner?* (= Who is coming to dinner?)

*Who's finished the exercise?* (= Who has finished the exercise?)

► See OPGBasic Unit 35

► See OPGIntermediate Unit 37 ■ See TGGB p. 184

## Statements with question tags

STRUCTURE = You've got your documents back, haven't you?

Question tags are short sentences that follow questions, especially in spoken English. We make question tags with an **auxiliary verb** + **pronoun**.

We use question tags to ask if something is true, or to ask someone to agree with us. A positive question has a negative tag, and a negative question has a positive tag.

Here are some examples:

*It's a lovely evening, **isn't it?** You used to live in France, **didn't you?***

*You weren't sleeping when I called, **were you?***

If the sentence has no auxiliary verb, we use **do/does/did** in the tag:

*They went to Spain, **didn't they?***

*The lesson starts at four o'clock, **doesn't it?***

**TIP:** We can use **You couldn't ... could you?** or **You haven't ... have you?** for a polite request:  
*You couldn't show me how to do it, **could you?***  
*You haven't got an umbrella, **have you?***

□ See HEW pp. 226–7

► See OPGIntermediate Unit 266

## Noun phrases

### Noun phrases with pre- and post-modification.

STRUCTURE = fair-haired people with sensitive skin

In this structure the adjective *fair-haired* 'modifies' (that is, gives additional information about) the noun *people*.

*With sensitive skin* is a prepositional phrase that further modifies the noun. It is a prepositional phrase that has an adjectival function, and could also be called an 'adjectival phrase'.

As *fair-haired* comes before the noun, it is a 'pre-modifying adjective' or 'pre-modifier'. The phrase *with sensitive skin*, coming after the noun, is a 'post-modifying phrase' or 'post-modifier'.

Prepositional phrases with **of** may also be used as post-modifiers. Here are some more examples of noun phrases with pre- and post-modification:

*a stormy day with grey skies.*

*a stunning cloth of gold.*

► See OPGIntermediate Units 105, 124

● See PEU Entry 386

## A range of determiners

all the, most, a few

**All the**, **most**, and **a few** are determiners of quantity. We use them to say how much of something, or how many people or things, we are talking about. We use **all the** and **most** with plural and uncountable nouns; we use **a few** only with plural nouns.

***All the** children are at school.*

***All the** bread's been eaten.*

*Most people enjoy watching television.*  
*A few customers complained about the prices.*

**All** used without the article **the** means ‘all of something in general’:

*All plants need water. I love all crisps!*

**All** used with **the** means ‘all of the specified thing’:

*He ate all the crisps in bowl.*

We often use determiners of quantity with *of*. When we do this we are expressing the notion that something is part of a whole. Compare:

*Most white wines should be served chilled.*

(= most white wines in general)

*Most of the white wines were very expensive.*

(= most of the wines we’re discussing right now)

**TIP:** **Few** used with the article **a** has a positive meaning; used without the article it has a negative meaning:

*There are a few students in the reception area; you can ask one of them the way to the cafeteria.* (positive)

*Few students use the formal restaurant; they prefer the cafeteria.* (negative)

► See OPGIntermediate Units 95–6

## Use of articles including:

### Definite article with post-modification

STRUCTURE = The present you gave me ...

In this structure the phrase **you gave me** post-modifies the noun ‘the present’ by identifying the particular present that we are talking about.

**You gave me** is an identifying relative clause in which the pronoun **that** has been omitted:

*The coat she’s wearing is gorgeous.*

= *The coat that she’s wearing is gorgeous.*

An identifying relative clause follows immediately after the noun it modifies, without a comma (or in spoken English without a pause). Because it is changing the noun from the general to the particular, it nearly always follows a noun phrase with the definite article. Here are some more examples:

*Have you seen the book I was reading?*

*I liked the film I saw on Saturday.*

► See OPGIntermediate Unit 142

● See PEU Entry 495

## Use of indefinite article to indicate an example

STRUCTURE = This is a perfect cheese.

We can use the indefinite article when we are talking about any one member of a class of things. Here, we are saying: ‘Of the class of things called cheeses, this is a perfect example.’

● See PEU Entry 65

## Use of indefinite articles in definitions

STRUCTURE = An architect is a person who designs buildings.

