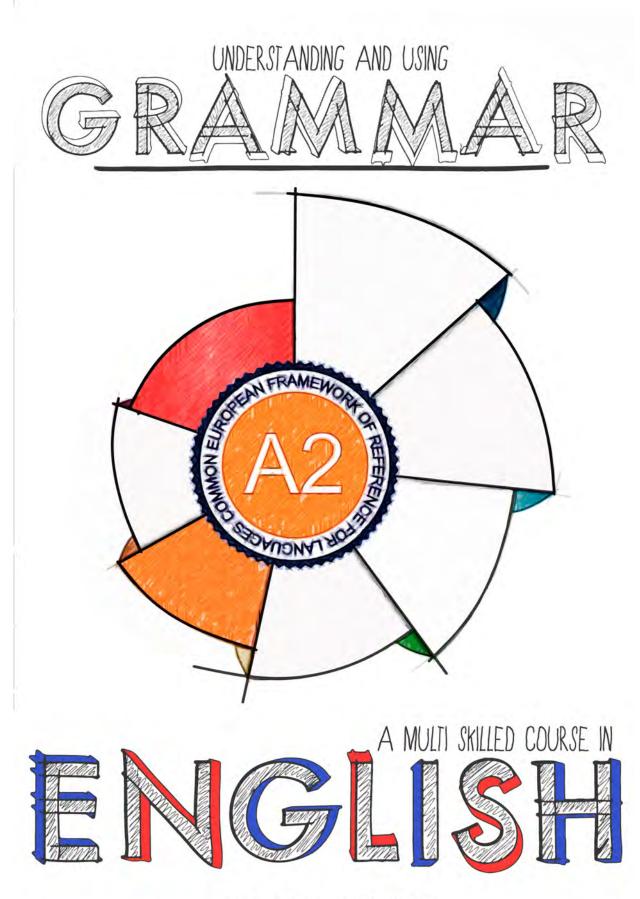
English Grammar A2 level



BOOKS FOR LANGUAGES

English Grammar A2 level

English Grammar A2 level

Practical Guide of the Grammar of English: A2 level

BOOKS4LANGUAGES TEAM

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introduction

This book is the Grammar part of the A2 level of the practical guide for learning English as a second language. It forms a part of book series Books for languages. It is fully written in English and it serves as a base for the adaptation to different mother tongues. Starting from an integrated curriculum of languages, we offer an eclectic system with a distribution of contents based on the need of learning objects.

UNIT 0



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UNIT 1.1

Present Perfect Affirmative

Verbs

The **present perfect** is a tense used to express completed actions which have occurred in the past, that are connected to the present and still have effects on it.

When expressed in its **affirmative** form, the verb confirms something about the subject.

The **present perfect**, in its **affirmative** form, has this structure: **Subject + have/has + past participle + ...**

- Have/has: the third person singular changes from have to has;
 - $\circ\,$ Short forms of the affirmative form are: I've you've he's...
- **Regular past participles** are formed by adding **-d** or **-ed** to the base form of verbs. **Irregular past participles** have to be learned by heart.

SUBJECT	HAVE/HAS	PAST PARTICIPLE
I/You	have	work ed
He/She/It	has	work ed
We/You/They	have	work ed

With **present perfect** tense we often use **time expressions** like: *ever*, *never*, *before*, *yet*, *just*, *already*, *still*, *so far*, *up until now*...

{Check the topic Past Participle to learn **irregular** verbs}.

- 1. Past situations with results in the present
 - I have lost my car keys!
 - He **has put** on weight.
 - We have finished our homework!
- 2. Finished actions referring to life experiences up to now
 - I have talked to her four times.
 - This is the best castle she **has ever visited**.

• *They have never traveled* without their computer.

We use the **present perfect**, in its **affirmative** form, to confirm:

- 1. Past situations with results in the present;
- 2. Finished actions referring to life experiences up to now.

We use the **present perfect**, in the **affirmative** form, to confirm completed actions which have occurred in the past, that are connected to the present and still have effects on it.

The structure is:

Subject + have/has + past participle + ... (has for third person singular)

For example:

- "*It has rained the whole morning.*" = We use the **present perfect** because the past action has still effects on the present (for example, the streets are still wet).

◆ "It **rained** the whole morning." = We use the **past simple** because the past action is finished and there's no need to emphasize its effects on the present.

NOTE: The **past participle** is usually used to form the perfect tenses, and it indicates past or completed actions. It is formed by adding **-d** or **-ed** to the base form of regular verbs, whereas irregular verbs have different fixed forms which need to be studied by heart.

Present Perfect Negative

Verbs

The **present perfect** is a tense used to express completed actions which have occurred in the past, that are connected to the present and still have effects on it.

When expressed in its **negative** form, the verb denies something about the subject.

The **present perfect**, in its **negative** form, has this structure: **Subject + have/has + not + past participle + ...**

- Have/has: the third person singular changes from have to has;
 - Short forms of the negative form are: I haven't you haven't she hasn't...
- **Regular past participles** are formed by adding **-d** or **-ed**, to the base form of verbs. **Irregular past participles** have to be learned by heart.

SUBJECT	HAVE/HAS + NEGATION	PAST PARTICIPLE
I/You	have not	work ed
He/She/It	has not	work ed
We/You/They	have not	work ed

- 1. Past situations with results in the present
 - I haven't lost my car keys!
 - *He* **hasn't put** on weight.
 - We haven't finished our homework!
- 2. Finished actions referring to life experience up to now
 - I haven't talked to her four times.
 - She hasn't visited this castle.
 - They **haven't traveled** without their computer.

We use the **present perfect**, in its **negative** form, to deny about:

- 1. Past situations with results in the present;
- 2. Finished actions referring to life experience up to now.

We use the **present perfect**, in the **negative** form, to deny completed actions which have occurred in the past, that are connected to the present and still have effects on it.

The structure is: **Subject + have/has + not + past participle + ... (has** for third person singular)

For example:

— "It hasn't rained the whole month." = We use the present perfect because the past action has still effects on the present (for example, the water levels are low).

♦ "It didn't rain the whole month." = We use the past simple because the past action is finished and there's no need to emphasize its effects on the present.

NOTE: The **past participle** is usually used to form the perfect tenses, and it indicates past or completed actions. It is formed by adding **-d** or **-ed** to the base form of regular verbs, whereas irregular verbs have different fixed forms which need to be studied by heart.

Present Perfect Interrogative

Verbs

The **present perfect** is a tense used to express completed actions which have occurred in the past, that are connected to the present and still have effects on it.

When expressed in its **interrogative** form, the verb is used to ask questions.

The **present perfect**, in its **interrogative** form, has this structure: Have/has + subject + past participle + ...?

- Have/has: the third person singular changes from have to has;
- **Regular past participles** are formed by adding **-d** or **-ed**, to the base form of verbs. **Irregular past participles** have to be learned by heart.

HAVE/HAS	SUBJECT	PAST PARTICIPLE	QUESTION MARK
Have	I/you	work ed	?
Has	he/she/it	work ed	?
Have	we/you/they	work ed	?

- 1. Past situations with results in the present
 - Have I lost my car keys?
 - Has he put on weight?
 - Have we finished our homework?
- 2. Finished actions referring to life experiences up to now
 - Have I talked to her four times?
 - Has she visited this castle?
 - Have they traveled without their computer?

We use the **present perfect**, in its **interrogative** form, to ask for:

1. Past situations with results in the present;

2. Finished actions referring to life experience up to now.

We use the **present perfect**, in the **interrogative** form, to ask for completed actions which have occurred in the past, that are connected to the present and still have effects on it.

The structure is:

Have/has + subject + past participle + ...? (has for third person singular)

For example:

- "*Has it rained the whole morning?*" = We use the **present perfect** because the past action has still effects on the present (for example, the streets are still wet).

◆ "Did it rain the whole morning?" = We use the past simple because the past action is finished and there's no need to emphasize its effects on the present.

NOTE: The **past participle** is usually used to form the perfect tenses, and it indicates past or completed actions. It is formed by adding **-d** or **-ed** to the base form of regular verbs, whereas irregular verbs have different forms which need to be studied by heart.

UNIT 1.2

Past Participle

Verbs

Past participle is a tense that is used to form other tenses (such as present perfect).

Many **past participle** forms of verbs are **irregular**.

Past participle is one form of the verb that is used in formation of past perfect, past perfect continuous, **present perfect**, present perfect continuous, future perfect, future perfect continuous and passive tenses {check the topic Present Perfect}.

REGULAR

Regular past participles follow all the formation rules of past simple that is made by adding **-ed** at the end of the verbs.

IRREGULAR

Irregular verbs do not follow this rule. The most commonly used irregular verbs are:

VERB	PAST PARTICIPLE
become	become
break	broken
bring	brought
buy	bought
do	done
draw	drawn
drink	drunk
eat	eaten
feel	felt
find	found
go	gone
have	had
hear	heard
keep	kept
read	read
run	run
say	said
see	seen
teach	taught

REGULAR

write

• I have just finish**ed** my work.

written

- He has already stopp**ed** exercising.
- They have start**ed** to talk during the lesson.

IRREGULAR

- I have **lost** my car keys!
- He has **put** on weight.
- They have never **been** to Chicago.

We use **past participle** to form verbs in different tenses.

Past participle is the form of a verb, it is used in the formation of many tenses. It is made by adding -

ed at the end of the verbs, but there are many verbs that are irregular.

For example:

- Regular : "Watch" \Rightarrow "I have watch**ed** a great movie tonight." = We add **-ed** at the end of the verb.
- Irregular: "Be" ⇒ "I have been to Montenegro four times." / "I have beed to Montenegro four times."
 = We use another form (the verb be changes to been).

Present Perfect with Time Adverbs

Adverbs

Adverbs are expressions that function as modifiers of other elements in the clause. They can provide a wide range of information.

Time adverbs are often used with the **present perfect** and function as modifiers of other elements in the clause.

The main time adverbs that are used with the present perfect are: already, just, still and yet.

Their positions in sentences are:

- Already: Subject + auxiliary verb + already + past participle + ...
- Just: Subject + auxiliary verb + just + past participle + ...
- Still: Subject + auxiliary verb + still + verb + ...
- Yet: Subject + verb + ... + yet

NOTE: They can have different positions when are not used with perfect tenses.

Positive statements

- She has just retired.
- He has already booked his ticket.
- Have they just sent a fax?

Negative statements

- I **still haven't made** any plan for Christmas.
- Have you still not done the laundry?
- Haven't they sent an email yet?

Adverbs of time express when an action happened, for how long and how often. The main adverbs of time are:

- **Already** is used to say that something has happened early, or earlier than expected.
- Just is used to express an action happened at this moment or a short time ago.
- Still is used to express an action that has not finished or has lasted longer than expected.
- Yet used to say that something is not happening now, but it will happen in the short future.

When **adverbs** are used with **present perfect**, they can act as modifiers of other elements in a clause.

Their position in sentences are:

- Already: Subject + auxiliary verb + already + past participle + ...
- Just: Subject + auxiliary verb + just + past participle + ...
- Still: Subject + auxiliary verb + still + verb + ...
- Yet: Subject + verb + ... + yet

For example:

— "I have already arrived home." = The action happened in the past and will not happen again (by now).

- "*I have just arrived* home." = The action happened in the near past (**short before**).

- "I *still haven't arrived* home." = The action has not finished (continuing to happen).

— "I haven't arrived home yet." = The action has not happened in the past or present because it is going to happen in the near future (until now).

NOTE: Some of the **adverbs** are only used in negative statements and not in positive ones (and vice versa). Moreover, they can have different positions when are not used with perfect tenses.

Present Perfect with For and Since

Prepositions

Prepositions are small words that are related to another element in the sentence. They are essential because they provide additional details about the sentence by locating events, people, and objects in **place** and **time**.

To locate an event in a time frame and add information about its duration, we use the prepositions **for** and **since**.

The prepositions **for** and **since** have the same general purpose but have a different connotation. With them we always use the **present perfect** of the verb, when referring to the present.

The structures are:

... + for + period of time + ...
... + since + starting point + ...

For

- I have studied Dutch for 4 years.
- I've known her for ten years.
- She has attended the Spanish course for three months.

Since

- I have studied Dutch since 2011.
- I've known her since 2006.
- She has attended the Spanish course since January.

We usually use **for** to express the **period of time** in which an event took place (2 years, 6 weeks, 10 days...). The event expressed with for is still effective in the present time of the conversation.

We usually use **since** to express the exact **starting point** of an event (*last year*, *1996*, *I arrived*...).

For and **since** help to locate an event in a time frame and add information about its length. They are always used with the **present perfect**, when referring to the present.

- For is used to express the length of a period that is still going on:
 - ... + for + period of time + ...

• **Since** is used to express the exact present or past starting point of an event: ... + since + starting point + ...

For example:

- "*I've been* a fireman for 16 years." = We use for because we express the length of the action.

- "I've been a fireman since 2000." = We use since because we express the starting date of the action.

Present Perfect vs Past Simple

Verbs

The **present perfect** is used to express completed actions which have occurred in the past, but are connected to the present and still have effects on it {see Present Perfect, A2 Level}.

The **past simple** is used to express situations that occurred and concluded in the past {see Past Simple, A1 Level}.

Present perfect and **Past simple** are different in form and meaning.

Present perfect and **Past simple** have different structures for the three forms.

Affirmative forms:

- Present perfect: Subject + have/has + past participle + ...
- Past simple: Subject + [past form of the verb] + ...

Negative forms:

- Present perfect: Subject + have/has + not + past participle + ...
- Past simple: Subject + did + not + verb + ...

Interrogative forms:

- Present perfect: Have/has + subject + past participle + ...?
- Past simple: Did + subject + verb + ...?
- Present perfect
 - I have lived in Chicago for 10 years, I still live in Chicago.
 - She **hasn't played** the piano for 3 years, she play every day.
 - *Have* they *lived* together for a year (they are still together)?
- Past simple
 - I lived in Chicago for 10 years, now I live in San Diego.
 - She **didn't play** the piano for 3 years, she stopped last year.
 - *Did* they *live* together for a year (they are not together anymore)?

We use **present perfect** to express short/long unfinished actions and events, past situations with results in the present, with **unfinished time expressions** (*this month, today, this year*...).

We use **past simple** to express short/long finished actions and events, repeated events and habits which occurred in the past, with **finished time expressions** (*two weeks ago, last year, in 2010, yesterday...*).

The **present perfect** and **past simple** differ in meaning and form.

For example:

— "I have been to the cinema four times this month." = We use the present perfect of to be to express that the speaker started the action in a period of time which hasn't been finished yet (this month).

- "*I* went to the cinema four times last month." = We use the **past simple** of **to go** to express that the speaker finished the action in a past moment (*last month*).

UNIT 2.1

Future Simple Affirmative

Verbs

The **future** is the tense used to express future events. We use the **future simple** structure to introduce predictions, beliefs or intentions about the future.

When expressed in its **affirmative** form, the verb confirms something about the subject.

The **future simple**, in its **affirmative** form, has this structure: **Subject + will + verb + ...**

- - Short versions of the affirmative form are: I'll you'll he'll...

SUBJECT	WILL	BASE FORM
I/You/He/She/It	will	work
We/You/They	will	work

1. Promises

- I will be there, I promise!
- She promises she **will wear** a bikini.
- We will tell you if he shows up.
- 2. Spontaneous decisions
 - I'm cold, I will put my gloves on!
 - Sure, he'**ll come** tonight.
 - No worries, they'll call you back.
- 3. Hopes/opinions/predictions
 - I hope you will leave soon.
 - I think she **will pay** with cash.
 - In my opinion, they **will buy** this business.

