

Level 2

Simple, compound, and complex sentences, with a wide range of subordinate clauses

Word order in complex sentences, including choice of order for emphasis

STRUCTURE = You have to put the disk in here to save. / To save you have to put the disk in here.

We form complex sentences by joining two or more clauses with subordinating conjunctions such as *after, although, as, because, before, if, in order that, since, that, when, which, while, and who*.

*We chatted in the kitchen **while** I cooked breakfast.*
*A young English teacher saved the lives of 30 students **when** he took control of a bus **after** its driver suffered a fatal heart attack.*

Complex sentences can contain relative clauses, which act like adjectives, telling us more about the nouns they follow.

*She liked the women **with whom she worked**, but she hated the dirty jobs **which they had to do**.*

They can contain noun clauses, where the subordinate clause is the object of the main clause.

*I didn't realize (that) **Brian wasn't feeling well**.*
*Did you know (that) **he was married**?*

Complex sentences may also contain adverbial clauses, where the subordinate clause acts like an adverb to the main clause.

*He's still working **although he's 72**.*
*We won't play **if it rains**.*

We can put adverbial clauses either first or last in complex sentences, depending on what we want to emphasize – we usually put the most important information last. When the adverbial clause comes first, it's usually followed by a comma.

***If it rains**, the ground will be too muddy.*
***Although he's 72**, he still walks to work every day.*

TIP: One conjunction is enough to join two clauses; we don't normally use two.

***Although** he was angry, he forgave me.*

*He was angry **but** he forgave me.*

(NOT *Although he was angry but he forgave me.*)

Note that the same subject is repeated in both clauses:

***I** couldn't sleep because **I** was thinking.*

(NOT *I couldn't sleep because was thinking.*)

- See HEW pp. 236–45
- See OPGAdvanced pp. 2, 12–13
- See PEU Entries 510–11

there could be/would be/should be

STRUCTURE = There should be a guard rail here.

When we express an opinion about things being present or existing, we can use the structure **there + modal verb + be**:

***There could be** no better way to travel than by train.*

***There would be** five of us if Jon turned up.*

***There should be** a roundabout after the next corner.*

TIP: **There** in this structure is referred to as an 'empty subject'. Similarly **it** in a structure such as 'It's a 10-minute walk into town' is an empty subject, and in 'I hate it when the alarm goes off' is an 'empty object'.

- See HEW pp. 222–3
- See OPGAdvanced, p. 103
- See PEU Entry 587

there could have been/would have been/should have been

STRUCTURE = There could have been an accident.

We can use **there + could/would/should have been** to talk about things that did not happen but which, at an earlier stage, were possibilities.

***There could have been** several different outcomes of Blair's decision.*
***There would have been** five of us if Jon had turned up.*
***There should have been** a penalty after that foul.*

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- See HEW pp. 222–3
 - See OPGAdvanced p. 103 • See PEU Entry 587
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A wide range of conjunctions, including *on condition that*, *provided that*.

STRUCTURE = You can go out, provided that you tell us where you're going.

We use a subordinating conjunction to connect an adverbial clause to another clause and to show how the meanings of the two clauses are related. For the most essential subordinating conjunctions, see 'Word order in complex sentences', above, p. 48.

We use **after**, **as soon as**, and **the moment (that)** to stress the time relation between two clauses:

*Come and see me **after** you've settled in.*

*Let me know **as soon as** you arrive.*

*I knew it was love **the moment** I set eyes on you.*

We use **as if** and **as though** to mean 'in a way that suggests something':

*He behaved **as if** she wasn't there.*

*I feel **as though** I'm about to be sick.*

We use **as long as**, **provided (that)**, and **on condition (that)** to express condition:

*We'll call off the strike, **provided that** the government increases our pay.*

*I'll marry you, **on condition that** you stop smoking.*

We use **since** to mean both 'from one time until a later time/now', and to express reason:

*I haven't been to the cinema **since** I moved to the countryside.*

***Since** she lives nearby, Saskia has a short journey to work.*

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- See HEW pp. 236–45
 - See OPGAdvanced pp. 196–7, 210–11
 - See PEU Entries 510–11
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Conditional forms using *had + would/could/should have*

STRUCTURE = They would have paid the bill for you if you had explained what had happened.

