Level 1

Simple, compound, and complex sentences, with more than one subordinate clause

Word order in sentences with more than one subordinate clause

STRUCTURE = Since the ozone layer has been affected by pollution, people have had to be more careful when they sunbathe.

A sentence may be made up of several clauses.

- A simple sentence has a main clause: *I'm happy.*
- A complex sentence has a main clause and at least one subordinate clause: *I'm happy when the sun shines.*
- A compound sentence has two or more coordinating clauses: *My son is happy when it's hot but my daughter prefers the snow.*

Word order may vary:

If I'm cold, I wear two pullovers when I go walking.
I wear two pullovers when I go walking, if it's cold.

TIP: We often use a comma (,) when the conjunction and its clause are in first position in the sentence.
If you lend me your pen, I'll leave her a note.

□ See HEW p. 237
▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 137–48

There had been

STRUCTURE = There'd been a storm.

We use **There had been** to talk about an event in the past that now 'exists' in the memory.

There'd been *a fire at the school.*

We use **There had been** to talk about something that existed in the past and is no longer connected to present time.

There'd been *a lot of artwork on display in the school before the fire.*

□ See HEW p. 222 ▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 99

A range of conjunctions to express contrast, reason, purpose, consequence, result, condition, concession

Conjunctions introduce subordinate clauses to add an extra idea to the one in the main clause. This idea may express:

- contrast (conjunctions = **but**, **or**, **while**): *He's poor* ***but*** *he's contented with his life.* ***While*** *the hotel was close to the centre, it was also expensive.*
- reason (conjunctions = **as**, **because**): *She's here* ***because*** *she's looking for a job.*
- purpose (conjunctions = **so that**, **in order that**): *He'll work hard* ***so that*** *he can progress in his career.*
- consequence (conjunctions = **until**, **unless**): *There'll be trouble* ***unless*** *you stop that.*
- result (conjunctions = **so that**, **until**): *He continued* ***until*** *all the work was completed.*
- condition (conjunctions = **if**): ***If*** *you come with me, I'll show you where the restaurant is.*
- concession (conjunctions = **although**): ***Although*** *she was angry, she realized he was right.*

TIP: We can leave out **that** when using an informal style.
Come in quietly, so (that) you don't disturb the baby.

□ See HEW pp. 236–45
▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 150–1

Conditional forms, using *if* and *unless* with past and use of *would*

STRUCTURE = He wouldn't go unless I went.

The structure **… would … if/unless** expresses the idea that one event (the one in the main clause) would not happen without the other event (the one in the subordinate clause). This structure allows us to express an 'unreal situation'.

She would enter the competition if I did.

TIP: As well as **would**, we can use **could** (= would be able to) and **might** (= would perhaps)
I ***could*** *lend you some money if you wanted me to.*

□ See HEW p. 258 ▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 145

Non-defining relative clauses

STRUCTURE = The Rio de la Plata, which flows down from Brazil, is used for transport …

A non-defining relative clause is sometimes called a 'non-identifying' or an 'adding' clause. The clause gives additional information about a noun but this information is not essential in understanding who or what we are talking about.

My neighbour, who moved to this area last year, is a dentist.

□ See HEW p. 276
▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 141–2

Defining relative clauses with *where* or *whose*

STRUCTURE = The village where I grew up …

A defining relative clause is sometimes called an 'identifying clause'. The clause gives information which makes identification of the person or object clear.

The man whose lawnmower I borrowed is coming up the path.

□ See HEW pp. 275, 278
▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 141–2

Participial clauses to describe accompanying actions with '*-ing*'

STRUCTURE = My brother ran all the way, carrying her on his back.

Participial clauses include a verb ending in *-ing*. Typical conjunctions in these clauses are **while**, **when**, **who**, etc. (e.g. *while shopping*, *when cycling*, *who're wearing*). When these conjunctions are left out, the participial clause is sometimes called a 'reduced clause'.

