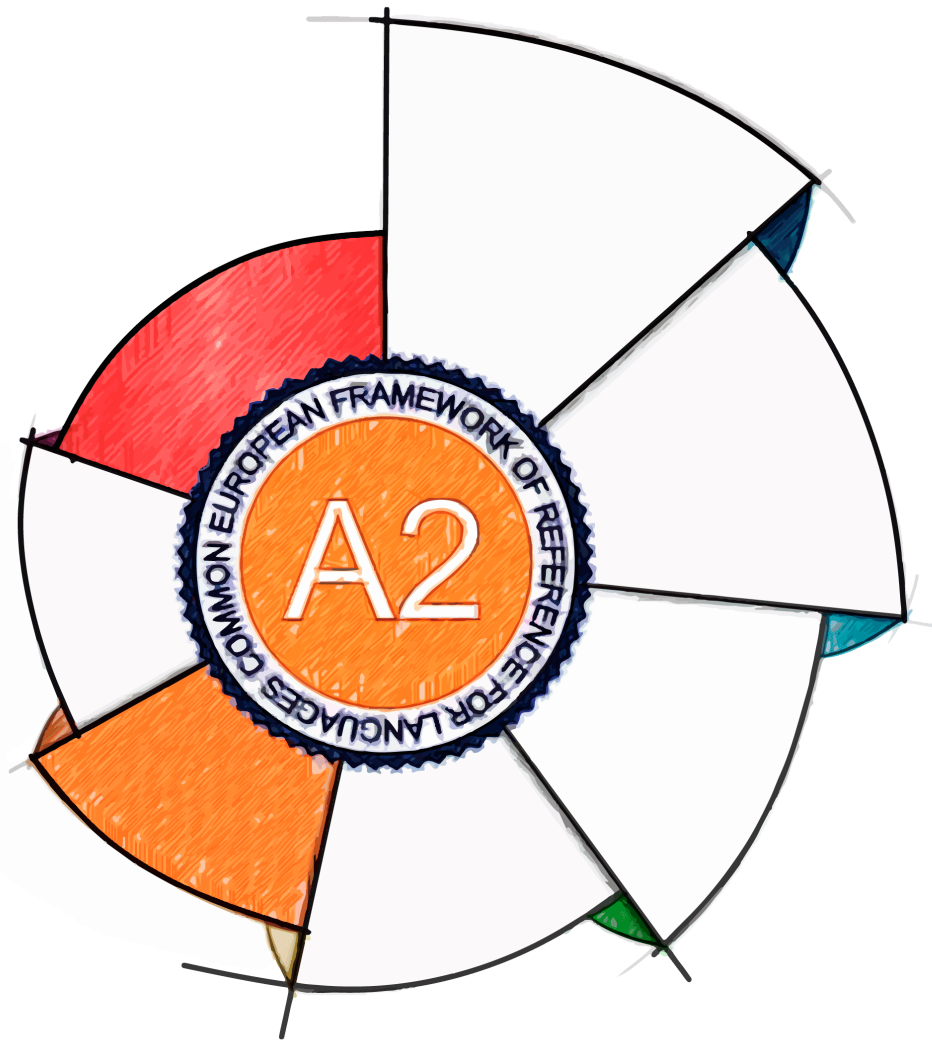


English Grammar A2 level

UNDERSTANDING AND USING

GRAMMAR



A MULTI SKILLED COURSE IN

ENGLISH

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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BOOKS FOR LANGUAGES
VALENCIA

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Contents

introduction	XII
Unit 0	
Revision	14
Unit 1.1	
Present Perfect Affirmative	16
Present Perfect Negative	18
Present Perfect Interrogative	20
Unit 1.2	
Past Participle	23
Present Perfect with Time Adverbs	26
Present Perfect with For and Since	28
Present Perfect vs Past Simple	30
Unit 2.1	
Future Simple Affirmative	33
Future Simple Negative	35
Future Simple Interrogative	37
Unit 2.2	
Present Continuous for Future	40
Be going to	41
Future with Will or Be going to	43
Unit 3.1	
Reflexive Pronouns	47
Relative Pronouns of People and Things	49
Relative Pronouns of Place and Time	51
Unit 3.2	
Past Continuous Affirmative	54
Past Continuous Negative	57
Past Continuous Interrogative	60
Unit 4.1	
Zero Conditional	64
First Conditional	66
Unit 4.2	
Adverbs of Time	69
Adverbs of Frequency	70
Temporal Subordinate Clauses	72
Unit 5.1	
To be used to Affirmative	75
To be used to Negative	77
To be used to Interrogative	79
Active and Passive Adjectives	81
Unit 5.2	