Future simple, in its affirmative form, is used to:

- 1. Make promises;
- 2. Make spontaneous decisions;
- 3. Express hopes, opinions or predictions.

We use the **future simple**, in the **affirmative** form, to confirm predictions, beliefs or intentions about the future, and when we are usually certain that these events will happen.

The structure is: Subject + will + verb + ...

For example:

- "I will go to the supermarket at 7." = We use the future simple to express a future intention.

Future Simple Negative

Verbs

The **future** is the tense used to express future events. We use the **future simple** structure to introduce predictions, beliefs or intentions about the future.

When expressed in its **negative** form, the verb denies something about the subject.

The **future simple**, in its **negative** form, has this structure:

Subject + will + not + verb + ...

• Short version of the negative form is: I'll not/I won't - you'll not/you won't - he'll not/he won't...

SUBJECT	WILL + NEGATION	BASE FORM
I/You/He/She/It	will not	work
We/You/They	will not	work

1. Promises

- I won't go there, I promise!
- She promises she **won't wear** a bikini.
- We **won't tell** you if he shows up.
- 2. Spontaneous decisions
 - It's hot, I **won't** put my gloves on.
 - We won't come tonight.
 - I **won't call** you back!
- 3. Hopes/opinions/predictions
 - I hope they **won't leave** soon.
 - I think she **won't pay** with cash.
 - *In my opinion, they* **won't buy** *this business.*

Future simple, in its negative form, is used to:

- 1. Make promises;
- 2. Make spontaneous decisions;
- 3. Express hopes, opinions or predictions.

We use the **future simple**, in the **negative** form, to deny predictions, beliefs or intentions about the future and when we are usually certain that these events will happen.

The structure is: Subject + will + not + verb + ...

For example:

- "*I* will not go to the supermarket today." = We use the **future simple** to express the decision.

Future Simple Interrogative

Verbs

The **future** is the tense used to express future events. We use the **future simple** structure to introduce predictions, beliefs or intentions about the future.

When expressed in its **interrogative** form, it is used to ask questions.

The **future simple**, in its **interrogative** form, has this structure:

Will + subject + verb + ...?

WILL	SUBJECT	VERB	QUESTION MARK
Will	I/you/he/she/it	work	?
Will	we/you/they	work	?

1. Yes/no questions

- Will you be late?
- Will she dance with me?
- Will they buy this?
- 2. Wh-questions
 - What will you wear tonight?
 - Where will he sit?
 - When will we finish our exercises?

Future simple, in its interrogative form, is used to ask for information about the future:

- 1. Making yes/no questions about people's intentions;
- 2. Making **wh-questions** about people's intentions.

We use the **future simple**, in the **interrogative** form, to ask for predictions, beliefs or intentions about the future and when we are usually certain that these events will happen.

The structure is: Will + subject + verb + ...?

For example:

— "Will you go to the supermarket today?" = In this case we use the future simple to ask for someone's future intentions.

UNIT 2.2

Present Continuous for Future

Verbs

The **future** is the tense used to predict or express future events.

When we use the **present continuous** structure we refer to fixed plans {see Present continuous, A1 Level}.

{See Present continuous, A1 level}.

- She's having a birthday party next week.
- She **isn't** hav**ing** a birthday party next week.
- Is she having a birthday party next week?

Present continuous can be used to express, deny or ask about planned future activities or fixed arrangements whose time has already been decided.

Present continuous can be used to express the future or to refer to fixed plans.

For example:

— "I am working the whole summer." = We use the present continuous for future because we express the near future (soon).

♦ "I am working the whole summer." = We use the present continuous because we express our current situation (now).

♦ "I will work the whole summer." = We use the future simple because we express a further period of time (future).

Be going to

Verb Phrases

Be going to is a structure that refers to the future {see Be going to, A1 level}.

{See Be going to, A1 level}.

- 1. Predictions
 - The profit is low. We **are going to** go bankrupt.
 - \circ The profit is high. We are not going to go bankrupt.
 - The profit is low. Are we going to go bankrupt?
- 2. Things that are about to happen
 - Look at the sky. It **is going to** rain.
 - Look at the sky. It **is not going to** rain.
 - Look at the sky. **Is it going to** rain?
- 3. Commands
 - You are going to talk to the boss!
 - *He is going to work as a babysitter.*
 - They are not going to meet with the client.

We use the future with the **be going to** structure to talk, deny or ask about:

- 1. Predictions (based on signs we see at the moment);
- 2. Things that are about to happen (that we are sure about them);
- 3. Commands (affirmative and negative forms).

We can use **be going to** to express predictions, things that are about to happen and commands.

For example:

- "*I* am going to send him an email about my decision." = We use **be going to** to show the speaker's intention of sending an email, but it is not arranged yet.

• "I am sending him an email about my decision tonight." = We use present continuous for future to

show that it is already arranged that the speaker will send an email.

Future with Will or Be going to

Verbs

The **future** is the tense used to predict or express future events.

We use the **future simple** to express spontaneous decisions, opinions and hopes {see Future Simple, A1 level}.

Be going to express intentions for the future and make previsions based on signs we see at that moment {see Be going to, A1 level}.

Simple future (will) and be going to have different structures for the three forms.

Affirmative forms:

- Simple future: Subject + will + verb + ...
- Be going to to: Subject + to be + going to + verb + ...

Negative forms:

- Simple future: Subject + will + not + verb + ...
- Be going to: Subject + to be + not + going to + verb + ...

Interrogative forms:

- Simple future: Will + subject + verb + ...?
- Be going to: To be + subject + going to + verb + ...?

Simple future:

- 1. Decision at the moment of speaking
 - We don't have any bread for dinner. I **will go** and buy some.
- 2. Predictions based on opinions
 - I think this blouse **won't be** tight on me.
- 3. Invitations

- Will you come with us?
- 4. Requests
 - It's cold. Will you close the window?
- 5. Offers
 - I will help you find your student card.
- 6. With: probably, certainly, perhaps
 - I will certainly come to the party.
- 7. Promises
 - I promise I **will never** do it again!
- 8. Necessity/obligation/fact in the future
 - You will have to pay with cash if you buy clothes under 50 euros.
- 9. Threats
 - If you don't take off my jacket, I will not talk to you again.

Be going to:

- 1. Decision before the moment of speaking/planned activity
 - We don't have paper for the printer. I **am going to** get some.
- 2. Predictions based on evidence about the near future
 - This business **isn't going to** close. They have customers.

Simple future is used to express:

- 1. Decisions taken while speaking;
- 2. Predictions based on opinions;
- 3. Invitations;
- 4. Requests;

- 5. Offers;
- 6. Sentences containing the adverbs: probably, certainly, perhaps;
- 7. Promises;
- 8. Needs/duties/future events;
- 9. Threats.

Be going to is used to express:

- 1. Decision taken before the moment of speaking, already planned events or activities;
- 2. Predictions based on evidence about the near future.

Simple future (will) and be going to are two forms of the future tense, which differ in meaning and form.

For example:

— "Probably this printer **will** cost you 70 euros. I heard that it is the usual price." = We are not certain about the price, we're just making a guess and therefore we use **future simple**.

- "This printer **is going to** cost 70 euros. I checked the price tag." = We are certain about the price, therefore we use **be going to**.

NOTE: Certain situations require the **be going to** structure, whereas others require the **future simple**.

UNIT 3.1

Reflexive Pronouns

Pronouns

Pronouns are words used to avoid repetitions of a noun {see Pronouns - Subject, A1 Level}.

Reflexive pronouns are used to emphasise the subject of the sentence.

Reflexive pronouns can be considered as the combination of possessive adjectives and the word **self** (**selves** for plurals).

SUBJECT PRONOUN	REFLEXIVE PRONOUN
Ι	my self
You	your self
He	him self
She	her self
It	it self *
We	our selves
You	your selves
They	them selves

*(object/animal)

- *I baked this cake* **myself** (nobody helped me).
- The businessman replied to the customer himself.
- The employees shouldn't blame **themselves** when clients don't want to buy a product.

Reflexive pronouns are usually used to express actions where the subject and the object refer to the same person or thing. In other words the person who performs the action is also the person who is subjected to the action and experiences it.

Reflexive pronouns are used to emphasise the subject of the sentence. We distinguish them by number (-self is singular, -selves is plural) and gender.

They are: **myself**, **yourself**, **himself**, **herself**, **itself**, **ourselves**, **yourselves** and **themselves**.

For example:

- "I have to prepare myself for the shopping center." = Myself refers to the subject (I).

• "I have to prepare my clothes and hair for the shopping center." = My refers to the object (clothes).

Relative Pronouns of People and Things

Pronouns

Pronouns are words used to avoid repetitions of a noun {see Pronouns - Subject, A1 Level}.

Relative pronouns are used to introduce relative clauses. They refer to people or things by replacing the subject expressed in the main clause to avoid the repetition of it in the relative clause {see Pronouns – Relative, A1 level}.

Relative pronouns whom and whose come after nouns.

- Whom
 - *I called the salesman from* **whom** *I* bought this watch.
 - This is the woman to **whom** I wanted to speak.
 - *The people, for* **whom** *they were waiting, have arrived.*
- Whose
 - Helen, whose father is a baker, lives in an industrial city.
 - $\circ\,$ This is the painter **whose** statue is in the main square of the city.
 - *This is my cousin* **whose** *clothes shop has the most expensive clothes.*

Whom and **whose** are used to introduce relative clauses. They refer to **people**, and are used to identify them and to add information about them. We use:

- Whom to discover which person receives an action;
- Whose to find out which person something belongs to.

Relative pronouns whom and **whose** are used to introduce relative clauses, and to avoid repeating the subject of the main clause in the relative clause. Both refer to people and are used before nouns.

For example:

- "I am dating the girl **whom** I met at the restaurant." = **Whom** refers to the **girl**.

— "The girl, whose brother owns this restaurant, is Italian." = Whose refers to the girl.

Relative Pronouns of Place and Time

Pronouns

Pronouns are words used to avoid repetitions of a noun {see Pronouns - Subject, A1 Level}.

Relative pronouns are used to introduce relative clauses. They refer to place and time by replacing the subject expressed in the main clause to avoid the repetition of it in the relative clauses {see Pronouns – Relative, A1 Level}.

Relative pronouns where and when come after nouns.

- Where
 - This is the shopping center **where** I bought a gift for my mom.
 - \circ It is the butcher where my brother worked at.
 - $\circ\,$ This is the hotel **where** we stayed at during our trip.
- When
 - I can't forget the day **when** my dad opened our bakery.
 - $\circ~$ The winter **when** I started working as a shop assistant was cold.
 - The day **when** the hairdresser died was my birthday.

Where and when are used to introduce relative clauses. We use:

- Where to discover the place of the action described in a sentence;
- When to find out the time of the action described in a sentence.

Relative pronouns where (place) and **when** (time) are used to introduce relative clauses, and to avoid repeating the subject of the main clause in the relative clauses. They are used before nouns.

For example:

- "I work in London, where 8 millions of people live." = Where refers to London (place).

- "I work in London **when** you where in the countryside." = **When** refers to the working period in London (time).

Let's revise this content within the {Form} section. Take a look at the {Example} section that shows its

use within a context.

UNIT 3.2

Past Continuous Affirmative

Verbs

The **past continuous** (or **progressive**) is the tense used to express situations that occurred in the past and were in progress at any moment during a period of time.

When expressed in its **affirmative** form, the verb confirms that something was happening in a past period of time.

The **past continuous**, in its **affirmative** form, has this structure:

Subject + was/were + [verb + -ing] + ...

• Was/were: past simple of the verb to be.

SUBJECT	AUXILIARY VERB	PRESENT PARTICIPLE
Ι	was	work ing
You	were	work ing
He/She/It	was	work ing
We/You/They	were	work ing

- 1. Longer background action interrupted by a shorter one
 - *I* was running in the park when you sent me that message.
 - She **was** practic**ing** sport when I called her.
 - They were watching TV when she got back from work.
- 2. Event occurring in an exact time in the past
 - It was 9 o' clock when I **was** runn**ing** in the park.
 - I called her at 11:45 and she **was** practicing sport.
 - $\circ\,$ She returned from work at 7 o' clock and they were still watching TV.
- 3. Uninterrupted action in progress for a while
 - I was running.
 - *He* was crossing the road.
 - We were watching TV during our break.

- 4. Length of period of time in the past
 - *I* was working in the bakery last summer.
 - She was practicing sports every day last year.
 - They were watching TV all day when they were young.
- 5. Past simultaneous actions
 - I was running while she was walking.
 - \circ She was practicing sport while her mother was cooking.
 - We were talking while the kids were watching TV.
- 6. Sequence of actions occurred in the past
 - I went to the park, the kids **were** play**ing** on the grass, their parents **were** sitt**ing** on the fence and some teenagers **were** runn**ing**.
 - She went home and her mother **was** work**ing** on the laptop, her father **was** watch**ing** tv and her sister **was** study**ing**.
 - We went to the doctor today and while waiting, some patients **were** read**ing** magazines, some **were** talk**ing** on the phone and the secretary **was** typ**ing** on the computer.
- 7. Repeated or annoying action (with always)
 - I **was** always go**ing** late to the class.
 - She **was** practic**ing** sports every day for years to become a good athlete.
 - They were always watching TV on high volume late at night.

We use the **past continuous** tense, in its **affirmative** form, to confirm events or activities taking place in the past. We usually intend to show that they lasted for a long time.

Past continuous is used in the following cases:

- 1. A longer background action interrupted by an unexpected shorter one (something suddenly happens while another longer event was already in progress);
- 2. An event that was occurring in an exact time in the past (expressing the date, hour or giving specific time information about an event in progress occurring at a past time);
- 3. An uninterrupted action which was in progress for a while (event in progress in the past during an extended period of time);
- 4. The length of time period in the past (event in progress in the past during an extended period of time);
- 5. Past simultaneous actions (two events happened at the same time);
- 6. Sequence of actions occurred in the past (usually used to describe a situation in which different events were happening at the same time);

7. Repeated or annoying action (with always or similar expressions that suggest the idea of a repeated event).

We use the **past continuous**, in the **affirmative** form, to confirm situations that occurred in the past and were in progress at every moment during a period of time.

The structure is: Subject + was/were + [verb + -ing] + ...

For example:

— "I was playing football when the phone rang." = We use the past continuous to express a situation in progress considered as a background action, interrupted by a sudden action (expressed in the past simple).

◆ "I played football." = We use the past simple to express the idea of an action started and concluded in the past.

Past Continuous Negative

Verbs

The **past continuous** (or **progressive**) is the tense used to express situations that occurred in the past and were in progress at any moment during a period of time.

When expressed in its **negative** form, the verb denies that something was happening in a past period of time.

The **past continuous**, in its **negative** form, has this structure:

Subject + was/were + not + [verb + -ing] + ...

- Was/were: past simple of the verb to be;
- Short form of the negative form is the same as the short form of to be in the past simple: I wasn't you weren't he wasn't...

SUBJECT	AUXILIARY VERB + NEGATION	PRESENT PARTICIPLE
Ι	was not	work ing
You	were not	work ing
He/She/It	was not	work ing
We/You/They	were not	work ing

- 1. Longer background action interrupted by a shorter one
 - *I* wasn't running in the park when you sent me that message.
 - She **wasn't** practic**ing** sport when I called her.
 - They **weren't** watch**ing** TV when she got back from work.
- 2. Event occurring in an exact time in the past
 - I wasn't running in the park at 9 o'clock.
 - She **wasn't** practicing sport when I called her at 11:45.
 - They weren't watching TV when she returned from work at 7 o' clock.
- 3. Uninterrupted action in progress for a while
 - I wasn't running.