She hoovered the floor, (while) holding the baby tucked under one arm.
The person (who was) entering the shop looked suspicious.
When (she was) opening the parcel, she saw it was from Australia.

TIP: The additional action (described by the participial clause) is information about the same subject: e.g.
Peter slipped, carrying the delicate vase. (It was Peter who was carrying the vase.)

□ See HEW pp. 240–1, 278
▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 143

Clause as subject or object

STRUCTURE = Can you believe what happened?

A clause can act as the subject in a sentence or as the object in a sentence:

What he did was unforgivable. ('It' was unforgivable. The clause is the subject.)
I can understand how happy you feel. (I can understand 'it' . The clause is the object.)

TIP: A clause acting as a subject is a way of giving emphasis to the clause.
What pleased me was his attitude to his work.
Carrying the shopping gives me backache.

□ See HEW p. 235 ▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 140

Reported speech with a range of tenses, including use of *would* and *had*

STRUCTURE = He said that he would come if he had time.

Direct speech is when we say or write the exact words spoken by someone: e.g. *'I'm leaving now'*. Reported speech, sometimes called indirect speech, is when someone explains what was said: e.g. *She said (that) she was leaving.*

Tenses change when words are reported.

EXAMPLES OF TENSES IN INDIRECT SPEECH

- Original words: *Your dress looks lovely.*
  Reported words: *He said her dress looked lovely.*
- Original words: *I can't play the piano.*
  Reported words: *He made out that he couldn't play the piano.*

- Original words: *We're learning German.*
  Reported words: *We told them we were learning German.*
- Original words: *Have you lost your watch?*
  Reported words: *I asked if she had lost her watch.*
- Original words: *Phil called by.*
  Reported words: *Ann told me Phil had called by.*
- Original words: *Will you come with me?*
  Reported words: *She asked him if he would come with her.*

TIP: We don't use inverted commas/quote marks ('…') in reported speech.

TIP: Time adverbs may change:
*I want my money right **now**.*
*→ She said she wanted her money right **then**.*

TIP: Verbs of reporting include *say*, *shout*, *tell*, *explain*, and *promise*.

□ See HEW pp. 248–9
▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 132–4

A range of embedded questions using *if* and *whether*

STRUCTURE = Do you know whether he was intending to visit her in hospital or not?

An embedded question is one where a subordinate question is contained within a main question or a statement:

Did he ask if you had got enough money for your journey? (subordinate direct question = 'Do you have enough money for your journey?')

▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 135

Reported questions with *if* and *whether*

STRUCTURE = He asked if my friend was coming.

Yes/no questions are reported by using the words **if** and **whether**.

TIP: In a formal style, **whether** is preferred to **if** when the word 'or' is used to give an alternative:
*I asked **whether** she was coming by train or by bus.*

□ See HEW p. 251 ▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 135

Use of *had* and *would* in reported questions

STRUCTURE = He asked if we had understood. She wanted to know if they would agree.

The tense of the direct question often changes when the question is reported.

- The direct question: ***Will** you **come** to my party?* is reported as: *She enquired if I **would come** to her party.*
- The direct question: ***Has** he **been** here before?* is reported as: *They asked me if he**'d been** there before.*

TIP: Adverbs (e.g. *now*, *here*, etc.) sometimes change (e.g. *then*, *there*, etc.) when the tense changes in the reported question.

▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 135
● See PEU Entry 278

Reported requests

STRUCTURE = He asked me to help him.

A request may be reported in different types of clauses: e.g. an *if* clause or a clause with the infinitive + *to*.

*She asked them **if they would donate money**.*
*She asked them **to donate money**.*

TIP: Clauses with the infinitive + *to* may also be used for promises, agreements, orders, offers, advice, and suggestions:
*I advise you **to rethink** the job offer.*
*She agreed **to help** me.*

□ See HEW p. 252 ▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 136

Statements with question tags

STRUCTURE = You would prefer coffee, wouldn't you?