Verbs followed by Gerunds and Infinitives	84
The Infinitive of Purpose	86
Unit 6.1	
Uncountable Nouns	88
Invariant Plural Nouns	90
A few vs A little and Few vs Little	92
Unit 6.2	
Revision	95
Unit 7.1	
Must: Modals of Obligation	97
Have to: Modals of Obligation	100
Must vs Have to	103
Prepositions of Time	105
Prepositions of Movement	107
Prepositions of Place	109
Unit 7.2	
Should: Modal Auxiliary Verb	113
Ought To: Modal Auxiliary Verb	116
Should vs Ought To	119
Indefinite Pronouns: Something and Nothing	121
Unit 8.1	
Comparisons with Like	124
Can and Could: Modals of Ability	125
May: Modals of Possibility	128
Unit 8.2	
One and Ones	132
So that vs So ... that	133
Concessive Clauses	135
Unit 9.1	
Adverbs Formation	137
Adverbs of Manner	140
Adverbs of Degree	142
Adverbs of Place	145
Unit 9.2	
Prepositions of Place - extension	147
Prepositions of Method and Manner	148
Prepositions of Possession	150
Unit 10.1	
Comparatives Clauses: As ... as	153
Intensifiers and Mitigators	155
Quantitative Determiners	157
Unit 10.2	
Common Adjective and Preposition Combinations	160
Prepositional Phrases	162

Phrasal Verbs	164
Unit 11.1	
Wh- Questions words: Who...?	167
Wh- Questions in Past form	168
Unit 11.2	
Question Tags formation	171
Questions with Shall...?	173
Unit 12.1	
Revision	176
Unit 12.2	
Revision	178
Present Perfect with Already, Just, Still and Yet	179
Appendix	181
Adverbs of place	182
Adverbs of frequency	183
Adverbs of time	184
Prepositions of place	
Prepositions of movement	
Phrasal verbs	
Adverbs of degree	

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



Revision

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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**;
 - 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	worked
He/She/It	has	worked
We/You/They	have	worked

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.

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

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	worked
He/She/It	has not	worked
We/You/They	have not	worked

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.

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

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	worked	...?
Has	he/she/it	worked	...?
Have	we/you/they	worked	...?

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.

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

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
write	written

REGULAR

- *I have just finished* **ed** *my work.*
- *He has already stopped* **ed** *exercising.*
- *They have started* **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*” ⇒ “*I have **watched** 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**).

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

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.

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

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.

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

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*).

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

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.

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

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.

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

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.

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

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 having** 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).

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

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.*
- *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.

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

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**.

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

UNIT 3.1

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
I	myself
You	yourself
He	himself
She	herself
It	itself*
We	ourselves
You	yourselves
They	themselves

*(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*).

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

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.*
- *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**.

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

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.*
 - *It is the butcher **where** my brother worked at.*
 - *This is the hotel **where** we stayed at during our trip.*

- When
 - *I can't forget the day **when** my dad opened our bakery.*
 - *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
I	was	working
You	were	working
He/She/It	was	working
We/You/They	were	working

1. Longer background action interrupted by a shorter one

- *I **was running** in the park when you sent me that message.*
- *She **was practicing** 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 running** in the park.*
- *I called her at 11:45 and she **was practicing** sport.*
- *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**.*
- *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 playing** on the grass, their parents **were sitting** on the fence and some teenagers **were running**.*
- *She went home and her mother **was working** on the laptop, her father **was watching** tv and her sister **was studying**.*
- *We went to the doctor today and while waiting, some patients **were reading** magazines, some **were talking** on the phone and the secretary **was typing** on the computer.*

7. Repeated or annoying action (with always)

- *I **was always going** late to the class.*
- *She **was practicing** 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.

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

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
I	was not	working
You	were not	working
He/She/It	was not	working
We/You/They	were not	working

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 practicing** sport when I called her.*
- *They **weren't watching** 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** **working** in the bakery last summer.
- She **wasn't** **practicing** 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** **practicing** 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** **playing** on the grass, their parents **weren't** **sitting** on the fence and teenagers **weren't** **running**.
- She went home and her mother **wasn't** **working** on the laptop, her father **wasn't** **watching** tv and her sister **wasn't** **studying**.
- 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** **practicing** 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.

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

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	I	working	...?
Were	you	working	...?
Was	he/she/it	working	...?
Were	we/you/they	working	...?