We use the structure **if + past perfect, ... would have + past participle** to express an imaginary

connection between one event that never happened and another event that also never happened. This is sometimes called the 'third conditional' or 'counterfactual conditional'.

If you had caught the train, you would have been in the crash. (but you missed the train, so you weren't in the crash)

We can use other modals such as **might have** and **could have** in the main clause. Note that **should have** is not usually used for a hypothetical situation (one that never happened).

If you had called me, I could have come and picked you up.

If she had asked us, we might have known how to fix it.

TIP: The contracted form **you'd** can be **you had** in the *if*-clause or **you would** in the main clause.
If you'd seen him, you'd have laughed.

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- See HEW pp. 262–3
 - See OPGAdvanced pp. 186–7
 - See PEU Entry 259
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Comparative clauses

STRUCTURE = The faster he talked, the less I understood.

We use **the + comparative ..., the + comparative ...** to say that things change or vary in a way that is linked or paralleled:

The sooner we leave, the faster we'll get there.

The older I get, the crazier everything seems.

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- See HEW pp. 84–5
 - See OPGAdvanced pp. 120–1
 - See PEU Entry 139
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More complex participial clauses with *-ing* and *-ed*

STRUCTURE = I left a note explaining what had happened.

Participles can combine with other words to form participial clauses:

***Not feeling very well**, she sat down.*

***Hardly anyone invited to the party** was single.*

Participial clauses can be used after nouns and pronouns. They are often very like relative clauses, except that they contain participial forms instead of

complete verbs, and they are sometimes called 'reduced relative clauses'.

Anyone arriving after 8 p.m. will not be admitted.
(= Anyone who arrives ...)

All products received in the faulty batch have been withdrawn. (= ... that/which were received ...)

In a participial clause we use a present participle where we would use an *active* verb in a relative clause; we use a past participle in place of a *passive* verb.

There were children running out of the building.
(= There were children who were running out of the building.)

Debbie only drinks juice made from fresh fruit.
(= Debbie only drinks juice that is made from fresh fruit.)

□ See HEW p. 278

► See OPGAdvanced, pp. 176–7

● See PEU Entry 411

Fronting and cleft sentences for emphasis

STRUCTURE = The reason we do that is because of safety.

We can emphasize one part of a sentence, such as the object, by moving it to the start of the sentence. This is called 'fronting'. Fronting is particularly common in formal situations. We use it to link a sentence more closely to the preceding sentence and to highlight a contrast:

I can eat broccoli and carrots. Asparagus I can't eat.
(highlights contrast)

She was coughing, sneezing, and shivering. These symptoms he recognized immediately. (links to preceding sentence)

After fronting, we often put the verb or auxiliary verb before the subject ('inversion'), especially when describing place or movement after prepositional phrases, or after adverbs such as 'here' or 'there' in front position.

Behind the chair stood an old woman.
Here comes the bride.

STRUCTURE = It was John who told me.

We can also emphasize one part of a sentence by using a cleft ('divided') sentence, where we divide the sentence into two parts and focus attention on

one part. Some cleft sentences begin with **it**; others begin with **what**:

It was Martin who ate your kebab.

What Anna really likes is falafel.

We usually form **it**-clefts with **it + be + emphasized part + relative clause**.

I like most vegetables. It's onions I hate.

Her ideas are OK. It's her manner that I can't stand.

We usually form **wh**-clefts with **what-clause + be + emphasized part**.

What I need is a cup of coffee.

What she does is repair old clocks.

TIP: We sometimes use **all** (meaning 'the only thing') instead of **what** at the beginning of **wh**-clefts.