Question tags are short questions that can follow sentences, especially in spoken English. We make question tags with an auxiliary verb (**have**, **be**, **can**, etc.) + pronoun (**I**, **you**, etc.).

We use question tags to ask if something is true, or to ask people to agree with us.

Ann's been working here for years, ***hasn't she****?*
He had played cricket for England, ***hadn't he****?*
Bananas were grown there, ***weren't they****?*
It would be better if you studied harder, ***wouldn't it****?*

A positive statement has a negative tag. A negative statement has a positive tag. Note that we usually contract negative tags:

They'd been delivered, ***hadn't they****?*
She's not been travelling for long, ***has she?***

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

You had your car mended there, ***didn't you****?*
The lesson starts at four o'clock, ***doesn't it****?*

□ See HEW pp. 226–7
▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 42

Noun phrases

More complex noun phrases with pre- and post-modification

STRUCTURE = A tall man wearing dark glasses …

A descriptive adjectival phrase may be added before or after a noun phrase to give more information. The descriptive phrase may be a reduced relative clause: 'reduced' because words such as 'who', 'which', and 'that' are not used.

my much-loved friend (= my friend who I love very much) *a woman carrying a large brown parcel* (= a woman who was carrying a large brown parcel)

TIP: Phrases which pre-modify (come before the noun) or post-modify (come after the noun) contain a past participle used as an adjective (e.g. *loved*, *admired*) or an *-ing* form which expresses an action or identifying feature (e.g. *crossing*, *working*, *looking sad*).

□ See HEW p. 278 ▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 143

Word order of determiners

STRUCTURE = all my books

Determiners are words that come at the beginning of noun phrases but are not adjectives. Determiners help to show which, or how many, people or things we are talking about, i.e. they help to identify things. There are different kinds of determiner: **articles** (e.g. *a*, *an*, *the*); **possessives** (e.g. *my*, *your*); **demonstratives** (e.g. *this*, *that*); and **quantifiers** (e.g. *each*, *some*, *enough*). When we use more than one determiner in the same phrase, then the quantifiers (*all*, *some*, *most*, etc.) come before the specifiers (*the*, *his*, etc.).

All my *friends go to different colleges.*
Some *of the book was very interesting.*
Many *of those trees are coniferous.*

TIP: The word **of** is common after quantifiers. When **of** is used, the speaker is making a connection between 'the whole thing' and 'its parts'.
Most of *the group went to France.* (= The majority of the members of the group went to France.)
All of *the team received a medal.* (= Every member of the team received a medal.)

□ See HEW pp. 28–47
▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 91–7
● See PEU Entry 154

Use of definite, indefinite, and zero articles with a wide range of nouns in a range of uses

STRUCTURE = The increase in the use of additives in food …

We use the definite article **the** with uncountable nouns when we are talking about something in particular:

The water *in the stream is clean and fine for drinking.* ***The traffic*** *is moving faster today.*

But we do not normally use **the** to talk about something in general; instead, we use no article (the 'zero article'):

No one can live without water. *I hate sitting in traffic.*

We use the indefinite article **a** or **an** with a countable noun when we are talking about one person or thing without specifying which one. We use the definite article when we are being specific:

A *tourist in Oxford was attacked on her way to* ***the*** *station.*

When there is only one of something, we use **the**:

The government *is losing popularity.*
(= the government in our country)
The sun *was setting.* (= the sun in our solar system)

TIP: Note that we use **the** when we are talking in general terms about the cinema, the theatre, and newspapers:
I read about the accident in ***the paper****.*
Do you often go to ***the theatre****?*

A phrase which describes something has the indefinite article:

It's ***a big hotel****.* *Ludlow is* ***a nice old town****.*

But we use **the** with a superlative:

It's ***the biggest hotel*** *in town.*

□ See HEW pp. 17–27
▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 83–90

Range of expressions to indicate possession

STRUCTURE = that book of yours …

A common possessive pattern is **determiner + noun + *of* + possessive.** The word 'own' is also used (e.g. *of my own*, *of your own*) in place of the possessive.