- *He* wasn't crossing the road.
- We weren't watching TV during our break.
- 4. Length of time period in the past
 - I **wasn't** work**ing** in the bakery last summer.
 - She **wasn't** practic**ing** sport every day last year.
 - They weren't watching TV all day when they were young.
- 5. Past simultaneous actions
 - *I* wasn't running while she was walking.
 - She **wasn't** practic**ing** sport while her mother was cooking.
 - We weren't talking while the kids were watching TV.
- 6. Sequence of actions occurred in the past
 - I went to the park, the kids **weren't** play**ing** on the grass, their parents **weren't** sitt**ing** on the fence and teenagers **weren't** runn**ing**.
 - She went home and her mother **wasn't** work**ing** on the laptop, her father **wasn't** watch**ing** tv and her sister **wasn't** study**ing**.
 - We went to the doctor today and while we were waiting at the doctor the other patients weren't reading magazines, weren't talking on the phone and the secretary wasn't typing anything on the computer.
- 7. Repeated or annoying action
 - I wasn't going late to the class.
 - She **wasn't** practic**ing** sport everyday for years to become a good athlete.
 - They weren't watching TV on high volume late at night.

We use the **past continuous** tense, in its **negative** form, to deny about events or activities taking place in the past. We usually intend to show that they lasted for a long time.

Past continuous is used in the following cases:

- 1. A longer background action interrupted by an unexpected shorter one (something suddenly happens while another longer event was already in progress);
- 2. An event that was occurring in an exact time in the past (expressing the date, hour or giving specific time information about an event in progress occurring at a past time);
- 3. An uninterrupted action which was in progress for a while (event in progress in the past during an extended period of time);
- 4. The length of time period in the past (event in progress in the past during an extended period of

time);

- 5. Past simultaneous actions (two events happened at the same time);
- 6. Sequence of actions occurred in the past (usually used to describe a situation in which different events were happening at the same time);
- 7. Repeated or annoying action (with always or similar expressions that suggest the idea of a repeated event).

We use the **past continuous**, in the **negative** form, to deny situations that occurred in the past and were in progress at every moment during a period of time.

The structure is:

Subject + was/were + not + [verb + -ing] + ...

For example:

- "*I* was not playing football when the phone rang." = We use **past continuous** to express an action that didn't take place when another one occurred.

♦ "I did not play football." = We use past simple to express the idea of an action that didn't happen in the past.

Past Continuous Interrogative

Verbs

The **past continuous** (or **progressive**) is the tense used to express situations that take place in the past and were in progress at any moment during a period of time.

When expressed in its **interrogative** form, it is used to make questions about things that were happening in a past period of time.

The **past continuous**, in its **interrogative** form, has this structure:

Was/were + subject + [verb + -ing] + ...?

• Was/were: past simple of the verb to be.

AUXILIARY VERB	SUBJECT	PRESENT PARTICIPLE	QUESTION MARK
Was	Ι	work ing	?
Were	you	work ing	?
Was	he/she/it	work ing	?
Were	we/you/they	work ing	?

- 1. Longer background action interrupted by a shorter one
 - *Was* I runn*ing* in the park when you sent me that message?
 - *Was* she practicing sport when I called her?
 - Were they watching TV when she got back from work?
- 2. Event occurring in an exact time in the past
 - Was I running in the park at 9 o'clock?
 - Was she practicing sport when I called her at 11:45?
 - Were they still watching TV when she returned from work at 7 o'clock?
- 3. Uninterrupted action in progress for a while
 - Was I running?
 - Was he crossing the road?
 - Were we watching TV during our break?

- 4. Length of time period in the past
 - Was I working in the bakery on the opposite road last summer?
 - Was she practicing sport every day last year to prepare for the race?
 - Were they watching TV all day when they were teenagers?
- 5. Past simultaneous actions
 - Was I running while she was walking?
 - *Was* she practicing sport while her mother was cooking?
 - Were we talking while the kids were watching TV?
- 6. Sequence of actions occurred in the past
 - *Were* the kids play**ing** on the grass, their parents sitt**ing** on the fence and teenagers runn**ing** when you went to the park?
 - *Was* her mother working on the laptop, her father watching TV and her sister studying when she went home?
 - *Were* the patients read**ing** magazines, talk**ing** on the phone and **was** the secretary typ**ing** anything on the computer while you were waiting at the doctor today?
- 7. Repeated or annoying action
 - Was I always going late to class?
 - Was she practicing sport everyday for years to become a good athlete?
 - Were they always watching TV on high volume late at night?

We use the **past continuous** tense, in its **interrogative** form, to ask about events or activities taking place in the past. We usually intend to show that they lasted for a long time.

Past continuous is used in the following cases:

- 1. A longer background action interrupted by an unexpected shorter one (something suddenly happens while another longer event was already in progress);
- 2. An event that was occurring in an exact time in the past (expressing the date, hour or giving specific time information about an event in progress occurring at a past time);
- 3. An uninterrupted action which was in progress for a while (event in progress in the past during an extended period of time);
- 4. The length of time period in the past (event in progress in the past during an extended period of time);
- 5. Past simultaneous actions (two events happened at the same time);
- 6. Sequence of actions occurred in the past (usually used to describe a situation in which different events were happening at the same time);

7. Repeated or annoying action (with always or similar expressions that suggest the idea of a repeated event).

We use the **past continuous**, in the **interrogative** form, to ask for situations that occurred in the past and were in progress at every moment during a period of time.

```
The structure is:
Was/were + subject + [verb + -ing] + ...?
```

For example:

- "*Was I playing football when the phone rang?*" = We use **past continuous** to ask if something was interrupted when the phone rang.

◆ "Did I play football?" = We use past simple to ask for an action which started and concluded in the past.

UNIT 4.1

Zero Conditional

Syntax

A **conditional sentence** is usually composed by two parts: the **if-clause** (or conditional clause) that expresses the condition, and the **main clause** that expresses the consequence of that condition.

We use the **zero conditional** structure when the result of the condition is always true.

In **zero conditional** we use the **present simple** for both parts of the sentence. We can use **if** or **when** and there is no change in meaning, as the consequence of the condition is always the same.

The order of the sentences doesn't change the meaning, therefore there are two ways of forming this expressions:

IF-CLAUSE (condition)	(,)	MAIN CLAUSE (consequence)
If/When + Present Simple	,	Present Simple

or

MAIN CLAUSE (consequence)	IF-CLAUSE (condition)
Present Simple	If/When + Present Simple

1. If

- If water reaches 100 degrees, it always boils.
- Water always **boils if** it **reaches** 100 degrees.
- 2. When
 - When people don't drink water for a long time, they die.
 - People **die when** they **don't drink** water for a long time.

We use **zero conditional** to express facts and things that always happen, such as scientific facts. The result of the condition is certain.

1. If is used when we want to say that the condition will happen immediately;

2. When is used when we want to say that the condition will definitely happen sooner or later.

A conditional sentence is composed of two parts: the **if-clause** (condition), and the **main clause** (consequence of the condition).

The **zero conditional** is used to express facts and things that always happen, such as scientific facts, and when the result of a condition is always true.

$$\label{eq:If} \begin{split} If &= \mbox{The condition will happen immediately;} \\ When &= \mbox{The condition will definitely happen sooner or later.} \end{split}$$

The structures are:

If/when + present simple + , + present simple Present simple + if/when + present simple

For example:

- "*If/when* you *tell* me what to buy, I **go** to the supermarket." = The first part of the sentence is the condition that make the result, expressed in the second one, possible.

- "I **go** to the supermarket **if/when** you **tell** me what to buy." = The first part of the sentence is the result of the condition expressed in the second one.

First Conditional

Syntax

A **conditional sentence** is usually composed by two parts: the **if-clause** (or conditional clause) that expresses the condition, and the **main clause** that expresses the consequence of that condition.

First conditional is used to express future conditions and consequences or to express something that is possible to happen.

In **first conditional** we use the **present simple** for the if-part of the sentence (although we are talking about a future condition), and the **future simple** for the consequence part of the sentence. We can use **if** or **when** and there is no change in meaning, as the consequence of the condition is always the same.

The order of the sentences doesn't change the meaning, therefore there are two ways of forming this expressions:

IF-CLAUSE (condition)	(,)	MAIN CLAUSE (consequence)
If/When + Present Simple	,	Simple Future

or

MAIN CLAUSE (consequence) IF-CLAUSE (condition)

Simple Future If/When + Present Simple

1. If

- *If* you *are* optimistic, you *will* be happier in your life.
- I will love you back if you love me.

2. When

- When he comes, I will hug him.
- I will change my password when I go home.

We use the **first conditional** to express something that is really possible in the future.

1. **If**

- $\circ\,$ We use if to express conditions and consequences in the future;
- $\circ~\mbox{If}$ is used when we want to say that the condition might happen.

2. **When**

- $\circ\,$ We use when to express things that are certain to happen and we don't express condition;
- $\circ~$ When is used when we want to describe the moment in which something will definitely happen.

A conditional sentence is composed of two parts: the **if-clause** (condition), and the **main clause** (consequence of the condition).

The **first conditional** is used to express the result of conditions that are not certain but very likely to happen in the future. It is also used to express things that are bound to happen in the future.

If= The condition might happen immediately.When = The condition will definitely happen in the future.

The structures are: If/when + present simple + , + future simple Future simple + if/when + present simple

For example:

- "*If/when* you *tell* me what to buy, I will go to the supermarket." = The first part of the clause is the condition that makes the result, expressed in the second one, possible.

- "I will go to the supermarket if/when you tell me what to buy." = The first part of the clause is the result of the condition expressed in the second one.

UNIT 4.2

Adverbs of Time

Adverbs

Adverbs are nouns that function as modifiers of other elements of the clause. They can provide a wide range of information.

Adverbs of time are used to provide information about the time.

Adverbs are usually positioned after auxiliary verbs (to be/to have) or before other verbs.

We use **adverbs of time** to describe the time of an event or action.

The most commonly used are: *now*, *yesterday*, *tonight*, *tomorrow*, *today*, *soon*, *already*, *later*, *all day*, *since*...

- I am reading **now**.
- A famous singer died **yesterday**.
- Are you throwing a party tonight?
- Anna is getting married **tomorrow**.
- I should do it **today**.
- See you **soon**!
- We have **already** divorced.
- I think she will give you her e-mail address later.
- We were at my dad's house **all day**.
- We have lived together since 1999.

Adverbs of time are used to show when something happened or when someone did something. Some adverbs of time may show for how long and how often (frequency) the action took place.

Adverbs of time give information about the time when something happens.

The most commonly used are: *now*, *yesterday*, *tonight*, *tomorrow*, *today*, *soon*, *already*, *later*, *all day*, *since*...

For example:

- "*I'm studying now*." = We use **now** to underline the fact that the action is taking place at the moment of speaking.

Adverbs of Frequency

Adverbs

Adverbs are nouns that function as modifiers of other elements of the clause. They can provide a wide range of information.

Adverbs of frequency are used to provide information about the frequency of an event {see Adverbs – Frequency, A1 level}.

Adverbs are usually positioned after auxiliary verbs (to be/to have) or before other verbs.

We use **adverbs of frequency** to describe the frequency of an event (indefinite and definite).

- The most commonly used adverbs of **indefinite frequency** are: *now and then, seldom, occasionally, frequently, regularly, constantly...*
- The most commonly used adverbs of **definite frequency** are: *daily, weekly, monthly, periodically, yearly...*
- Adverbs of indefinite frequency
 - *Now and then* we go off to the country.
 - I **seldom** go to the beach.
 - \circ He has a flat in London now, but he still comes home **occasionally**.
 - I *frequently* have headaches.
 - She does **regularly** exercises.
 - They **constantly** feel bad.
- Adverbs of definite frequency
 - You **daily** go shopping.
 - Martin have **weekly** visits of his mother.
 - We **monthly** get social welfare payment.
 - *He periodically* complains about his ex-wife.
 - *I* yearly pay for the ambulance service.

Adverbs of frequency are also used as adverbs of time, to describe how often/frequently something happens.

Adverbs of indefinite frequency are used to express the idea about the frequency, but don't show information of exactly how often something happens.

Adverbs of definite frequency are used to express excatly how often something happens.

Adverbs of frequency give information about the frequency of an event.

- The most commonly used adverbs of **indefinite frequency** are: *now and then, seldom, occasionally, frequently, regularly, constantly...*
- The most commonly used adverbs of **definite frequency** are: *daily, weekly, monthly, periodically, yearly...*

For example:

- "I **seldom** go to the gym." = The subject (I) goes to gym only for a few occasions.
- "*I'm* **periodically** *going to the gym.*" = The subject (I) often goes to the gym.

Temporal Subordinate Clauses

Syntax

Temporal clauses are part of the adverbial clauses which are composed of the independent and the dependent clauses, linked by connectors. The connectors of temporal clauses refer to a specific point of time.

The **temporal clause** can be expressed through two kinds of structures that differ in the order of words but not in meaning:

- Connector + clause + , + clause
- Clause + connector + clause

The clauses are made up with **subject + verb**. The **connectors** are: **before**, **after**, **when** and **while**.

- Before
 - **Before** I go to work, I drink a coffee. I drink a coffee **before** I go to work.
 - **Before** it starts raining, we should leave. We should leave **before** it starts raining.
- After
 - **After** you fainted, the ambulance came. The ambulance came **after** you fainted.
 - **After** we got to know her, we realized she was selfish. We realized she was selfish **after** we got to know her.
- When
 - When she had a disease, she felt bad. She felt bad when she had a disease.
 - **When** they were sleeping, the light was on. The light was on **when** they were sleeping.
- While
 - *While* you were reading, they had some coffee.

They had some coffee **while** you were reading.

• *While* he is doing the exercise, he feels good. He feels good *while* he is doing the exercise.

We use **temporal clauses** to form more complex sentences and locate an event in a specific moment or period. The temporal clause gets sense thanks to the following **connectors**:

- 1. **Before** (previous event);
- 2. After (subsequent event);
- 3. **When** (in a specific moment);
- 4. While (at the same time with another event).

Temporal clauses are used to form more complex sentences and locate an event in a specific moment or period. They are usually composed of two parts: the independent and the dependent clauses, which are linked by a connector.

These connectors are: before, after, when and while.

The structures are: Connector + clause + , + clause Clause + connector + clause

For example:

- "*Before* you cook dinner, I'll have a shower." / "I'll have a shower **before** you cook dinner." = The **shower** is the first event to take place and the **dinner** the second.

— "After you cook dinner, I'll have a shower." / "I'll have a shower after you cook dinner." = The dinner is the first event to take place and the shower the second.

— "When the dinner is ready, I'll have a shower." / "I'll have a shower when the dinner is ready." = The shower is the second event that happens in a specific moment.

- "While you cook dinner, I'll have a shower." / "I'll have a shower while you cook dinner." = The two events happens at the same time.

UNIT 5.1

To be used to Affirmative

Verb Phrases

To be used to is a structure used to express habits and customs that are familiar to us.

When expressed in its **affirmative** form, the verb confirms that the subject has some customs.

To be used to, in its **affirmative** form, has this structure: **Subject + to be + used to + [verb + -ing]/pronoun/noun phrase + ...**

• Short forms of the affirmative form are the same to the short forms of **to be**: I'm - you're - he's...

