

Communicative English Grammar

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PREFACE

Communicative English Grammar is a unique book which can be used both as a textbook and a reference book. It is designed for native speakers and non-native speakers of English, either as a second or foreign language. It is relevant and useful to students, teachers at all levels of education and other people interested in English Language, such as public speakers, education quality assurers, office front desk workers, publishers as well as English Language Curriculum developers.

The uniqueness of this book is manifested in manifold features which are not found in other grammar books currently available in the book market. First, it is rich in English Language usage illustrations which are also easy to understand and use in real-life situations. Second, it has incorporated full-forms of words usually used when writing and short-forms of words used when speaking. Third, the book has also included some Kiswahili words currently recognized as East African English (EAfrE) in Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary 7th and 9th editions which makes it also to be relevant and useful to foreigners when staying in East Africa as tourists to facilitate their communication with East African citizens.

On the otherhand, this book significantly contributes to the growth of Kiswahili as an international language being the 10-top. Every 7th of July is today recognized as International Kiswahili day. As a fact, this book develops in the reader not only language competence but also communicative competence.

Indeed, the author of this book is a reputable writer possessing distinguishable knowledge and experience about

the English language, writing with full commitment and determination as aa becoming prolific writer as his vision and mission in the publishing industry.

The topics contained in this book are valid and reliable around the world, putting into consideration that English is an International language. In 1984, the late Julius K. Nyerere, former president of Tanzania, asserted that “*English is Kiswahili of the world.*” These words emphasized the importance of understanding English as an international language. Thus, this book has universal relevance and application which make it withstand the test of times throughout ages.

Accordingly, I recommend this book to be available in the shelves of every library at secondary schools, colleges and universities, even in the shelves of Regional Libraries where it can be accessed by wide audience of readers because of its importance.

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Edwin B. Mahelo

DEDICATION

To my family, parents, relatives, friends and students.

*God did not create you the way you are, it is you who
decided to be like that.*

Chapter One

ARTICLES AND NOUNS

An **article** is a word that combines with a noun to indicate the type of reference being made by the noun whether it is definite or indefinite. The word **article** refers to the words **the**, **a**, and **an**.

Two types of articles are commonly recognized in grammar; the definite article **the** and indefinite article **a** or **an**.

1. The definite article

The is called the definite article because it normally points out some particular person or thing.

The definite article **the** identifies a specific item or group of items. It can modify a singular or plural noun known by both speaker and listener.

Different pronunciations of – the

dhe *The book* (followed by nouns beginning with a consonant)

dhi *The orange* (followed by nouns beginning with a vowel)

The uses of definite articles

a) With singular and plural nouns.

For example;

The dog, the chair, the man, the girl, the groundnuts.

b) Before nouns of which there is only one of its kind in the universe.

For example;

The sun, the moon, the sky, the world, the earth, the climate.

c) Before a nouns which has already been mentioned.

For example;

*I saw a man and a woman. **The man** was carrying a bag. **The woman** was carrying a child. **The child** was crying.*

d) Before a noun which becomes definite when an adjectival phrase or clause is added to it.

For example;

The man in a blue suit is my uncle.
adjectival phrase

The man who is in a blue suit is my uncle.
adjectival/relative clause

e) Before a singular noun representing a class of people, animals or things.

For example;

The Chines are hardworking people.

The fox is a canning animal.

f) When referring to something or someone who is the only one in a particular environment.

For example;

The president, **The headmistress**

g) When referring to community institutions.

For example;

The government, **The bank**, **The Kilimanjaro mountain**

More uses of the definite article

a) It is used when the noun is known to the reader/hearer

For example;

The letter he received was posted on Friday. (The words 'he received' tell us which letter is referred to)

The moon is shining at night. (The reader or hearer knows which one is referred to)

Give me **the book**. (The book we are talking about, the book you borrowed, etc.)

The bank closes at three. (The one we are in, which we are going to this afternoon, etc)

b) Used before oceans, seas, rivers, deserts

For example;

The Pacific **The Nile**

The Sahara

The Hindi

- When the name of a country consists of an adjective + noun, the definite article is required unless the adjective is: *North, South, West, East, Upper, Lower, Great or New*.

For example;

The *United Kingdom*

The *United Arab Republic*

The *Soviet Union*

But North Korea, West Germany, New Zealand, Great Britain

- Four countries with one-word names can take the definite article:

For example;

The *Lebanon*, **The** *Argentina*, **The** *Congo*, **The** *Sudan*

The Netherlands always takes the definite article. Also, **the** North Pole, **the** South Pole.

- Hotels, Cinemas, Theatres and Ships also require the definite articles.

For example;

*He is staying at **the** Mwanza Hotel.*

c) Proper nouns used in the plural require the definite article

For example;

The *Alps*, **The** *Philippines*, **The** *Russells*

d) Used before superlatives

For example;

*Of all the girls in the class she is **the** most intelligent.*

*He told me **the** latest news.*

- The definite article is not used before a superlative when the condition of the same person or thing at different times is compared.

For example;

*We are **busiest** in winter.*

- **Note that** when the word *most* is used in the sense of *very* or *the majority* it is not a superlative and does not require the definite article.

For example;

I find her book most interesting.

I have read most of the books you gave me.

e) Used before an adjective as a noun to give the meaning of a group/class/specie

For example;

The poor were helped by **the** rich.

The young have to support **the** old.

f) Used in propotional comparison

For example;

The more it rains, **the** worse the roads will be.

The older he gets, **the** more difficult it is for him to find a job.

- Such constructions show a parallel increase or decrease. Also, the definite article is used before the comparative adjective when a noun would normally take the definite article as understood.

For example;

He is **the** younger of the two boys.

Of the two radios this is **the** more expensive.

g) Used before musical instruments

For example;

She plays **the** guitar. (But not with games: He plays football.)

h) Used before certain expressions of time

For example;

In **the** morning, afternoon, evening, night

On **the** previous/following day, **the** day before/after

The previous/next morning, afternoon, evening, night

The week before last, **the** week after next

But the following expressions of time do not take the definite article;

Last week, month, year

Next week, month, year

Midnight, midday, noon

i) Used in scientific writing

We can use **the** before a countable noun in the singular to refer to a whole class.

For example;

The elephant lives longer than most animals.

The atomic bomb was invented in 1944.

Omission of definite article

The definite article is omitted before;

a) Plural nouns used for a whole class

For example;

Lions are often dangerous.

Motorbikes cost more than they were used to.

b) Uncountable nouns with a general meaning

For example;

Meat contains protein.

Papers are produced from wood.

He studied mathematics.

- Also, abstract nouns belong to this category.

For example;

Honesty is the best policy.

Generosity was one of his virtues.

- If an uncountable noun is defined, it ceases to have a general meaning and therefore takes the definite article.

For example;

The meat you bought yesterday has gone bad.

The wind that blew yesterday was dangerous.

Note: The underlined words define uncountable nouns *meat* and *winds*.

c) The names of languages used as nouns

For example;

She learnt English.

My sister studies French.

- If the word for the language is used as an adjective, the definite article is necessary.

For example;

The *Swahili language* is spoken by millions of people in Tanzania.

*She thought there was a great future for **the** French language.*

d) Man used in the sense of mankind

For example;

*Man has more intelligence than **the** other animals.*

e) In expressions for means of travel used.

For example;

By bus, By car, By sea, By road, By train, By air

- When is more specific, the article is required.

For example;

*She travelled by **the** 3 o'clock train.*

In certain other expressions

At home, At school, On top, On foot, On loan, At parade

- Consider the difference in meaning between the two sentences.

For example;

She has gone to church.

*She has gone to **the** church.*

The first sentence implies that she has gone to church for the usual purpose of worship, and the second sentence implies that the speaker is talking about a particular church i.e. the building.

- Also other common words of this kind are *school, university, hospital, market, prison*.

For example;

Some students didn't come to school this morning.

*My mother came to **the** school to talk to the headmistress.*

My uncle is in hospital.

*My brother, who is a doctor, is at **the** hospital.*

The criminal is now in prison.

*The warder lives in **the** prison.*

2. Indefinite article

A and **an** are called indefinite articles because they usually refer to unspecified person or thing being spoken about. Compare the following sentences;

*Let us go to town to watch **a** film. (any film)*

*Let us go to town to watch **the** film. (specific film)*

“A” is used before nouns beginning with a consonant sound and “an” is used before nouns beginning with a vowel sound. Both can modify only a singular noun.

Some uses of indefinite article

a) Used before singular countable nouns

When we are not referring to something or someone specific or when the reader does not know which one is referred to.

For example;

***A** friend of yours called for you.*

***A** parcel arrived for you this evening.*

b) Used in the sense of one

For example;

*I read **a** book every week last term.*

*I gave her **a** pound for the work.*

- Before hundred, thousand, million, billion, etc. when used in the singular as an alternative to *one*.

For example;

*I travelled **a** hundred kilometers before midday.*

He lost **a** million on his way to go shopping.

c) Used with the meaning each

For example;

*Last week the secretary wrote ten letters **a** day.*

*Her salary has been decreased by a hundred dollars **a** year.*

d) Used with the names of occupations

For example;

*Her uncle is **a** lawyer.*

*He is studying to become **a** doctor.*

e) Used to refer to a person known to the listener but not to the speaker.

For example;

A Mrs. Mahelo wishes to speak to you.

A Miss Melia will join our team.

f) Used with an adjective followed by one

For example;

*She looked at several skirts and chose **a red one**.*

*She glanced over some exercises and did **an easy one**.*

g) Used to refer things that go together as a pair

For example;

I bought a skirt and blouse. (skirt and blouse go together)

I bought a skirt and a blouse. (skirt and blouse are separate)

A cup and a sauce/a cup and sauce. (what is the difference in meaning?)

3. Zero article

Referring to a noun without using an article.

a) Referring to illness

For example;

*She is suffering from **malaria**.*

*He died of **AIDS**.*

b) Referring to meals

For example;

*We are having **lunch/supper/breakfast/dinner**.*

c) Referring means of transport

For example;

*We came by **bus/train/on foot**.*

Consider the following points;

(i) The indefinite article follows **such**

For example;

*It is **such a** hot day she can't work.*

*She was making **such a** noise that we couldn't hear the radio.*

(ii) The indefinite article follows the adjective if the adjective is preceded by *too*.

For example;

*He is **too wise a** man to get involved in an argument.*

*It is **too long an** exercise for you to do today.*

- The indefinite article may come before or after *rather* used with an adjective.

For example;

*It is **a rather** cold day.*

*It is **rather a** cold day.*

- Indefinite article changes the meaning when used before *few* and *little*.

For example;

*We have **few** books. (i.e. we haven't as many books as we like to have.)*

*We have **a few** books. (i.e. we haven't many books but we have some and we are not complaining.)*

*There was **little** rain last month. (i.e. there was very little rain last month.)*

*There was **a little** rain last month. (i.e. there was some rain last month.)*

The indefinite article is not used

a) When the noun is uncountable

For example;

*Her new desk is made of **steel**.*

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*She gave up drinking **wine**.*

- It is used before uncountable nouns which imply a comparison between an unaccountable noun and others of the same kind.

For example;

***A** cloth of this quality is very expensive.*

***A** purer water than this does not exist.*

b) When the noun is the name of a meal

For example;

*I had **breakfast** at six o'clock.*

*We had **dinner** before going out.*

- If, however we use the name of a meal for a special function, the indefinite article is required

For example;

*There is going to be **a** lunch for the old boys of the school next month.*

c) When the noun is plural

For example;

*I had **friends** from South Africa.*

The indefinite articles *a* or *an* is used

- a) When referring to something for the first time.

For example;

*I saw **a** group of five animals including **an** elephant.*

- c) When referring to something unspecific.

For example;

*Let's go to town to watch **a** film. (any film)*

- d) Before, singular countable nouns.

For example;

***A** pen is mightier than **a** sword.*

*Ngugi is **an** East African writer who is famous in Africa.*

Generally, **a** is used with those words which begin with a consonant sound; **an** with those words which begin with a vowel sound. Study the above examples to justify this rule.

Chapter Two

DEGREES OF COMPARISON

Generally there are three degrees of comparison; namely, Positive, Comparative and Superlative. The comparative is for comparing two items while a superlative is for comparing more than two items.

For examples;

*Fabian is **short**.* (positive)

*Fabian is **shorter** than Faustine.* (comparative)

*Fabian is the **shortest** of them all.* (superlative)

Comparative and superlative forms are used to compare and contrast different objects in the English language. The comparative form is used to show the difference between two objects but the superlative form is used when speaking about three or more objects showing which one is the most of something.

a) Sentence patterns for making comparisons

The three main ways to consider when making comparison

(i) The sentence pattern is:

as + ordinary form of the adjective or adverb + as.

For example;

*His report is **as long as** mine.*

*This novel is **as boring as** the one I read last month.*

(ii) The sentence pattern is:

comparative form of the adjective or adverb + than.

For example;

*His report is **longer than** mine.*

*This novel is **more boring than** the one I read last month.*

(iii) The sentence pattern is:

less + ordinary form of the adjective or adverb + than.

For example;

*His report is **less long than** mine.*

*This novel is **less boring than** the one I read last month.*

b) Sentence patterns with the superlative

There are also three main patterns when talking about the superlative.

(i) The sentence pattern is:

definite article + superlative form of the adjective or adverb.

For example;

*His report is **the longest** of all.*

*This novel is **the most boring** one I have ever read.*

(ii) The sentence pattern is:

one of + definite article + superlative form of adjective.

For example;

*His report was **one of the longest** discussed in the meeting.*

*This novel is **one of the most boring** I have ever read.*

(iii) The sentence pattern is:

definite article + least + ordinary form of adjective or adverb.

For example;

*Of all the novels I have read this one is **the least boring**.*

c) Forming comparative and superlative

(i) Comparative add *-er* and the superlative add *-est*.

<u>Positive form</u>	<u>Comparative form</u>	<u>Superlative form</u>
Tall	Taller	Tallest
Big	Bigger	Biggest
Fast	Faster	Fastest
Long	Longer	Longest

(ii) A positive form which end with an *-e* (except adjectives in the form of the past participle) form the comparative by adding *-r* and the superlative by adding *-st*.

<u>Positive form</u>	<u>Comparative form</u>	<u>Superlative form</u>
Large	Larger	Largest
Wise	Wiser	Wise s t

Degrees of Comparison

- (iii) A positive form ending in *-y*, *-er*, *-ow* and *-le* normally form the comparative and superlative by changing 'y' to 'i' and adding *-er* and *-est*.

<u>Positive form</u>	<u>Comparative form</u>	<u>Superlative form</u>
Pretty	Prettier	Prettiest
Clever	Cleverer	Cleverest
Narrow	Narrower	Narrowest
Gentle	Gentler	Gentlest

- Other adjectives that follow this pattern are; *common*, *polite*, *quiet*, *wicked*, *cruel*, *stupid*, *pleasant*, etc.

- (iv) A positive form other than those ending in *-y*, *-er*, *-ow*, and *-le* form the comparative with *more* and superlative with *most*.

<u>Positive form</u>	<u>Comparative form</u>	<u>Superlative form</u>
Hopeful	More hopeful	Most hopeful
Honest	More honest	Most honest
Selfish	More selfish	Most selfish
Peaceful	More peaceful	Most peaceful
Pleasant	More pleasant	Most pleasant
Careful	More careful	Most careful
Thoughtful	More thoughtful	Most thoughtful

- (v) A positive form forms the comparative with *more* and superlative with *most*.

<u>Positive form</u>	<u>Comparative form</u>	<u>Superlative form</u>
Beautiful	More beautiful	Most beautiful
Efficient	More efficient	Most efficient
Attractive	More attractive	Most attractive
Important	More important	Most important
Intelligent	More intelligent	Most intelligent

- (vi) A Positive form ending in *-ly* form the comparative with *more* and superlative with *most*.

<u>Positive form</u>	<u>Comparative form</u>	<u>Superlative form</u>
Loudly	More loudly	Most loudly

Degrees of Comparison

Rudely

More *rudely*

Most *rudely*

Neatly

More *neatly*

Most *neatly*

- When *early* is used as an adverb, it forms the comparative with *-er* and superlative with *-est*.

(vii) A positive form with irregular comparative and superlative forms.

Positive Form

Good

Well

Bad

Badly

Much

Far

Little

Many

Comparative

Better

Better

Worse

Worse

More

Farther

Less

More

Superlative

Best

Best

Worst

Worst

Most

Farthest

Least

Most

Chapter Three

CONJUGATION OF THE VERBS

The conjugation of a verb shows the various forms it assumes either by inflection or combination with parts of other verbs to mark *voice, mood, tense, number* and *person*. Its Infinitives and Participles must be added.

a) Voice - Indicates whether the subject of the verb performed or received the action. There are two type of voice in English. Active voice when the subject does an action and passive voice when an action is done to the subject.

For examples:

Mother cooked food. (Active voice)

Food was cooked by mother. (Passive voice)

More examples of Active and Passive Voice

Simple present tense

Active

You like me

I like you

She likes him

We like them

Passive

I am liked (*by you*)

You are liked (*by me*)

He is liked (*by her*)

They are liked (*by us*)

Present continuous tense

Active

She is cooking food

I am cooking food

She is cooking for him

You are cooking food for us

We are cooking food for them

Passive

Food is being cooked (*by her*)

Food is being cooked (*by me*)

Food is being cooked for him (*by her*)

Food is being cooked for us (*by you*)

Food is being cooked for them (*by us*)

Present perfect tense

Active

You have liked me

I have liked you

She has liked him

You have liked us

We have liked them

Passive

I have been liked (*by you*)

You have been liked (*by me*)

He has been liked (*by her*)

We have been liked (*by you*)

They have been liked (*by us*)

Present perfect continuous tense

Active

I have been liking music
You have been liking cinema
We have been liking football
They have been liking netball

Passive

Music has been being liked (*by me*)
Cinema has been being liked (*by you*)
Football has been being liked (*by us*)
Netball has been being liked (*by them*)

Simple past tense

Active

She liked me
He liked you
I liked him
John liked us
We liked them

Passive

I was liked (*by her*)
You were liked (*by him*)
He was liked (*by me*)
We were liked (*by John*)
They were liked (*by us*)

Past continuous tense

Active

.....
.....
.....
.....

Passive

I was being liked (*by her*)
You were being liked (*by us*)
He was being liked (*by me*)
They were being liked (*by us*)

Past perfect tense

Active

She had liked me
I had liked you
You had liked him
They had liked us
We had liked them

Passive

I had been liked (*by her*)
You had been liked (*by me*)
He had been liked (*by you*)
We had been liked (*by them*)
They had been liked (*by us*)

Past perfect continuous tense

Active

I had been liking music
You had been liking cinema
He had been liking football
We had been liking travelling
They had been liking netball

Passive

Music had been being liked (*by me*)
Cinema had been being liked (*by you*)
Football had been being liked (*by him*)
Travelling had been being liked (*by us*)
Netball had been being liked (*by them*)

Simple future tense

Active

She shall/will like me
He will like you

Passive

I shall/will be liked (*by her*)
You will be liked (*by him*)

Conjugation of the Verbs

I will like him

You shall like us

We will like them

He will be liked (*by me*)

We shall be liked (*by you*)

They will be liked (*by us*)

Future continuous tense

Active

I shall/will be cooking meat

You will be cooking meat

He will be cooking meat

We shall be cooking meat

They will be cooking meat

Passive

Meat shall/will be being cooked (*by me*)

Meat will be being cooked (*by you*)

Meat will be being cooked (*by him*)

Meat shall be being cooked (*by us*)

Meat will be being cooked (*by them*)

Future perfect tense

Active

He shall/will have liked me

I will have liked you

She will have liked him

She shall have liked us

You will have liked them

Passive

I shall/will have been liked (*by him*)

You will have been liked (*by me*)

He will have been liked (*by her*)

We shall have been liked (*by her*)

They will have been liked (*by you*)

Future perfect continuous tense

Active

I shall/will have been liking music

You will have been liking cinema

He will have been liking football

We shall have been liking coffee

They will have been liking beer

Passive

Music shall/will have been being liked (*by me*)

Cinema will have been being liked (*by you*)

Football will have been being liked (*by him*)

Coffee shall have been being liked (*by us*)

Beer will have been being liked (*by them*)

b) Mood - Indicates the frame of mind of the performer. There are three kinds of mood as follow;

- *Indicative mood*: statements and questions

For example;

She is sick.