A cousin of his *is visiting.*
Has he heard ***the latest idea of Jennifer's****?*
I wish I had ***a pony of my own****.*

□ See HEW pp. 28–9
▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 92
● See PEU Entry 443

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

Present perfect continuous

STRUCTURE = He's been working nights for years.

The present perfect continous (also known as the 'present perfect progressive') is made up of ***have*** + ***been*** + **an *-ing* form**. It is used for an action that continues over a period of time (e.g. *for half an hour*, *for many days*, etc.). The action lasts up to the present.

*They'****ve all been waiting*** *at the wrong bus stop.*
(… and they are still there.)

The present perfect continous is also used for repeated actions that last up to the present.

My sister ***has been playing the violin since she was five****.*

TIP: Time markers (*until then*, *before then*, etc.) are often used with this tense. The words *for* and *since* are also commonly used.
We've been living here since 2001.

□ See HEW p. 158 ▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 16

Past perfect

STRUCTURE = He had worked as a fisherman before that.

The past perfect is made up of ***had*** + **a past participle**. It is used for an action that took place before a point of time in the past.

He lived in Spain then; he ***had lived*** *in Portugal before that.*

The past perfect is also used to describe states, i.e. to describe how someone felt or what the weather was like before a point of time in the past.

He ***had been*** *ill until the holiday.*
There ***had been*** *a storm that night.*

TIP: The past perfect is often used after *when*, *after*, and *once*, to show that an action was completely finished before another action happened.
After he'd cooked *the meal, he went back to his guests.*
Once he'd fed *the cat, he put his coat on to go out.*

□ See HEW pp. 166–7
▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 18

Present and past simple passive

STRUCTURE = Rice was grown in many parts of the country but many fields were destroyed in the war.

The present simple passive is made up of ***am/are/is*** + **a past participle**. The past simple passive is made up of ***was/were*** + **a past participle**. Passives focus on the action rather than the speaker; we are interested in *what is done* to the person or thing. Passives are often used in formal descriptions such as police reports, minutes from a meeting, etc.

The book ***is published*** *in three languages.*
The fire ***was put out*** *after three hours.*

□ See HEW pp. 176–9
▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 54

Use of *would* in conditional sentences

STRUCTURE = It would be better if he told the truth.

We can use **would** with ***if*** + **past tense** to talk about present or future unreal situations.

They ***would be sad if you went*** *away. What* ***would you do if the factory moved*** *to another city?*

The *if* clause can come first in the sentence:

If I had *a million pounds,* ***I would*** *buy a yacht.*

TIP: The use of ***would*** **… + an *if* clause** makes a suggestion sound more polite:
Would it be OK if I came round to see you after your meeting?

The use of the past tense makes a situation imaginary, or less probable, or impossible. The past tense in the *if* clause does not indicate 'time' (which may involve the present or the future in the conjecture.)
If I won this competition, I'd be so happy!

□ See HEW pp. 258–9
▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 145–6

Causative use of *have* and *get*

STRUCTURE = I had/got the car repaired last week.

The patterns ***have*** + **noun phrase** + **past participle** and ***get*** + **noun phrase** + **past participle** are used to express the idea that an action is done by somebody else, often because you have paid for a service.

I ***had my watch repaired*** *at the market.*
She ***had her coat dry-cleaned*** *last week.*
They ***got their cards printed*** *by a local company.*

TIP: This 'causative' use is not to be confused with *have something done* when describing an unpleasant experience:
I ***had my money stolen.***

TIP: Or with *get something done* expressing the idea of 'completing' something:
I'll ***get my essay done*** *by five o' clock.*

▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 58
● See PEU Entries 224, 238

Modals:

Ought to express obligation

STRUCTURE = I ought to see the doctor.