We use the indefinite article with a singular countable noun when we are using the noun in a generalized way to represent all in its class. In this structure we say ‘an architect’, and not ‘the architect’, because we are talking about all architects, not just one.

If we were wanting to define an uncountable or plural noun, we would use no article:

*Cheese is a type of food made from milk.*

*Architects are people who design buildings.*

The structure with the indefinite article is an appropriate one to use when we’re defining or classifying something.

● See PEU Entry 65

## Verb forms and time markers in statements, interrogatives, negatives, and short forms

### The present perfect with:

*since/for*

STRUCTURES = I haven’t seen him since Friday. I haven’t seen him for two weeks.

We use **since** and **for** with the present perfect to talk about something that is continuing up to the present.

We use **since** to say when something began:

*Mo has been at college **since September**.  
The shop's been open **since 8.30 this morning**.*

We use **for** to say how long something has continued:

*I have been waiting for the bus **for twenty minutes**.  
Monica hasn't seen her daughter **for two years**.*

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- ▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 121
  - See PEU Entry 208
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## ever/never

STRUCTURES = Have you ever been to China? No, I've never been there.

We use **ever** and **never** with the present perfect. We usually use **ever** in questions, meaning 'at any time in your whole life':

*Have you **ever** seen the midnight sun?*

We sometimes use **ever** in statements, meaning 'at any time in my life/our lives':

*This is the best party I've **ever** been to.*

**Never** means 'not ever', i.e. 'not at any time in my/your, etc. life':

*I have **never** been to a football match.  
He's **never** been on a horse before.*

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- ▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 13, 15
  - See PEU Entry 455
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## yet/already

STRUCTURES = I've not finished my work yet. He's already finished the exercise.

We use **yet** with the present perfect when we expect something to have happened. We usually use it at the end of a negative statement or a question:

*Have you bought the tickets **yet**?  
Haven't you done the washing up **yet**?*

**Already** means 'sooner than expected':

*I've **already** bought some milk. You don't need to get any.  
Tom's **already** crashed his new car.*

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- ▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 12, 114
  - See PEU Entry 455
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## Used to for regular actions in the past

STRUCTURE = I used to go to Italy for my holidays.

We use **used to** to refer to something that happened regularly in the past, but no longer does:

*Mum **used to go swimming** once a week, but she never goes now.  
Nick **used to smoke**, but he gave it up.*

We normally use **didn't use to** in negatives, and **did ... use to** in questions:

*We **didn't use to have** computers at school.  
**Did you use to have** blackboards in the classroom?*

But the most common negative is **never used to**:  
*I **never used to like** opera. Now I love it.*

**TIP:** The form of **used to** doesn't change. We cannot use it in present, continuous, perfect, infinitive, or *-ing* forms:  
*Claire **used to travel** a lot. (NOT ~~Claire uses to travel a lot.~~) (NOT ~~She was using to travel a lot.~~)*

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- ▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 72
  - See PEU Entries 604, 633.8
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## The past continuous

STRUCTURE = She was working in a bank when that happened.

The past continuous, sometimes called the 'past progressive', is formed from **was/were + -ing form**. We use it to talk about an action that continued over a period of time in the past.

*Music **was playing** softly on the radio.  
People **were walking** in the park.  
I **wasn't dreaming**.*

We use the past continuous with action verbs. We do not normally use it with state verbs:  
(NOT ~~I wasn't knowing where you were.~~)

We often use the past continuous to talk about something that we were doing, or that was taking place, when something else happened:

*We **were walking** on the coastal path when the storm started. You drove right past me when I **was waiting** for the bus.*

**TIP:** We do not normally use the past continuous when we are talking about repeated actions: *I knocked on the door ten times.* (NOT ~~*I was knocking on the door ten times.*~~)

However, we can use it if the repeated action forms a background to another event: *At the time when it happened, Celia was travelling to London every week.*

- ▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 9–10
- See PEU Entry 422

## Future simple verb forms

STRUCTURE = I'll see you tomorrow.

We often use **will** as a neutral way of expressing the future.