How are you?

- *Imperative mood*: orders/commands

Conjugation of the Verbs

For example;

Sit down.

- *Subjunctive mood: not fact (just wishes/assumptions)*

For example;

*I **wish** I were a doctor. (I am not a doctor)*

***If** I were you. (I am not you)*

***If** I knew English. (I do not know English)*

c) Tense - Indicates when the action was performed.

For examples;

*I **go** to school. (present)*

*I **went** to school. (past)*

*I **shall/will** go to school. (future)*

d) Number - Indicates how many performed the action.

***She** went to the market. (singular)*

***They** went to the market. (plural)*

e) Person - Indicates who performed the action.

***I/We** played football. (first person)*

***You** played football. (second person)*

***He/She/They** played football. (third person)*

Chapter Four

VERBS AND TENSES

Tense is a form of a verb which indicate time. In other words, the time of action or state is shown or indicated by the tense of the verb. Study the following examples;

a) Present Simple

For example;

She cooks food.

b) Present continuous tense

For example;

She is cooking food.

c) Present perfect tense

For example;

She has cooked food. (already, just can be used)

d) Present perfect continuous tense

For example;

She has been cooked food since evening.

USES OF TENSES

A: The Present Simple

We use the present simple to refer to:

i) Facts/permanent truth/eternal truth

For example;

*Sun **rises** from east and **sets** to west.*

ii) Repeated actions, customs and habits

For example;

*She **goes** to the market every Sunday.*

iii) Future time

For example;

*The match **begins** at 4 pm tomorrow. (time already fixed)*

iv) Instantaneous action (actions that begin and end at the same time)

Verbs and Tenses

For example;

*David **kicks** the ball to Baraka.*

v) Past event (Historic present)

For example;

*In 1979 Id Amin invaded Tanzania. The president of Tanzania **declares** war. The Ugandan war **is** defeated and Id Amin **runs** away from the country.*

B. The Present Continous Tense

The present continous tense is used as follows:

i) To refer to something happening at the time of speaking

For example;

I am writing now.

ii) To refer to something going on but not at the time of speaking

For example;

I am now writing a novel. (but I am doing a different thing when speaking this sentence)

iii) To refer to temporary action/state

For example;

*I **am living** in Mwanza. (temporary residence)*

*I **live** in Mwanza. (permanent residence)*

iv) To refer to near future

For example;

*She **is leaving** to Arusha next week.*

v) To refer to repeated actions

For example;

*Someone **is knocking** on the door.*

vi) To refer to habitual action but with the speaker's disapproval (used with adverbial of frequency)

For example;

*She **is always making** noise in the class. (the speaker dislikes that habit)*

She **always makes** noise in the class. (the speaker just reports her habit)

She **takes** the examination next month. (fixed time)

She **is taking** the examination next month. (future plan)

Juma **leaves** school in July. (fixed time)

Juma **is leaving** school in July. (future plan)

Note that: The *present simple* used in this way implies that the event will take place according to a programme, timetable or calendar while the present continuous here carries the idea of an intention.

The present continuous with *always*

Normally use the present for habit, but if you include in the sentence a word like *always*, *continually*, *constantly*, you can use the *present continuous*. This is more forceful than the present simple and normally implies that the speaker or writer does not approve of the action of the subject of the sentence.

For example;

She **is always asking** for some money.

He **is always crying** in the class.

She **is continually making** a nuisance of herself.

The present continuous for temporary activities

The present continuous like all the continuous tenses indicates an activity which is temporary. It describes something happening now, but not necessarily at this very moment. For example, you could say *the headmaster is writing a book* when you know that at this moment he is interviewing students.

Verbs Rarely Found in Continuous Forms

There are certain verbs which are rarely found in the *continuous forms*. For example, early in your study of English you realise (even if you do not learn the rule) that the verb *to be* is used in the *present simple* whether you are talking about something which is going on now or something is habitual.

For example;

*I **am** late now.*

*I **am** often late.*

You can therefore say that *to be* is a verb not usually found in the continuous form (except, *of course* in the passive).

There are several verbs of this kind. They describe states or feelings which are thought to continue indefinitely. It is advisable to acquaint oneself thoroughly with these verbs. They are more easily remembered if you think of them as falling into six groups as follows:

i) Verbs for states over which you have no control

See compare with **look**

For example;

*I **see** that it is raining again.*

*She is **looking** at a map.*

Seeing is a state over which you have no control once you have your eyes open, but you can choose to look or not to look.

It is only when the verb *see* describes what happens to you when you have your eyes open that it is not used in the *continuous forms*. I can have several other meanings and for these the continuous forms can be used.

For example;

*The manager **is seeing** the applicants. (interviewing)*

*The tourists **are seeing** the ancient monuments this evening. (touring)*

Hear compare with **listen**

For example;

*I **hear** the rain falling.*

*I **am listening** to the radio.*

Listening is used about a voluntary action but hearing is not voluntary action.

More examples;

*The blanket **feels** very damp. (feel – when intransitive)*

*This meat **tastes** bad. (taste – when intransitive)*

*Her breath **smells** bad. (smell – when intransitive)*

ii) Verbs for ideas

For example;

*I **remember** what she said. (remember)*

*I **recall** the actual words of the chairwoman. (recall)*

*I **understand** what she is talking about. (understand)*

*She now **knows** as much about the subject as you do. (know)*

*She **believes** that what he is saying is true. (believe)*

*I **suppose** you are right. (suppose)*

*I **doubt** if she will succeed. (doubt)*

*They **agree** with her suggestion. (agree)*

*I **imagine** she will succeed. (imagine)*

*She **disbelieves** her own father. (disbelieve)*

*I **think** (that) it is time for you to leave. (think + that)*

*She is **thinking of** her future. (think of)*

*I **notice** that you have been promoted. (notice)*

*His teacher **considers** him a bad student. (consider + that)*

*She is still **considering** what action she should take. (consider when it means think over)*

*They **realize** they cannot win the game. (realize)*

iii) Verbs for liking and disliking

For example;

*I **like** the book I am reading. (like)*

*She **loves** her mother. (love)*

*She **hates** flattery. (hate)*

*He **detests** people who are unkind to animals. (detest)*

*He **despises** this man because he is a coward. (despise)*

*She **dislikes** this painting. (dislike)*

*I **forgive** you for the unpleasant things you have said. (forgive)*

*They **prefer** to go without her. (prefer)*

She **trusts** you do not object. (trust)

He **distrusts** this man. (distrust)

iv) Verbs for wishing

For example;

She **wishes** to leave as early as possible. (wish)

We **want** more than we are entitled to. (want)

The company **desires** to recruit a branch manager. (desire)

v) Verbs for possession

For example;

She **possesses** well over a hundred books. (possess)

Her mother **owns** several acres of land in Mwanza city. (own)

That ruler **belongs to** Avelina Bihemo. (belong to)

Uncle **has** more money than he needs. (have – the rule applies only when *have* means *possess*. In other cases the continuous can be used, e.g. We are now *having* lunch.)

vi) Other verbs

For example;

This **seems** to be the book I lost. (seem)

Her opinion **matters** to me. (matter)

The two sisters **differ** in many respects. (differ)

He **appears** to be more intelligent than he is. (appear – only when *appear* means *seem*. When it means *come into view*, the continuous is possible, e.g. Leaves are now *appearing* on the tree.)

She doesn't know what you **mean**. (mean)

Her future now **depends** on the decision of the judge. (depend)

She **resembles** her aunt. (resemble)

He **deserves** the medal. (deserve)

Her failure **results** from her laziness. (result)

The course **consists** of twelve lessons. (consist of)

The tin **contains** an ounce of tobacco. (contain)

That torch **holds** three batteries. (hold – only when *hold* means *contain*.)

*Now that it has been altered this jacket **fits** her.* (fit)

*The red dress she is wearing **suits** her.* (suit)

*She **is** very patient.* (be – the continuous can be used if you wish to describe a state which is only temporary. For example, you can say: *She is not being* very patient over this matter. The simple is used to describe a characteristic that is thought of as being permanent.)

The previous verbs are occasionally found in the continuous forms. This is especially true in colloquial English. If the word *always* (or a word of similar meaning) is used to imply frequent repetition which meets with the disapproval of the speaker, a continuous tense can be used with some of the above verbs.

For example;

*She is **always** forgetting her ruler.*

*He is **always** foreseeing disaster.*

With this exception, it is generally advisable for a student at this level to avoid using the above verbs in continuous forms.

C: Present Perfect and Present Perfect Continuous Tenses

i) The present perfect

This tense gives considerable difficulty because learners look upon it as a *past* rather than a *present tense*. It describes events which happened in the past but are closely connected with the present. If you bear this important point in mind you will avoid many tense mistakes. It is a very common mistake to confuse the *present perfect* and the *simple tenses*.

A person arrives at an airport and says, *I have lost my ticket*. She would not say, *I lost my ticket*. Losing her ticket has a very definite effect on the present for the would-be passenger and the result will probably be that she will be delayed.

Later, however, when she reaches her destination, she would say to her friends, *I lost my ticket, but eventually I got another and made the journey*. Now she sees the loss of her ticket as a *past*

event not closely connected with the *present* and she therefore uses the *past simple*.

In many cases which tense you should use is decided for you by the presence in the sentence of an adverb of *past time*. No matter how closely connected with the *present* an event may be, the moment you use an adverb of *past time* you are obliged to use a *past tense*.

For example;

I saw her **last month**.

They first met **in 1991**.

- (i) An adverb of past time which covers a period of time up to the present requires the present perfect tense.

For example;

She has been here **since 1988**.

He has been a teacher **for ten years**.

- (ii) Even if the adverb of past time refers to only a very short time ago you must use a past tense.

For example;

Mr. Lutalagula came into the room **a minute ago**.

The plane touched down **six seconds ago**.

In the first sentence you are not implying by your use of the past simple that Mr. Lutalagula is no longer in the room; nor in the second sentence are you implying that the plane is no longer at this airport. You use the past simple because the adverbs of past time require it.

- (iii) Some adverbs can be of either past or present time according to when they are used.

For example;

I have seen the Manager this morning. (spoken at 9 am)

I saw the Manager this morning. (spoken at 3 pm)

Notice that an adverb of past time may sometimes consist of several words: I saw a Lion at Ngorongoro National Park *when*

I was in Tanzania. When I was in Tanzania is an adverb of past time; it could be replaced by a date – *in 1989*.

- (iv) There are certain adverbs associated with the *present perfect* rather than with the *past simple*. When you use such words as *lately, recently, just, already*, you show that the past event is closely connected with the present and you therefore use the *present perfect tense*.

For example;

*You have not been to the cinema **lately**.*

*He has **recently** got married.*

*The results have **just been announced**.*

*She has **already** announced her decision.*

- (v) There is another useful guide to which tense you would use. Any word or group of words indicating a period of time beginning in the past and continuing up to the present necessitates the use of the *present perfect tense*. Some adverbs of this kind are: *up to the present, yet, not yet, ever, never, etc.*

For example;

Up to the present we have had no news of the escaped prisoner.

*Have you read that novel **yet**?*

*You have **not yet** read this book.*

*Have you **ever** been to Zanzibar?*

*You have **never** been to Zanzibar.*

You often think of the whole lifetime of a person when you ask a question such as: Have you been in Zanzibar? (with *ever* understood)

The question implies that the person still has a chance of going to Zanzibar. If you know, however, that he/she has no chance or intention of going to Zanzibar, or if you are thinking of a specific trip he/she made in Tanzania, you would say: Did you go to Zanzibar?

In this case you use the *past simple* because an adverb of *past time* is understood.

- (vi) The words *since* and *for* are frequently used in a phrase describing a period of time beginning in the past and continuing up to the present. When they are used in this way the present perfect tense is required.

For example;

*She has lived in this house **since** she came to our city.*

*She has been a nurse **for** twelve years.*

For can, of course, be used with the past simple. In this case the period of time it precedes began *and ended* in the past whereas in the above example with the present perfect the period began in the past but has continued right up to the present. Compare: *She was a nurse for twelve years. (2000 – 2012)*

ii) The present perfect continuous

Like the *present perfect simple*, which you have just revised, this tense indicates a past event closely connected with the present. It is distinguished from the present perfect simple in that it is used in three special ways:

- (a) To indicate an activity or state which started in the past has gone on until the present.

For example;

*They **have been revising** verbs for two weeks.*

*She **has been washing** the doors since nine o'clock.*

- (b) To emphasize that a past activity or state, connected with the present but now ended, has been continuous or repeated.

For example;

*They **have been playing** all the evening.*

*I **have been taking** medicine for my leg pain since Sunday.*

- (c) To indicate that a past activity or state, connected with the present but now ended, has an important result which is now being experienced. This is not an easy use of the *present perfect continuous* and you should study these example carefully;

The workmen have been digging up the road, and now the traffic cannot pass.

They have been driving along muddy roads, and now the car is dirty.

She has been training for several days and should do very well in the cross-country race.

She has been drinking and can't walk straight.

I have been working in the shamba and need a bath.

She has been studying all night and has fallen asleep in class.

In each of the above sentences there is the idea *and this is the result*. For this reason you use the *continuous* rather than the simple form of the *present perfect*.

D: The Past Simple and Past Continuous Tenses

The above two tenses are so often confused that it is a good idea to revise them together and see how they differ.

Remember that if the past activity or state is closely connected with the present, you use the *present perfect tenses*.

For past activities and states which are not connected with the present you use either the *past simple* or the *past continuous* (with the exception of those requiring the *past perfect*).

Most students make the mistake of using the past continuous far too often. You use the past simple unless:

- i) An activity was going on when another one took place.

For example;

*She **was reading** a newspaper when I entered the room.*

*He **was listening** to the radio when the phone rang.*

The second activity could be replaced by a point in time.

For example;

*She was reading a newspaper **at nine o'clock**.*

He was listening to the radio at half past ten.

- ii) You wish to emphasize that two actions were taking place at the same time.

For example;

*I **was** reading while my sister **was** writing.*

*The students in the next class **were** making noise while we **were** taking our physics examination.*

- iii) You wish to emphasize that an activity was continuous over a certain period (often with an expression like *all day, all the evening*).

For example;

*She **was working** hard all last week.*

*The gardener **was cutting** the grass all yesterday evening.*

- iv) You wish to show disapproval, using a word like *always*.

For example;

*He **was always making** a disturbance in the dormitory.*

*She **was always asking** for favors.*

Watch out in using the *past continuous* in any other circumstances.

Whenever you think of using the *past continuous*, ask yourself these questions;

- a) *Is it important to the sense that this activity went on continuously?*
b) *Even if the activity did go on for a long time, is this fact important to the sense?*

And do not forget that there are certain verbs rarely found in the *continuous* forms.

A common and serious mistake is to use the *past continuous* for repeated or habitual activities in the past. You must use the *past simple*.

For example;

*Last year we **went** to the cinema every Sunday.*

*He often **took part in** dramatic productions when he was at college.*

She frequently **borrowed** books from the school library.

Repeated or habitual activities in the past can also be expressed by *used to + infinitive*.

For example;

He **used to write** a composition every week.

She **used to play** netball when she was at college.

Note that: there is no present form of *used to*.

E: The Past Perfect and Past Perfect Continuous Tenses

i) The past perfect

Locally for the best understanding you can call the past perfect as *before* tense. When you wish to indicate that an event happened *before* another event in the past, you use the *past perfect*. Like the past continuous, this tense is used far too often by some students. It is not often that you wish to convey the idea of one event happening before another, and for this reason you do not use this tense frequently. Sometimes it is clear that one event occurred before the other without using the *past perfect*. Study the following sentences:

*The lesson **had begun** when he arrived.*

*The lesson **began** before he arrived.*

In the first sentence the past perfect is necessary to make it clear that the order of events was:

The beginning of the lesson.

His arrival.

The lesson *began* when he arrived would give a different meaning (that the beginning of the lesson and his arrival occurred at the same time). In the second sentence the use of the word *before* makes the order quite clear, and the past perfect tense is unnecessary.

The past perfect is used with a point of time in the past to show that the event occurred before that point.

For example;

*By two o'clock she **had read** most of the novel.*

*In 1990 she **had been employed** as a teacher for five years.*

Note that: The *past perfect* is also used in rejected conditions and for unfulfilled wishes in the past.

ii) The past perfect continuous

This is comparatively an unimportant tense because it is used when you wish to indicate that an event happened before another event in the past and that the event was continuous (or was still continuing at a certain point in the past).

For example;

*We **had been waiting** for half an hour when the other team arrived.*

*She **had been working** for that school for five years when she was terminated.*

*In 2009 he **had been studying** in Uganda for two years.*

*At four o'clock we **had been playing** netball for an hour.*

F: The Future and Future Continuous Tenses

i) The future simple and *going to*

The difficulty with the future simple is not so much the difference between *will* and *shall* as when to use special forms such as *going to*.

Note that: In modern English the distinction between *will* and *shall* for the pure future has almost disappeared. You can use *will* for any person when you simply want to indicate that an event will happen in the future. Strictly speaking, *will* is used with the first person when it indicates a promise or intention.

In practice there is no difference between the borrower who says "*I shall return her money tomorrow*" and the one who says "*I will return her money tomorrow*".

Only a rigid grammarian would prefer to believe the borrower who uses *will*.

The future can be expressed by *going to* + *infinitive* if there is the idea of intention, certainty or prediction.

Verbs and Tenses

For example;

*He **is going to** have lunch at twelve o'clock.*

*They **are going to** leave school in July.*

*This house **is going to** fall down.*

It is, of course, quite correct to use *will* in place of *going to*.

The *going to* construction is particularly common to express decisions that we have already taken.

For example;

*We **are going to spend** June in China.*

But it is not used for a future action decided at the moment of speaking.

For example;

*I'm hungry. I think **I'll cook** a meal.*

Usually it does not occur in conditions.

For example;

*If you tell her the truth, **she'll be disappointed**.*

ii) The future continuous

This tense is used for an activity or a state which begins before and continues after a point of future time.

For example;

*She **will be flying** across the Lake Victoria at five o'clock tomorrow evening.*

Here the future simple would not be a suitable tense because the flight will obviously last longer than an instant, it will begin before and continue after five o'clock.

Consider these further examples;

*We **shall be playing** basketball at half past five tomorrow.*

*When she arrives, they **will be waiting** at the railway station for her.*

*Next Wednesday we **shall be taking** our final examination.*

The future continuous can also be used to indicate that an activity or state will be going on over a period of future time.