We can express obligation (i.e. orders and strong suggestions) by using the modal verb **ought**:

You ***ought*** *to arrive for the interview by 10.*
They ***ought*** *to say 'thank you' for all your efforts.*

We can use **ought** to ask for advice or guidance:

How ***ought*** *we to manage this situation?*

We can use a continous form after **ought**.

Ought *we* ***to be driving*** *along this road?*

TIP: Note that **ought** is followed by *to*. The modal **should** is also used to express obligation. There is very little difference between the two modals **ought** and **should**, but **should** is not followed by *to*. Words like **perhaps** and **really** and a less imperative tone may soften the suggestion or advice.
*You **ought to apologize**; go over right now.*
*You really **should apologize**, you know; what you did was unkind.*

□ See HEW pp. 110–11
▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 49

Negative of *need* and *have to* to express absence of obligation

STRUCTURES = you don't have to, you needn't, you don't need to

If we want to say or explain that it is *not* necessary to do something (that someone may otherwise feel obliged to do), we use ***don't/doesn't have to*** + **bare infinitive**, ***don't/doesn't need to*** + **bare infinitive**, or **needn't** + **bare infinitive**. (The 'bare infinitive' is the infinitive without *to*.)

*They **don't have to bring** a gift: the party is very informal. You **needn't arrive** for the interview as early as 10.*
*You **don't need to pay** now; you can pay later.*

In the past, we use **didn't**:

*She **didn't need to thank** me. You **didn't have to come over** just to see me.*

□ See HEW p. 113 ▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 48

Would to express hypotheses

STRUCTURE = What would you do if …

If we want to talk about an unreal situation by putting forward an imaginary situation and asking what the outcome would be, then we use a main clause containing the word **would** together with an *if* clause to set the scene.

What would you buy, if I gave you 20,000 euros?
Would they be happy, if I offered to let them stay in my holiday cottage?

TIP: The modals **could** and **might** are used in the same way as **would**, in the same structure, i.e. when the situation is imaginary.
What might you buy, if you were a millionnaire?
He could pick you up in the car, if he'd not booked it in for repairs.

□ See HEW pp. 258–9
▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 145–6

Use of forms, e.g. *be able to* to refer to the future

STRUCTURE = The doctor is able to see you tomorrow at 2.00.

As well as expressing ability (e.g. *he's able to run a mile in four minutes*), the phrase **be able to** may be used to refer to future time.

*He**'s able to come** to the meeting next week.* (NOT ~~*He will can come …*~~)
*I **might be able to help** you, if you explain the problem again.* (NOT ~~*I might can help …*~~)

□ See HEW pp. 114–5
▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 44

would like + object + infinitive to refer to the future

STRUCTURE = I would like you to meet my cousin.

The phrase *would like* may be followed by an object to express a strong request or clear wish. The infinitive with *to* expresses the action that is hoped for.

*She **would like you to be** in her office at 2.15.*
*I **would like the wallpaper to match** the paint.*
*We **would like the contract to be signed** today.*

TIP: Other phrases which work in the same way are: *would love …*, *would prefer …*, *would hate …*: *I**'d hate you to be late** for your job interview.*

□ See HEW p. 189 ▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 65

A range of phrasal verbs

give way, hold out, run into

Some verbs are in the form of a phrase with two parts: a verb + a particle such as **on**, **off**, **up**, **down**,

back, **away**, **out**, etc. These verbs are called 'phrasal verbs'.

A single verb can go with several different particles (both prepositions and adverbs) to form phrasal verbs with different meanings.

- *He **got on** the bus.*
- *He **got out** his wallet to buy a ticket.*
- *He **got off** at the next stop.*
- *I **got back** to the office at 1.00.*
- *I couldn't **get away** from the office before 7.00.*
- *I **got back** home at 8.30.*

See earlier levels for different types of phrasal verb with and without objects.