All I need is a cup of coffee.

► See OPGAdvanced pp. 208–9, 216–27

● See PEU Entries 130, 131, 513

Reported speech, using a range of verb forms

STRUCTURE = She explained that we didn't have to attend every day.

In the sentence above, **explain** is the reporting verb. Other reporting verbs include: *admit, agree, argue, ask, assure, check, claim, complain, confess, confirm, decide, decline, demand, disagree, explain, hope, imply, inquire, joke, mention, order, point out, propose, protest, recommend, refuse, remind, report, say, suggest, tell, threaten, urge, volunteer, vow, warn, write*. The meanings of these words and the contexts in which we use them vary; they also follow different grammatical patterns.

We use most reporting verbs directly before *that*-clauses with indirect speech. With the verbs *admit, confess, mention, propose, report, and say*, we may use **to** + object before a *that*-clause. Note that we cannot drop the **to** before the object:

Jo mentioned (to me) that she would be late.
(NOT ~~Jo mentioned me that she would be late.~~)

With the verbs *agree, argue, check, confirm, and disagree*, we may use **with** + object before a *that*-clause:

Amir agreed (with us) that there might be a mistake.
(NOT ~~Amir agreed us ...~~)

With the verbs *assure*, *convince*, *inform*, *notify*, *persuade*, *remind*, *tell*, and *warn*, we must include an object (the hearer) before a *that*-clause:

He told me that she had gone home.

(NOT ~~*He told that she had gone home.*~~)

I assured them that they would be paid.

(NOT ~~*I assured that they would be paid.*~~)

After the verbs *ask*, *encourage*, *order*, *remind*, *urge*, and *warn*, we include an object before an infinitive. After the verbs *demand*, *offer*, *refuse*, and *volunteer*, we don't include an object before an infinitive.

He asked us to go with him.

(NOT ~~*He asked to go with him.*~~)

He offered to help us later.

(NOT ~~*He offered us to help us later.*~~)

After the verbs *agree*, *claim*, *hope*, *promise*, *propose*, *threaten*, and *vow*, we can use an infinitive or a *that*-clause.

He promised to fix the car.

He promised that he would fix the car.

After the verbs *admit*, *deny*, *mention*, *propose*, *recommend*, *report*, and *suggest*, we can use an *-ing* form or a *that*-clause.

He suggested leaving. He suggested that they had left.

(NOT ~~*He suggested them having left.*~~)

(NOT ~~*He suggested them to have left.*~~)

(NOT ~~*He suggested to have left.*~~)

We can use some verbs to summarize what was said in 'summary reports'. The verbs *expect*, *invite*, *speak*, *talk*, and *thank* are only used in this way; they are not used with direct or indirect speech. With many reporting verbs, including *boast*, *complain*, *explain*, *inquire*, *joke*, *lie*, *protest*, *speak*, and *write*, we use the verb + **about** to create a summary report.

He talked to Kevin about the problem.

(NOT ~~*He talked to Kevin that the problem was ...*~~)

He boasted about his win at darts.

(NOT ~~*He boasted his win at darts.*~~)

□ See HEW pp. 246–55

► See OPGAdvanced pp. 148–55

● See PEU Entries 274–8

More complex embedded questions

STRUCTURE = I'd be grateful if you could explain what happened.

Embedded questions contain subordinate questions inside main questions, beginning with phrases such as **Do you know ...?** or **Can you tell me ...?**, followed by a question word (**who**, **which**, etc.) or **if/whether**. The following clause is not inverted.

Do you know why it's so hot in here?

(NOT ~~*Do you know why is it so hot in here?*~~)

We can also embed questions within statements, especially in formal situations (for example, business letters). Statements beginning **I would be grateful if ...** are particularly common. It is more formal to follow this structure with a past modal + infinitive than a past participle.