For example;

*I **shall be working** in the library all tomorrow morning.*

*My sister **will be studying** at the college next year.*

*Our teachers **will be correcting** examination papers all next week.*

In such cases as the above three the *future continuous* is used for emphasis and it would not be grammatically wrong to use the *future simple*.

This future continuous can be used instead of the present continuous to show that an event has been definitely planned for the future.

For example;

*She **will be leaving** school in July.*

G: Other Uses of Shall and Will

These verbs have other uses apart from helping to form the future tense.

a) If *shall* is used with the second or third persons it implies a promise or a threat.

For example;

*You **shall** have what you deserve.*

*She **shall** not go to the cinema until she finishes her homework.*

b) *Shall* is used in questions about the wish or suggestions of another person.

For example;

***Shall** I help you with your work? (Means, do you wish me to help you with your work?)*

***Shall** we have a game of netball? (Means, do you wish to have a game of netball?)*

*What **shall** I do next? (Means, what do you suggest I do next?)*

c) *Will* can express willingness or a wish, especially in questions.

For example;

***Will** you let me have the novel as soon as possible?*

If you **will** let me have your address, I shall send you our magazine regularly.

d) Will not can therefore have the meaning “refuses”.

For example;

She **will not** tell me her name.

He **will not** go to the market.

e) Will can also imply insistence.

For example;

She has been told several times that unripe mangos are bad for her but she **will** eat them.

f) Will can be used for certainty.

For example;

Water **will** freeze at 0°C.

H: The Future Perfect Tense

This tense simply indicates that at a point of future time an event will be in the past.

For example;

By eleven o'clock she **will have been** here two hours.

She **will have finished** that novel tomorrow.

There are many occasions when it is possible to use either the future or the future perfect. For example, in the second example above the future is possible.

For example;

She **will finish** that novel tomorrow.

The difference is simply that when you use the future perfect you are viewing the event from the future, whereas when you use the future you are viewing the event from now. If you use a verb like *be*, as in the first example above, you are clearly viewing the event from the future and looking back on something which has been going on in the past, and therefore the only tense you can use is the future perfect.

For example;

We **shall have revised** all the tenses by the end of the term.

They **will have played** all the other teams when they meet us next Sunday.

He **will have made** five dresses this month when he finishes the one he is making now.

There is also a *future perfect continuous tense*, but it is rarely used. It simply indicates that an activity or state viewed in the future as past will have been going on continuously.

For example;

We shall have been living in this town for two months next July.

She will have been studying Kiswahili for four years next winter.

I: Some Other Uses of Should and Would

a) *Should* can be used with all persons to express obligation.

For example;

We should think over what she has said.

You should let her know at once.

They should help their parents.

b) *Should* is used in clauses of purpose.

For example;

She spent several hours on the essay so that she should have a good chance of winning the competition.

c) *Would* is common in polite requests.

For example;

Would you like to come to her birthday party?

Would you let me have your reply as soon as possible?

d) *Would not* can mean refused to.

For example;

They would not help him.

He would not agree.

e) *Would* is the past of *will* when it means insist on.

For example;

He was told several times that unripe mangoes were bad for her, but she would eat them.

f) *Would* can be used to express past habits.

For example;

When she was young she would get up at six every morning. (It is similar to *used to* but it can only be used for repeated actions and not for states. i.e. He *used to* own his own house)

J: The Conditional Tense and Conditional Sentences

The distinction between *should* and *would* in the *conditional tense* is disappearing. Most people now use *would* for all persons, although purists insist on *should* with I and we.

The chief use of the conditional tense is in a main clause when a condition is made in a dependent clause or an infinitive phrase.

For example;

We **would be able** to start the game if my sister came.

(Main clause)

(Conditional clause)

To leave school now **would be** a mistake.

(Infinitive phrase)

(Conditional clause)

Sometimes the condition is understood and not expressed. A very common instance of this and one that leads to many mistakes is in expressions like: “*I would like* to introduce our speaker”.

Here the words *if I have your permission*, or *if you will allow me to* are understood although they would not normally be expressed. *I would like*, *I should like* and *I'd like* are polite ways of saying *I wish* and can never be shortened to *I like*.

Three kinds of condition

The difficulty with this tense is that there are three main kinds of condition requiring different tense sequences. Consider these three sentences;

If Edwin goes to Canada, he will study law.

If Edwin went to Canada, he would study law.

If Edwin had gone to Canada, he would have studied law.

The *first* sentence implies that it is quite possible that Edwin will go to Canada. This is known as an *open* or *likely* condition. The *second* sentence implies that Edwin is unlikely to go to Canada. This is known as an *unlikely* condition.

The *third* sentence is purely hypothetical. The sentence implies that Edwin did not go to Canada and did not study law. This is known as an *unfulfilled* or *rejected* condition.

The above three sentences contain the tenses that are typical of the three kinds of condition. Also can be expressed in table form as follows;

Kind of condition	Tense in conditional clause	Tense in main clause
<i>Open/ likely</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Future</i>
<i>Unlikely</i>	<i>Past simple</i>	<i>Conditional</i>
<i>Unfulfilled/Rejected</i>	<i>Past perfect</i>	<i>Perfect conditional</i>

Since the tense shows the sense there are many possible variations on these tense sequences. It is advisable, however, to be very careful about using sequences other than those shown above.

Avoid the common mistake of thinking that the *conditional tense* is used in the *conditional clause*. The *conditional* and *perfect conditional* are found only in main clauses for *unlikely* and *unfulfilled/rejected conditions* respectively. If you come across a sentence like: “*If she **would come** with me, I should be very glad.*” The *would* of the conditional clause is being used in a special way to mean *was willing*.

Note that: Conditional sentences containing a past perfect can begin with *had* followed by the subject. In this case no *if* is used.

For example;

Had she seen the hole, she would not have fallen into it.

Other words introducing conditional clauses and requiring the above tense sequences are: *even if, suppose that, supposing that, assuming that, on condition that, provided that, as long as*, etc. *Unless* means almost the same as *if not* but is rather more emphatic. *Unless* is extremely rare in unfulfilled/rejected conditions.

A singular subject of a conditional clause can take *were*.

For example;

*If she **were** ill, who would take her place?*

Was would not be incorrect. A very common use of *were* with a singular subject is in the expression *if I were you*. (Used in this way *were* is not the plural but a relic of a verb form called the subjunctive, now happily almost vanished from the language.)

More about Present continuous tense and Present simple tense

A: Present continuous (I am going)

a) We use the continuous for things happening at or around the time of speaking. This means in action that is not complete.

For example;

*The water **is boiling**. Can you turn a stove off?*

*Listen to those people. What language **are they speaking**?*

*Let's go out. It **isn't raining** now.*

***I'm getting** hungry. Let's go and eat.*

*The population of the world **is increasing** very fast.*

b) We use the continuous for *temporary* situations

For example;

***I'm living** with some friends until I find a place of my own.*

***You're working** hard today. (Yes, I have a lot to do)*

B: Present simple (I do)

a) We use the simple present for things in general or things that happen repeatedly.

For example;

Water **boils** at 100 degrees Celsius.

Excuse me, **do you speak** Swahili?

It **doesn't rain** very much in summer.

I **always get** hungry in the evening.

Every day the population of the world **increases** by about 200,000 people.

b) We use the simple present for *permanent* situations

For example;

My parents **live** in Kenya. They have lived there all their lives.

John **isn't** lazy. He **works** hard most of the time.

Note the difference between *I always do* and *I'm always doing*

- **I always do** (something) {I do it every time}

For example;

I always go to work by car. (not *I'm always going*)

- **I'm always doing**

For example;

You're always watching television. (You watch television too often).

Juma is never satisfied. He's always complaining. (He complains too much).

Verbs frequently confused

A: *Been* and *Gone*

The past participle of *go* is *gone*, when implying that somebody or something has not only gone to a place but left it as well, *been* is used as a past participle.

For example;

She has **gone** to Mwanza. (She is there now.)

She has **been** to Mwanza. (She was there but is no longer there.)

- **Similarly with the past perfect**

For example;

*She had already **gone** to the market when I called on her. (She was at the market, or on her way there, when I called at her house.)*

*She had already **been** to the market when I called on her. (She had returned from the market when I called on her.)*

B: Borrow and Lend

These two words are opposite. *Borrow* means receive on loan and *lend* means give on loan.

For example;

*She **borrowed** some money from her friend.*

*She **lent** some money to her friend.*

Note that do not say *I borrowed him some money.*

C: Do and Make

These two verbs have almost the same meaning. They depend the following expressions to distinguish them;

Do

Do one's duty

Do homework

Do good

Do a favour

Do business with

Do without

Do the right thing

Do one's best

etc

Make

Make a mistake

Make money

Make a good impression

Make a request

Make a speech

Make plans

Make arrangements

Make a statement

Consider the two sentences below;

i) *The police **made** her **to** confess.*

ii) *The police **made** her **confess**.*

The first sentence is wrong while the second sentence is right.

A common mistake is to use *make* with the infinitive including *to*.

With the passive, however, *to* is used.

For example;

*She **was made to** confess by the police.*

D: *Lose and Loose*

Lose (verb) is the opposite meaning of *find* and *loose* (adjective) is the opposite meaning of *tight*. *Loose* is connected with the verb *loosen*.

For example;

*He is afraid he might **lose** his jewelry.*

*Her watch was **loose** and fell off.*

Also to loose (verb) meaning to set free (the opposite of bind).

E: *Salute and Greet*

Salute describes the action of raising the hand to the head to show respect to someone (the way soldiers are doing when they meet a superior). *Greet* clearly means give greetings to by saying hello or something similar (to behave in a polite or friendly way towards someone when you meet them).

For example;

*The captain **saluted** the general.*

*Melia **greeted** her friends when she saw them in the market.*

F: *Reach and Arrive*

Reach is a transitive verb and must have an object. **Arrive** is intransitive and cannot have an object.

For example;

*I **reached** Tanzania in the evening.*

*I **arrived** in the evening.*

- **Note** that the word *there* can be used with *reach* and *arrive*.

For example;

*I **arrived there** in the evening.*

*I **reached there** in the evening.*

- Also, where we arrived can be shown by using the preposition *at* or *in*.

For example;

*I **arrived in** Tanzania in the evening.*

G: *Say* and *Tell*

Say means express something using words and *tell* means give information.

For example;

Say

John **said** a few words to Jane.

John **said** nothing.

John **said** to me, "Pass me a pen."

Tell

John **told** her the truth.

John **told** the judge the truth.

John **told** me to pass a pen to him.

H: *Win* and *Beat*

Unlike *beat*, *win* can be used intransitively:

For example;

My team **won**.

- Note that objects of *win* are words like *match*, *game*, *war*, etc

For example;

My team **won the match**.

- *Beat* as used in this way, has the meaning of *defeat* and it must be followed by the noun for who was beaten.

For example;

My team **beat the champions** last week.

I: *Wear*, *Put on* and *Dress*

Distinction between *wear* and *put on* is that, *wear* describes a state while *put on* an action.

For example;

We **wear** our clothes for some hours.

It takes her a short time to **put them on**.

- Both verbs are transitive and require articles of clothing, etc. as objects:

For example;

I shall **wear** my old suit at the party.

I shall **put on** a sweater when it is cooler.

- *Dress* usually describes an action but it cannot take an article of clothing as an object.

Verbs and Tenses

For example;

*She is **dressing** at the moment. (She is putting her clothes on.)*

- It can take a person as an object.

For example;

*He is **dressing** his small brother.*

- It can describe the state in a special sense.

For example;

*He **dresses** very well. (He wears smart clothes.)*

J: Wound, Injure, Hurt and Damage.

The four verbs are used in the following ways;

Wound for injuries received from weapons in war and fighting.

For example;

*Over a hundred troops were **wounded** in the battle.*

- *Injure* for injuries received in accidents.

For example;

*Two cars collided and the passengers were **injured**.*

- *Hurt* for any injury to the body but usually minor.

For example;

*The goal-keeper **hurt** her hand in the match. (A football match for girls)*

- *Damage* is only for objects and not for persons.

For example;

*The explosion **damaged** many houses in Gongolamboto Dar-es-salaam.*

K: Steal and Rob

Steal is followed by the thing stolen and rob is followed by a person or place. When wishing to indicate what was stolen as well as the person or place affected, use the construction *rob somebody of something*.

For example;

*She **stole** my bag.*

Verbs and Tenses

He **robbed** the house.

She **robbed** him **of** his wallet.

L: *Lie and Lay*

Lie (with the meanings *be in a horizontal position* or *be situated*) is intransitive verb and has no object. *Lay* is a transitive verb and has an object.

For example;

She **lies** in bed every morning till ten.

The church **lies** in a valley.

That hen **lays** a lot of eggs.

The dog **lay** in the sun all morning.

The servant always **lays** the table for lunch.

- **Note** that *lie* with the meaning *tell an untruth* is quite regular.

For example;

She often **lies** to her father.

She **lied** to the headmistress.

Consider the principal parts of these verbs below:

	Present Simple	Past simple	Present participle	Past participle
<i>Lie</i> (intransitive)	<i>Lie</i>	<i>Lay</i>	<i>Lying</i>	<i>lain</i>
<i>Lay</i> (transitive)	<i>Lay</i>	<i>Laid</i>	<i>Laying</i>	<i>laid</i>
<i>Lie</i> (tell an untruth)	<i>Lie</i>	<i>Lied</i>	<i>Lying</i>	<i>lied</i>

M: *Sit and Set*

Sit is the intransitive verb which means to rest or occupy a seat and *set* is the transitive verb which means to place or put (is used to describe the placing of an object in a specific place).

For example;

He **sat** in the corridor outside the dean's office all morning.

Once he had **set** the clock ahead an hour, he went to bed.

Verb difficulties

A: Verbs followed by *-ing* Words

There is a common sentence pattern.

For example;

She enjoyed reading that novel. (Verb + *-ing* word)

More examples

*She **avoided** crossing the road because of the traffic.* (avoid)

*She **kept on** asking silly questions.* (keep on)

*I **stopped** smoking on the advice of my doctor.* (stop)

*He **resented** being told to keep quiet.* (resent)

*She **finished** reading that novel before I did.* (finish)

*The office **postponed** visiting the college.* (postpone)

*She **went on** writing after she was told to stop.* (go on) {Note the expression: *She went on to say...*}

*He **appreciated** having the opportunity to visit his uncle.* (appreciate)

*She **denied** having been outside the compound.* (deny)

*She **admitted** stealing the book.* (admit) {Note: the passive takes the infinitive. i.e. *She was considered to be a criminal.*}

*He **considered** leaving school when he was seventeen.* (consider) {Note: the passive takes the infinitive. i.e. *He was considered to be the most handsome boy in the village.*}

*Do you **mind** switching on the radio?* (mind)

*They **put off** coming to see us because of the weather.* (put off)

*She **practised** typing all yesterday evening.* (practise)

*My father does not **understand** my wanting to go to the university.* (understand)

*My uncle **escaped** being hurt when the train crashed.* (escape)

*She **dislikes** having to spend her weekends in school.* (dislike)

*She was **excused** arriving late at school.* (excuse) {In the active form the construction is usually: **verb** + **possessive** (or object) + **- ing**. I excused his (him) arriving late.}

*He **gave up** writing book.* (give up)

She was **forgiven** not coming since she wasn't well. (forgive) {In the active form the construction is the same as *excuse*.}

They **enjoyed** seeing that film. (enjoy)

B: Verbs followed by the *Infinitive*

For example;

He *hoped to find a job as a teacher.*

The following are verbs that are followed by an infinitive:

She **hoped** to live by writing plays. (hope)

She *didn't care* to come to our party. (care)

She **forgot** to bring her ruler. (forget)

She **decided** to leave the meeting early. (decide)

She **deserved** to win the race. (deserve) {Note: *-ing* can be used with passive meaning. i.e. She deserves punishing.}

He **expected** to receive some money today. (expect)

He **learnt** to ride a bicycle when he was seven. (learn) {Note: *learn* may be followed by a skill. i.e. Typing, dancing, singing, etc.}

She **meant** to go away for a holiday last week. (mean) {When it is the equivalent of *intend*.}

He **promised** to meet me yesterday. (promise)

She **wished** to stay in my house. (wish)

She **wanted** to go to South Africa. (want) {Note: like *deserve*, the *-ing* form can be used with passive meaning. E.g. The grass wants cutting.}

C: Verbs followed by an *Object + Infinitive*

For example;

His mother *persuaded him to apologize.* (In the passive, of course, the object is not found: She was persuaded to apologize by her mother.)

The following are some verbs requiring an object before the infinitive:

She **reminded** him to return his library book. (remind)

We **got** him to agree with us in the end. (get)

His brother **advised** him to take the examination again. (advise)

Bad weather **obliged** us to postpone the visit. (oblige)

Verbs and Tenses

They **invited** a well-known writer to address their society. (invite)

The rain **caused** us to cancel the match. (cause)

The doctor **ordered** her to rest. (order)

His mother **taught** him to read. (teach)

The president **warned** the people to be prepared for food shortages.
(warn)

The tutor allowed us to use a dictionary. (allow)

The chairwoman **persuaded** them to leave the matter to the next meeting. (persuade)

His success **encouraged** him to continue his studies. (encourage)

I **told** him to spend his money wisely. (tell)

The officer **commanded** his troops to advance. (command)

D: Verbs followed by either *Infinitive* or *-ing* word

A number of verbs can take either the *infinitive* or an *-ing* word without any noticeable difference in meaning. Such verbs are: *propose, start, attempt, begin, cease, continue, dread, hate, intend, like, love, plan, prefer.*

- If *allow* or *permit* is followed by an object or is in the passive, it takes the *infinitive*. If it does not have another object, it may be followed by the *-ing* form.

For example;

The doctor allowed her to eat.

She was allowed to eat meat.

But

The new assistant does not allow talking in the library.

The headmistress permitted us to go home early.

We were permitted to go home early.

But

The rules do not permit smoking in the bus.

Remember, forget, try, regret and *mean* have somewhat different meanings according to whether they are followed by the infinitives or the gerund.

For example;

I remembered to go to her village. (I did not forget to go to her village.)

I remember going to her village. (I recall going to her village.)

I forgot to look the word up in the dictionary. (I didn't look the word up in the dictionary because of a lapse of memory.)

I shall never forget running that race. (I shall always have the memory of running that race.)

She tried to read the novel. (She made an effort to read the novel.)

She tried reading the novel. (She sampled some of the novels.)

She said she regretted to tell us the news. (She was sorry to tell us the news, i.e. She said this before or while actually telling us the news.)

She said she regretted telling us the news. (She was sorry she had told us the news.)

She meant to go to Tanzania last month. (She intended to go to Tanzania last month.)

This means doing the work again. (This makes it necessary to do the work again.)

E: Verbs followed by *Objective + Present participle or Infinitive*

Some verbs can be followed by an *object + a present participle* or an *infinitive*. The use of the present participle implies that the action described by it continued after the action of the main verb, the infinitive that it was completed during the action of the main verb.