TIP: Remember that the meaning of a phrasal verb is not always clear from the two parts. Students should use a dictionary for help with the meanings of phrasal verbs. They are usually listed at the end of the entry for the verb in each case.

□ See HEW p. 184 ▶ See OPGBasic Units 128–31

Adjectives

Comparisons, using *fewer* and *less*

STRUCTURES = fewer cars, less wine

Fewer is the comparative of *few* and **less** is the comparative of *little*.

*I earn little money but my bother earns **less**.*
*We have few options but our colleagues have even **fewer** options.*

We say **fewer of** and **less of** before determiners and pronouns:

*I want to spend **less of my time** working now that I have children.* ***Fewer of us** take holidays in the UK now.*

TIP: Note that **fewer** is used with a plural noun and **less** is used with an uncountable noun:
*There are **fewer cars** on the roads in Sweden.*
*There is **less traffic**.*

We can omit the noun after **fewer** and **less** if the meaning is clear:
We have little time left to complete the project but our competitors have less (time).

□ See HEW p. 42 ● See PEU Entry 320

Collocation of adjective + preposition

STRUCTURES = interested in, aware of

There are many **adjective** + **preposition** phrases which are common in English and may be learned as fixed combinations. Some examples are: *proud of*, *happy about*, *keen on*, *shocked at*, *fed up with*, *eager for*, *bored with*, and *fond of*.

*I'm **surprised at** his reaction and **disappointed with** him.*

The structure after the preposition is a noun or noun phrase. This sometimes includes the use of an *-ing* form:

*I'm tired of **waiting for him**.* *We're nervous of **flying** but excited about **the chance to go abroad**.*

□ See HEW p. 206
▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 125
● See PEU Entry 449

Adverbs and prepositional phrases

Prepositions to express concession

in spite of, despite

When we express 'concession', we *admit* to something.

***In spite of** my worries, I allowed my son to get a motorbike.* (= I have to admit that I was concerned but I still allowed …)
***Despite** his lack of training, we offered Karim the job.* (= We have to admit that he didn't have enough training but we still gave him the job.)

There are conjunctions that work in the same way: *although*, *but*, *whereas*, *though*, *even though*, etc.

***Even though** I was concerned, I didn't stop him.*

□ See HEW p. 239 ▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 150

Collocations of:

Verbs + prepositions

STRUCTURES = attend to, point at

A collocation of verb + preposition is also called a 'prepositional verb'. In statements this structure is followed by the object. The preposition always goes before the object:

*I'm **attending to** the problem.*
(NOT ~~*I'm attending the problem to.*~~)
*You shouldn't **point at** people.*
(NOT ~~*You shouldn't point people at.*~~)
*I'm **waiting for** you.*
(NOT ~~*I'm waiting you for.*~~)

Some other common prepositional verbs are: *agree with*, *apologize for*, *ask for*, *believe in*, *care for*, *consist of*, *decide on*, *depend on*, and *laugh at*.

In a question, the preposition usually goes at the end:

*Who are you waiting **for**?*

▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 126
● See PEU Entry 600

Nouns + prepositions

STRUCTURE = to have an interest in

There are many **noun** + **preposition** phrases which are common in English and may be learned as fixed combinations. These include: *fondness for*, *desire for*, *pride in*, *despair at/over*, *hatred for*, *collaboration with*, *concern over*, and *sympathy for/with*:

*His **love of** films dates from the 1980s.*
*Their **concern for** world peace has been apparent.*

□ See HEW p. 64 ▶ See OPGIntermediate Unit 124

A range of adverbial phrases of time, manner, degree, extent, place, frequency, probability

Adverbials modify verbs or sentences in different ways: there are adverbials of time (*then*, *on Mondays*); adverbials of manner (= how something happens) (*slowly*, *gently*, *with care*); adverbials of extent (*over a long period*, *for weeks*); adverbials of place (*there*, *in the mountains*); adverbials of frequency (= how often) (*over and over again*, *regularly*); and adverbials of probability (*probably*, *definitely*).