1. Longer background action interrupted by a shorter one

- **Was I running** 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 playing** on the grass, their parents **sitting** on the fence and teenagers **running** 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 reading** magazines, **talking** on the phone and **was** the secretary **typing** 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.

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

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.

If = The condition will happen immediately;

When = The condition will definitely happen sooner or later.

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.

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

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**

- We use **if** to express conditions and consequences in the future;
- **If** is used when we want to say that the condition might happen.

2. **When**

- We use **when** to express things that are certain to happen and we don't express condition;
- **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.

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

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.

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 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.
 - 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 exactly 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.

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

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.

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

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
I	am	used to	working
You	are	used to	working
He/She/It	is	used to	working
We/You/They	are	used to	working

- *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.

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

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
I	am not	used to	working
You	are not	used to	working
He/She/It	is not	used to	working
We/You/They	are not	used to	working

- *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 having** 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.

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

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	I	used to	working	...?
Are	you	used to	working	...?
Is	he/she/it	used to	working	...?
Are	we/you/they	used to	working	...?

- **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** 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**).

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

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 **boring**!*
 - *They found the topic very **interesting**.*
 - Passive adjectives
 - *We were **amazed** by her answer.*
 - *I don't like this film, I'm **bored**.*
 - *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**.

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

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** *paying* 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**.

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

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-**).

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

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.*
- *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, 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).

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

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.*
 - *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.

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

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 **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.

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

UNIT 6.2

Revision

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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

person singular.

The structures are:

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

For example:

- Affirmative: "*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.

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

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.*
- *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:

- Affirmative: "*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.

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

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.

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

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.*
 - ***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.*
 - *Is Maria still in garden? Yes, she will be back **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...*);
 - Weekend*.

- On
 - Days of the week (*Monday, Saturday, Wednesday...*);
 - Dates;
 - Specific part of the day (*on Sunday morning*).

- In
 - Months, years, centuries;
 - Seasons;
 - The morning, the afternoon, the evening.

- By
 - Time-limited actions;
 - Projects with deadline;
 - 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**.

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

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.

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

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
 - *You put many posters **on** the walls.*
 - *There was a rose **on** the way home.*
 - *We are not allowed to smoke **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;
 - Next to somebody or something;
 - 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 + ...?

UGHT	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?

Ought 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...*)

- *The house was in a bad state. I ~~**can**~~ smell the moisture.*
- *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 + ...?

MAY	SUBJECT	VERB	QUESTION MARK
May	I/you	work	...?
May	he/she/it	work	...?
May	we/you/they	work	...?

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**.*
 - *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 + concessive clause + , + main clause

Concessive clauses are usually introduced by the concessive conjunctions **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 + concessive 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	badly
beautiful	beautifully
complete	completely
extreme	extremely
slow	slowly

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

ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
easy	easily
happy	happily
nasty	nastily

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

ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
gentle	gently
idle	idly
noble	nobly

- **Adjective** with suffix **-ic**: add **-ally**.

ADJECTIVE ADVERB

drastic	drastically
enthusiastic	enthusiastically
tragic	tragically

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 ⇒ in a friendly manner;
- Timely ⇒ 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.

For example:

– “Beautiful” ⇒ “I wrapped a box of biscuits **beautifully**.” = Add **-ly**;

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” ⇒ “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” ⇒ “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	badly
exact	exactly
loud	loudly
nice	nicely
polite	politely

IRREGULAR

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

ADJECTIVE	ADVERB OF MANNER
fast	fast
good	well
hard	hard
late	late
straight	straight

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 necessary 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” ⇒ “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” ⇒ “Walk **straight**, Chinese restaurant is there.” = **Straight** remains the same.

NOTE: They can be used after words like **very** or **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 **regular** adverbs of degree by adding **-ly** to the adjectives. The most commonly used are:

ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
bare	barely
real	really
total	totally
complete	completely
absolute	absolutely

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 modifiers 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).

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

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*).

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

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 being** 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 talking**.*” = 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.

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

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
 - *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 possession.

— “*She is the girl **with** the piercing.*” = We use **with** to express someone's physical characteristic.

— “*She is the girl that **belongs to** your team.*” = We use **belong to** to express belonging.

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

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.*
- *This restaurant makes **as good food 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?"

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

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**.

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

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.
2. **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.
4. There isn't **enough** red wine for everyone.
There are enough of us to get the group price.
5. 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.”

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

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."*

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

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.

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

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.

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

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 **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.

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

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.

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

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**.

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

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.

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

UNIT 12.1

Revision

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UNIT 12.2

Revision

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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.

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

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).