*I will be free all summer. I'll finish this essay soon.*

**Will** is not the only form with which we talk about the future. When we talk about future events that have some present reality, in the form of an intention, a plan, or an arrangement, or if something is already imminent, we often use present forms. Here are some examples of other forms used to express the future:

- **be going to:** *I'm going to see Shahid tomorrow.*
- present continuous: *I'm starting at college in September.*
- present simple: *She finishes work next week and then she's off all summer.*
- **will be + -ing form:** *I'll be leaving in June.*

- ▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 22
- See PEU Entry 211

## Modals and forms with similar meaning:

Positive and negative, e.g. *you should/shouldn't* to express obligation

STRUCTURES = You should write her a letter to say thank you. You shouldn't borrow her coat without asking.

Modals are auxiliary verbs such as **can**, **could**, **should**, and **must**, used with another verb to say what is possible, permitted, etc. Modal verbs have no -s in the third person singular; the form of a modal verb is the same for all persons.

We use the modal **should** to say what is the best or right thing to do. (It means the same as **ought to**.) We use the negative **shouldn't** to say what is inadvisable or wrong:

*Your uncle was very kind to me. I should go round and thank him.*

*You shouldn't play loud music late at night.*

Orders and instructions can be made softer and more polite by using **should** instead of **must**.

*Applications should be sent by 20 October.*

We can use **should** in questions to ask for advice:

*Where should I park the car?*

After **should** we can use a continuous form (**be + -ing form**):

*It's getting late. I should be going home.*

- See HEW p. 110
- ▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 49, 52
- See PEU Entries 518–9

## *might, may, will probably* to express possibility and probability in the future

STRUCTURE = I may go to France in the summer. I might go with you. Good. Tim will probably come too.

We use the modals **may** and **might** to say that something is possible or that it is quite likely. We can use them in the present or to express the future:

*It may/might be a bomb.*

*I may/might go to Ollie's gig on Saturday.*

After **may** and **might** we can use a continuous form (**be + -ing form**):

*Surinder might be working late tomorrow.*

The negative forms are **may not**, and **might not** or **mightn't**:

*Jean-Baptiste may not get the job.*

*Lin might not be at home this evening.*

**TIP:** **May** is not normally used in questions about probability or possibility. Instead we use a structure with **likely**:

*Are you likely to be at home on Sunday?* (NOT ~~*May you be at home on Sunday?*~~)

But **may** is possible in indirect questions:

*Do you think you may go abroad this year?*

**Might** can be used in questions in formal English:

*Might you be able to attend a meeting on Monday?*

We use **will** as a neutral way of expressing the future. We can soften it with the adverbs **possibly** or **probably** to express possibility or probability:

*I **will probably** go to the pub this evening.*

*He **will possibly** be late. (= He may be late.)*

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▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 22, 46

● See PEU Entries 338–9

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### would/should for advice

STRUCTURES = I would allow ten minutes to get to the station. You should take the ring road.

We can use **would** and **should** to ask for and to offer advice:

*Would you go through town or on the ring road?*

*You should ask an accountant for help with your tax.*

**Would** and **should** are often used with the structure **if I were you**:

*If I were you I **would** talk to the boss about the problem. I **should** be a bit worried if I were you.*

Sometimes we leave out **if I were you** and just use **I should** or **I would**:

*I would avoid going through town in the rush hour. I shouldn't worry about it.*

We have seen that **should** is also used to express obligation (see 'Positive and negative, e.g. *you should/shouldn't* to express obligation' p. 32).

We can use **should** in the same structures, but softened with an adverb such as **perhaps** to change the expression from one of obligation to one of advice:

*You **should perhaps** write a letter to explain.*

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▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 49, 52

● See PEU Entries 264, 518–9

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### need to for obligation

STRUCTURE = You need to clean your shoes.

**Need** usually has ordinary verb forms, such as *-s* in the third person and questions and negatives formed with **do**. It is used in this way to express necessity:

*I **need to** clean my car. It's so dirty.*

However, it can also behave like a modal verb. In this case the third person has no *-s* and questions

and negatives are formed without **do**. It is used in this way mainly as **needn't** in negative sentences, to say what is not necessary, but is also used in questions. It is followed by an infinitive without *to*.

*She **needn't** reserve a seat. **Need** I fill in a form?*

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□ See HEW p. 126

▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 64

● See PEU Entry 366

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### will definitely to express certainty in the future

STRUCTURE = I will definitely come home straight after work.