SUBJECT	VERB TO BE	USED TO	GERUND
Ι	am	used to	work ing
You	are	used to	work ing
He/She/It	is	used to	work ing
We/You/They	are	used to	work ing

- They're used to working in a big, modern city.
- I have had long hair since I was a child so I'm used to it now.
- He is used to the noise of the washing machine.

The structure **to be used to** confirms, in its **affirmative** form, things or activities someone is familiar with or accustomed to.

To be used to, in the affirmative form, confirms habits and customs that are familiar to us.

The structure is: Subject + to be + used to + [verb + -ing]/pronoun/noun phrase + ...

For example:

```
- "You are used to having breakfast early in the morning." = Breakfast is the habit of the subject.
```

NOTE: Don't confuse it with **to use to**, that could appear only in sentences that are already in the past tense.

For example:

- "You **are used to** have breakfast early in the morning." = We use **to be used to** to express an action to which the subject is accustomed to now.

• "You **used to** have breakfast early in the morning." = We use **to use to** to express an action that happened in the past, but doesn't happen now anymore.

To be used to Negative

Verb Phrases

To be used to is a structure used to express habits and customs that are familiar to us.

When expressed in its **negative** form, the verb denies that the subject has some customs.

To be used to, in its negative form, has this structure:

```
Subject + to be + not + used to + [verb + ing]/pronoun/noun phrase + ...
```

• Short forms of the negative form are the same to the short forms of **to be**: I'm not – you're not/you aren't – he's not/he isn't...

SUBJECT	VERB TO BE + NEGATION	USED TO	GERUND
Ι	am not	used to	work ing
You	are not	used to	work ing
He/She/It	is not	used to	work ing
We/You/They	are not	used to	work ing

- They're not used to working in a big, modern city.
- I have not had long hair since I was a child so I'm not used to it now.
- He is not used the noise of the washing machine.

The structure **to be used to** denies, in its **negative** form, something or some activities someone is familiar with or accustomed to.

To be used to, in the negative form, denies habits and customs that are familiar to us.

The structure is: Subject + to be + not + used to + [verb + ing]/pronoun/noun phrase + ...

For example:

- "You **are not used to** hav**ing** breakfast early in the morning." = "Having breakfast in the morning" is not the habit of the subject.

NOTE: Don't confuse it with **to use to**, that could appear only in sentences that are already in the past tense.

For example:

- "You **aren't used to** have breakfast early in the morning." = We use **to be used to** to express an action to which the subject isn't accustomed to now.

◆ "You *didn't use to* have breakfast early in the morning." = We use **to use to** to express an action that didn't happen in the past, but it happens now.

To be used to Interrogative

Verb Phrases

To be used to is a structure used to express habits and customs that are familiar to us.

The **interrogative** form is used to ask questions about the subject's customs.

To be used to, in its interrogative form, has this structure: To be + subject + used to + [verb + ing]/pronoun/noun phrase + ...?

TO BE	SUBJECT	USED TO	GERUND	QUESTION MARK
Am	Ι	used to	work ing	?
Are	you	used to	work ing	?
Is	he/she/it	used to	work ing	?
Are	we/you/they	used to	work ing	?

- Are they used to working in a big, modern city?
- You have had long hair since you were a child so are you still used to it?
- Is he used to the noise of the washing machine?

The structure **to be used to** asks, in its **interrogative** form, for things or activities someone is familiar with or accustomed to.

To be used to, in the interrogative form, asks for habits and customs that are familiar to us.

```
The structure is:
To be + subject + used to + [verb + ing]/pronoun/noun phrase + ...?
```

For example:

— "Are you used to having breakfast early in the morning?" = We ask if having breakfast in the morning is the habit of the subject or not.

NOTE: Don't confuse it with **to use to**, that could appear only in sentences that are already in the past tense.

For example:

- "Are you used to have breakfast early in the morning?" = We use to be used to to ask if the subject

is accustomed to the action now.

"Did you use to have breakfast in the morning?" = We use to use to use to ask if the action happened in the past, since it doesn't happen now anymore ("*Did you used to have breakfast early in the morning?*" = The past tense here is already shown with did).

Active and Passive Adjectives

Adjectives

Adjectives are determiners that can be placed in two different positions within a sentence to modify or describe a person or a thing.

Adjectives can be used with **active** or **passive** voice.

The active and passive adjectives can be created as:

- Active adjectives with suffix -ing;
- Passive adjectives with suffix -ed.
- Active adjectives
 - Her answer was amazing!
 - The film is so bor**ing**!
 - *They found the topic very interesting.*
- Passive adjectives
 - We were amazed by her answer.
 - I don't like this film, I'm bor**ed**.
 - *They were interested in the topic.*

We use **active adjectives** to express that somebody or something is causing a particular effect.

We use **passive adjectives** to express that somebody or something is experiencing a feeling or emotion.

Adjectives can be used either in an **active** or **passive** voice, with a significant difference in meaning.

- Active adjectives, with suffix -ing, express the idea of something or someone is causing a particular event or effect;
- **Passive adjectives**, with suffix **-ed**, express the idea of something or someone is experiencing a particular event or effect.

For example:

- "This class was boring!" = The class causes the **boring** situation.
- "I was bored during the lesson." = I am the one who experiences the action and get bored.

UNIT 5.2

Verbs followed by Gerunds and Infinitives

Verb Phrases

There are some verbs that need to be followed by **gerunds** or an **infinitive**.

The verbs followed by a **gerund** (a verb acting as a noun) or **infinitive** (the basic form of the verb preceded by **to**) have these structure:

- The most commonly used **verbs** + **gerund** [**verb** + **-ing**] are: *admit, avoid, celebrate, dislike, suggest, give up, miss, tolerate...*
- The most commonly used **verbs** + **infinitive** [**to** + **verb**] are: *agree*, *care*, *decide*, *hope*, *manage*, *pretend*, *seem*, *wait*...
- Verbs + gerund
 - They **admitted** making a mistake.
 - *He* **avoided** *pay***ing** *taxes*.
 - She *celebrated* passing her driving test.
- Verbs + infinitive
 - We agreed to pay more for the house.
 - She just doesn't care to come tonight.
 - I decided to travel for a year.

We use verb + gerund/infinitive if we want to follow a verb with another action. Some verbs are used with **gerunds** and some with **infinitive**, and there is no rule to distinguish them.

Certain verbs need to be followed by a **gerund** (verbs acting as nouns) or an **infinitive** (to + verb). There is no rule regarding this topic, therefore you need to learn them by heart.

- The most commonly used **verbs** followed by **gerund** are: *admit, avoid, celebrate, dislike, suggest, give up, miss, tolerate...*
- The most commonly used **verbs** followed by **infinitive** are: *agree, care, decide, hope, manage,*

pretend, seem, wait...

For example:

- "I *admit* loving you." = The verb **admit** is followed by a gerund.
- "*I* decided to marry him." = The verb decide is followed by an infinitive.

The Infinitive of Purpose

Verbs

We can use the **to-infinitive** structure to express someone's purpose (the reason or the aim of an action).

The structure of **to-infinitive** (*to work*) is almost the same as the that of the **zero infinitive** (*work*).

To obtain the **negative** form, we add **not** before the infinitive (*not to work*).

- I went outside **to help** my mom, **not to help** you.
- *He called me to invite* us to the beach, **not to invite** us to the picnic.
- We traveled to see my classmates, not to get married.

We use **to-infinitive** after some verbs to express a purpose, but never after modal verbs. Moreover, it is not used (with or without **to-**) after prepositions.

To-infinitive structure is used to express someone's purpose. To make the **negative** form, we add **not** before **to-infinitive**.

For example:

- "I have to find an excuse **to** go to the cinema with them." = The subject expresses his aim to go to cinema.

- "I have to find an excuse **not to go** to the cinema with them." = The subject expresses his aim not to go to cinema.

NOTE: It is not used after modal verb, and after prepositions (with or without to-).

UNIT 6.1

Uncountable Nouns

Nouns

Nouns refer to a person, place, thing, event, substance or quality.

Uncountable nouns are nouns which cannot be counted easily or what we refer to as a **mass** {see Nouns - Countable & Uncountable, A1 level}.

Uncountable nouns refer to things we consider as a **mass** and not as separate objects. We have three types of uncountable nouns:

- 1. With only **singular** form: *advice*, *baggage*, energy, *hair*, *homework*, *information*, *money*...;
- 2. With only **plural** form: *clothes*, *groceries*, *news*, *regards*, *thanks*...;
- 3. **Uncountable** when referring to a general meaning and **countable** when referring to a specific thing or meaning: *a type of, a kind of...*, materials and liquids: *glass, paper, coffee, water...*, or abstract nouns: *life, time...*
- 1. Only **singular** uncountable nouns
 - *My* **baggage** is so heavy because of the camera in it!
 - Her **energy** as a salsa dancer is incredible!
 - Their **money** was not enough to buy the painting.
- 2. Only **plural** uncountable nouns
 - Could you get the **groceries**?
 - *He told me some* **news** *about your journey.*
 - \circ We send our **thanks** to the director.

3. Both **uncountable** and **countable** uses

- She has a lot of **glass** bowls. / Does she want a **glass** of coke?
- Can I borrow some coffee? / Shall I get a coffee (= a cup of coffee)?
- *I need more time*. / *I miss the times of my internship* (= a specific period).

Uncountable nouns usually refer to abstract ideas, substances, materials, gases and liquids.

Uncountable nouns refer to things we consider as a **mass** and not as separate objects. We have three types of uncountable nouns:

- Only **singular** uncountable nouns: *advice*, *baggage*, *energy hair*, *homework*, *information*, *money*...;
- Only **plural** uncountable noun: *clothes, groceries, news, regards, thanks...;*
- Both **uncountable** and **countable** uses: *a type of..., a kind of...; coffee, glass, paper, water...* (materials and liquids); *life, time...* (abstract nouns).

For example:

- "I don't have **energy** for another trip." = **Energy** has only **singular** uncountable form.
- "I will tell you later the **news** of today." = **News** have only **plural** uncountable form.

— "Can I have some coffee?" / "Can I have a coffee?" = Coffee refers to coffee as a powder (singular uncountable), and a coffee has the implicit meaning of a cup of coffee (singular countable).

Invariant Plural Nouns

Nouns

Nouns refer to a person, place, thing, event, substance or quality {see Nouns, A1 Level}.

Invariant nouns are nouns which have the same singular and plural form.

Invariant nouns don't follow the general plural formation rule, they are the same in singular and plural. When the noun has both singular and plural form the article is adapted to it, but if it has just a singular form, we don't add **-s** in the end of the noun.

The most commonly used **invariant plural nouns** are: scissors, series, goggles, jeans, trousers...

Adding **a pair of** before the noun make these nouns singular, because we start to refer to them as one single entity.

- Singular form of the invariant nouns
 - A pair of **scissors** is on the office desk.
 - This advertisement is about a new **series**.
 - Your old pair of **goggles** is used in the musical.
- Plural form of the invariant nouns
 - *Scissors* are dangerous for babies.
 - \circ New TV series about famous writers are going to start.
 - These **goggles** cost a fortune!

The **invariant plural nouns** are used in the same way as plural nouns.

Invariant nouns are nouns with same singular and plural forms, and we need to use the correct article to distinguish them. They don't follow the general plural formation rule.

The most commonly used are: scissors, series, goggles, jeans, trousers...

For example:

— "I bought a pair of jeans." / "I bought two pairs of jeans." = We use the same word for singular and plural.

A few vs A little and Few vs Little

Determiners

A few/a little and few/little are quantifiers which mean not enough or some/enough.

The use of these quantifiers depends on the noun:

	POSITIVE ATTITUDE	NEGATIVE ATTITUDE
PLURAL COUNTABLE	a few	few
SINGULAR UNCOUNTABLE	a little	little

- We have **a few** beautiful beaches for swimming. **Few** beaches are suitable for swimming.
- We can bake a cake! We have **a little** flour. We can't bake a cake! We have (very) **little** flour.

A few and a little mean some, enough. They show that something is more than expected or still remains.

Few and **little** mean **not enough**, **less** or **fewer** than expected. They show that there is not a lot of something, there is a lack of something.

A few/few and a little/little all mean some.

- Plural countable nouns: **a few** (positive) and **few** (negative);
- Singular uncountable nouns: **a little** (positive) and **little** (negative).

For example:

— "I have a few pencils in my bag, I do not need to buy new ones." / "I have few pencils in my bag, I have to buy new ones."

- "There is **a little** milk in the fridge, we can make a cake." / "There is **little** milk in the fridge, we need to go to the supermarket."

When they're preceded by \mathbf{a} , the meaning is positive and is suggesting that something still remains;

without the article, it suggests that there is not a lot of something.

UNIT 6.2



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UNIT 7.1

Must: Modals of Obligation

Modal Verbs

A **modal verb** is a type of auxiliary (helping) verb that has no meaning on its own but it modifies the main verb, changes its meaning and gives more details about action.

Must is a type of auxiliary modal verb used to express certainty, necessity or strong obligation which doesn't come from outside, it's a personal opinion. It also expresses prohibition in the negative form.

Must can be expressed in the three forms and it doesn't change even for the third person singular.

AFFIRMATIVE

Its structure, in the **affirmative** form, is: **Subject + must + verb + ...**

PERSON	MUST	VERB
I/You	must	work
He/She/It	must	work
We/You/They	must	work

NEGATIVE

Its structure, in the **negative** form, is: Subject + must not + verb + ...

• Short form of the negative form is: **mustn't**.

PERSON	SHOULD + NEGATION	VERB
I/You	must not	work
He/She/It	must not	work
We/You/They	must not	work

INTERROGATIVE

Its structure, in the **interrogative** form, is:

Must + subject + verb + ...?

MUST	PERSON	VERB	QUESTION MARK
Must	I/you	work	?
Must	he/she/it	work	?
Must	we/you/they	work	?

- 1. Certainty/reasonably expected
 - It **must** be her flat. It's number 13.
 - This house **must** be in a good state! They renovated it last year.
 - *Must* they be rich? They live in a luxury flat in the city center.
- 2. Strong obligation
 - I must search for a new house, my contract ends soon.
 - She **must** clean the kids clothes, they got very dirty at the park.
 - *Must* we be on time?
- 3. Necessity
 - I **must** buy a new fridge.
 - *He* **must** search for a student flat.
 - Must they paint the walls?
- 4. Prohibition (negative)
 - You **must not** give your address on online forums!
 - *He* **must not** surf on the net while working!
 - You **mustn't** smoke in this restaurant.

We use **must** when:

- 1. We are sure about something, something is reasonably expected (affirmative);
- 2. There is strong obligation (affirmative, interrogative);
- 3. Something is necessary (affirmative, interrogative);
- 4. Prohibition (negative).

The **modal verb must** expresses certainty, strong obligation, necessity or prohibition which doesn't come from outside. **Must** can be expressed in the three forms, and it doesn't change even for the third

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person singular.

The structures are:

- Affirmative: Subject + must + verb + ...
- Negative: Subject + must not + verb + ...
- Interrogative: Must + subject + verb + ...?

For example:

- Affrirmative: "*I* **must** visit my parents soon." = The subject feels obligation.
- Negative: "You **must not** try drugs." = It expresses prohibition.
- Interrogative: "*Must I do it now?*" = The subject asks if he has to do it in that moment.

Have to: Modals of Obligation

Modal Verbs

A **modal verb** is a type of auxiliary (helping) verb that has no meaning on its own but it modifies the main verb, changes its meaning and gives more details about actions.