I would be grateful if you would/could inform me of your decision at your earliest convenience. (more formal)
I would be grateful if you informed me ... (less formal)

□ See HEW p. 251

► See OPGAdvanced pp. 52–3, 154–5

● See PEU Entry 276

Reported questions, using a range of verb forms

STRUCTURE = The manager inquired about whether we had been pleased with the hotel.

We can use a range of reporting verbs to report questions, including *ask*, *inquire about*, *question*, *want to know*, *wonder*. We report yes/no questions with **if** or **whether**:

Have you been lying to me? (direct question)

I want to know whether you've been lying to me.

We can also use a range of tenses in subordinate clauses, changing the tense to a past tense as we would with reported speech.

How are you going to plead? (direct question)

The judge inquired about how the defendant was going to plead.

□ See HEW p. 251

► See OPGAdvanced pp. 52–3, 154–5

● See PEU Entry 276

Statements with question tags

STRUCTURE = He could've told us he wasn't coming, couldn't he?

We can form question tags with the full range of tenses covered at Level 2. The rules are always the same. A positive statement is followed by a negative tag; a negative statement (including statements with *never*, *no*, *nobody*, *hardly*, *scarcely* and *little*) by a positive tag. The pronoun in the tag must match the subject of the sentence (note that we can use *they* for 'no one' or 'nobody'). The verb in the tag must match the main verb auxiliary (if there is one) or *be* (as a main verb), or must be a form of *do*.

*Nobody should have crossed that line, **should they?***
*Robberies have been committed more and more often recently, **haven't they?***

TIP: We can use a positive tag after a positive sentence when we want to confirm information, often after repeating what a previous speaker said.

*They would observe the same rituals every sunset, **would they?***

- See HEW pp. 226–7
- ▶ See OPGAdvanced pp. 46–7
- See PEU Entries 487–8

Imperative + question tag

STRUCTURE = Pass me the book, will you?

We use the modals **will**, **can**, **would**, and **could** in positive tags after imperatives for requests or proposals:

*Pass me that knife, **could you?***

We use the negative tag **won't you** after imperatives, to make a polite request:

*Come in, **won't you?***

We use the negative tag **can't you** to express impatience:

*Shut up, **can't you?***

After a negative imperative, we use **will you?**

*Don't forget, **will you?***

- See HEW p. 227
- ▶ See OPGAdvanced p. 46 ● See PEU Entry 488.2

Noun phrases

Noun phrases of increasing complexity

STRUCTURE = Wide streets with lots of shops on each side which were brightly lit ...

The subject of a sentence can be followed by a descriptive phrase or clause which separates it from the verb.

*That **picture of the stressed-out businessman with his laptop and ice cream on a deckchair on Brighton beach** is wonderful.* (The sentence does not say that Brighton beach is wonderful.)

Relative pronouns are sometimes left out of noun phrases:

The film everyone had been praising every morning for weeks in the office turned out to be predictable and crass. (= the film which everyone had been praising)

TIP: A complex noun phrase may be made up of **noun + past participle + clause**, and the past participle can confusingly look like a past tense. *News is just in that a ninety-year-old woman **trapped** in the rubble for five days following the earthquake has been dug out alive.*

- See PEU Entry 515

Use of zero article with a wide range of countable and uncountable nouns in a range of constructions

STRUCTURE = Colleges say that they will struggle to provide citizenship training for refugees unless significant resources are pumped in.

We do not usually use an article when the thing we are talking about is not a single unit or is uncountable or when we are thinking of the general concept of something (rather than some specific instances).

He's doing research on fish and shellfish.
(NOT *He's doing a research on the fish ...*)

We do not use an article with many prepositional phrases when we are talking generally about times and places:

*Apparently the most miserable time to be **in prison** is **at night**.*

We do not usually use an article when we are thinking about unlimited numbers or amounts, or when we are not thinking about numbers/amounts at all, or when it is clear exactly how much/many we mean:

I like roses. (We are not thinking about number.)