We can use **will** as a neutral way of expressing the future. We have seen that it can be modified with adverbs such as **probably** and **possibly** to express probability or possibility. It can similarly be strengthened with the adverb **definitely** to express certainty:

*Arsenal **will definitely** win this week.*

*It **will definitely** rain this evening.*

**Definitely** can also be used with **will** in questions:

***Will you definitely** see her at lunchtime?*

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▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 22

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### May I? asking for permission

STRUCTURE = May I see the letter?

We use the modals **can**, **could**, or **may** to ask for permission. **May** is the most polite.

***May I** take one of these cakes?*

We also, usually in a formal context, use **may** or **may not** to give or deny permission:

*Visitors **may wait** in the reception area. **Members may not bring** more than two guests into the club.*

**TIP:** **May** is used to ask permission rather than to ask about a rule. Compare these two examples:  
***May I** take a photo of you? (= Will you give me permission?)*  
***Are we allowed** to take photos? (= What is the rule?)*

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▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 45

● See PEU Entry 340

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## I'd rather stating preference

STRUCTURE = I don't really like coffee – I'd rather have a cup of tea.

We use **would rather** + **infinitive without to** to state a preference:

*I don't like watching television – I'd rather read a book.*

We form a negative with **not**:

*I'd rather not go on the motorway – let's go across country.*

**TIP:** Note that **I would rather like** does not mean 'I would prefer'. In this structure, **rather** is an adverb meaning 'quite'.

*I'd rather like a glass of wine.* (= I'd quite like a glass of wine.)

*I'd rather have a pint of beer.* (= I would prefer a pint of beer.)

We can use the structure **would rather** + **subject** + **past tense** to say that we would prefer somebody to do something:

*I'd rather you came tomorrow, not on Saturday.*

*I think she'd rather he never came back.*

- See PEU Entry 491

## Common phrasal verbs and position of object pronouns

STRUCTURES = I looked it up. She looked after them.

A phrasal verb consists of two parts: the verb and a particle (sometimes called a 'small adverb'). Here are some of the particles that are commonly used in phrasal verbs: *about, after, along, around, away, back, by, down, in, off, on, out, over, round, through, up.*

When a phrasal verb has an object, the object can go either before the particle:

SUBJECT +	VERB +	OBJECT +	PARTICLE
<i>Abena</i>	<i>took</i>	<i>her coat</i>	<i>off.</i>
<i>I</i>	<i>wrote</i>	<i>his name</i>	<i>down.</i>

or after the particle:

SUBJECT +	VERB +	PARTICLE +	OBJECT
<i>Abena</i>	<i>took</i>	<i>off</i>	<i>her coat.</i>
<i>I</i>	<i>wrote</i>	<i>down</i>	<i>his name.</i>

However, an object pronoun always goes before the particle:

*Abena felt hot in her coat, so she took it off.* (NOT ~~*She took off it.*~~)

*There have been a number of raids. The police know who carried them out.* (NOT ~~*The police know who carried out them.*~~)

- ▶ See OPG Intermediate Unit 128–30
- See PEU Entry 599

## Adjectives

### Comparative and superlative adjectives

STRUCTURES = Jack's car is bigger than mine. Jim's boat is the most beautiful.

We form the comparative and superlative of short adjectives (e.g. **big**) and long adjectives (e.g. **beautiful**) differently.

ADJECTIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
<i>short word e.g.</i>	<i>cheaper</i>	<i>(the) cheapest</i>
<i>cheap</i>		
<i>long word e.g.</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>(the) most</i>
<i>expensive</i>	<i>expensive</i>	<i>expensive</i>

Adjectives of one syllable usually have the **-er** ending in a comparative and the **-est** ending in a superlative:

*Your mobile is smaller than mine.*

*Jo is taller than Kate. This is the nicest coat.*

*This room is the warmest.*

But we use **more** and **most** for words ending in **-ed**:

*He was more shocked than I was. Everyone was pleased by the news, but Dad was the most pleased.*

We also use **more** and **most** with three-syllable adjectives and other longer adjectives:

*The film was more exciting than the book.*

*This washing machine is the most reliable.*

Comparative and superlative forms of two-syllable adjectives vary according to the word ending:

- words ending in a consonant + **-y** have **-er**, **-est**:  
*happy* → *happiest*
- Some words can have **-er**, **-est** or **more**, **most**:  
*narrow* → *narrower*, *narrowest* OR *more narrow*, *most narrow*

- words ending in **-ful** or **-less** have **more, most:** *more helpful, most careless*
- words ending in **-ing** or **-ed** have **more, most:** *more boring, most annoyed*

Many other common two-syllable adjectives also have **more** and **most** in their comparative forms. These include *afraid, certain, correct, eager, exact, famous, frequent, modern, nervous, normal, and recent*.