Have to is a type of auxiliary modal verb used to express certainty, necessity or strong obligation which comes from outside, from external factors.

Have to can be expressed in the three forms:

AFFIRMATIVE

Its structure, in the **affirmative** form, is: **Subject + have/has to + verb + ...**

• Have/has: in the affirmative form, the third person singular changes from have to has.

SUBJECT	HAVE TO	VERB
I/You	have to	work
He/She/It	has to	work
We/You/They	have to	work

NEGATIVE

Its structure, in the **negative** form, is: Subject + do/does + not + have to + verb + ...

- **Do/does**: in the negative form, the third person singular changes from **do** to **does**;
- Short forms of the negative form are the same as the short form of **present simple**: I don't you don't he doesn't...

PERSON	NEGATION	HAVE TO	VERB
I/You	do not	have to	work
He/She/It	does not	have to	work
We/You/They	do not	have to	work

INTERROGATIVE

Its structure, in the **interrogative** form, is: **Do/does + subject + have to + verb + ...**?

• Do/does: in the interrogative form the third person singular changes from do to does.

DO	PERSON	HAVE TO	VERB	QUESTION MARK
Do	I/you	have to	work	?
Does	he/she/it	have to	work	?
Do	we/you/they	have to	work	?

- 1. Certainty/reasonably expected
 - This **has to** be her flat! She said it's floor 2, flat 13.
 - *This house* **doesn't have** to be in a good state.
 - **Do** they **have to** be rich? They live in a luxury flat in the city center.
- 2. Strong obligation
 - The owner said I have to move to another house.
 - She **doesn't have to** clean the kid's clothes everyday.
 - \circ Do we have to clean the mess we made in the kitchen?
- 3. Necessity
 - I have to buy a new fridge, the one I have is broken.
 - Alissa **doesn't have to** search for a student flat.
 - Do they have to paint the walls?
- 4. No obligation (negative)
 - We **don't have to** ride a horse.
 - He **doesn't have to** clean his room.
 - They don't have to return from the island?

Have to is used to show that there is an obligation imposed by external factors. It is used to show:

- 1. That something is reasonably expected or is a certainty (affirmative, negative, interrogative);
- 2. A strong obligation (affirmative, interrogative);
- 3. A necessity (affirmative, negative, interrogative);
- 4. Unnecessity or no obligation to do something (negative).

The **modal verb have to** expresses certainty, strong obligation, necessity or no obligation which comes outside, from external factors.

The structures are:

- Affirmative: Subject + have/has to + verb + ...
- Negative: Subject + do/does + not + have to + verb + ...
- Interrogative: **Do/does + subject + have to + verb + ...**?

For example:

— Affrimative: "I **have to** go to school every day." = The subject is obliged to go to school every day.

- Negative: "She **doesn't have to** go to school every day." = It is not necessary for the subject to go to school every day.

— Interrogative: "Does she have to go to school every day?" = We ask if the subject is obliged to go to school every day.

NOTE: **Don't have to** (negative form of **have to**) usually expresses that something is not necessary to be done.

Must vs Have to

Modal Verbs

Both **must** and **have to** belong to the group of auxiliary modal verbs that have no meaning on their own but they modify the main verb, change its meaning and give more details about the action.

Must and **have to** are used to express certainty, necessity or strong obligation which comes from internal or external factors.

There are some structural differences between **must** and **have to**. With must the form is always the same, even for the third person singular.

Affirmative forms:

- Must: Subject + must + verb + ...
- Have to: Subject + have/has to + verb + ...

Negative forms:

- Must: Subject + must + not + verb + ...
- Have to: Subject + do/does + not+ have to + verb + ...

Interrogative forms:

- Must: Must + subject + verb + ...?
- Have to: Do/does + subject + have to + verb + ...?
- Affirmative
 - *I* **must** *stop eating sweets* (I want to do it).
 - *I* have to stop eating sweets (my doctor ordered me to stop).
- Negative
 - You **mustn't** read this book (you are not allowed).
 - You **don't have to** read this book (you have a choice to read it or not).
- Interrogative

- *Must you* wear the same suit every day (is it necessary for you)?
- *Do you have to wear a suit at work* (is it obligatory at your workplace)?

Must is used when we want to show that there are personal circumstances which make the action obligatory, and the speaker has decided that is necessary. Must shows a stronger obligation than have to.

Have to is used when we want to show that somebody else has made something obligatory.

In the **negative** form there are different uses:

- Mustn't usually expresses prohibition;
- **Don't have to** usually expresses that something is not necessary to be done.

Must and **have to** are two **modal verbs** which are used to express strong obligation or the need to do something:

- Must expresses strong obligation which comes from inside. Mustn't usually expresses prohibition;
- Have to is generally used to show that there is an obligation imposed by external factors. Don't have to usually expresses that something is not necessary to be done.

For example:

— "I must start a diet, I do not like my appearance." / "I have to start a diet, the competition is soon."
= In the first sentence the subject is obliged to start a diet because of personal reasons. In the second sentence the subject is obliged to start a diet because of external reasons.

NOTE: The form of must is always the same, even for the third person singular.

Prepositions of Time

Prepositions

Prepositions are small words that connect elements in a sentence. They are essential because they provide additional details about the sentence.

We use the **prepositions of time** to locate an event in a **time** frame.

Prepositions of time don't stand alone but act with other elements of the sentence to create what we can call **prepositional phrases**: **at**, **on**, **in** and **by**.

• At

- Everyday **at** 7.00 clock I can see the stars.
- *He is going to the forest* **at** *Easter.*
- At weekend we take the dogs for a walk.
- On
 - **On** Sundays, I usually relax with my friends by going to the coast.
 - **On** the 1st of September in 1997 she was born.
 - The island sank **on** Sunday morning.

• In

- I always travel to famous forests in Finland **in** November.
- In the autumn it always rains.
- \circ **In** the evening horses started to run.
- By
 - *Please, send me those tickets* **by** *Monday.*
 - She have to finish her world map **by** next week.
 - $\circ\,$ Is Maria still in garden? Yes, she will be back ${\bf by}$ evening.

Prepositions of time make possible to locate an event in a specific moment or period.

- At
 - Exact times (the moment, sunrise, noon, night, midnight, hours);
 - Special holiday periods (*Christmas**, *Easter...*);
 - \circ Weekend*.
- On
 - Days of the week (Monday, Saturday, Wednesday...);
 - Dates;
 - Specific part of the day (on Sunday morning).
- In
 - Months, years, centuries;
 - Seasons;
 - $\circ\,$ The morning, the afternoon, the evening.
- By
 - Time-limited actions;
 - Projects with deadline;
 - $\circ\,$ Time of someone's return.

*In American English you can find **on** instead of **at**.

Prepositions of time are used to locate the event in a time context.

The main prepositions of time are:

- At: for exact times, special holiday periods and weekend;
- **On**: days of the week, dates and specific part of the day;
- In: months, years, seasons, centuries, the morning, the afternoon and the evening;
- By: time-limited actions, projects with deadline and time of someone's return.

For example:

- "I will go to my grandparents' house at Christmas."
- "I will go to my grandparents' house on 25th of December."
- "I will go to my grandparents' house in December."
- "I will return from my grandparent's house **by** December."

NOTE: In American English you can find Christmas and weekend with **on** instead of **at**.

Prepositions of Movement

Prepositions

Prepositions are small words that connect elements in a sentence. They are essential because they provide additional details about the sentence.

We use the **prepositions of movements** to express movement or directions.

Prepositions of movement don't stand alone but act with other elements of the sentence. Their use depends on:

- 1. Movement to or from a place: *to, from, down, up, away from...*
- 2. Movement from one side to another: *across, along...*
- 3. Changing position: in/into, on/onto, out of, off, over, under...
- 1. Movement to or from a place
 - Northern wind goes **to** Turkey every winter.
 - My mother came **from** the garden.
 - The baby pig fell **down** the stairs.
 - *I'm going* **up** *to the second floor to see the sky.*
 - Get **away from** the olive trees!
- 2. Movement from one side to another
 - *Be careful when you go across the streets. It is snowing.*
 - Every Sunday we go for a walk **along** the coast.
- 3. Changing position
 - *My grandfather is coming into the garden.*
 - My sister's cat always jumps **on/onto** the table.
 - Your dog is **out of** your apartment right now.
 - Can you get **off** the bed and go to the supermarket, please?
 - The plane flies **over** the hill.
 - The subway runs **under** the street level.

Prepositions of movement are used to show movement from one place to another. They can express:

- 1. Movement to or from a place;
- 2. Movement from one side to another;
- 3. Changing position.

Prepositions of movement are used to express movements or directions:

- Movement to or from a place: *to, from, down, up, away from...;*
- Movement from one side to another: *across, along...;*
- Changing position: *in/into, on/onto, out of, off, over, under...*

For example:

— "I go to Ibiza every summer." = We use to to express a change of position made to reach a specific destination.

- "Be careful when you go **across** the streets." = We use **across** to express a change of position from a side to another through a path.

- "*My grandfather walks in/into the living room.*" = We use **in/into** to express a change of position to enter a 3-dimensional place.

Prepositions of Place

Prepositions

Prepositions are small words that connect elements in a sentence. They are essential because they provide additional details about the sentence.

We use the **prepositions of place** to locate an event in a **space** frame.

Prepositions of place don't stand alone but act with other elements of the sentence to create what we can call **prepositional phrases**: **at**, **on**, **in** and **by**.

• At

- *I* am waiting **at** the metro station in the rain.
- *He was at the game when it was snowing.*
- *They love being* **at** *home with their dog.*
- On
 - \circ You put many posters \boldsymbol{on} the walls.
 - There was a rose **on** the way home.
 - \circ We are not allowed to smoke \boldsymbol{on} the bus.
- In
 - You can find wonderful paintings **in** this church.
 - There is a wild animal **in** that forest.
 - They lived **in** Canada for 10 years.
- By
 - *His dog is always walking* **by** *his side.*
 - The house is **by** a coast.
 - They are talking **by** the pine tree.

Prepositions of place are used to express location of something or someone. The main are:

- At (general, to refer to bigger places)
 - Exact position at a point (*at the bus stop...*);
 - Before the name of group activities (*at the party, at the match...*);
 - With home, work, school, university, the top, the bottom...
- **On** (more specific, to refer to smaller places)
 - Position on a surface (*on the floor*...);
 - On a line (on the path, on the way, on the river...);
 - Public transport;
 - Directions (the right and the left...)
- In (very specific, to refer to smallest places)
 - Position inside large areas;
 - Three-dimensional space and areas surrounded on all sides (*in a forest, in the office...*);
 - Continents, states, countries, buildings...

• By

- Left or right of somebody or something;
- $\circ~$ Next to somebody or something;
- $\circ~$ Not far away in distance (near).

Prepositions of place are used to locate an event in a space frame.

The main prepositions of place are:

- At: exact position at a point, before the name of group activities, with some words;
- **On**: position on a surface, on a line, public transport, directions;
- **In**: position inside large areas, three-dimensional space and areas surrounded on all sides, continents, buildings;
- **By**: left or right of somebody or something, next to somebody or something, not far away in distance.

For example:

- "I work **at** home today." = We use **at** to express a specific point or place.
- "I work **on** the left of the corner." = We use **on** to express directions.
- "*I work in this building.*" = We use **in** to express the position inside a 3-dimensional place.
- "I work **by** this building." = We use **by** to express that a place is near to the other.

Let's revise this content within the {Form} section. Take a look at the {Example} section that shows its

use within a context.

UNIT 7.2

Should: Modal Auxiliary Verb

Modal Verbs

A **modal verb** is a type of auxiliary (helping) verb that has no meaning on its own but it modifies the main verb, changes his meaning and gives more details about action.

Should is a type of auxiliary modal verb used to express obligation and duty through advice or recommendations.

Should has always the same form even for the third person, and we find this structure in its three forms.

AFFIRMATIVE

Its structure, in the **affirmative** form, is: **Subject + should + verb + ...**

PERSON	SHOULD	VERB
I/You	should	work
He/She/It	should	work
We/You/They	should	work

NEGATIVE

```
Its structure, in the negative form, is:
```

Subject + should + not + verb + ...

• Short version of the negative form is: **shouldn't**.

PERSON	SHOULD + NEGATION	VERB
I/You	should not	work
He/She/It	should not	work
We/You/They	should not	work

INTERROGATIVE

Its structure, in the **interrogative** form, is:

Should + subject + verb + ...?

SHOULD	PERSON	VERB	QUESTION MARK
Should	I/you	work	?
Should	he/she/it	work	?
Should	we/you/they	work	?

- 1. Weaker obligation/duty
 - *I* **should** never be late to school again!
 - *He* **shouldn't** talk to his classmates during the exam.
 - We **should** always wear seatbelts when we drive the car.
- 2. Advice (recommendation)
 - You *should* be quiet when you visit a public library.
 - She **shouldn't** revise the units that are not in the exam.
 - **Should** we memorize this rule?

Should can be considered not to be as strong as **must**. We use should when:

- 1. We indicate weaker obligation or duty;
- 2. We give and ask for advice (recommendation).

The **modal verb should** expresses weaker obligation or advice. It can be considered not to be as strong as **must**.

The structures are:

- Affirmative: Subject + should + verb + ...
- Negative: Subject + should + not + verb + ...
- Interrogative: Should + subject + verb + ...?

For example:

— Affirmative: "You should do your homework to understand the subject." = Should is used to give advice in a friendly manner.

— Negative: "You shouldn't do your homework to understand the subject." = Shouldn't is used to

give advice in a friendly manner.

— Interrogative: **"Should** you do your homework to understand the subject?" = **Should**...? is used to ask for a confirmation of advice.

◆ "You **must** do your homework or you will fail the class." = **Must** expresses stronger obligation.

Let's revise this content within the {Form} section. Take a look at the {Example} section that shows its use within a context.

Ought To: Modal Auxiliary Verb

Modal Verbs

A **modal verb** is a type of auxiliary (helping) verb that has no meaning on its own but it modifies the main verb, changes his meaning and gives more details about action.

Ought to is a type of auxiliary modal verb used to express obligation and duty through advice or recommendations.

Ought to has always the same form even for the third person singular, and we find this structure in its three forms.

AFFIRMATIVE

Its structure, in the **affirmative** form, is: **Subject + ought to + verb + ...**

PERSON	OUGHT TO	VERB
I/You	ought to	work
He/She/It	ought to	work
We/You/They	ought to	work

NEGATIVE

```
Its structure, in the negative form, is:
```

- Subject + ought + not + to + verb + ...
 - Short version of the negative form is: **oughtn't**.

PERSON	OUGHT + NEGATION	VERB
I/You	ought not to	work
He/She/It	ought not to	work
We/You/They	ought not to	work

INTERROGATIVE

Its structure, in the **interrogative** form, is:

Ought + subject + to + verb + ...?

OUGHT	PERSON	TO	VERB	QUESTION MARK
Ought	I/you	to	work	?
Ought	he/she/it	to	work	?
Ought	we/you/they	to	work	?

- 1. Weaker obligation/duty
 - You ought to apologize.
 - Smoking **oughtn't to** be allowed at school.
 - You **ought to** get the diploma soon.

2. Advice

- You ought to work out more.
- He **oughtn't to** memorize the rule, it's better to understand it.
- **Ought** we to read the syllabus of the course?

Outght to can be considered not to be as strong as must. We use ought to when:

- 1. We indicate weaker obligation or duty;
- 2. We give and ask for advice (recommendation).