Our new neighbours are students. (We are using classification, not number.)

You've got pretty toes. ('You've got some pretty toes' would suggest that the speaker is not making clear how many - perhaps six or seven.)

► See OPGAdvanced pp. 72–3

□ See HEW pp. 17–27, 34

● See PEU Entries 61–3, 66–70

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

Use of a wide range of simple, continuous, perfect, and perfect continuous verb forms, active and passive

STRUCTURE = Investigations have been carried out into the activities of the men who were involved.

By Level 2, students will be able to use the present simple (Entry 1, p. 7), present continuous (Entry 1, p. 8), past simple (Entry 2, p. 17), past continuous (Entry 3, p. 31), present perfect (Entry 3, p. 30), present perfect continuous (Level 1, p. 42), past perfect (Level 1, p. 42), and present and past simple passive (Level 1, p. 43). They will also be able to talk about the future using the present simple, present continuous, and the auxiliaries **will** and **be going to** (Entry 2, p. 18).

We form the past perfect continuous with **had been** + **-ing** form. We use it to talk about actions or situations which had continued up to the past moment that we are thinking about, or shortly before it.

I had been thinking about that before you mentioned it.

TIP: To describe an action as a process going on before an event, we use the past perfect continuous; to describe a completed action before a past event, we use the past perfect:

*We **had been making** chicken soup so the kitchen was still hot and steamy when she came in.*

*We **had made** chicken soup and so we offered her some when she came in.*

TIP: State verbs are not used in the past perfect continuous.

I had known about that before you mentioned it.
(NOT ~~I had been knowing about that before you mentioned it.~~)

□ See HEW pp. 168–9

► See OPGAdvanced pp. 20–1

● See PEU Entry 425

We form the passive of all tenses in the same way: with a tense of **be** + past participle. The function of the passive is the same across the tenses: to focus on the action done and who is affected; to achieve an impersonal style which avoids making a personal command or creating a personal focus; and with reporting verbs when the speaker's identity is unimportant, or to distance ourselves from the reported information.

*A new school **is being built** and two new roads **are being created** for access.* (present continuous passive)

*The results **have not yet been analysed**.* (present perfect passive)

*The Central Line **was being renovated** last Saturday, so I had to get the bus.* (past continuous passive)

*I **had been warned** about the weather before I went to Scotland.* (past perfect passive)

□ See HEW pp. 176–82

► See OPGAdvanced pp. 56–67

● See PEU Entries 412–20

Would expressing habit in the past

STRUCTURE = He would visit us regularly every week.

We can use **would** to describe habitual actions and typical behaviour in the past.

*Each summer we **would visit** my cousins.*

*He was a nice man, but he **would talk** about himself all the time.*

TIP: We use both **used to** and **would** to talk about past habits, often with little difference in meaning (see also Entry 3, p. 31). But we say **used to** (not **would**) for past states, and we use **used to**, not **would**, to talk about regular and important habitual behaviour.

*I **used to** have a dog. (NOT ~~I would have a dog.~~)*
*I **used to** smoke. (NOT ~~I would smoke.~~)*

- See HEW p. 120
- See OPGAdvanced pp. 20, 33
- See PEU Entry 633

Use of **had + would/could/should have** in conditional sentences

STRUCTURE = I would have contacted you if I had known you needed help to complete your work.

This structure represents a use of the third conditional, also sometimes called the ‘counterfactual conditional’. We use this conditional structure to express an imaginary connection between one event that never happened (**if** + past perfect: *if I had known*) and another event that also never happened (**would have** + past participle: *I would have contacted you*):

If he had been able to swim, he would have leapt into the water to rescue the little dog.

I would have fallen if you hadn’t caught me.

The most common modal in this structure is **would have**, but we can also use **might have** and **could have**:

*If she had asked us, we **might have known** how to find him, or at least we **could have tried**.*

TIP: The contracted forms **you’d**, **we’d**, etc. can be **you/we had** in the *if*-clause or **you/we would** in the main clause:

*If **you’d** seen him, **you’d** have laughed.* (= If you had seen him, you would have laughed.)