For example;

*I **felt** the water getting cold.* (feel) {i.e. it probably continued to get cold after I got out of it.}

*I **felt** the water get cold.* (feel) {i.e. it reached its minimum temperature while I was still in it.}

*He **heard** her playing the tune.* (hear) {i.e. he did not hear her play all of the tune.}

He **heard** her play the tune. (hear) {i.e. he heard her play all the tune.}

They **listened to** the headmistress reading out the results. (listen to)

They **listened to** the headmistress read out the results. (listen to)

She **noticed** the weather changing. (notice)

She **noticed** the weather change. (notice)

She **watched** me playing basketball. (watch)

She **watched** me play basketball. (watch)

The students **observed** the chemical dissolving. (observe)

The students **observed** the chemical dissolve. (observe)

He **saw** the train arriving. (see)

He **saw** the train arrive. (see)

Note that: The possessive is never used before the *present participle* or the *infinitive* in this construction.

F: -ing words with Prepositions

After prepositions, the -ing is used.

For example;

Instead **of** going to school, she studied at home.

After attending the lecture, they went home.

Poverty prevented him **from** continuing his education.

G: -ing words with Possessive or Object.

Pronouns and proper names can come before an -ing.

For example;

I don't like **her** interfering in our affairs.

I don't like **Paskazia's** interfering in our affairs.

She appreciated **him** correcting her work.

She appreciated **Balilemwa's** correcting her work.

Alternatively, an object can be used.

For example;

I don't like **her** interfering in our affairs.

I don't like **Paskazia's** interfering in our affairs.

She appreciated **him** correcting her work.

She appreciated **Balilemwa's** correcting her work.

H: Participial phrases

Consider the example below;

Checking over her work, the student found several mistakes.

The words in bolds are known as a *present participial phrase*.

In using a participial phrase one must be sure the performer of the action of the verb in participial form is the subject of the attached clause. Do not write sentences like:

Driving along the road, a cow was knocked down. (Clearly, it is not the cow that was driving.)

You should write;

Driving along the road, we knocked a cow down. (Or, not using a participial phrase: *As we were driving along the road, we knocked a cow down.*)

I: *Can* and *be able*

The difference between *can* and *be able* used in the *present tense* is insignificant.

But remember never to combine these two verbs. *I can be able* is a very serious error.

Permission

Both *can* and *could* are used to show permission.

For example;

Students **can** work in the library until five o'clock.

*I **could** go to the cinema any evening when I was a girl.*

Ability

Both *could* and *was able* are used to express ability in the past.

But when you want to stress the fact that an action was actually performed, you must use *was able*.

For example;

He **could** play the guitar when he was quite young.

The merchant **could** make a good profit.

- In these two sentences you are interested simply in the fact that he had the ability to play the guitar when he was quite young and that merchant was in a position to make a good profit, you are not concerned with whether he actually played the guitar (although he obviously did) or whether the merchant actually made a good profit.

*She **was able** to satisfy the examiners.*

*The cow **was able** to jump over the fence.*

- In these two sentences you mean that not only was something possible but that it actually took place. Not only *could* she satisfy the examiners, she actually took the examination and pass it. Not only *could* the cow jump over the fence, she actually did jump over it.

Note that: There is a distinction between *can* (with future meaning) and *will be able*.

For example;

*The doctor says that I **can** go back to work tomorrow. (i.e. I have permission to go back to work tomorrow.)*

*I **will be able** to play netball again when my leg is better. (i.e. It will be physically possible for me to play netball again when my leg is better.)*

J: Must and have to

There is only a slight difference between *must* and *have to*. *Must* implies when used with I or we that the subject is in agreement with the obligation or has even suggested it. With you *must* implies a kind of order. *Have to* is used with I, we or you when somebody other than the speaker is responsible for the compulsion. (With *he, she, it* and *they* the distinction between *must* and *has to/have to* is insignificant.)

For example;

*I **must** wear a tie when I go for the interview. (i.e. I think it could be a good idea to wear a tie when I go for the interview.)*

I **have to** wear a tie when I go for the interview. (i.e. I shall wear a tie when I go for the interview because it is expected of me.)

You **must** do as you are told. (i.e. You have no choice but to obey and I think you should.)

You **have to** do as you are told. (i.e. Obedience is expected of you and I have no comment to make.)

- When in doubt, it is advisable to use *must* as there are few occasions when it cannot be used instead of *have to*. But there are many occasions when *have to* would be inappropriate.

Must exists only with present and future meaning. For all other tenses a form of the verb *have to* is used.

For example;

They **would have to** move out if they didn't pay the rent.

We **had to** close the windows because of the rain.

He **has had to** give up smoking cigarette.

K: *Must not* and *need not*

Must not is used to express an obligation not to do something.

Need not is used to express the absence of obligation to do something.

For example;

Students **must not** wear jackets. (i.e. There is a rule against the wearing of jackets.)

Students **need not** wear jackets. (i.e. Students can wear jackets if they wish to but they are not obliged to)

More examples;

The patient **must not** be allowed out of the hospital.

The patient **need not** be given another injection.

These shirts **must not** be washed in boiling water.

These shirts **need not** be shortened.

- As *must not* can be used with only present and future meaning, the verb *have not to* is used for the other tenses.

Verbs and Tenses

For example;

*He **won't have to** go into hospital.*

*She **didn't have to** wait long for an answer.*

L: Did not need to and need not have

These are used to express unnecessary.

For example;

*She **didn't need to** come to the party.*

*She **needn't have** come to the party.*

Both these sentences imply that it was unnecessary for her to come to the party. The first sentence implies that probably she did not come to the party because before it took place she realized her presence was not necessary. The second sentence implies that she came to the party and she later realized (or somebody else later realized) that it was unnecessary for her to be there.

M: Must and can't meaning I am sure

For example, a sentence like;

*She **must** earn a good salary, she lives in such an expensive house.*

(Means that, I am sure that she earns a good salary.)

More examples;

*Juma **must** be more than seventeen, he already shaves.*

*I **must** be late, I can see the students are already in their classrooms.*

- The past form of this use of must is must have.

For example;

*She **must have** lived in China for several years, she speaks the language so well.*

*He **must have** lost his way, or he would be here by now.*

*She **must have** been an outstanding athlete when she was young since she took part in the Olympic games.*

A sentence like;

*She **can't** earn a good salary, she lives in such a cheap house.*

(Means that, I am sure that she doesn't earn a good salary.)

More examples;

*He **can't** be more than seventeen, he doesn't shave yet.*

*I **can't** be late, I can see some students still arriving.*

- The past form of this use of *can't* is *can't have*.

For example;

*She **can't have** lived in China for several years, she doesn't speak a word of the language.*

*He **can't have** lost his way, I saw him outside.*

*She **can't have** been an outstanding athlete when she was young, she has always been overweight.*

N: *Am to* and *am not to*

This construction is used for arrangements made for the future.

For example;

*I **am to** meet my father tomorrow.*

*We **are to** play another match on Saturday.*

- It can only imply an obligation, especially when used in the negative or interrogative form.

For example;

*Students **are not to** borrow books from the library after next Thursday.*

*Is **she not to** have a medical examination before joining the college?*

- The usual past form of this construction is *was to*, *was not to* and it is for arrangements made in the past.

For example;

*She **was to** travel from Tanzania to South Africa by bus.*

*They **were to** let us know by Monday.*

O: *Causative have and get*

When you wish to indicate that something is caused to be done, you can use this structure: *They had the windows cleaned.*

The verb *have* is in the tense required by the sense and the verb for the action performed is in the past participle form.

Verbs and Tenses

For example;

We **shall have** the house cleaned next month.

We **have** the house cleaned every week.

We **would have** the house cleaned if it were necessary.

A similar structure is with *get*.

For example;

We **got** the house cleaned.

We **shall get** the house cleaned next month.

We **get** the house cleaned every week.

We **would get** the house cleaned if it were necessary.

P: Clauses with *wish*

Three different tenses can be used after the verb *wish* depending on the situations.

i) You use the *conditional tense* when you wish that something not yet happening would happen or that something happening now would change or stop.

For example;

I wish you **would agree** to go.

We wish you **would tell** us the truth.

She wishes it **would stop** raining.

I wish that you **would speak** more slowly.

Note that: The *future tense* cannot be used.

ii) You use the *past simple tense* when you wish that a situation which does not exist did exist or that a situation which does exist did not exist.

For example;

I wish I **could** help you. (i.e. I can't.)

I wish I **knew** the answer. (i.e. I don't know the answer.)

We wish the rains **weren't** so heavy. (i.e. They are heavy.)

She wishes the terms **weren't** so long. (i.e. They are long.)

The verb here is in the *subjunctive form*, but this is exactly the same as the *past simple* and does not have to be learnt separately.

Note that: However, that *were* is normally used instead of *was* with singular words in this construction.

For example;

*She wishes she **were** married.*

*She wishes her father **were** not so poor.*

*He wishes he **were** taller.*

iii) You use the *past perfect tense* when you wish that something had happened which did not happen or that something had not happened which did happen.

For example;

*I wish I **had listened** to my mother. (i.e. I didn't.)*

*She wishes she **had worked** hard. (i.e. She didn't.)*

*I wish I **hadn't told** him. (i.e. I did.)*

*We wish we **hadn't gone**. (i.e. We did.)*

Chapter Five

DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH

Direct speech are the actual words used by the speaker. **Indirect speech** are the words reported from what has been said. In changing from direct or quoted speech to indirect or reported speech there are certain rules to be considered. In indirect or reported speech the use of *that* is optional.

Tense changes

Consider the example below;

"I have studied Kiswahili for two years," she said. (D.S)

She said she had studied Kiswahili for two years. (I.S)

From the example above, the reporting verb *said* is in the **past tense**, the tenses of the speech are normally changed. No changes are made in the tenses of the speech if the reporting verb is in any of the other tenses.

The tense changes are as follows;

a) Present simple becomes Past simple

For example;

"I study Kiswahili every morning," she said. (D.S)

She said she studied Kiswahili every morning. (I.S)

b) Present continuous becomes Past continuous

For example;

"I am studying Kiswahili at the moment," she said. (D.S)

She said she was studying Kiswahili at the moment. (I.S)

c) Present perfect becomes past perfect

For example;

"I have studied Kiswahili for two years," she said. (D.S)

She said she had studied Kiswahili for two years. (I.S)

d) Present perfect continuous becomes Past perfect continuous

For example;

"I have been studying Kiswahili for two years," she said. (D.S)

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She said she had been studying Kiswahili for two years. (I.S)

e) Past simple becomes Past perfect

For example;

"I studied Kiswahili last month," she said. (D.S)

She said she had studied Kiswahili the previous month. (I.S)

f) Past continuous can remain Past continuous or become Past perfect continuous

For example;

"I was studying Kiswahili last month," she said. (D.S)

She said she was studying Kiswahili the previous month. (I.S)

She said she had been studying Kiswahili the previous month. (I.S)

g) Future becomes conditional

For example;

"I shall study Kiswahili next month," she said. (D.S)

She said she would study Kiswahili the following month. (I.S)

h) Future perfect becomes Conditional perfect

For example;

"I shall have studied Kiswahili for two months next January," she said. (D.S)

She said she would have studied Kiswahili for two months next January. (I.S)

The conditional and the Past perfect are not normally changed.

Note that;

- When the reporting verb **say** takes an indirect object it is changed to **tell** before indirect speech.

For example;

"We shall go on holiday at the end of July," she said to me. (D.S)

She told me they would go on holiday at the end of July. (I.S)

- If it is felt that what was said is still true when it is reported, we can keep the tense of the original speech. This is particularly common when we are reporting scientific facts.

Direct and Indirect Speech

For example;

“Water boils at 100°C,” the teacher said. (D.S)

The teacher said that water boils at 100°C. (I.S)

a) Pronoun and Possessive adjective changes

Said, told and **asked** are the most common verbs used in indirect speech.

For example;

*“I have left **my** laptop in **your** car,” Melia told her father. (D.S)*

*Melia told her father that she had left **her** laptop in **his** car. (I.S)*

In making such changes, it is good to depend on the sense rather than to apply rules.

b) Demonstrative adjective changes

The changes from direct speech to direct speech are as follows;

Direct speech

This

These

Indirect speech

That

Those

For example;

*“I borrowed **this** book from my sister,” Juma said. (D.S)*

*Juma said that he borrowed **that** book from his sister. (I.S)*

c) Adverb changes

The changes from direct speech to indirect speech are only made if the speech is reported on a day other than when it is made.

Direct speech

Today

Yesterday

Tomorrow

Yesterday morning

Yesterday afternoon

Yesterday evening

Last night

Here

Ago

Indirect speech

That day

The day before, The previous day

The next day, The following day

The morning before, The previous morning

The afternoon before, The previous afternoon

The evening before, The previous evening

The night before, The previous night

There

Before

Now

Then

For example;

*"I will bring you the book **tomorrow**," she said. (D.S)*

*She said she would bring the book **the next day**. (I.S)*

d) Commands

Apart from usual changes, the imperative form of the verb is changed to the infinitive.

*"**Take** the novels to the office," the English teacher said to me. (D.S)*

*The English teacher told me **to take** the novels to the office. (I.S)*

e) Questions

Things to consider when changing a question from direct speech to indirect speech;

- The statement order (**subject + verb**) is used instead of the question order (**verb + subject**)
- The question mark is dropped
- Questions not beginning with an interrogative word like *why, who, when, what*, require the addition of *if* or *whether*. Note that, either *if* or *whether* can be used but it is preferable to use *whether* when *or* occurs in the speech. E.g. the waiter asked *whether* I would have soda or beer.

For example;

"Why have you locked the door?" mother asked John. (D.S)

Mother asked John why he had locked the door. (I.S)

f) Exclamations

In expressing an exclamation in indirect speech, it is necessary to use an expression which will give the idea of the original.

For example;

"Never! I will never agree to such an idea," she said. (D.S)

*She said she would **absolutely** never agree to such an idea. (I.S)*

"Good gracious! I have never heard of such an idea," she said. (D.S)

*She **was very surprised** and said she had never heard of such an idea. (I.S)*

g) Speeches containing more than a statement

If a speech contains not only a statement but also a question, or a command, or an exclamation, more than one reporting verb will be necessary in the indirect form.

For example;

"I am going to Tanzania. Have you ever been there?" (D.S)

She said she was going to Tanzania and asked if I had ever been there. (I.S)

h) Yes and No

Yes and No can be omitted in the indirect form when occurring at the beginning of a sentence of direct speech.

For example;

"Yes, I will come and see you soon," she said. (D.S)

She said she would come and see me soon. (I.S)

But when *yes* or *no* stand alone they are changed in indirect speech to a phrase echoing the main verb or a word like *agree*, *disagree* can be used.

Also avoid using the expression *in the negative* and *in the affirmative*, except in very formal style.

For example;

"Have you ever seen a car crash?" she asked. "No," I replied. (D.S)

She asked me if I had ever seen a car crash and I said I had not. (I.S)

"I don't think there will be any more rain today. Do you?" I said.

"No," he replied. (D.S)

I said I didn't think there would be any more rain that day and asked him what he thought. He agreed with me. (I.S)

i) Must

Uses of *must*:

- a) *Must* used for the actual present in direct speech becomes *had to* in indirect speech.

For example;

*"I **must** write to my mother," she said. (D.S)*

*She said she **had to** write to her mother. (I.S)*

Direct and Indirect Speech

- b) *Must* used for the future in direct speech becomes *would have to* in indirect speech.

For example;

*"I **must** leave for London next month," she said. (D.S)*

*She said she **would have to leave** for London the following month. (I.S)*

- c) *Must* used for a rule that always applies in direct speech remains *must* in indirect speech.

For example;

*"Parents **must** care for their children," she said. (D.S)*

*She said that parents **must** care for their children. (I.S)*

- d) *Must* implying certainty does not change

For example;

*"Melia **must** be over sixteen since she is already at university," he said. (D.S)*

*He said that Melia **must** be over sixteen since she was already at university. (I.S)*

Chapter Six

REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS

Verbs can be either regular or irregular.

Regular verbs; they form their *past tense* and *past participle* by adding *ed*.

For example;

Verb	Past Tense	Past Participle
pass	passed	passed
accept	accepted	accepted
allow	allowed	allowed
turn	turned	turned
suffer	suffered	suffered
wait	waited	waited

Three different pronunciations of – ed

t *finished, cooked, passed*

d *loved /lavd/*

Id *completed*

Irregular verbs; they form their past tense and past participle in various ways.

For example;

Verb	Past Tense	Past Participle
sit	sat	sat
come	came	come
cut	cut	cut
ring	rang	rung

You can distinguish irregular verb into three types;

- Verbs in which all three forms are the same.

For example;

Verb	Past Tense	Past Participle
bet	bet	bet
burst	burst	burst

Regular and Irregular Verbs

cost	cost	cost
cut	cut	cut
hit	hit	hit
hurt	hurt	hurt
let	let	let
put	put	put
read	read	read
set	set	set
shut	shut	shut
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread

- Verbs in which two of the three forms are the same.

For example;

Verb	Past Tense	Past Participle
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become
bend	bent	bent
bleed	bled	bled
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burn	burnt, -ed	burnt, -ed
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
come	came	come
creep	crept	crept
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
dream	dreamt, -ed	dreamt, -ed
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found

Regular and Irregular Verbs

get	got	got
hang	hung	hung
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
hold	held	held
keep	kept	kept
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
lean	lent, -ed	lent, -ed
learn	learnt, -ed	learnt, -ed
leap	leapt, -ed	leapt, -ed
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
light	lit	lit
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
pay	paid	paid
run	ran	run
say	said	said
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
shine	shone	shone
shoot	shot	shot
sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
smell	smelt, -ed	smelt, -ed
spell	spelt	spelt
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilt, -ed	spilt, -ed
speed	sped	sped
spell	spelt, -ed	spelt, -ed

Regular and Irregular Verbs

spit	spat	spat
spoil	spoilt, -ed	spoilt, -ed
stand	stood	stood
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
strike	struck	struck
sweep	swept	swept
swing	swung	swung
teach	taught	taught
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
understand	understood	understood
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound

- Verbs in which all three forms are different.

For example;

Verb	Past Tense	Past Participle
am, are, is	was, were	been
begin	began	begun
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
choose	chose	chosen
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forget	forgot	forgotten
forgive	forgave	forgiven

Regular and Irregular Verbs

freeze	froze	frozen
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
hide	hid	hidden
know	knew	known
lie	lay	lain
mistake	mistook	mistaken
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
see	saw	seen
sew	sewed	sewn, -ed
shake	shook	shaken
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
speak	spoke	spoken
spring	sprang	sprung
steal	stole	stolen
stink	stank	stunk
swear	swore	sworn
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
throw	threw	thrown
wake	woke	woken
wear	wore	worn
write	wrote	written

- Verbs have also an alternative past participle form which can only be used adjectivally, i.e. ending in *en*;

For example;

Regular and Irregular Verbs

Verb	Usual Past Participle	Adjectival Past Participle
drink	drunk	drunken
melt	melted	molten
prove	proved	proven
shave	shaved	shaven
shear	sheared	shorn
shrink	shrunk	shrunk
sink	sunk	sunken
strike	struck	stricken

Chapter Seven

PARTS OF SPEECH

Parts of speech are words that are divided into different kinds or classes according to their use (according to the work they do in a sentence). They explain how a word is used in a sentence. Parts of speech are noun, adjective, pronoun, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection.

a) Noun – (Naming word)

A noun is a word used as the name of a person, place, thing or idea (all objects that can be seen, heard, tasted, touched or smelt, and something that can be thought of but cannot be perceived by the senses). e.g. town, Tanzania, dog, pencil, work, teacher, Dickson, Kilimanjaro, etc.