*I went **there last year** and will probably go **there again**.*
*If you pull **gently**, the backing should come away **little by little**.*

□ See HEW pp. 68–9
▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 113–17
● See PEU Entries 21–6

Comparative and superlative forms of adverbs

STRUCTURE = She worked harder than all the rest.

Many adverbs are formed from an **adjective** + ***-ly***: e.g. *carefully*, *easily*. When we make comparisons with these adverbs, we use the words **more** and **most**:

*He reacts **more quickly** than his brother.*
*He plays the piano **most beautifully**.*

Some adverbs, such as *well*, the adverb from *good*, and *far*, the adverb from the adjective *far*, are irregular, and the comparative and superlative forms are also irregular:

*He plays the piano badly but his sister plays **worse**.*
*He threw the javelin far but his team-mate threw it **further**.*
*He sang well before but now he sings much **better**.*
*He played **the best**; she played **the worst**.*

□ See HEW p. 81
▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 81–6

A wide range of intensifiers

extremely, entirely, completely

Adverbs are sometimes used before adjectives to intensify or emphasize a point.

*You are **really** lucky to be chosen.*
*They are **absolutely** certain they're right.*
*I'm **totally** committed to helping the community.*

▶ See OPGIntermediate Units 113, 115
● See PEU Entry 184.3

Discourse

A range of discourse markers expressing:

Addition

Discourse markers are phrases used to add links or comments to a piece of writing or conversation. Discourse markers expressing addition include: *also*, *moreover*, *furthermore*, *in any case*, *what's more*, and *as well as that*.

His father was out of work; ***also*** *his uncle had a long-term illness.*

• See PEU Entry 157.11

Cause and effect

Discourse markers expressing cause and effect include: *therefore*, *as a result*, *consequently*, and *because of that*.

Four of the team are on holiday next week. ***As a result*** *the meeting will be postponed.*

• See PEU Entry 157.14

Contrast, e.g. *however*

Discourse markers expressing contrast include: *on the contrary*, *however*, and *quite the opposite*.

She's usually very thoughtful. ***However****, she was foolish to say that.*

• See PEU Entry 157.2, 6

Sequence and time

at a later date

Discourse markers expressing sequence and time include: *first of all*, *secondly*, *finally*, *to begin with*, and *at a later date*.

To begin with*, marinate the meat.* ***Next****, start preparing the vegetables.*

• See PEU Entry 157.10

Markers to structure spoken discourse

STRUCTURE = as I was saying

Discourse markers are sometimes used to refer the listener backwards or forwards in the conversation.

As I'll shortly explain*, I'm here to talk about future planning.*
Moving on*, I'll now talk about …*
Let me repeat*, we won't be axing any more jobs.*

• See PEU Entry 157.9,10,21

Use of ellipsis in informal speech and writing

STRUCTURE = Sounds good.

Ellipsis is when a word or words are missed out from a piece of writing or from speech but are still understood to be there by the reader or listener.

Having a break? (= Are you having a break?)
Nice day! (It's a nice day, isn't it/wouldn't you agree?)

Here are some examples of different types of ellipsis:

In replies:

'Who said that?' ~ 'John!' (= John said that.)

To avoid repetition of a verb:

She was firm but kind. (… she was kind)

After an auxiliary verb:

She said she'd come but she didn't. (… didn't come)

Use of **to** instead of the whole infinitive:

'Are you coming dancing?' ~ 'I'd like to.'
(= I'd like to come dancing.)

After comparatives:

He's bigger than you. (… than you are)

In situations which need brevity (recipes, advertisements, etc.):

Single girl looking to share flat, central London.

• See PEU Entries 177–82