***We’d** have been very disappointed if **they’d** lost.* (= We would have been very disappointed if they had lost.)

- See HEW p. 262
- See OPGAdvanced p. 186

Modals expressing past obligation, possibility, rejected conditions

should have

STRUCTURE = We should have left a tip for our waiter.

We use **should have** + **past participle** to talk about ‘unreal’ past situations: when we think that something good or desirable did not happen, often as a way of expressing regret. (We can use **ought to have** instead of **should have** with no difference in meaning.)

*I **shouldn’t have told** anyone about it.*

- See HEW pp. 122–3
- See OPGAdvanced p. 41
- See PEU Entries 353, 519

might have

STRUCTURE = I might have lost my keys.

We use **may/might have** + **past participle** to say that it is possible that something happened or was true in the past.

*Tanya **may have met** James when she was in London.*

*Jo **might have forgotten** about this morning’s meeting.*

We use **might have** + **past participle** to say that something was possible in the past but did not happen. We do not usually use **may have** + **past participle** in this way.

*If each side hadn’t been so obstinate, they **might have reached** an agreement.*

- See HEW pp. 122–3
- See OPGAdvanced pp. 36–7
- See PEU Entries 338–9, 353

could have

STRUCTURE = You could have fallen.

We use **could have** + **past participle** to say that something was possible but did not happen, or that someone had the ability to do something but didn’t do it. We can also use this structure when we don’t know if something happened or not.

*You **could have sent** the letter by courier.*
*The bank **could have closed** already.*

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- See HEW pp. 122–3
 - See OPGAdvanced pp. 34–7
 - See PEU Entries 122–4, 353
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must have

STRUCTURE = That must have been nice.

We use **must have** + **past participle** to express a deduction about what has happened already, and when we report deductions in clauses after past tense verbs.

Someone **must have taken** the key because it isn't here. We realized he **must have lied**.

In questions and negatives, we use **can** (not **must**) to express certainty about the past.

You **can't have finished** already!

(NOT ~~You mustn't have finished already!~~)

Where **can** John **have put** the invoices?

(NOT ~~Where must John have put the invoices?~~)

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- See HEW pp. 122–3
 - See OPGAdvanced p. 40
 - See PEU Entries 353, 359, 361
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A wide range of phrasal verbs with a number of particles

STRUCTURES = I haven't got round to catching up with my emails yet. I must carry on with the cooking

Some phrasal verbs may be followed by both an adverb particle and a preposition, making them three-part verbs. Some of the most common three-part verbs are: *catch up with*, *put off till*, *hold on to*, *get round to*, *carry on with*, *face up to*, *go along with*, *look forward to*, *watch out for*, *get back to*, and *get on with*.

He's got to **face up to** his responsibilities and **get on with** the job.

Hold on to the steering wheel and **watch out for** sharp corners.

In three-part phrasal verbs the second particle is always a preposition; this enables the phrasal verb to have an object:

I'm **looking forward to** your visit.

(NOT ~~I'm looking forward your visit.~~)

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- See OPGBasic Unit 88
 - See OPGAdvanced pp. 134 ● See PEU Entry 599
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Adjectives

Connotations and emotive strength of adjectives

STRUCTURE = Genet had an interesting life.

Some adjectives may appear to mean the same as other adjectives, but may be more or less appropriate according to the connotations attached to the particular adjective and the adjective's emotive strength. For example, *plump* may be chosen instead of *fat* as a gentler term with which to describe someone who is overweight. *Overweight* itself is more neutral, while *obese* has medical connotations, and may suggest a more extreme condition.

Good dictionaries, such as the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, offer advice about appropriate usage where this is not obvious to a non-native speaker.