The **modal verb ought to** expresses obligation or advice. It can be considered to not be as strong as **must**.

The structures are:

- Affirmative: Subject + ought to + verb + ...
- Negative: Subject + ought + not + to + verb + ...
- Interrogative: Ought + subject + to + verb + ...?

For example:

— Affirmative: "You ought to do your homework to understand the subject." = Ought to is used to give a recommendation.

— Negative: "You oughtn't to do your homework to understand the subject." = Oughtn't is used to

give a recommendation.

— Interrogative: "*Ought* you to do your homework to understand the subject?" = **Ought**...? is used to ask for a confirmation of a recommendation.

• "You **must** do your homework or you will fail the class." = **Must** expresses a stronger obligation.

Let's revise this content within the {Form} section. Take a look at the {Example} section that shows its use within a context.

Should vs Ought To

Modal Verbs

Both **should** and **ought to** belong to the group of auxiliary **modal verbs** that have no meaning on their own but they modify the main verb, change its meaning and give more details about action.

Should and ought to are used to express obligation and duty through advice or recommendations.

Should and **ought to** are always followed by the **infinitive** of the verb. They have the same forms even for the third person singular.

Affirmative forms:

- Should: Subject + should + infinitive + ...
- Ought to: Subject + ought to + infinitive + ...

Negative forms:

- Should: Subject + should + not + infinitive + ...
- Ought to: Subject + ought + not + to + infinitive + ...

Interrogative forms:

- Should: Should + subject + infinitive + ...?
- Ought to: Ought + subject + to + infinitive + ...?
- Should
 - We should go now. / We should to go now.
 - We **shouldn't** go now.
 - **Should** we go now?
- Ought to
 - We ought to go now. / We ought go now.
 - We oughtn't to go now.
 - **Ought** we to go now?

Both these **modal verbs** have a very similar meaning and one can replace the other. They can be considered not to be as strong as **must**.

However, **should** is used much more often and it is less formal than **ought to**. Ought to is almost never used in interrogative and negative form.

The **modal verbs should** and **ought to** express obligation or advice. They are always followed by **infinitive**.

They differ in usage despite both having similar meanings.

- **Should** is used more often and is less formal.
- **Ought to** is very uncommon in everyday use, especially in its negative and interrogative form, and is generally more formal.

For example:

- "You **should** apologize." / "You **ought to** apologize."

Let's revise this content within the $\{Form\}$ section. Take a look at the $\{Example\}$ section that shows its use within a context.

Indefinite Pronouns: Something and Nothing

Pronouns

Pronouns are words used to avoid repetitions of a noun.

Indefinite pronouns do not refer to any specific person, thing or amount.

Something refers to objects with unspecified quantity while nothing refers to absent objects.

Something can be used as subject or object of a sentence or question. We use it in singular, positive sentences. The structures are:

Verb/auxiliary verb + something + ... Something + verb/auxiliary verb + ...

Nothing can be used as subject or object of a sentence or question. We cannot use it with negative sentences, because it already has a negative meaning. The structures are:

Verb/auxiliary verb + nothing + ... Nothing + verb + ...

- Something
 - *I need* **something** to clean the microwave.
 - *Something* smells terrible in the gas oven.
- Nothing
 - There is **nothing** in the dishwasher.
 - *Right now, nothing* is in good state.

Indefinite pronouns do not refer to any specific person, thing or amount. **Something** is used to express an unspecified thing. **Nothing** refers to no single object.

Indefinite pronouns do not refer to any specific person, thing or amount.

Something is used to describe an indefinite quantity of things. The structures are: **Verb/auxiliary verb + something + ...** **Something + verb/auxiliary verb + ...**

Nothing is used to describe no single object. The structures are:

Verb/auxiliary verb + nothing + ... Nothing + verb + ...

For example:

- "*There is something in the fridge.*" = **Something** is used to indicate the existence of an object or objects.

- "*There is nothing in the fridge.*" = Nothing is used to indicate the absence of any object.

Let's revise this content within the $\{Form\}$ section. Take a look at the $\{Example\}$ section that shows its use within a context.

UNIT 8.1

Comparisons with Like

Comparison Formation

Like as a verb is used to express things we enjoy and take pleasure in.

The preposition **like** is used to make a comparison between two similar or identical things or ideas.

Comparison with **like** usually has this structure: **First clause + like + noun/pronoun +** ...

- Your house looks **like** my mother's house.
- This boy cleans **like** a robot.
- Those student apartments look **like** a garbage.

We use **like** to compare two things that are similar or identical.

The preposition like is used to make a comparison between two similar or identical things or ideas.

The structure is: First clause + like + noun/pronoun + ...

For example:

- "*The kitchen smells like flowers.*" = Like helps us to compare the smell of the kitchen and flowers.

Let's revise this content within the $\{Form\}$ section. Take a look at the $\{Example\}$ section that shows its use within a context.

Can and Could: Modals of Ability

Modal Verbs

A **modal verb** is a type of auxiliary (helping) verb that has no meaning on its own but it modifies the main verb, changes its meaning and gives more details about action.

Could is the past form of the modal verb **can**. These are types of auxiliary modal verbs used to express the idea of ability or permission {see Modals of Ability – Can, A1 Level}.

Can/could have always the same form, even for the third person singular. It is used as **modal verb** and can be used in the three forms.

AFFIRMATIVE

Its structure, in the **affirmative** form, is: **Subject + could + verb + ...**

PERSON	CAN/COULD	VERB
I/You	could	work
He/She/It	could	work
We/You/They	could	work

NEGATIVE

```
Its structure, in the negative form, is:
```

Subject + could + not + verb + ...

• Short version of the negative form is: can't/couldn't.

PERSON	CAN/COULD + NEGATION	VERB
I/You	could not	work
He/She/It	could not	work
We/You/They	could not	work

INTERROGATIVE

Its structure, in the **interrogative** form, is:

Can/could + subject + verb + ...?

CAN/COULD	PERSON	VERB	QUESTION MARK
Could	I/you	work	?
Could	he/she/it	work	?
Could	we/you/they	work	?

- 1. Ability
 - I can cook very well.
 I could cook very well when I want to (not always).

2. Polite offer

- Can I make you a dinner?
- Could I make you a dinner?
- 3. Polite request
 - Can you pass me the milk from the fridge?
 - *Could* you pass me the milk from the fridge, please?
- 4. Possibility
 - She **can** rent this flat. She has a good job. She **could** rent this flat if she finds a job.
- 5. Disapproval
 - *How can you call the owner without telling me*?
 - How **could** you call the owner without telling me?
- 6. With verbs of the senses (*smell*, *taste*, *see*, *hear*, *touch*...) and mental processes (*think*, *believe*, *remember*, *understand*...)
 - \circ The house was in a bad state. I can smell the moisture.
 - $\circ\,$ The house was in a bad state. I could smell the moisture.

Could is the past, less direct and more polite form of can and it has almost the same usage, but it can refer to the past. Also, it is used to express disapproval, and with the verbs of tenses and mental processes. We can use could in present to be more polite. **Could** is used to express:

- 1. Abilities;
- 2. Polite offers;
- 3. Polite requests;
- 4. Possibilities;
- 5. Disapproval;
- 6. With verbs of senses (*smell, taste, see, hear, touch...*) and mental processes (*think, believe, remember, understand...*).

The **modal verbs can** and **could** express ability, offers, request and possibility. **Could** is also used to express disapproval, senses and mental processes, and it is the past form of **can**.

The structures are:

- Affirmative: Subject + could + verb + ...
- Negative: Subject + could + not + verb + ...
- Interrogative: Could + subject + verb + ...?

For example:

- Affirmative: "Moving could be stressful." / "Moving can be stressful." = Could is used to express that moving is sometimes stressful and can that is stressful most of the time.

— Negative: "We couldn't share a flat!" / "We can't share a flat!" = Could is used to express refusal and can to express impossibility.

— Interrogative: "Could I use the microwave?" / "Can I use the microwave?" = Could is used to ask for something in a more polite way.

NOTE: We don't use could to give or refuse permission.

— "Could I leave early today?" - "Yes, you can"; "No, you can't." / "Yes, you could"; "No, you couldn't."

Let's revise this content within the $\{Form\}$ section. Take a look at the $\{Example\}$ section that shows its use within a context.

May: Modals of Possibility

Modal Verbs

A **modal verb** is a type of auxiliary (helping) verb that has no meaning on its own but it modifies the main verb, changes its meaning and gives more details about action.

May is a type of auxiliary modal verb used to express possibility for something to happen and also to ask for or give permission.

May has always the same form, even for the third person singular, and we usually find this structure in its three forms.

AFFIRMATIVE

Its structure, in the **affirmative** form, is: **Subject + may + verb + ...**

SUBJECT	MAY	VERB
I/You	may	work
He/She/It	may	work
We/You/They	may	work

NEGATIVE

```
Its structure, in the negative form, is:
Subject + may + not + verb + ...
```

SUBJECT	MAY + NEGATION	VERB (infinitive)
I/You	may not	work
He/She/It	may not	work
We/You/They	may not	work

INTERROGATIVE

Its structure, in the **interrogative** form, is: May + subject + verb + ...? MAYSUBJECTVERBQUESTION MARKMayI/youwork...?Mayhe/she/itwork...?Maywe/you/theywork...?

AFFIRMATIVE

1. Permission

- You **may** take this plate.
- She **may** answer the phone.
- They **may** travel by plane.

2. Uncertainty/possibility

- I'm afraid I **may** be late.
- Susana **may** come to see you tomorrow.
- *There* **may** *be too many people at the post office*.

3. Express wish or hope

- *May* the force be with you.
- *May* you both be happy together.
- *May* we have rain this year.

NEGATIVE

- You may not answer the phone call!
- She may not leave a message.
- I'm afraid that we **may not** interview the director.

INTERROGATIVE

- May I answer an important phone call?
- May she leave you a message?
- May we interview the director?

We use **may** in the **affirmative** form when we:

1. Give or ask for permission;

- 2. Are not sure about something;
- 3. Express wish or hope.

We use **may** in the **negative** form when we refuse the permission or express uncertainty.

We use **may** in the **interrogative** form when we want to make a polite request.

The modal verb **may** expresses permission, possibility for something to happen, wishes or hopes. **Negative** form expresses prohibition or uncertainty, and **interrogative** form is used for polite requests.

The structures are:

- Affirmative: Subject + may + verb + ...
- Negative: Subject + may + not + verb + ...
- Interrogative: May + subject + verb + ...?

For example:

- Affirmative: "It **may** snow this winter."
- Negative: "It **may not** snow this winter."
- Interrogative: "May it snow this winter?"

Let's revise this content within the $\{Form\}$ section. Take a look at the $\{Example\}$ section that shows its use within a context.

UNIT 8.2

One and Ones

Pronouns

One and **ones** are replacing words that are used to avoid repetition.

When we use **one** and **ones** we apply the following structures:

- **One**: for singular countable nouns;
- **Ones**: for plural countable nouns.

We don't use them with uncountable nouns.

- One
 - *I* would like a waffle. Just a small **one** with some cream and berries.
 - This novel is better than that **one**.
 - $\circ\,$ They have a new camera, it's the **one** I saw in the newspaper.
- Ones
 - *I really like these drawings, the ones which Peter drew.*
 - *He needs new photos of her. The ones that I took are too dark.*
 - They saw new paintings of Joanna, the **ones** which are at the exhibition.

One and ones are used to avoid repeating unnecessary words (a singular or plural countable noun).

We use **one** and **ones** to avoid repetitions.

- **One** is used instead of singular countable nouns;
- **Ones** is used instead of plural countable nouns.

For example:

- "There is a **phone** on the table. The black **one** is mine." = **Phone** is a singular countable noun.
- "There are 3 **phones** on the table. The black **ones** are mine." = **Phones** is a plural countable noun.

Let's revise this content within the {Form} section. Take a look at the {Example} section that shows its use within a context.

So that vs So ... that

Syntax

So that and so...that are two different, though similar, constructions which express different things.

So that highlights the consequences of an action or purpose. **So...that** shows extremes leading to certain results.

So that (as adverb clause of result) and **so...that** (as degree adverb) are two different structures but we can omit **that** in both cases.

The structure of **so that** is: Clause 1 + so that + clause 2

The structure of **so... that** is: Clause 1 + so + adjective/adverb + that + clause 2

- So that
 - *I am going to special classes* **so that** *I will become a good IT guy.*
 - *He is saving money* **so that** *he can buy a new laptop.*
 - *I asked my mom to watch the kids* **so that** we can go to the cinema.
- So...that
 - Those PC's had **so** many viruses **that** they couldn't use them.
 - *My grandfather is* **so** *short* **that** *I have to reach the top shelves for him.*
 - The car was going **so** fast **that** I thought we were going to die.

We usually use **so that** (adverb clause of result) as a construction link between two sentences, where the second sentence expresses the result or purpose of the first.

We use **so...that** (degree adverb) to create a comparison between two things. It is used to underline an action to show the extremes which lead to certain results.

We use the adverb clause of result **so that** to highlight the consequence of an action or purpose: **Clause 1 + so that + clause 2**

We use **so...that** to create a comparison between two things:

Clause 1 + so + adjective/adverb + that + clause 2

For example:

- "*I will save some money* **so that** *I* can go to holiday." = We use **so that** to express the consequence of saving money.

— "I am so rich that I don't have to save money to go to holiday." = We use so...that to compare the condition and the result.

NOTE: We can omit **that** in both structures when speaking.

Let's revise this content within the {Form} section. Take a look at the {Example} section that shows its use within a context.

Concessive Clauses

Syntax

A **concessive clause** is usually a subordinate clause that expresses a contrast with the concept formulated in the main clause.

The positions of a **concessive clause** in a sentence are: Main clause + concessive conjunction + concessive clause Concessive conjunction + consessive clause + , + main clause

Concessive clauses are usually introduced by the concessive conjunctons **although**, **though** or **even though**.

- This is a modern city **although** it has many historical monuments. **Although** this is a modern city, it has many historical monuments.
- The answer was correct **though** she got a low mark. **Though** the answer was correct, she got a low mark.
- This is a university city **even though** you can see many old people here. **Even though** this is a university city, you can see many old people here.

Although, though and even though are used to express the opposite idea to what is stated in the main sentence.

Concessive clauses are subordinate clauses which express a contrast with the concept formulated in the main clause.

They usually begin with the conjunction **although**, **though** or **even though**.

- Main clause + concessive conjunction + concessive clause
- Concessive conjunction + consessive clause + , + main clause

For example:

- "I don't like fish **although/though/even though** I will try this food."
- "Although/though/even though I don't like fish, I will try this food."

Let's revise this content within the {Form} section. And take a look to the {Example} that show its use within a context.

UNIT 9.1

Adverbs Formation

Adverbs

Adverbs are expressions that function as modifiers of other elements in the clause. They can provide a wide range of information.

Adverbs can be formed from adjectives according to their suffix. The various cases of the formation of adverbs are:

REGULAR

• The **adverbs** are formed by just adding **-ly** to adjectives.

ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
bad	bad ly
beautiful	beautiful ly
complete	$\texttt{complete} \mathbf{l} \mathbf{y}$
extreme	extremely
slow	slow ly

• Adjective with suffix -y : change to -i before adding -ly.

ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
easy	easi ly
happy	happi ly
nasty	nasti ly

• If an **adjective** ends with **consonant** + **-le**, **-e** becomes **-y**.

ADJECTIVE ADVERB

gentle	$gent \mathbf{ly}$
idle	id ly
noble	nob ly

• Adjective with suffix -ic: add -ally.