For example;

*That is my **dog**.*

*The **rose** smells sweet.*

*Her **courage** won her honor.*

*The **sun** shines bright.*

Pronunciations of noun in plural form

Three different pronunciations of - s/es

s pots /pots/

z dogs /dogz/

IZ horses /hoziz/

Types of nouns

(i) Countable

Countable noun is a noun that has a plural and can be used after *a* when it is singular.

Countable noun

Shoe	River	Bowl
Chair	Scene	Cup
Needle	Knife	Book
Rule	Match	Curtain
Cow	Telephone	Box

Parts of Speech

Bottle Poem Rubber

(ii) *Uncountable/Mass Nouns*

Uncountable nouns are words which cannot be counted.

Examples of countable and uncountable nouns;

Uncountable/mass nouns

<i>Oil</i>	<i>Honesty</i>	<i>Food</i>
<i>Paper</i>	<i>Dust</i>	<i>Music</i>
<i>Water</i>	<i>Money</i>	<i>Work</i>
<i>Mercy</i>	<i>Weather</i>	<i>Travel</i>
<i>Air</i>	<i>Wool</i>	<i>Electricity</i>
<i>Mud</i>	<i>Wine</i>	<i>Intelligence</i>

- Normally, uncountable nouns are not found in the plural form. Also, it is not possible to express the singular of uncountable nouns. But you can place a suitable countable noun before the uncountable noun.

For example;

<i>Soap</i>	-	<i>A bar of soap</i>
<i>News</i>	-	<i>An item of news</i>
<i>Bread</i>	-	<i>A slice, a loaf of bread</i>
<i>Clothing</i>	-	<i>An article of clothing</i>
<i>Chalk</i>	-	<i>A piece of chalk</i>
<i>Glass</i>	-	<i>A sheet of glass</i>
<i>Information</i>	-	<i>A piece of information</i>
<i>Land</i>	-	<i>A plot of land</i>
<i>Sunshine</i>	-	<i>A ray of sunshine</i>
<i>Salt</i>	-	<i>A grain of salt</i>
<i>Lightning</i>	-	<i>A flash of lightning</i>
<i>Sand</i>	-	<i>A grain of sand</i>
<i>Dust</i>	-	<i>A speck of dust</i>
<i>Grass</i>	-	<i>A blade of grass</i>
<i>Advice</i>	-	<i>A piece of advice</i>
<i>Furniture</i>	-	<i>A piece of furniture</i>
<i>Jewellery</i>	-	<i>A piece of jewellery</i>

Parts of Speech

- Some words can be countable or uncountable according to the context in which they are used.

For example;

Countable	Word	Uncountable
<i>Tune</i>	Air	<i>The oxygen and nitrogen around us</i>
<i>A single occurrence of fire</i>	Fire	<i>The general word for combustion</i>
<i>A piece of rubber for erasing</i>	Rubber	<i>The substance</i>
<i>Alteration</i>	Change	<i>Money in small coins given for large or foreign money</i>
<i>A frock</i>	Dress	<i>Clothing</i>
<i>A cup of coffee</i>	Coffee	<i>The plant, the drink</i>
<i>A drinking vessel made of glass. (Also; glasses – spectacles)</i>	Glass	<i>The material made of sand, potash, etc</i>
<i>One strand by itself</i>	Hair	<i>All the strands together</i>
<i>An order</i>	Instruction	<i>Teaching</i>
<i>A tool for smoothing clothes</i>	Iron	<i>The metal</i>
<i>A country</i>	Land	<i>Area of ground</i>
<i>The fire given by a match, lamp, torch, candle, etc.</i>	Light	<i>Opposite of darkness</i>
<i>A learned article, a newspaper</i>	Paper	<i>The material</i>
<i>A house or area of land, a characteristic</i>	Property	<i>Belongings</i>
<i>Part of a house enclosed by walls</i>	Room	<i>Space</i>
<i>Spoken words</i>	Speech	<i>The power of speaking</i>
<i>A pebble</i>	Stone	<i>The material</i>
<i>A cup of tea, a tea party</i>	Tea	<i>The plant, the drink</i>
<i>A small forest</i>	Wood	<i>The material</i>
<i>A piece of literary, artistic or musical composition</i>	Work	<i>Effort for a purpose</i>
<i>A young man</i>	Youth	<i>Period of being young</i>

(iii) Collective Nouns

These are nouns which are made up by objects or people functioning together as a unit. They are normally used in the singular sense. Such nouns include the following words; family, pair, crowd, committee, team, government, army, flock, group, etc.

Parts of Speech

Collective nouns can also be expressed in plural forms, as in the following words; committees, pairs, crowds, flocks, teams, governments, etc.

Compare the following sentences in meaning.

My family is fine

My family are fine

My families are fine

b) Pronoun – (Replaces a noun)

A pronoun is a word that is used instead of a noun (word that replaces a noun). e.g. I, you, he, she, some, etc.

For example;

He is handsome.

Didas is absent because he is ill.

c) Adjective – (Describing word)

An adjective is a word used to add something to the meaning of a noun (describes a noun). e.g. a/an, the, 30, some, good, well, bad, big, yellow, interesting, crazy, happy, young, red, etc.

For example;

*She is a **brave** girl.*

*She likes **big** dogs*

*There are **ten** girls in **this** hall.*

*She has a **red** skirt.*

Note that

An adjective can come before or after a noun, as illustrated by the following sentences;

*Asha is a **beautiful** girl.* (before a noun girl).

*Asha is **beautiful**.* (after a noun Asha)

d) Verb – (Action/state word)

A verb is a word that expresses an action or state. e.g. be, have, do, like, work, sing, can, must etc.

For example;

*Dar-es-salaam **is** a big city in Tanzania.* (state word)

*The boy **wrote** a letter to his mother.* (action word)

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Parts of Speech

Iron and copper **are** *useful metals*. (state word)

John **plays** *football*. (action word)

John **is** *sick*. (state word)

Types of Verbs

The common types of verbs are:

(i) Main/Principal verbs: come, go, eat, write, ask, tell, e.t.c

(ii) Helping/Auxilliary verbs: must, shall, will, can, have, has, had, is, were, e.t.c

(ii) Linking verbs: Forms of the verb BE (is, am, are, was were, been, being).

Other words can also function as **linking verbs**, for example, feel, seem, grow, become, turn, etc. These words when functioning as linking verbs can be replced by a form of **BE**.

For examples;

I **feel** *very happy*.

I **am** *very happy*.

My father **grew** *cotton*. (the verb grew is not a *linking verb* because cannot be replaced by a form of BE)

My father **grew** *old*. (the verb grew is a *linking verb* because it can be replaced by a form of BE, such as *is* or *was*).

e) Adverb – (Describes a verb, adjective or adverb)

An adverb is a word that adds something to the meaning of a verb, an adjective or another adverb (describes a verb, adjective or adverb). e.g. quickly, silently, well, very, really, badly, etc.

For example;

My cat **eats** *quickly*.

That flower **is** *very beautiful*.

I told her **briefly**. (*adjuct*)

I told her, **briefly**. (*adjuct*)

Types of Adverbs

(i) Adverbs of time:

They answer the question *when*?

For example;

*She came **last week**.*

*We are going to see a movie **tomorrow**.*

(ii) Adverbs of place:

They answer the question *where*?

For example;

*Come **here** please.*

*I can't find my keys **anywhere**.*

(iii) Adverbs duration:

They answer the questions *how long*?

For example;

*I stayed **for one hour**.*

*It is **five minutes** now since he has left.*

(iv) Adverbs of frequency:

They answer the questions *how often*?

For example;

*She **always** comes here.*

*I **usually** put butter and syrup on my pancakes.*

(v) Adverbs of manner:

They answer the questions *how*?

For example;

*They listened **carefully**.*

*Justina **wisely** took an extra umbrella with her.*

(vi) Adverbs of degree:

They answer the questions *how much*?

For example;

*She is **extremely** pretty.*

*He **barely** knew how to cook at all.*

Note: An adverb can modify a whole sentence without changing its meaning.

Parts of Speech

For example;

Only John borrowed that book.

John **only** borrowed that book.

John borrowed **only** that book.

John borrowed that book **only**.

f) Preposition – (Shows relationship)

A preposition is a word that is used with a noun or a pronoun to show how the person or thing denoted by the noun or pronoun stands in relation to something else (links a noun to another word). e.g. to, at, after, on, but, of, under, in, etc.

For example;

*There is a crocodile **in** the lake.*

*She went to church **on** Sunday.*

*A fair little girl sat **under** a mango tree.*

This word usually comes before a noun or a pronoun and shows its relation to another part of the sentence.

(i) Prepositions of time (At, In and on)

At

- At is used with a specific point of time.

For example;

*The bus arrived **at** four o'clock.*

*The accident occurred **at** two thirty.*

- At is used with festival.

For example;

At Christmas

At Easter

In

- In is used with periods of time.

For example;

*My uncle left **in** the morning.*

*The museum will be opened **in** September.*

In can be used to show the period after which something will happen.

Parts of Speech

For example;

*She will arrive **in** five minutes' time.*

*He is leaving **in** two months' time.*

On

- **On** is used with days and with dates which include the day.

For example;

*They played basketball **on** Friday.*

*The battle was fought **on** 2nd May.*

Note that: *in* and *on* are not used before *today*, *tomorrow*, *yesterday*, *the day after tomorrow*, *last* or *next*.

Also consider the two sentences;

*I got to the bus **in** time.* (i.e. before the time appointed to start the journey)

*I got to the bus **on** time.* (i.e. just within the time appointed to start the journey)

By

- When used as a preposition *by* has the meaning *not later than*.

For example;

*The field must be ploughed **by** the end of this month.*

Consider the two sentences;

*Bring the report to the panel **by** twelve o'clock.*

*Bring the report to the panel **at** twelve o'clock.*

Therefore, the expression *by day* means *during the day*.

(ii) Prepositions of place (in and at)

In

- *In* suggests enclosed within an area.

For example;

In a box, **In** America, **In** the room, **In** London, **In** Tanzania

At

- *At* suggests not enclosed.

For example;

At the crossroads

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Parts of Speech

At the end of the railway

At the bus stop

- *At* is often used when you want to suggest that some activity is taking place.

For example;

*She is working **at** his table.*

*He saw a good modern car **at** the village.*

Note: in the corner of the room but at the corner of the road.

More examples of prepositions

A: Use of *at/on/in* (time)

- Use *at* for (time of day), *on* (days and dates) and *at* (longer periods)

For example;

at six o'clock, **at** 10:25, **at** midnight, **at** lunchtime, **at** sunset etc.

on Friday(s), **on** 23 April 2018, **on** Christmmas Day, **on** her birthday etc.

in December, **in** 1981, **in** the 18th century, **in** the past, **in** (the) winter, **in** the 1990s, **in** the Middle Ages, **in** (the) future etc.

- Use *at* in these expressions

For example;

*I don't like going out **at** night. (**at** night)*

*Will you be here **at** the weekend? (**at** the weekend/weekends)*

*Do you give each other presents **at** Christmass? (**at** Christmass)*

*Mr. Edwin is busy **at** the moment /**at** present. (**at** the moment/**at** present)*

*Ediud and I arrived **at** the same time. (**at** the same time)*

Say,

*I will see you **in** the morning.*

*I will see you **on** Monday morning.*

*Do you work **in** the evenings?*

*Do you work **on** Saturday evenings?*

*I'll see you **on** Saturday. (**or** I'll see you Saturday)*

*I don't go out **on** Sunday mornings. (**or** I don't go out Sunday mornings)*

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in the morning(s)	<i>but</i>	on Friday morning(s)
in the afternoon(s)		on Sunday afternoon(s)
in the evening(s)		on Monday evening(s) etc.

- Do not use **at** / **on** / **in** before **last** / **next** / **this** / **every**

For example;

*I'll see you next Tuesday. (**not** I'll see you **on** next Tuesday)*

*They got married last September. (**not** they got married **on** last September)*

- Use **in a few minutes** / **in six months** etc.

For example;

*The train will be leaving **in a few minutes**. (a few minutes from now)*

*Avelina has gone away. She'll be back **in a week**. (a week from now.*

*He'll be here **in a moment**. (a moment from now)*

*They're getting married **in six months' time**. (**or** they're getting **in six months**)*

- Use **in** to say how long it takes to do something

For example;

*I learnt to drive **in** three weeks. (it took me three weeks to learn)*

B: Prepositions of Place

- **in front of**

Examples;

*The teacher stands **in front of** the students.*

*The man standing in the line **in front of** me smells bad.*

- **behind**

Examples;

*I slowed down because there was a police car **behind** me.*

*When the teacher writes on the whiteboard, the students are **behind** her or him.*

*When the teachers write on the whiteboard, the students are **behind** them.*

Parts of Speech

- **between**

Examples;

*There are mountains **between** Chile and Argentina.*

*The number 2 is **between** the number 1 and 3.*

- **across from (or opposite)**

Examples;

*I live **across from** a supermarket.*

*The chess players sat **opposite** each other before they began their game.*

- **next to (or beside)**

Examples;

*At a wedding, the bride stands **next to** the groom.*

*Guards stand **next to** the entrance of the bank.*

*He walked **beside** me as we went down the street.*

*In this part of town there is no a footpath **beside** the road so you have to be careful.*

- **near (close to)**

Examples;

*The receptionist is **near** the front door.*

*This is **near** a subway station.*

*We couldn't park the car **close to** the store.*

*Our house is **close to** a supermarket.*

- **on**

Examples;

*The clock **on** the wall is slow.*

*She put the food **on** the table.*

*We were told not to walk **on** the grass.*

- **above (over)**

Examples;

*Planes normally fly **above** the clouds.*

*There is a ceiling **above** you.*

*We put a sun umbrella **over** the table so we couldn't get so hot.*

g) Conjunction – (Joining word)

A conjunction is a word that is used to join clauses or words or sentences. e.g. and, but, when, etc.

For example;

*Musa **and** Stanford are my brothers.*

*I ran fast, **but** missed the boat.*

*I like vegetables **and** fruits.*

Types of conjunctions

(i) Coordinating conjunctions

Join words or independent clauses (or, and, but)

For example;

*John was studying at home **but** Asha was cooking food.*

*I will go Arusha **or** I will go to Mombasa.*

*I came home late **and** I was very tired.*

(ii) Correlative conjunctions

Conjunctions made up of two or more words which go together (both ... and, either ... or, neither ... nor, whether ... or, not only ... but also, no sooner than)

For example;

***Both** Jovin **and** Said were late.*

*I was **both** tired **and** hungry when I arrived home.*

***Neither** Jovin **nor** Said came to school.*

*Paulina said she would contact me, but she **neither** wrote **nor** phoned.*

*I'm not sure where Judith's from. She's **either** Italian **or** American.*

***Either** you apologise **or** I'll never speak to you again.*

(iii) Subordinating conjunctions

Join dependent and independent clauses (when, who, which, because, how, why, etc.)

For example;

*I'm going to hospital **because** I'm sick.*

*The book **which** you gave me is difficult to read.*

h) Interjection – (Expressive word)

An interjection is a word which expresses some sudden feeling (short exclamation and sometimes inserted into a sentence). e.g. Oh!, ouch!, hurrah!, ugh!, etc.

For example;

Hurrah! *They have won the match.*

Oh! *He has gone to town.*

Chapter Eight

PUNCTUATION

Punctuation is the name for marks used in writing. **Punctuation marks** are symbols that indicate the structure and organization of written language as well as intonation and pauses to be observed when reading.

Punctuation marks are used to structure and organize writing because it creates *sense, clarity* and *stress* in sentence. There are many kinds of punctuation marks. They help with understanding and can also remove ambiguity.

For example;

Asha said Marry is pregnant.

Punctuate the above meaning to mean;

a) The one who is pregnant is Asha.

*“Asha”, said Marry, “**is pregnant**”.*

b) The one who is pregnant is Marry.

*Asha said, “**Marry is pregnant**”.*

Remove ambiguity;

For example;

Kill him not, John. (John, don't kill him)

Kill him, not John. (kill another person but not John)

COMMON PUNCTUATION MARKS USED IN WRITING

The following are some common punctuation marks used in writing;

1. The period or full stop (.)

Some uses of periods or full stops:

- To end a sentence i.e. it shows when an idea is finished.

For example;

Roda took my red pen.

- To show numbers that are smaller than one.

For example;

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Avelina bought a plot for Tsh 1.5million. Means that Avelina paid one million five hundred thousand shillings for a plot.

- To show that a word has been made shorter. A word that is made shorter with a period is called an *abbreviation*.

For example;

Teacher – Tr.

Doctor – Dr.

Tanzania Railway Company – T.R.C.

2. The comma (,)

Some uses of commas:

- To list things. The list can be of nouns, adjectives, clauses, etc.

For example;

Pens, pencils, rulers, and rubber.

A tall, thin, ugly man entered the room.

He plays football, tennis, volley-ball and hockey.

A comma that is used before the word *and* in a list is called an Oxford comma. But usually people do not use an oxford comma.

For example;

“Pens, pencil, rulers and rubbers.”

- To separate two clauses in a sentence with or without a conjunction.

For example;

Most birds have separate toes, but duck’s feet are webbed.

Most birds have separate toes, ducks don’t.

Juma lived in Uganda for several years before the war, but he learnt only a few words of the language.

- To separate parts of sentences.

For example;

Juma, hungry as she was, was shy to come forward and have a slice of cake.

- To indicate a pause in a sentence or question.

For example;

Juma, did you remember to feed the cow?

3. The question mark (?)

Some uses of question marks:

- When writing a question.

For example;

Martha, have you done your presentation?

- To make an inquiry.

For example;

Martha said 'How are you?' to Avelina.

- To ask something.

For example;

Why is the sky blue?

NB. Indirect/reported questions do not take a question mark.

For example;

He asked me if I had been to Tanzania.

I wonder if they have won the match.

4. The exclamation mark (!)

Some uses of exclamation marks:

- To write about a strong emotion.

For example;

What a bad cow Musa has!

- To write the words a person shouted.

For example;

Peter, come here at once!

- To make a statement stronger or more forceful.

For example;

You did a good job!

- Can be used with a question mark, to make a question more forceful.

For example;

What did you do that for?!' she said angrily.

- Also used after words which are after expressions of surprise.

For example;

What a clever boy you are!

5. The apostrophe (')

Apostrophe has two main uses;

a) Ownership

- The apostrophe is used to show that something belongs to something or someone else. If there is only one, the letter *s* is used after an apostrophe to show ownership.

For example;

*It was the **girl's** dog.*

*We will go in **Korushusho's** car.*

- If a word already ends with an *s*, the apostrophe is placed after the *s* to show ownership, without adding a second *s*.

For example;

*"Mother put away the **boys'** clothes" means that Mother had to tidy up for several boys.*

*"Mother put away the **boy's** clothes" means that Mother tidied up for only one boy.*

b) Contractions

- An apostrophe can be used to put two small words together. The two small words that are put together with an apostrophe to make one word are called *contractions*.
- The second word is usually *is* or *not*. The vowel is omitted from the second word (*i* from *is* and *o* from *not*) and the apostrophe stands in its place.

For example;

Cannot can be made into the word **can't**. e.g. *I can't believe we won.*

It is can be made into the word **it's**. e.g. *It's raining today.*

Other examples are:

I'll for I will

We'd for we would

You've for you have

It is normal to use contractions in writing about a person speaking. Contractions are used because these words are easier to say.