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- See OPGAdvanced p. 111
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Collocation of a range of adjectives + prepositions.

STRUCTURE = Jim went home feeling thoroughly ashamed of himself.

Some adjectives, such as *ashamed of*, *certain of*, and *particular about*, form collocations with specific prepositions. The same adjective can collocate with different prepositions and the meaning may differ to a small or large extent in each case.

Tom and Deisha have had a baby. I'm very **happy** **for** them. I'd be perfectly **happy with** a refund. I'm so **happy about** my new promotion.

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- See OPGIntermediate Unit 125
 - See PEU Entry 449
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Adverbs and prepositional phrases

Prepositions + -ing form

STRUCTURE = After having talked to us, he changed his mind.

After a preposition we usually use the *-ing* form of a verb, not the infinitive:

After paying the bill, he rapidly left the restaurant.
(NOT *After to pay the bill, ...*)

Before leaving, switch off all the lights. He's been working in a bank since leaving school.

In this structure prepositions serve as conjunctions, linking the *-ing* clause with the main clause.

- See HEW p. 240
- See OPGAdvanced p. 205
- See PEU Entries 298, 411.6, 454

Prepositions followed by noun phrase

STRUCTURE = In spite of the fact that the company made a loss, the bosses received huge bonuses.

In this structure, **in spite of** is a preposition, and **the fact that the company made a loss** is a long noun phrase.

Prepositions are always followed by a noun or pronoun:

PREPOSITION +	NOUN/PRONOUN	
Before	his studies	...
During	her time	in London ...
On account of	his success	...
Before	that,	...

Sometimes the noun phrase can include a complex structure with **that** or **when**:

Before the time when he was a student ...
During the period when she was in London ...
On account of the fact that he was successful ...

Following prepositions, complex noun phrases of this type are introduced by phrases such as *the time when, the period when, the fact that*:

Despite his fear ...
= *Despite the fact that he was afraid ...*

TIP: Remember that a preposition is always followed by a noun/pronoun. It cannot be followed immediately by the conjunctions **that** or **when**:
(NOT *Despite that he was afraid ...*)
(NOT *Before when he was a student ...*)

► See OPGAdvanced p. 164 ● See PEU Entry 453

Discourse

A range of logical markers

STRUCTURES = The concert was cancelled. In this respect, our trip to London was a waste of time.

We use a number of discourse markers to show that what is about to be said follows logically from what has just been said. They include: *so, then, therefore, thus, as a result, consequently, by this means, in this/that respect, accordingly, as a consequence*, and *hence*. Note that all but the first two of these are rather formal.

*The woman killed her husband and she intended to do it. **Therefore** she is guilty of murder.*

These markers usually go at the beginning of a clause, but they may follow the verb:

*There has been an increase in population and a shortage of housing. **As a result**, rents have gone up.*
*There has been an increase in population and a shortage of housing. Rents have gone up **as a result**.*

- See OPGAdvanced p. 214
- See PEU Entry 157.14

Sequence markers

STRUCTURE = Subsequently, she changed her mind.

We can use a number of discourse markers to express the notion of sequence. Examples include: *first(ly), first of all, second(ly)* etc., *lastly, finally, to begin/start with, in the first/second etc. place, on the one/other hand*, and *then*.

Sometimes these markers refer to the internal structure of what we are saying: that is, to the order

in which we are saying things, not necessarily the order in which the things happened:

*Several factors underlie the market's strength. **Firstly**, full employment. **Secondly**, a strong pound. **Then** there is the effect of sales around the World Cup. ...*

The same markers can be used to refer to the time relationship of what we are talking about. Some markers, such as *afterwards*, *earlier*, *later*, *previously*, and *subsequently*, are only used in this way:

*He was elected in 1987, **then** he became a junior minister in 1999, **subsequently** holding eight cabinet posts. He **later** became Home Secretary.*

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- See OPGAdvanced pp. 214–15
 - See PEU Entry 157.10–11
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