ADJECTIVE ADVERB

drastic	drastic ally
enthusiastic	enthusiastic ally
tragic	tragic ally

IRREGULAR

ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
full	fully
public	publicly
shy	shyly
true	truly

Friendly and timely are adjectives and if we want to use them as adverbs, we follow these structures:

- Friendly \Rightarrow in a friendly manner;
- Timely \Rightarrow in a timely manner.

REGULAR

The most of the adverbs

• He was answering **slowly**.

Adjective with suffix -y

• She **easily** moved to another flat.

Adjective ending with consonant + -le, -e

- She gently opened the pack of flour.
- You *idly* ate that tin of tuna.

Adjective with suffix -ic

• They enthusiastically made a jar of marmalade.

IRREGULAR

- She **shyly** asked a question.
- We offered her some orange juice in a friendly manner.

An **adverb** is a word that describes or gives more information about a verb, adjective, phrase or another adverb.

Adverbs are expressions that function as modifiers of other elements in the clause. To make adverbs from **adjectives** we follow a general rule.

There are some **exceptions**, depending on the ending of the adjectives.

For example:

- With **suffix-y**: "*Easy*" ⇒ "*I can easily drink alcoholic drinks*." = We change **-y** to **-i** and add **-ly**;
- **Consonant** + -le: "Noble" \Rightarrow "The knight who nobly fought was thirsty." = We change -e to -y;
- With **suffix -ic**: "Drastic" ⇒ "Steak prices drastically changed." = We add -ally.

Some adverbs are **irregular** and there is no rule for their formation (*fully*, *publicly*, *in a timely manner*...).

For example:

- "Publicly" \Rightarrow "He **publicly** continued his speech."

Let's revise this content within the $\{Form\}$ section. And take a look to the [Examples] that show its use within a context.

Adverbs of Manner

Adverbs

Adverbs are expressions that function as modifiers of other elements in the clause. They can provide a wide range of information.

Adverbs of manner are used to provide information about the way (how) something is done.

Adverbs of manner always come after a verb and can be used after words like very or too.

REGULAR

In most cases we obtain the **adverb** of manner by adding **-ly** to the adjective.

The most commonly used are:

ADJECTIVE ADVERB OF MANNER

bad	bad ly
exact	exact ly
loud	loud ly
nice	nice ly
polite	polite ly

IRREGULAR

Some of them are irregular and don't follow the same rule or simply maintain the same form of the adjective, for example:

ADJECTIVEADVERB OF MANNERfastfastgoodwellhardhardlatelatestraightstraight

REGULAR

- He was very badly hurt in the accident.
- She didn't know **exactly** what happened.
- She told them that she had headache but they continued talking **too loudly**.
- She combed her hair **nicely**.
- She went to the Social Welfare and asked **politely** for help.

IRREGULAR

- He put orange juice in the fridge **fast**.
- You said it **well**.
- This job is so **hard**, I need a drink.
- *He answered my question late*.
- Hold the bottle **straight**.

Adverbs of manner are used to express the way or how something happens or is done. They can be used with:

- Very: to add emphasis to adjectives and adverbs that are able to be graded.
- **Too**: to mean more than wanted, more than necessarry or more than enough.

Adverbs of manner give information about the way (how) something is done, and they emphasize the action. They always come after a verb.

They are formed by adding **-ly** to the adjective (badly, exactly, loudly, nicely, politely...).

For example:

- "Quick" \Rightarrow "He **quickly** kissed the girl on the cheek." / "He **very quickly** kissed the girl on the cheek." = We add **-ly**, and **very** add extra emphasis in the action;

Some adverbs of manner are **irregular** and maintain the same form as adjectives (*fast, well, hard, late, straight...*).

For example:

- "Straight" \Rightarrow "Walk **straight**, Chinese restaurant is there." = **Straight** remains the same.

NOTE: They can be used after words like \boldsymbol{very} or $\boldsymbol{too}.$

Let's revise this content within the $\{Form\}$ section. And take a look to the [Examples] that show its use within a context.

Adverbs of Degree

Adverbs

Adverbs are expressions that function as modifiers of other elements in the clause. They can provide a wide range of information.

Adverbs of degree or intensifiers are used to provide information about the intensity of an action or adjective {see Adverbs – Degree, A1 level}.

Adverbs of degree are usually positioned after the auxiliary verbs to be or to have, or before other verbs or the words they modify.

REGULAR

In most cases we obtain $\mathbf{regular}$ adverbs of degree by adding $-\mathbf{ly}$ to the adjectives. The most commonly used are:

ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
bare	barely
real	real ly
total	total ly
complete	complete ly
absolute	absolute ly

IRREGULAR

Irregular adverb of degree don't follow the same rule and simply maintain the same form of the adjective, for example:

ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
almost	almost
enough	enough
too	too
very	very
quite	quite

REGULAR

- They **barely** know each other.
- We are **really** angry about the noise.
- It is **totally** worth it!
- You are completely wrong!
- You have **absolutely** nothing to drink.

IRREGULAR

- She **almost** spill the orange juice.
- I think you had **enough** wine.
- This bag of potatoes is **too** heavy.
- They are **very** thirsty.
- You have **quite** a shopping list here.

Adverbs of degree are used to show the intensity of an action, adjective or another adverb.

Adverbs of degree give information about the intensity of an action or adjective. They are usually positioned after the auxiliary verbs and before other verbs or the words they modify.

They are formed by adding **-ly** to the adjective (*barely, really, totally, completely, absolutely*...).

For example: — "Absolute" ⇒ "I **absolutely** agree with you." = It shows the intensity of the **action**. "Real" ⇒ "I am **really** happy right now." = It shows the intensity of the **adjective**.

Some adverbs of degree are **irregular** and simply maintain the same form of the adjective (*almost, enough, too, very, quite...*).

For example:

— "Almost" ⇒ "She almost drinks it all" = It shows the intensity of the action.
 "Enough" ⇒ "It is cold enough." = It shows the intensity of the adjective.

Let's revise this content within the {Form} section. Take a look at the {Example} section that shows its

use within a context.

Adverbs of Place

Adverbs

Adverbs are expressions that function as modifiers of other elements in the clause. They can provide a wide range of information.

Adverbs of place provide information about the place of an action.

Adverbs of place are not used as modifires of another adjective or an adverb. In the sentence they come after objects or verbs.

The most commonly used are: *here, there, downstairs, upstairs, inside, outside, indoors, outdoors, anywhere, abroad...*

- A packet of flour was **here** yesterday.
- *He was there at the bar 2 minutes before.*
- The non alcoholic drinks are **downstairs**.
- They are sitting **upstairs**.
- I stay **inside** have a warm meal when the weather is bad.
- Everybody is **outside**.
- Stay **indoors** and don't ask questions.

Adverbs of place give us information about the location of the action described in the sentence.

Adverbs of place give information about the place of an action. They are important as modifiers of other elements in the sentence.

The most commonly used are: *here, there, downstairs, upstairs, inside, outside, indoors, outdoors, anywhere, abroad...*

For example:

— "Are you looking for a vegetarian sandwich? It's here." = We use here to express position of something (at this point).

UNIT 9.2

Prepositions of Place - extension

Prepositions

Prepositions are small words that connect elements in a sentence. They are essential because they provide additional details about the sentence.

We use the **prepositions of place** to locate an event in a **space** frame.

Prepositions of place are used to locate an event in its physical location.

The most commonly used are: *under*, *next* to, *above*, *behind*, *between*, *over*, *opposite*, *below*, *in front* of, *near*...

- The mountain boots are **under** the bed.
- The coat is **next to** the backpack.
- She hung a picture **above** the fireplace.
- Two people are standing **behind** George.
- The pilot stands **between** those two air hostesses.
- They hung a clock **over** the sofa.
- The bakery is **opposite** my father's restaurant.

The **prepositions of place** are used to express the **position** of things in terms of location.

Prepositions of place are used to locate an event in its physical location.

The most commonly used are: *under*, *next to*, *behind*, *in front of*, *between*, *above*, *below*, *over*, *opposite*, *near*...

For example:

- "*My chocolate is under the table.*" = We use **under** to locate thing (*chocolate*).

Prepositions of Method and Manner

Prepositions

Prepositions are small words that connect elements in a sentence. They are essential because they provide additional details about the sentence.

Prepositions of method and manner are used to explain in what way something is done.

The main **prepositions of manner** are: **by** and **with**.

By + [verb + -ing]/noun With + noun

- By
 - She lost 2 kilograms **by** be**ing** vegetarian.
 - *He cooked the Japanese food* **by** *traditional methods.*
- With
 - He asked for the menu with hurry.
 - They cut the onion **with** a knife.

Prepositions of method and **manner** show how we do things:

By is used to indicate the action we do in order to get the result;

With is used to show our manner during the action or the objects we use in order to get the results.

Prepositions of method and manner are used to explain in what way something is done.

The main prepositions of method and manner are:

- **By**: to express actions and it is followed by the gerund (verb + -ing) or a noun.
- With: with objects or tools used to achieve something, and it is usually followed by a noun.

For example:

- "We can handle the situation **by** talki**ng**." = We use **by** to indicate the action we do.
- "We can handle the situation with patience." = We use with to show our manner during the action.

Prepositions of Possession

Prepositions

Prepositions are small words that connect elements in a sentence. They are essential because they provide additional details about the sentence.

Prepositions of possession are used to express that something belongs to a person, animal or thing.

The main **prepositions** used to show **possession** are: **of**, **with** and **to**.

Of + nouns/possessive pronouns With + adjectives/nouns To + object pronouns

- Of
 - These are the most important monuments **of** London.
 - Dublin is the capital **of** Ireland.
 - She is a friend **of** mine.
- With
 - I saw a boy with brown eyes.
 - She spoke **with** a German accent.
 - The girl **with** the black hat.
- To
 - \circ This towel **belongs to** me.

We use **prepositions of possession** to highlight a relationship of ownership and possession:

Of is used with countries, cities, people, possessive pronouns;

With is used with physical characteristics, accents, objects/materials/animals;

To is used to express belonging (belong to).

Prepositions of possession are used to express that something belongs to a person, animal or

thing. There are no rules regarding this topic, therefore you need to learn them by heart.

The main prepositions of possession are:

- Of: with countries, cities and people, possessive pronouns;
- With: for physical characteristics, accents, objects/materials/animals;
- To: belonging in the expression belong to.

For example:

- "*She is the girl* **of** *his dreams.*" = We use **of** to express possesion.
- "*She is the girl with the piercing.*" = We use with to express someones physical caracteristic.
- "*She is the girl that belongs to your team.*" = We use **belong to** to express belonging.

UNIT 10.1

Comparatives Clauses: As ... as

Comparison Formation

Comparative adjectives/adverbs are used to make a **comparison** between two things, people or actions, expressing the **equalities** or **inequalities** between them {see Comparatives, A1 Level}.

The comparative of equality (as...as clause) is used for the same purpose.

We usually find the structure of the **comparative of equality** (as...as clause) in its three forms.

Affirmative forms:

Subject + verb + as + adjective/adverb + as + object + ... Subject + verb + as + adjective/adverb + noun + as + object + ...

Negative forms:

Subject + verb + not + as + adjective/adverb + as + object + ... Subject + verb + not + as + adjective/adverb + noun + as + object + ...

Interrogative forms:

```
Verb + subject + as + adjective/adverb + as + object + ...?
Verb + subject + as + adjective/adverb + noun + as + object + ...?
```

- 1. Identical things
 - *This box of biscuits is as big as mine.*
 - $\circ\,$ This restaurant makes ${\it as}$ good food ${\it as}$ my mom.
- 2. Different things
 - A kilo of potatoes is **not** as expensive as a kilo of steaks.
 - Her mountain boots are **not as** cheap **as** his backpack.
- 3. Asking information about equality/inequality
 - Is this box of biscuits **as** big **as** mine?
 - Have I **as** cold champagne **as** you?

We use the **comparative of equality** (as...as clause) to:

- 1. Talk about identical things (affirmative);
- 2. Talk about different things (negative);
- 3. Ask information about equality/inequality of different things (interrogative).

The **comparative of equality** (or the **as...as** clause) is used to highlight the equality or inequality between two things, people or actions.

• Affirmative:

Subject + verb + as + adjective/adverb + as + object + ... Subject + verb + as + adjective/adverb + noun + as + object + ...

• Negative:

```
Subject + verb + not + as + adjective/adverb + as + object + ...
Subject + verb + not + as + adjective/adverb + noun + as + object + ...
```

• Interrogative:

```
Verb + subject + as + adjective/adverb + as + object + ...?
```

```
Verb + subject + as + adjective/adverb + noun + as + object + ...?
```

For example:

- Affirmative: "My doll is **as** lovely **as** yours."
- Negative: "My doll is not **as** lovely **as** yours."
- Interrogative: "Is my doll as lovely as yours?"

Intensifiers and Mitigators

Adverbs

Adverbs are expressions that function as modifiers of other elements in the clause. They can provide a wide range of information.

Adverbs of degree are used to provide information about the intensity of an action or adjective {see Adverbs of Degree, A1 Level}.

Intensifiers and mitigators are part of adverbs of degree.

Intensifiers are: *highly, absolutely, so, utterly, incredibly, particularly...*

Mitigators are: fairly, pretty (informal), rather, slightly...

{See Adverbs - Degree, A2 Level}.

INTENSIFIERS

- The climate was **highly** dry.
- It is **absolutely** impossible to win at most carnival games.
- He was **so** helpful.
- The view is **utterly** beautiful.
- We came *incredibly* close to falling of the stairs.
- These drawings are **particularly** good.

MITIGATORS

- These crystals are **fairly** bright.
- It is **pretty** expensive, but I'm still going to buy it.
- I'm rather bored.
- The view was **slightly** good, but not breathtaking.

Intensifiers are used to make words and expressions stronger.

Mitigators are used to make words and expressions weaker.

Intensifiers and **mitigators** are two kinds of adverbs of degree. We use intensifiers to emphasize words or expressions, and mitigators to make the emphasis on these words and expressions not

as strong.

The most commonly used **intensifiers** are: *highly, absolutely, so, incredibly, utterly, particularly...*

The most commonly used **mitigators** are: *fairly, pretty, rather, slightly...*

For example:

- "I am **absolutely** sure he is lying." = There is a high chance that he is lying, so we use an **intensifier**.

- "I am **fairly** sure that he is lying." = It is a low possibility that he is lying, so we use a **mitigator**.

Quantitative Determiners

Determiners

Determiners are modifiers of nouns. They can provide information about **which** and **how much/many** people, things, animals, places... we are talking about.

Quantitative determiners or **quantifiers** are used to indicate the quantity of something {see Quantitative Determiners, A1 Level}.

We use **quantitative determiners** to describe the quantity of something.

The most commonly used **quantifiers** are: *all* (*of*), *a lot of* (*lots of*), *a number of*, *enough* (*of*), *most* (*of*), *none* (*of*)...

- 1. **All** my friends like drawing. **All of** my friends like drawing.
- A lot can happen in a long trip.
 A lots of things can happen in a long trip.
- 3. A number of pilots were waiting.
- There isn't enough red wine for everyone.
 There are enough of us to get the group price.
- This plant has the most strawberries.
 Most of the students in our university are from France.
- 6. I have three leather jackets, he has **none**. **None of** their children has dark skin.