Some common mistakes when using apostrophes

a) Pronouns

Pronouns do not use an apostrophe to show that something belongs to something else. Among these are its, his, hers, theirs etc.

For example;

*The bird flapped **its** wings. Not, The bird flapped **it's** wings.*

*The car is **hers**. Not, The car is **her's**.*

b) Plural

If a word ends in an s because it is plural and does not show any ownership, there is no apostrophe.

For example;

Apples for sale," not "**Apple's** for sale.

6. Quotation marks (" ")

Some uses of quotation marks:

- Before and after the words that people have said to indicate direct speech. They are used in pairs.

For example;

Dotto said, "Avelina, please wash the dishes."

"Today," said our teacher, "is the first day of the rest of your lives."

The headmaster said, "There will be a film show this evening."

In these cases, quotation marks go after the commas and periods, not before.

- To show the particular name (title) of a work e.g. songs, books, poems, articles. In this case the commas would come after the quote marks.

For example;

*After recording "**Tamaa Mbaya**", 20 Percent went on to record several more hits.*

- To indicate that the words enclosed by the quotation marks are a quotation.

For example;

Politicians should never forget that "a week is long time in politics".

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- To show that a phrase is a name or description in common usage.

For example;

Elvis Presley was called "The king of Rock and Roll".

7. Colon (:)

Some uses of colons:

- To indicate the beginning of a list.

For example;

This is a list of learning resources: books, computers manuscripts, magazines and newspapers.

He told me the subjects he had taken for examination: English, history, geography, general studies and mathematics.

- To introduce a quotation.

For example;

Girimu Mgasa said: "Those who can do the job must stay."

- To replace a semicolon in between two parts of a sentence, but this is not common today.

8. Semicolon (;)

Some uses of semicolon:

- To join two sentences to make one, where the second clause adds to the meaning of the first. Often a conjunction such as *because* could be used instead of the semicolon

For example;

I could tell that it was getting late; it was growing darker by the second.

*I could tell that it was getting late **because** it was growing darker by the second.*

There was not a cloud in the sky; it was extremely hot.

9. Ellipsis (...)

Some uses of ellipsis:

- To show where words have been missed out when writing what a person said.

For example;

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...one day all Tanzanians will live peacefully throughout the world...they will be at peace with all other world inhabitants...

- Also, can be used to show that there is more to be said but the person stopped at that point.

For example;

So much more could be said...

10. Dash (-)

Some uses of the dash:

- To interrupt the normal grammatical structure to add something.

For example;

The doctor – and I agree with him – has ordered my father to take a month's rest.

- To show that a sentence was not completed (usually because it was interrupted by another speaker.

For example;

Somebody in the audience said, "I should like to ask if – " " I am sorry," interrupted the chairperson, "but our time is up and no further questions can be allowed."

However, here it would be more normal to use an ellipse rather than a dash.

11. Capital letters (A, B, C, ...)

Some uses of capital letters:

- To indicate the beginning of a sentence. If you use direct speech after a reporting section, you must begin the spoken sentence with another capital letter.

For example;

He opened the door and called out, "Is there anybody here?"

- For all proper nouns and proper adjectives.

For example;

Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda, etc and for abbreviations of proper nouns and adjectives such as V.O.A, B.B.C, R.T.D, T.B.C, etc

- For all titles applied to one particular person.

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For example;

Our President met the Kenyan President.

I hear Professor Bihemo is leaving.

- For all words in titles of books, plays, poems, etc except unimportant words like prepositions, articles, conjunctions, unless one of these is the first word.

For example;

History of the Sudan in the Nineteenth Century.

12. Hyphen (-)

Some uses of hyphen:

- To change the meaning of a word.

For example;

Re-form means “start again” but **reform** means “change”. A re-formed group is different from a reformed group.

- When a name for a material such as “stainless steel” is used with a word for a thing made of that material, a hyphen is used, as in “stainless-steel knife”.
- When putting two words together (composite words) which would otherwise be difficult to understand.

For example;

If something is like a shell, writing it as “shelllike” is difficult to read with three of the same letter together. It is better to use “shell-like”.

- When someone uses two surnames. Some people take the family names of both parents or from the last name of their father and husband.

For example;

“Nabigambo Solole-Mgasa”. This is not always the case, for example; “Nabigambo Solole Mgasa”

- When a word is too long to fit in one row of writing. This is often done in books, magazines and newspapers to save space and paper.

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A long word is broken into two parts of nearly the same length with a hyphen at the end of the first part. The normal way is to make the first part of the word as much like a complete word as possible. Both parts should be a syllable with a vowel.

Chapter Nine

RELATIVE CLAUSES

A **relative clause** is also called an **adjective** or **adjectival** clause. A relative clause is a clause that generally modifies a noun or noun phrase. Relative clauses are traditionally divided into two types namely defining relative clause and non-defining relative clause. When deciding which relative to use, one should distinguish between those of two types.

1. Defining relative/restrictive relative clause

A defining relative clause is a clause that gives detailed information defining a general term or expression. i.e. it tells us who or what the noun is. In defining clauses, commas are not used. Defining relative clauses are essential to the meaning of the sentence and if omitted they leave a question to be asked.

For example;

*The car **which he borrowed last Sunday** was a hammer. (Which car?)*

*The girl **who came on Friday** was my daughter. (Which girl?)*

2. Non-defining relative/non-restrictive relative clause

A non-defining relative clause is a clause that gives additional information but does not define it. It simply gives information about the noun. Commas are used in non-defining clauses. Non-defining relative clauses are not essential to the sentence and if they are omitted the sentence can stand alone.

For example;

*This car, **which he bought in Mwanza**, has helped him in his business.*

*Our geography teacher, **who used to live in Kenya**, gave a talk on Swahili economics last night.*

a) Relative pronouns

Uses of *who*, *which*, *whose*, *whom* and *that* as relative pronouns

Relative Pronoun	Use	Example
Who	Subject or object pronoun for people.	I told you about the woman <i>who</i> lives next door.
Which	Subject or object pronoun for animals and things.	Do you see the cat <i>which</i> is lying on the roof?
Which	Referring to a whole sentence.	He couldn't read, <i>which</i> surprised me.
Whose	Possession for people, animals and things.	Do you know the boy <i>whose</i> mother is a nurse?
Whom	object pronoun for people, especially in non-defining relative clauses (in defining relative clauses we colloquially prefer <i>who</i>).	I was invited by the professor <i>whom</i> I met at the conference.
That	Subject or object pronoun for people, animals and things in defining relative clauses (<i>who</i> or <i>which</i> are also possible).	I don't like the table <i>that</i> stands in the kitchen. The furniture <i>that</i> you bought last week is already broken.
That	May be used if the preposition is placed at the end of the sentence or clause.	Here is the book <i>that</i> he referred to. The joke <i>that</i> I laughed at was rather silly.

b) Omission of relative pronoun

A relative pronoun can be omitted if the meaning of the sentence is clear without it.

For example;

*The car (**which**) he borrowed last Sunday was a hammer.*

In this sentence a relative pronoun is an object of a verb (*borrowed*)

*The professor (**who**) described new methods of overcoming poverty at the Arusha conference will visit China next week.*

Relative Clauses

The lecturer (**who**) taught you for the last two years has now returned to Ghana.

In these sentences the relative pronouns are subjects of verbs (*described* and *taught*)

c) Relative adverb

When, where and *why* are used in the same way as relative pronouns

Relative Adverb	Meaning	Use	Example
When	in/on which	Refers to a time expression.	<i>When</i> will you meet your uncle? Sunday is the day <i>when</i> we have the party.
Where	Where	Refers to a place.	<i>Where</i> will you meet your uncle? This is the place <i>where</i> I will meet with my uncle.
Why	for which	Refers to a reason.	<i>Why</i> will you meet with your uncle? This is the reason <i>why</i> I met with my uncle.

d) What as a relative clause

We can avoid using *the thing(s) which* and *the thing(s) that* by simply using *what*

For example;

He forgot **the things which** he was supposed to say.

He forgot **what** he was supposed to say.

The thing that is not clear is *why* she came here.

What is not clear is *why* she came here.

Chapter Ten

SPELLING

Spelling is the ability to say or write the letters of a word in the correct order. There is much that one can do to improve his/her spelling in a fairly short time.

A: Rules of spelling

(i) A word ending with a silent *e* loses the *e* if a suffix beginning with a *vowel* is added.

For example,

Hate – Hating

Like – Liking

Write – Writer

Continue – Continuation

- If the suffix begins with a *consonant*, the *e* is not dropped.

For example,

Extreme – Extremely

Encourage – Encouragement

Exceptions:

We can spell judgement with or without an *e*.

Argument drops the *e*.

The *e* is retained after *c* or *g* to keep the consonant ‘soft’.

For example,

Change – Changeable

Notice – Noticeable

(ii) The suffix *ful* has only one *l*.

For example,

Delight – Delightful

Beauty – Beautiful

Hope – Hopeful

Play – Playful

(iii) If we add a suffix beginning with a *vowel* to a single *consonant*, we double the final *consonant* providing the

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preceding *syllable* is stressed and contains a single *vowel*.

For example,

Begin – Beginning

Prefer – Preferred

Omit – Omitted

Forbid – Forbidden

- Obviously, if the word has only one *syllable* contains a single *vowel* and ends with a single *consonant*, this rule must apply.

For example,

Sit – **Sitting**

Big – **Bigger**

- When the final *syllable* is unstressed we do not double the final *consonant*.

For example,

Differ – Differed

Credit – Credited

Merit – Merited

- When the final *syllable* has two *vowels* or ends with two *consonants*, we do not double the final *consonant*.

For example,

Toil – **Toiled**

Select – **Selected**

Exceptions:

One; A final *l* after a single *vowel* is doubled even if the preceding *syllable* is not stressed.

For example,

Travel – **Travelled**

This applies only in British spelling and not in American.

Two; A final *p* is doubled in kidnap, handicap and worship even though the stress falls on the first *syllable* in these words.

(iv) When *ly* is added to an adjective ending in *l* to form an

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adverb, the result is a double *l*.

For example,

Delightfully

Successfully

Orally

(v) When a prefix ends with the same letter as the first letter of the word it is placed before, the result is doubling.

For example,

Mis – Misspelt

Un – Unnoticed

Il – Illegal

Im – Immeasurable, etc

(vi) When the suffix *ness* is added to a word ending in *n*, the result is a double *n*.

For example,

Keen – Keenness

Mean – Meanness, etc

(vii) Write *i* before *e*, but only when *ie* or *ei* are pronounced like *ee* in *bee*.

Except after *c*.

For example,

Deceive

Receive

Believe

Relieve, etc

Exceptions;

Seize

Counterfeit

Weird, etc

(viii) A certain group of verbs contain *s* while their corresponding nouns contain *c*.

For example,

Advise (verbs) – advice (nouns)

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Prophecy (verbs) – *prophecy* (nouns)

(ix) Final *ie* is changed to *y* when *ing* is added.

For example,

Lie – lying

Die – dying

(x) When a suffix is added to a word of more than one *syllable* ending in *y*, the *y* changes to *i*.

For example,

Happy – happiness

Study – studious

- *y* is retained before a suffix beginning with *i*.

For example,

Studying

(xi) When a word ends in a **hard** *c*, (i.e. pronounced like the *c* in *cat*) we add a *k* before the suffix beginning with *e*, *i* or *y*.

For example,

picnic – picnicking

panic – panicking

(xii) *Q* is always followed by *u*.

For example,

Quantity

E**q**uation

(xiii) There are only three verbs ending in *ceed*. These are *succeed*, *exceed* and *proceed*.

- All other verbs with the final *syllable* pronounced in this way end with *cede*.

For example,

Concede

Precede

Recede

(xiv) A final *y* preceded by a *consonant* is changed to *ies* in the plural.

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For example,

Cry – cries

Country – countries

- If the *y* is preceded by a *vowel*, it remains *y* in the plural.

For example,

Donkey – donkeys

Monkey – monkeys

Key – keys

(xv) Certain irregular plurals should be noted;

Analysis – analyses

Basis – bases

Oasis – oases

Crisis – crises

Stimulus – stimuli

Hippopotamus – hippopotami

- Words ending in *o* are a source of difficulty. Some form their plurals by simply adding *s*.

For example,

Piano – pianos

Dynamo – dynamos

Solo – solos

Photo – photos

Radio – radios

Kilo – kilos

- Others take the plural ending *oes*.

For example,

Cargo – cargoes

Hero – heroes

Echo – echoes

Mosquito – mosquitoes

Motto – mottoes

Potato – potatoes

Tomato – tomatoes

Volcano – volcanoes

Spelling

(xvi) Special care is required with words which are sometimes one composite word and at other times two separate words.

a) *Every body* and *Everybody*

Every body is *adjective + noun*; used in this way, *body* means *corpse* or *group of persons* or *things*. The form *everybody* is a *pronoun*, meaning *all the people*.

For example,

Every body was washed before burial.

Everybody who took the examination passed.

b) *Every one* and *Everyone*

Every one means *each one* and everyone means *all of them*.

For example,

Every one of the six boys went dancing.

Everyone who left late missed the bus.

c) *Every day* and *Everyday*

Every day is an *adjective + noun*. Everyday is an adjective meaning *happening daily*.

For example,

Every day this week has been hot.

A visit by an angry customer is an **everyday** event in that shop.

d) *All together* and *Altogether*

All together means *everybody* or *everything at the same time* or *in company*. Altogether is an adverb meaning *entirely*, *on the whole*.

For example,

All together there were seven hundred people present.

Her poem is **altogether** too difficult for me to understand.

e) *All ready* and *Already*

All ready means *completely ready*. Already is an adverb with the meaning *before now (or then)*, *as early as now (or then)*.

For example,

The bus is **all ready** to leave.

I have **already** spoken to the manager.

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f) *All right* and *Alright*

All right means satisfactory. The form *alright* is increasingly used.

For example;

*Are you getting along **all right** in your new job?*

*Starting at a slower pace is perfectly **alright**. (informal writing)*

g) *In fact* and *In order*

Must each be written as two separate words.

For examples;

*On each subject there are **in fact** three pages.*

*John wouldn't let himself near you **in order** to protect you.*

h) *In spite of* and *In front of*

Must each be written as three separate words.

For example;

*He smiled **in spite of** everything.*

*He parked the truck **in front of** the house and headed down the hill.*

B: Homophones

Homophone is a word that sounds the same as another word but has its own spelling, meaning and origin.

Here are some words that are pronounced alike but spelt differently:

For examples;

- *Air* (atmosphere) – *Err* (to make a mistake)
- *Plain* (level land, clear, ordinary) – *Plane* (airplane, level)
- *Rose* (flower) – *Rows* (lines)
- *Sole* (single) – *Soul* (essence)
- *Right* (correct) – *Write* (scribble)
- *Weight* (heaviness) – *Wait* (defer action)
- *Bow* (bend) – *Bough* (of tree)
- *To* (toward) – *Too* (also)
- *Wear* (use as clothing) – *Where* (in what place)
- *Knew* (did know) – *New* (not old)
- *Assistance* (aid) – *Assistants* (helpers)

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- *Course* (direction, of study) – *Coarse* (rough)
- *Bare* (naked) – *Bear* (carry, animal)
- *Pair* (two of the same kind) – *Pear* (the fruit)
- *Role* (function) – *Roll* (rotate)
- *Straight* (not bent) – *Strait* (narrow water passage)
- *Brake* (of vehicle) – *Break* (smash)
- *Cite* (mention) – *Sight* (sense of seeing, what is seen) – *Site* (place)
- *Peace* (opposite of war, calm) – *Piece* (bit, segment)
- *Complement* (what completes) – *Compliment* (polite word)
- *Base* (bottom part) – *Bass* (deep or low)
- *Council* (group) – *Counsel* (advice)
- *Sea* (ocean segment) – *See* (observe with eyes)
- *Currant* (fruit) – *Current* (flow)
- *Die* (opposite of live) – *Dye* (to make material a certain colour)
- *Some* (a few) – *Sum* (amount)
- *Heal* (cure) – *Heel* (of foot)
- *Weather* (natural conditions) – *Whether* (if)
- *Hear* (with ears) – *Here* (this place)
- *Principal* (chief) – *Principle* (basic truth, rule, law)
- *Rose* (flower) – *Rows* (lines)
- *Or* (otherwise) – *Ore* (mineral)
- *Seam* (joining edge) – *Seem* (appear)
- *Weak* (opposite of strong) – *Week* (seven days)
- *Sew* (with needle and tread) – *Sow* (seeds)
- *Steal* (swipe) – *Steel* (alloy)
- *There* (in that place) – *Their* (of them)
- *Vary* (differ) – *Very* (much)
- *Boarder* (person living in a place) – *Border* (edge)
- *Waist* (of the body) – *Waste* (not use profitably)
- *Stationary* (motionless) – *Stationery* (paper and envelopes)

Chapter Eleven

WORD FORMATION

Word formation is a process of creating or producing new words. Sometimes word formation refers to all processes connected with changing the form of the word, i.e. it denotes the processes of creation of new lexical units.

WORD FORMATION PROCESSES

a) Compounding

Compounding is a process in which two different words are joined together to form one word.

For example;

Water + Fall → Waterfall

Finger + Print → Fingerprint

- Some compounds are written with hyphens.

For example;

Full + Time → Full-time

Good + Looking → Good-looking

- Some compounds are written separately.

For example;

Bank + Account → Bank account

Mini + Skirt → Mini skirt

Some can be written in both ways.

- Some compound are closed words.

For example;

Headmaster, brotherhood, headmistress, etc

Formation of compound nouns

(i) Noun + Noun → Noun

For example;

Book + Shelf → Bookshelf

House + Boy → Houseboy

Word Formation

(ii) Verb + Noun → Noun

For example;

Draw + Bridge → Drawbridge

Dressing + Table → Dressingtable

(iii) Noun + Adjective → Adjective

For example;

Water + Proof → Waterproof

Sea + Worthy → Seaworthy

(iv) Adjective + Noun → Noun

For example;

Black + Board → Blackboard

Sweet + Heart → Sweetheart

(v) Adjective + Adjective

For example;

Bitter + Sweet → Bitter-sweet

Deaf + Mute → Deaf-mute

(vi) Adjective + participle

For example;

Red + Painted → Red-painted

Narrow + Minded → Narrow-minded

(vii) Adjective + Verb

For example;

Black + Mail → Blackmail

White + Wash → Whitewash

(viii) Noun + Verb

For example;

Brain + Storm → Brainstorm

Sight + See → Sightsee

b) *Blending*

Blending is the word formation process in which two parts of words are joined together to form one new word.

For example;

Smoke + Fog → Smog

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Word Formation

Motor + Hotel → Motel

c) Clipping

Clipping is the word formation process of shortening or reducing long words. The formation of new words happens by dropping an existing part of the word.

For example;

Telephone → phone

Influenza → flu

Memorandum → memo

Laboratory → lab

d) Coinage

Coinage is the process of creating a totally new word. This word formation is not frequent. Large corporations attempt to outdo one another to invent short eye-catching names for their products.

For example;

Sadolin

Aspirin

Kimbo

Coinage is frequently used in science where units of measurement are named.

For example;

Hertz

Volt

e) Borrowing

Borrowing is the process of taking a word from one language and incorporating it into another language. The English language has been very absorbent and has taken over words from all over the world.

For example;

Biology from Germany.

Robot from Czech.