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► See OPGIntermediate Unit 110

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## Comparative structures

STRUCTURES = as ... as, is the same as, not so ... as, looks like / is like

There are a number of different sentence patterns with comparative forms.

We use **as ... as** to say that things are equal:

*Limes are **as sour as** lemons.*

We can add **not** to this structure to say that things are not equal:

*She's **not as shy as** me.*

We use **... is the same as** to say that things are equal:

*His income is about **the same as** mine.*

We use **not so ... as ...** in a similar way to **not as ... as ...**, but sometimes with a little more emphasis on the adjective:

*Mark's **not so tall as** Peter. (Peter is tall.)*

*Sorrah's **not as tall as** Nancy. (They are of different heights.)*

Note however that we cannot use **so** in the positive structure:

(NOT *Ling is **so tall as** Jane.*)

We can use **look + like** and **is + like** to talk about the appearance of someone or something or the impression that someone or something gives us:

*This varnish **looks like** real gold. She **doesn't look like** her sister. This piece of wood **is like** a sculpture.*

We cannot use **as** in this structure with **look**:

(NOT *She **doesn't look as** her sister.*)

We can also use *sound, taste, and feel* with **like** in this way:

*This band **sounds like** the Rolling Stones.*

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► See OPGBasic Units 68, 80 • See PEU Entry 326

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## Adverbs and prepositional phrases

### A wider range of prepositions and prepositional phrases

STRUCTURES = in her twenties, of average height

The phrases **in her twenties** and **of average height** are prepositional phrases with an adjectival function. We use them to give more information about a noun. **With** is another preposition that can be used in this way.

*She is a young woman **in her twenties**.*

*We need a man **of average height** for this job.*

*It's a new television **with a flat screen**.*

### A wide range of adverbial uses, e.g. to express possibility and un/certainty

possibly, perhaps, definitely

An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or a sentence. Adverbs give information about qualities such as manner (e.g. *carefully, with bad grace*), place, time, frequency (*often, once a week*), degree (*extremely, hardly at all*), possibility, and certainty. An adverbial is a phrase or clause beginning with an adverb or a preposition and having an adverbial function.

We put adverbs and adverbials that modify verbs and sentences in front, mid, or end position of the clause or sentence. Adverbials of possibility and certainty modify sentences; they are usually in mid position but can sometimes be in front position.

Adverbs of possibility include **perhaps, possibly, probably, and maybe**:

***Perhaps** her train is late. (front position)*

*This is **perhaps** his best novel to date. (mid position)*

*Tom will **possibly** be in the pub this evening.*

He **probably** thinks you don't like him.  
**Maybe** Abdul will arrive later.

Here are some examples of adverbs of certainty:

It will **certainly** rain this evening.  
I **definitely** feel better today. There is **clearly**  
something wrong.

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- ▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 113–17
  - ▶ See OPGAdvanced pp. 116–18
  - See PEU Entries 21–6
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## More complex adverbial phrases of time, place, frequency, manner

STRUCTURE = as soon as possible

Adverbials may consist of just one or two words or they can be more complex in terms both of structure and sense. Compare these adverbial phrases of time:

Please come **soon**.  
We should hold a meeting **as soon as possible**.  
We will plant the roses **after the last of the frosts**.

And these adverbial phrases of place:

Please put the letters **on the table**. We're meeting  
**at the front of the station under the clock**.

When there is more than one adverbial phrase in a sentence, we normally use them in this order:  
manner → place → time:

She was working very hard in her office last week.

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- ▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 113–17
  - ▶ See OPGAdvanced pp. 116–18
  - See PEU Entries 21–6
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## A range of intensifiers, including too and enough

STRUCTURE = too old, old enough

We can use an adverb with an adjective or another adverb to make the meaning weaker or stronger. When it makes the meaning stronger, or more emphatic, it is called an 'intensifier'. Adverbs used in this way include words such as *very*, *really*, *extremely*, *too*, and *enough*.