We use **quantitative determiners** to indicate the quantity of something:

- 1. All (of) (everyone or everything, the entire amount or number);
- 2. A lot (of) (a large number in quantity, scale or degree);
- 3. A number of (more than two but fewer than many);
- 4. Enough (of) (quantity, quality, or scope that meets requirements, demands, or expectations);
- 5. Most (of) (greatest in quantity, scale, or degree, majority);
- 6. **None** (of) (not any, not one or no person).

Quantitative determiners are used to indicate the quantity of something.

The most commonly used **quantifiers** are: none (of), a number of, enough (of), a lot (of), most (of), all

(*of*)...

For example:

- "None of my friends take a ship."
- "A number of my friends booked a flight to Valencia."

UNIT 10.2

Common Adjective and Preposition Combinations

Prepositions

Adjectives are determiners that can be placed in two different positions within a sentence to modify or describe a person or a thing.

Prepositions are essential because they provide additional details about the sentence.

Certain **adjectives** are used only with specific **prepositions**.

Some **prepositions** that are used by certain adjectives are: **at**, **for**, **of**, **to** and **in**.

Some **adjectives** are used with specific prepositions:

- At: angry, bad, brilliant, good, lucky, present, slow, terrible...
- For: famous, grateful, known, prepared, responsible, sorry...
- Of: afraid, ashamed, aware, bad, difficult, full, jealous, made, proud, scared, tired...
- To: addicted, connected, engaged, friendly, grateful, limited, married, polite...
- In: dressed, interested, involved, skilled...
- At
 - *The audience is* **angry at** *the musician.*
 - She is **good at** drawing.
 - All students should be **present at** the theatre play, it's compulsory.
- For
 - I am very **sorry for** your loss.
 - Smoking is extremely **bad for** you.
 - The novel was too **difficult for** his class.
- Of
 - The director is very **proud of** his movie.
 - Jason was **ashamed of** his behavior.

- She is **full of** energy.
- To
 - I think I'm a bit **addicted to** music.
 - *He doesn't feel* **connected to** *his country at all.*
 - *My sister is married to* an English photographer.

• In

- I'm interested in modern art.
- *She is involved in* promoting modern music.
- *They both are skilled in chemistry and mathematics.*

Some **adjectives** are used with specific **prepositions** to express something, but there are no grammatical rule how to combine them in the sentence.

Prepositions are important as they provide additional information about the sentence. We can use certain **adjectives** only with specific prepositions. There is no rule regarding this topic, therefore you need to learn them by heart.

- At: angry, bad, brilliant, good, lucky, slow, terrible...
- For: famous, known, prepared, responsible, sorry...
- **Of**: bad, difficult, full, jealous, made, scared, tired...
- **To**: *addicted*, *connected*, *friendly*, *limited*, *polite*...
- In: dressed, interested, involved, skilled...

For example:

- "She is **good at** being a good friend."
- "I am **responsible for** the adverts."

Prepositional Phrases

Prepositional Phrases

Prepositional phrases are the result of the combination of the prepositions and other elements of the sentence (verbs) {see Prepositional Phrases, A1 Level}.

A **prepositional verb** is every verb followed by preposition.

Prepositional phrases consist of a verb and a preposition. They always have an object immediately after the preposition, which acts like a connection between the verb and its object.

Prepositional phrases have this structure: ... + verb + preposition + object + ...

The most commonly used **prepositions** with verbs are: about, at, for, from, in, of, on, with...

Examples of **prepositional phrases** are: *agree with, beg for, believe in, laugh at, listen to, look at, remind of, wait for, worry about...*

- She is **knocking at** the door of the post office.
- They aren't laughing at me.
- I have to send him a fax. Could you **remind** me of that later?

{See Prepositional Phrases, A1 Level}.

Prepositional phrases are the combination of the prepositions and other elements of the sentence. A **prepositional verb** is every verb followed by preposition.

The most commonly used prepositions with verbs are: about, at, for, from, in, of, on, with...

Examples of **prepositional phrases** are: *agree with, believe in, look at, remind of, wait for, worry about...*

They have this structure: ... + verb + preposition + object + ...

For example:

— "He waits for their answer every day." / "He waits their answer every day." / "He waits their answer for every day."

NOTE: Some adverbs can be used as a prepositions too. Mentioned distinction could be found in dictionaries.

Phrasal Verbs

Verbs

A **phrasal verb** is a two-part verb formed by a verb and a particle. The particle usually gives a whole new meaning to the verb.

A **phrasal verb** has two parts: the first part is called base, in which the **verb** takes place; the second part consists of an **adverb** or a **preposition** that follows the base.

Sentences containing **phrasal verbs** usually have the following structures:

... + verb + object + preposition/adverb + ...
... + verb + preposition/adverb + object + ...

There are some rules:

- Some phrasal verbs are transitive, which means they must be followed by an object;
- Some phrasal verbs are intransitive, so they cannot be followed by an object;
- While some of the **phrasal verbs** are separable and you can put the object in the middle of them, some are not, so you cannot put the object between the two parts.

The most commonly used are: come in, get up, look for, switch off...

- I have to **look for** the grammar book.
- Come in. The door is opened.
- Can you **switch** the light **off**, please? **Get up** now. It's 12 a.m.!

Phrasal verbs usually have completely different meaning from the verb it is formed by. It is usually very difficult to understand the meaning of a phrasal verb from the words it is formed by.

Phrasal verbs are small phrases formed by the combinations of either **verb** and **preposition** or **verb** and **adverb**. Their meanings are completely different from the original verb and we cannot understand a phrasal verb by looking at its components. There is no rule regarding this topic, therefore you need to learn them by heart (*come in, look after, turn off...*).

The structures are:

```
... + verb + object + preposition/adverb + ...
... + verb + preposition/adverb + object + ...
```

For example:

- "I'll **wake** you **up** at 8am." = Wake someone up means making the object (you) awake.

— "They **brought up** publicity campaigns in the Chamber of Commerce." = Bring up means mentioning a topic.

UNIT 11.1

Wh- Questions words: Who...?

Pronouns

Wh- questions always begin with one of the **wh- question words** (interrogative pronouns), which show what kind of information is wanted {see Wh- Questions, A1 Level}.

The pronoun \mathbf{who} is used to ask for the subject of the action.

The pronoun **who** is an interrogative pronoun that coincides with the third person singular and acts as subject of the sentence.

Who + verb (third person singular) + ...?

- Who works at the Red Cross?
- Who has help?
- Who belongs to a political party?

Who is used to ask for the subject of the action.

Who is a **wh- question word** used to ask for the subject of the action. This pronoun coincides with the third person singular, and it acts as subject of the sentence.

For example: — "*Who* wants ice cream?" = We use **who** to ask to somebody about something.

Wh- Questions in Past form

Syntax

Wh- questions always begin with one of the **wh- question words** (interrogative pronouns), which show what kind of information is wanted {see Wh- Questions, A1 Level}.

We can also use them to ask questions about the **past.**

The wh- question words are: when, where, why, which, what, whose, who, whom and how.

To ask questions about the **past**, it is sufficient to conjugate the verb in the past form:

- With an auxiliary verb: Wh- question word + auxiliary verb (past form) + subject + verb +...?
- Without an auxiliary verb: What/who + verb (past form) + ...? Which/whose + noun + verb (past form) + ...?
- With a modal verb:
 Wh- question word + modal verb (past form) + subject + verb + ...?
 Wh- question word + auxiliary verb (past form) + subject + modal verb + verb + ...?
- With an auxiliary verb
 - Where did you travel last year?
 - Why did you buy a new car?
 - What did you do yesterday?
- Without an auxiliary verb
 - What broke down the PC?
 - Who called the police?
 - Whose phone rang?
- With a modal verb
 - *How should* he *tell* her he is a prince?
 - What could I do at that moment?
 - Why did you need to judge everyone?

We can use **wh-questions words** to form questions about the past.

We can form questions about the past starting with one of the **wh- question words**.

They are: when, where, why, which, what, whose, who, whom and how.

For example:

— With an auxiliary verb: "*Where did you sleep last night?*" = It asks for the **place** where the action happens.

- Without an auxiliary verb: "*Who* programmed this software?" = It asks for the **subject** of the action.

— With a modal verb: "*When* will you arrive?" = It asks for the **time** when the action happens.

UNIT 11.2

Question Tags formation

Syntax

A **question tag** is a small question at the end of a sentence which is used to check information, ask for confirmation (negative tag) or agreement (positive tag).

Question tags are formed by the same verb of the sentence (auxiliary verbs, the verb to be and modal verbs).

Their structures are:

- Positive sentence + , + negative tag [auxiliary + not + subject] ?
- Negative sentence + , + positive tag [auxiliary + subject] ?
- Positive sentence + negative tag
 - You called the ambulance, didn't you?
 - He is the prime minister, isn't he?
 - They can go to the town hall, can't they?
- Negative sentence + positive tag
 - You don't like this political party, **do you?**
 - *He is not going to the army, is he?*
 - They couldn't arrive yesterday, could they?

Question tags can be used as questions where we just want to know the answer or to ask for agreement when we already know the answer.

Positive sentences use **negative tags** when looking for **confirmation**. **Negative sentences** use **positive tags** when looking for **agreement**.

Question tags are short questions at the end of a sentence and we use them to check information, ask for confirmation (negative tag) or agreement (positive tag).

Their structures are:

- Positive sentence + , + negative tag [auxiliary + not + subject] ?
- Negative sentence + , + positive tag [auxiliary + subject] ?

For example:

- "You love me, don't you?" = The speaker asks for confirmation.
- "You **don't love** me, **do** you?" = The speaker asks for **agreement**.

Questions with Shall...?

Syntax

Shall is a modal verb used in question forms to ask for instructions or formulating requests in a polite way.

We form questions using **shall** by using this structure: **Shall + subject* + verb + ...?**

*It is used only in the first person singular and plural.

- 1. Offers services
 - Shall I bring you an aperitif?
 - Shall I bring you a glass?
 - Shall we do it for you?
- 2. Suggestions
 - Shall I ask for the bill now?
 - Shall I book a table?
 - Shall we go to an Italian restaurant?
- 3. Asking for instructions
 - My guests are vegetarians, what **shall** I cook?
 - I'm allergic to onion so what **shall** I do if I accidentally eat some?
 - What **shall** we do if the baby doesn't drink the milk?

Shall is used in the first person singular and plural to ask questions or make requests in a more polite way. We can use it also for:

- 1. Offer services;
- 2. Make suggestions;
- 3. Ask for instructions.

The modal verb shall is used to ask for services, suggestions and instructions.

The structure is: Shall + subject + verb + ...?

For example:

- "*Shall* we help them?" = **Shall** is considered to be more formal and it is not commonly used.
- "Will we help them?" = Will is less formal and it is more commonly used.

NOTE: **Will** and **shall** have the same meaning, but **shall** is used only in the first person singular and plural.

UNIT 12.1



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UNIT 12.2



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Present Perfect with Already, Just, Still and Yet

Adverbs are expressions that function as modifiers of other elements in the clause. They can provide a wide range of information.

Time adverbs are often used with the **present perfect** and function as modifiers of other elements in the clause.

The main **time adverbs** that are used with the **present perfect** are: **already**, **just**, **still** and **yet**.

Their positions in sentences are:

- Already: Subject + auxiliary verb + already + past participle + ...
- Just: Subject + auxiliary verb + just + past participle + ...
- Still: Subject + auxiliary verb + still + verb + ...
- Yet: Subject + verb + ... + yet

NOTE: They can have different positions when are not used with perfect tenses.

Positive statements

- She has just retired.
- He has already booked his ticket.
- Have they just sent a fax?

Negative statements

- I **still haven't made** any plan for Christmas.
- Have you still not done the laundry?
- Haven't they sent an email yet?

Adverbs of time express when an action happened, for how long and how often. The main adverbs of time are:

- Already is used to say that something has happened early, or earlier than expected.
- **Just** is used to express an action happened at this moment or a short time ago.
- Still is used to express an action that has not finished or has lasted longer than expected.
- Yet used to say that something is not happening now, but it will happen in the short future.

When **adverbs** are used with **present perfect**, they can act as modifiers of other elements in a clause.

Their position in sentences are:

- Already: Subject + auxiliary verb + already + past participle + ...
- Just: Subject + auxiliary verb + just + past participle + ...
- Still: Subject + auxiliary verb + still + verb + ...
- Yet: Subject + verb + ... + yet

For example:

— "I have already arrived home." = The action happened in the past and will not happen again (by now).

- "*I have just arrived home.*" = The action happened in the near past (**short before**).

- "I *still haven't arrived* home." = The action has not finished (continuing to happen).

- "*I* haven't arrived home yet." = The action has not happened in the past or present because it is going to happen in the near future (**until now**).

NOTE: Some of the **adverbs** are only used in negative statements and not in positive ones (and vice versa). Moreover, they can have different positions when are not used with perfect tenses.

Appendix

This is where you can add appendices or other back matter.

Adverbs of place

The uses of the main **adverbs of place** are:

- Abroad (in foreign countries).
- Anywhere (at any place).
- **Downstairs** (situated on a lower floor).
- Here (at this point).
- Indoors (in buildings).
- **Inside** (the inner side of something).
- Outdoors (into the open air).
- **Outside** (the outer side of something).
- There (at that place).
- Upstairs (up the stairs, on an upper floor).

Adverbs of frequency

ADVERBS OF INDEFINITE FREQUENCY

- **Constantly** (all the time or often).
- Frequently (often).
- Now and then (from time to time).
- Occasionally (sometimes but not often).
- Regularly (often).
- Seldom (on only a few occasions).

ADVERBS OF DEFINITE FREQUENCY

- **Daily** (repeated everyday).
- Monthly (repeated each month).
- **Periodically** (repeated after a particular period of time).
- Weekly (repeated each week).
- Yearly (repeated each year).

Adverbs of time

- All day (lasting for an entire day).
- Already (before now).
- Later (afterwards).
- Now (at the moment).
- **Since** (from then until now).
- **Soon** (at a time that is not long from now).
- Today (this present day).
- Tomorrow (the day after today).
- Tonight (today at night).
- Yesterday (the day before today).

Prepositions of place

- Above (at a higher level).
- **Behind** (at the back of).
- **Below** (at a lower level).
- Between (in the space that separates two places, people or objects).
- In front of (in direct view of).
- Near (at a short distance away).
- Next to (very close to someone or something, with nothing in between).
- **Opposite** (being in a position on the other side).
- **Over** (at a higher level).
- Under (in a lower position).

Prepositions of movement

MOVEMENT TO OR FROM A PLACE

- Away from (distancing oneself from a place).
- **Down** (moving to a lower positioned place).
- From (starting point of a changing of position).
- To (destination of a changing of position).
- **Up** (moving to a higher positioned place).

MOVEMENT FROM ONE SIDE TO ANOTHER

- Across (passing through a path, street... to reach a destination).
- Along (walking by the side of an extended place to reach a destination).

CHANGING POSITION

- In/into (entering a 3-dimensional place).
- **Off** (changing a position by leaving the previous place).
- **On/onto** (positioning on the top of a 3-dimensional place having contact with the place).
- **Out of** (leaving a 3-dimensional place).
- **Over** (positioning on the top of a 3-dimensional place without having contact with the place).
- Under (positioning below a 3-dimensional place).

Phrasal verbs

- Bring up: to mention a specific subject.
- **Clean up**: to clean a place, make it tidy.
- Hung up: to end a call on the phone, especially when the other person doesn't expect it.
- **Keep up**: to persist or persevere.

Adverbs of degree

- Absolutely (without exception, completely).
- **Barely** (by the smallest amount).
- Completely (entirely).
- Really (very).
- Totally (definitely).