Safari from Kiswahili.

f) Acronym

An acronym is the process of forming a word from the initial letters of a few words in a phrase or a name. This means that, words are formed from the initial letters or syllables of other words and pronounced as one.

Some acronyms are pronounced by saying each letter separately.

For example;

DVD from *Dissociated Vertical Deviation*.

FBI from *Federal Bureau of Investigation*.

Some acronyms are pronounced as one word.

For example;

NATO from *North Atlantic Treaty Organization*.

AIDS from *Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome*.

SAUT from *Saint Augustine University of Tanzania*.

UDOM from *University of Dodoma*.

g) Backformation

Backformation is the process in which a word changes its form and function. This means that is the removal of an affix from a word, to create a new word. A word of one type, which is usually a noun, is reduced and used as a verb. For example, the English word *arms* meaning, weapons, was backformed to *arm* meaning to provide weapons. Also the word *edit* was backformed from *editor*, *Typewrite* from *typewriter*.

h) Conversion

Conversion is the process in which a word changes its function without changing its form. Nouns start to be used as verbs.

For example;

Give me some **water** to drink. (water – noun)

I will **water** the garden. (water – verb)

He is **building** a house. (building –verb)

This is my **building**. (building – noun)

Word Formation

I am **bottling** the beer. (bottling – verb)

Where is my **bottle** of beer. (bottling – noun)

I have **buttered** the bread. (buttered – verb)

Fry the onions in **butter**. (butter – noun)

Also verbs can become nouns.

For example;

The **building** is beautiful. (building – noun)

Watching this film is a **must**. (must – noun)

i) Derivation

Derivation is the process which involves the formation of new words using derivational affixes. In most cases the word changes class.

- *Prefixes* – parts of a word are added at the beginning of the root word like *re-* (rename), *un-* (uncovered), *mis-* (misuse), *dis-* (disorganize), *multi-* (multiparty), *inter-* (interchange)
- *Suffixes* – parts of word are added at the end of a word like *-ful* (beautiful), *-less* (useless), *-able* (attainable)
- *Infixes* – parts of a word are inserted inside a word. However, this is unusual in the English language.

j) Inflection

Inflection is a variation of the form of a word to show or mark a grammatical feature. Inflection involves the addition of affixes to mark tense, aspect, number case or degree. All inflectional affixes in English are suffixes because they are added at the end of the word.

Types of inflectional affixes in English

- **s** → used for verbs in the 3rd person singular, e.g. she likes, he looks, she waits, etc
- **ing** → used as the present participle suffix, e.g. they are playing, he was dancing, etc

Word Formation

- **ed** → used as past tense and past participle suffix, e.g. he looked, he has looked, etc
- **en** → used for irregular verbs as the past participle, e.g. I have driven, etc
- **s** → used for plurals in nouns, e.g. teachers, cows, students, etc
- s'** → used to mark possession where a word already ends in **s**, e.g. the boys' team, etc
- 's** → used to mark possession, e.g. Juma's shirt, Dotto's shoes, etc
- **er** → used for comparative degree in an adjective, comparing two things, e.g. Ediud is taller than Edwin, etc
- **est** → used for the superlative degree in an adjective, comparing more than two things, e.g. Mfaume is the tallest boy in the class, etc

Chapter Twelve

WORDS EXPRESSING QUANTITY

Words expressing quantity are used together with countable or uncountable nouns. Such expressions of quantity are *few, a few, little, a little, much, many, some, any*.

a) **few, a few**

They are used only with countable nouns but expressing different meanings.

For example;

Few students study Literature in English. (hardly any/almost none).

A few students study Literature in English. (at least some).

b) **little, a little**

They are used with uncountable nouns but also conveying different meanings.

For example;

There is **little** tea left in the thermos. (hardly any)

There is **a little** tea left in the thermos. (at least there is some)

Note: *Few* and *little* convey a negative meaning while *a few* and *a little* convey a positive meaning.

c) **Any**

Any is also a word which is used to describe an indefinite number or quantity. Any is used as following;

(i) In negative sentences:

For example;

There were no **any** iron filings near the magnet.

The lecturer did not put **any** water in the glass.

(ii) In questions to which the answer is as likely to be *yes* as *no*:

For example;

Were there **any** iron filings near the magnet?

Did the tutor put **any** water in the glass?

(iii) In conditional clauses:

For example;

*If there were **any** iron filings near the magnet, they would have been attracted to it.*

*If the tutor had put **any** water in the glass, it would have changed color.*

(iv) With the meaning *no matter which*.

For example;

*Buy **any** soda you like.*

*Send **any** student to get the exercises.*

Note: We usually make *any* negative by using *no* after the verbs *be* and *have*.

- It is quite wrong to use *no any*.

For example;

*There are **no** students here who took the exam last year.*

*He has **no** money.*

- In speech the form *-n't any* is normal after the verbs *be* and *have*.

For example;

*There **aren't any** students here who took the exam last year.*

*He **hasn't any** money.*

- The usual form with other verbs is *not + verb + any*.

For example;

*She did **not** buy **any** exercises.*

*They did **not** kill **any** animals.*

*He will **not** give **any** reason.*

d) Much, Many and Similar words

The distinction between countable and uncountable nouns is useful in enabling us to decide whether to use *much* or *many*. *Much* is used before uncountable and *many* before countable nouns.

For example;

Much oil

Many rivers

Words Expressing Quantity

Much *water*

Many *pens*

Much *food*

Many *clocks*

However, an expression of quantity or number like *a lot of* is often more normal usage, particularly in spoken language than *much* or *many*.

For example;

*She drinks **a lot of** milk. (rather than **much** milk)*

*He gave him **a lot of** postage stamps. (rather than **many** postage stamps)*

The use of *much* and *many* is normally restricted to;

(i) Negative statements

For example;

*There isn't **much** sugar left.*

*She hasn't seen **many** films lately.*

(ii) Questions

For example;

*Does **much** rain fall in March?*

*Are there **many** snakes in this country?*

- But questions expecting the answer *yes* usually require one of the expressions of quantity or number.

For example;

*Hasn't the price of **a lot of** things gone up lately?*

(iii) Expressions with *so*, *too*, *as* and *how*

For example;

*I have done **so much** work I'm exhausted.*

*She ate **too much** ugali.*

*I have **as much** money as he has.*

*She told me **how many** brothers she had.*

- *Plenty of* is another expression often used in this way before either countables and uncountables. *A great deal of*, *a great quantity of* are used before uncountables. *A large number of*, *a*

Words Expressing Quantity

great many are used before countables. Similarly *a long way* is used in place of *far*.

For example;

*There are **plenty of** hotels in Mwanza city.*

*The country sold **a great deal of** tobacco last month.*

*Tanzania exports **a great quantity of** gold.*

*The president shook hands with **a large number of** people at the stage.*

***A great many** questions remained to be answered.*

*She travelled **a long way** for the seminar.*

e) Too

The adjective after *too* is followed by the idea which expressed or understood that something is impossible or undesirable, i.e. by a negative idea.

For example;

*She is **too** young to go to school.*

*This coat is **too** big for me.*

*It is **too** wet for us to play netball.*

- If *too* is preceded by a negative verb, then the following idea is possible.

For example;

*She isn't **too** young to go to school. (i.e. She can go to school.)*

Note that, the construction after the adjective (or adverb) following *too* is one of the following: the infinitive with *to*; for + noun or pronoun; or for + noun or pronoun + the infinitive with *to*.

f) Enough

The word *enough* is followed by the idea that something is possible or desirable, i.e. by a positive idea.

For example;

*She is old **enough** to go to school.*

*This coat is big **enough** for me.*

*It is dry **enough** for us to play netball.*

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- If *enough* is preceded by a negative verb, then the following idea is negative.

For example;

*She isn't old **enough** to go to school.* (i.e. She can not go to school)

Note that: *enough* always follows the adjective or adverb. Possible constructions after *enough* are the same as those after an adjective (adverb) + *too*: the infinitive with *to*; for + noun or pronoun; for + noun or pronoun + the infinitive with *to*.

g) Masculine and Feminine

These are gender referred to the sex of a person or animal denoted by a given noun. Masculine gender refers to a male member of a species such as boy, lion, hero, king, horse, man, etc. Feminine gender refers to a female member of a species such as girl, queen, lioness, woman, cow, etc.

The table showing masculine and feminine nouns denoting people and animals.

People		Animals		
Masculine	Feminine	Name	Masculine	Feminine
bachelor	Spinster	duck	Duck	drake
actor	actress	sheep	ram	ewe
duke	duchess	goose	gander	goose
nephew	niece	horse	stallion	mare
manager	manageress	tiger	tiger	tigress
steward	stewardess	rabbit	buck	doe
waiter	waitress	bear	boar	sow
host	hostess	dog	dog	bitch
lord	lady	lion	lion	lioness
widower	widow	fox	fox	vixen
prince	princess	cattle	bull	cow
policeman	policewoman	chicken	rooster	hen
uncle	aunt	pig	boar	sow
son	daughter			
tailor	tailoress			

Words Expressing Quantity

wizard	witch			
traitor	traitress			
man	woman			
king	queen			
husband	wife			
mayor	mayoress			
monitor	monitress			
prophet	prophetess			
headmaster	headmistress			
hero	heroine			
author	authoress			
god	goddess			
sir	madam			
grandfather	grandmother			
brother	sister			

Chapter Thirteen

WORD ORDER

In communication process, to write and speak good language there must be not only the use of correct grammatical forms and appropriate vocabulary of language concern but also the use of correct word order. Here are some words that help to write and speak good English language by considering English word order.

A: Order of Adverbs

i) *Adverbs of place, time and duration*

- Adverbs of place, time and duration usually come at the end of a sentence or clause.

For example;

*She listened to the radio **for an hour**.*

*She met with an accident **at the crossroads**.*

*While he was staying **at the hotel**, a conference was being held.*

*His sister, who got married **last month**, now lives in Zanzibar.*

*She waited **for half an hour** and then went away.*

*She joined our college **last month**.*

- Adverbs of time and duration may be placed at the beginning of a sentence or clause or immediately after a link word.

For example;

***Last month** she joined our school.*

*His sister, who **last month** got married, now lives in Zanzibar.*

***For an hour** she listened to the radio.*

- Adverbs of place occasionally come at the beginning of a sentence or clause, especially the case with *here* and *there*.

For example;

***Here** is a gift you are asking for.*

*She opened the door and **there** was her mother.*

- In written English other adverbs of place can come at the

Word Order

beginning of a sentence or clause.

For example;

Across the sand *flowed a small stream.*

At the bottom of the stairs *lay a dead man.*

Note that: After an adverb of place in this position the verb is placed before the subject if the verb is intransitive and if the subject is a noun. This means that there is normal subject-verb order if the verb is transitive or the subject of a pronoun.

ii) Adverbs of frequency

Adverbs of frequency are subject to different rules. They indicate how often an event occurs. Such words are *always, often, frequently, generally, usually, occasionally, sometimes, rarely, seldom, never, ever*, etc.

- They are placed before the verb they modify.

For example;

She **always** works hard.

Always she works hard.

She works hard **always**.

He **often** leaves without permission.

She **rarely** takes a holiday.

- They are placed after an auxiliary verb or the modals *can, could, may, might, must* and *ought*.

For example;

She has **often** forgotten her book.

I will **never** agree to her suggestion.

She can **sometimes** find time for reading.

Note that: the verbs *have to* and *used to* are normally preceded by the adverbs.

For example;

She **often** *had to* borrow money.

They **always** *used to* light a fire in winter.

Word Order

- They are placed after the first part of the auxiliary if it consists of more than one word.

For example;

*She has **often** been praised for her work.*

*She has **rarely** been told that she is generous.*

- They are placed after *not*.

For example;

*She does not **always** work hard.*

*He does not **often** leave without permission.*

- They are placed after the subject in questions.

For example;

*Have you **ever** been to Kenya?*

*Do they **often** come to see you?*

Note that: if the adverb is stressed it may be placed elsewhere in the sentence.

- (a) Before the auxiliary.

For example;

*She **always** has done her best.*

*They **occasionally** have forgotten to attend.*

- (b) *Often* can come at the end of a sentence or clause.

For example;

*She visits us **often**.*

*I write to her **often**, but I don't get many letters from her.*

- (c) *Never* can come at the beginning of a sentence and in this case the question order (auxiliary-subject-verb) is used.

For example;

Never have I met such a foolish person.

Never did he regret marrying her.

Note that: Negative words when placed at the beginning of a sentence they affect the normal order of the *subject-auxiliary-verb*.

Word Order

- Other adverbs that obey the same rules as adverbs of frequency are: *almost, already, also, hardly, just, merely, nearly, not, only, quite, rather, scarcely, soon, still, therefore, etc.*

For example;

*She had **almost** finished her work.*

*She is **still** trying to enter the university.*

*She has **quite** forgotten the appointment.*

- Also *already* and *soon* can come at the end of a sentence or clause.

For example;

*He will **soon** reach the village.*

*He will reach the village **soon**.*

*I have met her **already**.*

*I have **already** met her.*

- After *scarcely* or *hardly* (as with all negative adverbs at the beginning of a sentence or clause) use the question order (i.e. auxiliary-subject-verb).

For example;

***Hardly** had the train started when something went wrong with the engine.*

***Scarcely** had the rain stopped when the players went out onto the field.*

Note that: when the answer to the question 'how often?' is an adverbial phrase or clause giving the number of times an event occurs, the adverbial phrase or clause comes at the end of the sentence or clause (or, for emphasis, at the beginning).

Phrases

twice a week

every two months

every day

For example;

*They play netball **every other day**.*

*They have a test **every two months**.*

*The bell rings **every hour**.*

Clauses

every other day

as many times as she wants to

as often as she wishes

Word Order

*He visits his uncle **twice a week**.*

*You may come and see us **as often as you wish**.*

*She may borrow my motorbike **as many times as she wants to**.*

iii) Adverbs of manner

Adverb of manner comes at the end when a sentence with the verb is in active form.

For example;

*John painted the house **very badly**.*

*Salome made the curtains **very well**.*

*They have packed the goods **carefully**.*

- If the verb is in the passive form, it is more usual to put the adverb of manner before the participle.

For example;

*The house was **very badly** painted.*

*The curtains were **very well** made.*

*The goods have been **carefully** packed.*

iv) Order of two adverbs

When wishing to use an adverb of place and an adverb of time in the same sentence or clause, the usual order is adverb of place + adverb of time.

For example;

*She left **for England last Friday**.*

*He went **to the hospital last Saturday**.*

- If wishing to emphasise the adverb of time, place it before the adverb of place.

For example;

*She left **last Friday for England**.*

*He went **on Saturday to the hospital**.*

- Also the adverb of time can come at the beginning of the sentence or clause.

For example;

***Last Friday** she left for England.*

***On Saturday** he went to the hospital.*

Word Order

- An adverb giving the number of times an event occurs normally comes before an adverb of time.

For example;

*He went to the library **several times** last week.*

*She went singing **every** weekend last year.*

- Also this rule applies when *often* is used towards the end of a sentence.

For example;

*She went there **often** in 2009.*

*She used to come here **often** last month.*

B: Order of Adjectives

The position of the adjective depends on how closely it is related in idea to the noun.

- i) Any adjective in the form of a noun or gerund comes next to the noun it qualifies.

For example;

*An interesting **geography** book.*

*A cheap **transistor** radio.*

*Some clean **drinking** water.*

*Some new **washing** power.*

- Included in this class of adjectives are adjectives of nationality.

For example;

*A recent **Kiswahili** book.*

*A beautiful **Japanese** vase.*

- ii) Before adjectives as explained above come any adjectives of colour.

For example;

a new, red, marking pen

a tall, dark, African girl

- iii) Next comes any adjectives of size, shape or weight.

For example;

an old, square, brown, wooden box, etc.

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Chapter Fourteen

POSSESSION

Possession is often shown by an *s* – ending accompanied with an apostrophe either before or after it to convey the meaning of ownership. The following rule can help;

a) In the singular form, the apostrophe is placed before the *s*.

For example;

Mary's dictionary has been stolen.

I am going to my brother's house.

b) When the plural form end with an *s*, the apostrophe is added after the *s*.

For example;

James' car is very expensive.

The boys' behavior should be monitored.

c) When the plural form ends without *s*, the possessive '*s* is indicated.

For example;

The men's washroom is on the other side of the building.

The children's cloth are expensive.

d) Nouns of people, animals and collective nouns of human groups (animate nouns) take the positive form with the apostrophe.

For example;

The government's decision.

The teachers' promotion.

e) Generally, inanimate nouns do not take the possessive form. They use the *of* – genitive construction, instead.

For example;

The leg of a bed/bed leg is broken.

Possession

But also, the possessive form can be used with, among others, the following inanimate nouns.

a) Geographical names

For example;

American's civil wars.

b) Nouns of regions, institutions, heavenly bodies

For example;

The **nation's** development vision.

The **earth's** minerals are abundant.

c) Nouns of time

For example;

Night's music is noisy.

Yesterday's meeting ended well.

d) Nouns followed by superlative

For example;

The **city's** highest building.

The **world's** coldest continent.

e) Nouns of special interest to human activity

For example;

The **heart's** function is like that of a **car's** engine.

A: Rules of possession

- Use -'s (apostrophe + s) mostly for people or animal.

For example;

Juma's computer isn't working. (**not** the computer of Juma)

How old are **Bihemo's** children? (**not** the children of Bihemo)

What's **your brother's** name?

What's **Musa's sister's** name?

Be careful. Don't step on **the cat's** tail.

- You can use -'s without a following noun.

For example;

This isn't her book. It's **her sister's**. (her sister's book)

Possession

- Do not always use –'s for people.

For example;

What was the name **of the man who phoned you?** (*"the man who phoned you"* is too long to be followed by –'s)

Therefore, *of* has been used in the sentence.

Say:

A woman's hat (a hat for a women)

A girl's name (a name for a girl)

A bird's egg (an egg laid by a bird), etc.

Note that:

- For singular possessive nouns, add 's. (boy – boy's)
- For plural nouns that don't end in s, add 's. (children – children's)
- For plural nouns that already end with s, add '. (dog – dogs')

For example;

Juma's book is in his school bag.

The **car's** tire needed to be fixed.

The **doctors'** tools are in the red bag.

The **students'** uniform are dirty.

B: Rules of pronouns

- Use –'s with a singular noun

For example;

My **brother's** room. (**his** room – one brother)

Mrs. Justine's house. (**her** house)

- Use –s' (apostrophe) at the end of of the word with a plural noun.

For example;

My **brothers'** room. (**their** room. two or more brothers)

The **carters'** house. (their house. Mr. and Mrs. Carter)

- Use –'s if a plural noun does not end in –s.

For example;

The women's changing room.

Possession

A **children's** book. (a book for children)

- Use **-'s** after more than one noun.

For example;

Jack and Rose's wedding.

Mr and Mrs Carter's house.

- Use **of** instead of **-s** for things, ideas, etc

For example;

The door **of the office**. (not *the office's door*)

The name **of the book**.

The owner **of the restaurant**.

- Use the structure **noun + noun**

For example;

The **garage door**

The **restaurant owner**

Say:

The beginning of the month. (**not** *the month's beginning*)

The end of the month. (**not** *the month's end*)

The middle of the month. (**not** *the month's middle*)

The top of the hill. (**not** *the hill's top*)

The bottom of the hill. (**not** *the hill's bottom*)

The back of the car. (**not** *the car's back*)

The front of the car. (**not** *the car's front*)

The side of the car. (**not** *the car's side*)

- Use **-'s** or **of** for an organization.