**Enough** means 'to an acceptable degree' and **too** means 'more than enough'. Here are some examples:

She's **old enough** to decide for herself.  
Tell them their behaviour is **not good enough**.  
You are driving **too fast**.  
There were **too many** people at the party.

**TIP:** **Enough** isn't always an adverb. It is sometimes a determiner (*Have you made enough copies?*, *Is there enough room for me?*) and sometimes a pronoun (*Six cartons of milk should be enough.*). However, **too** is always an adverb.

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- ▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 115–16
  - See PEU Entries 21–6, 187, 595
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## Discourse

### Markers to indicate:

#### Addition

also, in addition

Discourse markers (sometimes called 'connectors') are phrases used to connect what is being said with what has already been said. They can also help to organize and clarify the structure of a piece of writing or a conversation.

Markers used to indicate addition include *also*, *as well as that*, *another thing is* (informal), *besides*, *in addition*, *in any case*, *furthermore*, *moreover* (formal), and *on top of that* (informal).

*My sister's always borrowing my clothes. She's taken my coat, the blue one I wear all the time. **Also** my gloves. **On top of that** she's walked off with my umbrella!*

*The new computer system will be rolled out on Monday. There will be online help. **In addition** there will be training sessions for all staff.*

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- ▶ See OPGAdvanced pp. 208–15
  - See PEU Entry 157.11
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#### Sequence

in the first place

Markers expressing sequence include *in the first place*, *to begin with*, *first(ly)*, *first of all*, *after that*, *last*, *lastly*, and *finally*.

**In the first place** we need to dig over the ground. **Next** we level and rake it. **Finally** we can sow the seed.

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- ▶ See OPGAdvanced pp. 208–15
  - See PEU Entry 157.10
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## Contrast

on the other hand

Some markers are used to balance two contrasting facts or ideas. These include expressions such as *on the other hand*, *while*, and *whereas*.

*I like to be at home at weekends, **whereas** most of my friends prefer to go away. We all need to be busy. **On the other hand**, too much work creates stress.*

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- ▶ See OPGAdvanced pp. 208–15
  - See PEU Entry 157.2
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## Markers to structure spoken discourse

anyway, by the way

We also use discourse markers to structure our conversations. We use them to show that we are changing the subject, or returning to a previous subject. Markers we use in this way include *anyway*, *as I was saying*, *by the way*, *incidentally*, *now*, *right*, and *OK*.

Here are some examples:

*I was talking to Greg yesterday. **By the way**, he sends his love.* (marks a change of subject) *I'm sorry about that interruption. Yes, **as I was saying**, you need to finish ...* (marks a return to a previous subject) *Here's your cup of tea. **Right**, tell me all about it.* (marks a new subject)

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- ▶ See OPGAdvanced pp. 208-15
  - See PEU Entry 157.8-10
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## Use of ellipsis in informal situations

STRUCTURE = Got to go.

Ellipsis is the process of leaving out words and phrases to avoid repetition, or in other cases where

the meaning can be understood without them. We do this in writing:

*The woman looked over and smiled.*

(= The woman looked over and she smiled.)

But we use ellipsis in particular in speech. We use it in a number of ways. Here are just some examples.

We use it in replies:

*'What time did you leave?' ~ 'About midnight.'*

(= I left about midnight.)

We use it at the end of a noun phrase:

*My car isn't working. I'll have to borrow Dad's.*

(= Dad's car.)

Or at the end of a verb phrase:

*Ali said he'd phone, but he didn't.*

(= he didn't phone.)

In informal speech, we often drop an unstressed word from the beginning of a sentence:

*Got to go now.* (= I've got to go now.) *Seen Richard?*

(= Have you seen Richard?)

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- ▶ See OPGAdvanced p. 106
  - See PEU Entry 177
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## Use of vague language

I think, you know

In speech we use some words and structures for the purpose of communicative interaction rather than to convey specific meaning.

We use them to soften what we are saying, or to bring in the person to whom we are speaking. See these examples:

***I think** it's going to rain.* (softens the statement)

*He's leaving the company soon, **you know**.* (brings in the other person)

*I like that new restaurant. **You know**, the tapas bar.*

We also use them to give us time to think. Other expressions used in this way include *let's see*, *well*, *I mean*, *sort of*, *kind of*, and *I don't know*.

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- See PEU Entry 157.16,17
-