For example;

The government's decision or **The decision of the government.**

The company's success or **The success of the company.**

- Use **-'s** for places.

For example;

The city's streets.

The world's population.

Tanzania's prime minister.

- Use **-'s** with time expressions.

Possession

For example;

*Do you still have **yesterday's** newspaper?*

*Next **week's** meeting has been cancelled.*

*I got shocked for **today's** news.*

*Are you going to attend **tommorow's** wedding?*

*Can I know your **Monday's** schedule?*

- Use –'s (or –s' with plural words) with periods of time.

For example;

*I've got **a week's** holiday starting on Manday.*

*Musa has got three **weeks'** holiday.*

*I live near the bus stop, it's only about **ten minutes'** walk.*

Chapter Fifteen

PRONOUNS

Pronouns is a word standing for a noun. In English, once a noun is mentioned it is not necessary repeated.

Types of pronouns

a) Personal pronouns

I, You, She, He, It, We, They

b) Relative pronouns

Who, Whom, Whose, Which, That

c) Reflective pronouns

Myself, Herself, Himself, Himselfes, Ourselves, Themselves, Itself

d) Possessive pronouns

Mine, Hers, His, ours, yours, theres

e) Indefinite pronouns

Each, Every

f) Emphatic pronouns

Pronouns used for emphasise

For example;

I cut myself.

I did the work myself. (myself can be omitted and the sentence remain with the meaning)

Possession in Pronouns

Pronouns also have possessive forms;

Personal pronoun

I

we

you

he

she

Possessive form

Mine

our(s)

your(s)

his

her(s)

Pronouns

they

their(s)

it

its

For example;

*This pen is **yours** and that one is **his**.*

- Once mentioned a noun, it is not necessary repeating it. instead a pronoun can be used.

John is my friend.

John lives at Kilimahewa.

John's father is a doctor.

My father loves **John**.

John is my friend.

He lives at Kilimahewa.

His father is a doctor.

My father loves **him**.

The uses of pronoun

A: Uses of **myself/yourself/themselves/ourselves**, etc.

- Use **myself/yourself/himself** etc. (reflexive pronouns) when the subject and object are the same.

For example;

Rose (subject) introduced **herself** (object).

The reflexive pronouns

<i>Singular</i>	Myself	<i>yourself (one person)</i>	<i>himself/herself/itself</i>
<i>Plural</i>	Ourselves	<i>yourselves (more than one person)</i>	<i>themselves</i>

For example;

*I don't want you to pay for me. I'll pay for **myself**. (not I'll pay for me)*

*Koku had a great holiday. **She** really enjoyed **herself**.*

*Do **you** talk to **yourself** sometimes? (said to one person)*

*If you want more to eat, help **yourselves**. (said to more than one person)*

Pronouns

Say

*It's not our fault. **You** can't blame **us**.*

*It's our own fault. **We** should blame **ourselves**.*

- Do not use **myself** etc. after *feel/relax/concentrate/meet*

For example;

*I **feel** nervous. I can't **relax**.*

*You must try and **concentrate**. (**not** concentrate yourself)*

*What time shall we **meet**? (**not** meet ourselves, **not** meet us)*

- Use *wash/shave/dress* without **myself** etc.

For example;

*She got up **washed, shaved and dressed**. (**not** washed herself etc.)*

***Get dressed**. (*she got dressed*)*

- Use of *-selves* and *each other*

For example;

*Juma and Halima stood in front of the mirror and looked at **themselves**. (Juma and Halima looked at Juma and Halima)*

*They looked **each other**. (Juma looked at Halima; Halima looked at Juma)*

- Use *one another* instead of *each other*.

For example;

*How long have you and Dangote known **each other**?*

*How long have you and Dangote known **one another**?*

*Juma and Ally don't like **each other**.*

*Juma and Ally don't like **one another**.*

*Do you and Rose live near **each other**?*

*Do you and Rose live near **one another**?*

- Use *myself/yourself* etc, in another way.

For example;

Who repaired your bike for you? (question)

*I repaired it **myself**. (answer) {**Myself** is used to emphasise "I"}*

*I'm not going to do your work for you. **You** can do it **yourself**.*

***Let's** paint the house **ourselves**. It will be much cheaper.*

Pronouns

The film itself wasn't very good, but **I** loved the music.

*I don't think Hussein will get the job. Hussein **himself** doesn't think he'll get it. (Hussein doesn't think he'll get it **himself**)*

B: Use of mine/my own/on my own/by myself etc.

- Say a friend **of mine/yours/his/hers/ours/theirs** etc.

For example;

*I'm going to a wedding on Friday. **A friend of mine** is getting married. (**not** a friend of me)*

*we went on holiday with **some friends of ours**. (**not** some friends of us)*

*Erick had an argument with **a neighbor of his**.*

*It was **a good idea of yours** to go to the cinema.*

- Say a friend **of my sister's** or a friend **of Mahelo's**

For example;

*That woman over there is **a friend of my sister's**.*

*It was **a good idea of Mahelo's** to go to the cinema.*

- Use **my/your/his/her/its/our/their** before **own**.

For example;

*I don't want to share a room with anybody. I want **my own** room.*

*Edwin and Diana would like to have **their own** house.*

*It's **my own** fault that I've got no money. I buy too many things I don't need.*

*It's a pity that the flat hasn't got **its own** parking space.*

*Why do you want to borrow my car? Why don't you use **your own**?*

- Use **own** to say that you do something yourself instead of someone else doing it for you.

For example;

*Dickson usually cuts his **own** hair. (he cut it himself)*

*I'd like to have a garden so that I could grow my **own** vegetables.*

- Use **on my own/by myself**

For example;

*I like living **on my own**.*

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I like living **by myself**.

Did you go on holiday **on your own**?

Did you go on holiday **by yourself**?

Juma was sitting **on his own** in a corner of the café.

Juma was sitting **by himself** in a corner of the café.

Learner drivers are not allowed to drive **on their own**.

Learner drivers are not allowed to drive **by themselves**.

On	<i>my/your</i>	Own	=	by	<i>myself/yourself</i>	<i>singular</i>
	<i>his/her/its</i>				<i>himself/herself/itself</i>	
	<i>our/their</i>				<i>ourselves/yourselves/themselves</i>	<i>plural</i>

C: Use **there** and **it**

- Use **there** when talking about something for the first time.

For example;

I'm sorry I'm late. **There** was a lot of traffic. (**not** It was a lot of traffic)

There's a new hotel in Mtakuja Street. (**not** A new hotel is in Mtakuja Street)

Things are more expensive now. **There** has been a big rise in the cost of living.

- Use **it** for a specific thing, place, fact, situation etc.

For example;

We went to a new hotel. **It** is very good. (**It** means a hotel)

I wasn't expecting them to come. **It** was a complete surprise. (**It** means that they came)

I don't like this town. **There's** nothing to do here. **It's** a boring place.

- Use **there** also means **to/at/in** that place.

For example;

When we got to the party, there were already a lot of people **there**.
the new restaurant is very good. I went **there** last night.

Pronouns

- Say ***there will be/there must be/there might be/there used to be*** etc.

For example;

Will there be many people at the party?

Is there a flight to Mwanza this morning? **There might be.** I'll phone the airport.

If people drove more carefully, there wouldn't be so many accidents.

There was a light on. There must have been someone at home.

They live on a busy road. There must be a lot of noise from the traffic.

They live on a busy main road. It must be very noisy.

There used to be a cinema in Uhuru Street, but it closed a few months ago.

That building is now a supermarket. It used to be a cinema.

- Say ***there is sure/certain/likely/bound*** to be

For example;

There is sure to be a flight to Mwanza this morning.

There is bound to be a flight to Mwanza this morning.

There is certain to be a flight to Mwanza this morning.

- Use ***it*** in sentences like;

It's dangerous to walk in the road. (**not** To walk in the road is dangerous)

It didn't take us long to get here.

It's a pity (that) Tom can't come to the party.

Let's go. It's not worth waiting any longer.

- Use ***it*** to talk about distance, time and weather

For example;

How far is it from here to the airport?

What day is it today?

It's a long time since we saw you last.

It was windy yesterday. (**but** there was a cold wind)

D: Use some and any

- Use **some** (*somebody/someone/something*) in positive sentences and **any** (*anybody/anyone/anything*) in negative sentences.

For example;

*We bought **some** flowers.*

*We didn't buy **any** flowers.*

*She's busy. She's got **some** work to do.*

*She's lazy. She never does **any** work.*

*There's **somebody** at the window.*

*There isn't **anybody** at the window.*

*I'm hungry. I want **something** to eat.*

*I'm not hungry. I don't want **anything** to eat.*

- Use **any** in the sentence with negative meaning.

For example;

*He went out without **any** money. (he didn't take **any** money with him)*

*She refused to eat **anything**. (she didn't eat **anything**)*

*Hardly **anybody** passed the examination. (almost **nobody** passed)*

- Use both **some** and **any** in questions. **Some** to talk about a person or thing that we know exists or think exists.

For example;

*Are you waiting for **somebody**? (I think you are waiting for **somebody**)*

- Use **some** in question when you offer or ask for things.

For example;

*Would you like **something** to eat? (there is something to eat)*

Can I have some sugar, please? (there is probably some sugar I can have)

- Use **any** when you don't know if the thing or person exists.

For example;

*Have you got **any** luggage? (No, I haven't)*

Pronouns

*I can't find my bag. Has **anybody** seen it?*

- Use **any** after **if**.

For examples;

If there are **any** letters for me, can you send them on to this address?

If anyone has any questions, I'll be pleased to answer them.

Let me know **if** she need **anything**.

- Use **any** at the sentences that has the idea of **if**.

For example;

I'm sorry for **any** trouble I've caused. (if I have caused any trouble)

Anyone who wants to do the exam must tell me by Thursday. (if there is anyone)

- Use **any** with the meaning **it doesn't matter which**.

For example;

You can take **any** bus. They all go to the centre. (it doesn't matter which bus you take)

Come and see me **any** time you want.

he left the door unlocked. **Anybody** could have come in.

- Use **they/ them/ their** after somebody/someone/anybody/anyone

For example;

Someone has forgotten their umbrella. (his or her umbrella)

If **anybody** wants to leave early, they can. (he or she can)

E: Use **no/ none/ any** and **nothing/ nobody**

- Use **no + noun**. (**No** means **not a** or **not any**)

For example;

We had to walk home because there was **no** bus.

Katuzi will have **no** difficulty finding a job.

There were **no** shops open.

No reason was given for the change of plan.

- Use **none** without a noun

For example;

All the tickets have been sold. there was **none** left.

Pronouns

*This money is all yours. **None** of it is mine.*

*How much money do you have? **None**.*

- Use **none of** + plural

For example;

***None of** the shops were (or was) open.*

*We have three sons but **none of** them lives (or live) nearby.*

- Use **nothing/nobody/nowhere**

For example;

***Nothing** happened to him yesterday.*

***Nobody (no-one)** came to visit me while I was in hospital.*

*Where are you going? **Nowhere**, I'm staying here.*

*The house is empty. There's **nobody** living here.*

*They had **nothing** to eat.*

- Do not use a negative verb (isn't, didn't, etc) with **nothing/nobody**

For example;

*I said **nothing**. (not I didn't say nothing)*

***Nobody** tells me anything. (not nobody doesn't tell me)*

- Use **nothing/nobody** etc. (not + **anything/anybody** etc.)

For example;

*I said **nothing**. (I didn't say **anything**)*

*Juma told **nobody** about his plan. (Juma didn't tell **anybody** about his plan.*

*They've got **nowhere** to live. (They haven't got **anywhere** to live.*

- Use **any/anything/anybody** etc. (without not) to mean it doesn't matter which/what/who

For example;

*The exams were extremely difficult. **Nobody** passed. (everybody failed)*

*The exams were very easy. **Anybody** could have passed. (it doesn't matter who)*

*There was **no** bus, so we walked home.*

Pronouns

You can take **any** bus. They all go to the centre. (it doesn't matter which)

What do you want to eat? **Nothing**, I'm not hungry.

I'm so hungry. I could eat **anything**. (it doesn't matter what)

- Use **they**/**them**/**their** after **nobody**/**no-one**

For example;

Nobody phoned, did they? (did he or she)

No-one did what I asked them to do. (him or her)

Nobody in the class did their homework. (his or her homework)

F: Use **much**, **many**, **little**, **few**, **a lot**, **plenty** etc.

- Use **much** and **little** with *uncountable* nouns

For example;

I don't have **much** time to waste here.

Thank you very **much** for the flowers.

We didn't spend **much** money.

There was **little** doubt in my mind.

She's a good **little** worker.

Do you speak Swahili? A **little**.

Let's go and have a lunch. We have a **little** time before the train leaves. (A **little** time means **some** time, **enough** time to have a lunch)

Sofia is very busy with her job. She has **little** time for other things.

Juma has very **little** time for other things.

Hurry please! We only have a **little** time here. (**not** only little time)

- Use **many** and **few** with *plural* nouns

For example;

Many people drive too fast.

Do you know **many** people?

There aren't **many** students here.

They lived here for **many** years. (**many** years/weeks/days)

Diana doesn't like living in Kenya. She has **few** friends there.

I enjoy my life here. I have a **few** friends and we meet quite often.

Diana has a very **few** friends in Kenya.

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Pronouns

*When was the last time you saw Debora? A **few** days ago. (or some days ago)*

*The village was very small. There were only a few houses. (**not** only few houses)*

- Use **a lot of/lots of/plenty of** with both uncountable and plural nouns

For examples;

A lot of people drive too fast. (or Many people drive too fast)

*Do you know **a lot of** people? (or Do you know many people?)*

*There aren't **a lot of** students here. (or There aren't many students here)*

*We spent **a lot of** money buying clothes. (**not** We spent much money)*

*He spends **lots of** time reading.*

Lots of people came to the meeting.

*I have **plenty of** money for new clothes.*

*She is having **plenty of** ideas for her home.*

G: Use **both/both of, neither/neither of** and **either/either of**

- Use **both/neither/either** for two things

For examples;

Both hotels are very good. (**not** The **both** hotels are very good)

Neither hotel is expensive.

*We can go to **either** hotel. I don't mind. (either means one/the other, it doesn't matter which one)*

Both my parents are from Uganda. (or **Both** of my parents are from Uganda)

- Use **both of/neither of/either of** + the/these/my/Rose's etc.

For example;

Both of these hotels are very good.

Neither of the hotels we went to was (or were) expensive.

*I haven't been to **either of** those hotels. (I haven't been to one or the other)*

Pronouns

- Use **both of/ neither of/ either of** + us/you/them

For example;

Both of us were very tired. (**not** Both us were very tired.

Can **either of** you speak English? (talking to two people)

I asked two people the way to the station, but **neither of** them could help me.

Neither of the children wants (or want) to go to bed.

- Use **both/ neither/ either** without a noun (alone)

For example;

I couldn't decide which of the two trousers to buy. I liked **both**. (or I liked both of them)

Is your friend british or American? **Neither**. He's Italian.

Do you want tea or coffee? **Either**. I don't mind.

Compere;

either/neither/both (two things)	any/none/all (more than two)
- There are two good hotels here. You could stay at either of them.	- There are many good hotels here. You could stay at any of them.
- We tried two hotels. Neither of them had any room. Both of them were full.	- We tried a lot of hotels. None of them had any rooms. All of them were full.

H: Use **all, every** and **whole**

- Use **all** and everybody /everyone

For example;

All of us (you/them) enjoyed the party. (**not** Everybody of us enjoyed the party)

Everybody enjoyed the party. (**not** all enjoyed the part)

- Use **all** and everything

For example;

I'll do **all** I can to help you. (**or** I'll do everything I can to help you.

She thinks she knows **everything**. (**not** She knows all)

Our holiday was a disaster. **Everything** went wrong. (**not** All went wrong)

Pronouns

*She knows **all** about computers.*

***All** I've eaten today is a sandwich. (**or** The only thing I've eaten today)*

- Use **every/everybody/everyone/everything** (singular words) to a singular verb

For example;

***Every** seat in the theatre was taken.*

***Everybody** has arrived. (**not** have arrived)*

***Everybody** said they enjoyed themselves. (or He/she enjoyed himself/herself)*

- Use **whole** and **all**

For example;

*Did you read the **whole** book? (all the book, not just a part of it)*

*Michael has lived her **whole** life in Pakistan.*

*I was so hungry, I ate a **whole** packet of biscuits. (a complete packet)*

*I've spent **all** the money you gave me. (**not** the whole money)*

Say;

***The whole** book/**all** the book*

***Her whole** life/**all** her life*

- Use **every/all/whole** with time words

For example;

*When we were on holiday, we went to the beach **every** day. (**not** all days)*

*The bus service is excellent. There's a bus **every** ten minutes.*

*We don't see each other very often (about **every** six months).*

*We spent **all** (**the whole**) day on the beach.*

*Dorice was very quiet. She didn't say a word **all** evening/the **whole** evening.*

*{**all day** (**not** all the day), **all week** (**not** all the week)}*

Say;

*They never go out. they are at home **all** the time. (always, continuously)*

Pronouns

Every time I see you, you look different. (each time, on every occasion)

I: Use each and every

- Use **each** and **every** are similar in meaning but are not exactly the same.

For example;

Each (every) time I see her, she look different.

There's a telephone in **each** (every) room of the house.

Study **each** sentence carefully. (study the sentences separately or one by one)

Every sentence must have a verb. (a group or all sentences in general must have a verb)

- Use **each** mostly for a small number and **every** mostly for a large number.

For example;

There were five books on the table. **Each** book was a different colour.

David loves reading. He has read **every** book in the home library. (all the books)

Before the beginning of football match, **each** player has two bottle of drinking water.

I would like to visit **every** region in my country. (all the regions)

In a football match, **each** team has eleven players. (**not** every team)

There's a bus **every** thirty minutes. (**not** each thirty minutes)

- Use **each** and **every** to compare the structure with a noun

For example;

Each student was given a pen.

Every student in the class is capable of passing the exam.

Each room was different. (none of the rooms was the same)

J: Use So and Such

- Use **so** + **adjective**

For example;

I didn't like the book. The story was **so** stuped.

Pronouns

*I like Peter and Juma. They are **so nice**.*

- Use **so** + **adverb**

For example;

*I like that girl. She runs **so fast**.*

*don't bother about me. I'm **so well**.*

- Use **such** + **noun**

For example;

***Such** a story.*

***such** people.*

- Use **such** + **adjective** + **noun**

For example;

*I didn't like the book. It was **such a stupid story**. (**not a stupid story**)*

*I like Peter and Juma. They are **such nice people**. (**not so nice people**)*

- Use **so** to make the meaning of an adjective/adverb stronger

For example;

*It's a beautiful day, isn't it? It's **so warm**. (*really warm*)*

*It's difficult to understand her because she talks **so quietly**.*

- Use **such** to make the meaning of an adjective/adverb stronger

For example;

*It was a great holiday. We had **such a good time**. (*a really good time*)*

- Use **so ... that**

For example;

*The book was **so good that** I couldn't put it down.*

*I was **so tired that** I fell asleep in the armchair.*

*I was **so tired** I fell asleep. (*Sometime we leave out **that***)*

Pronouns

- Use *such ... that*

For example;

*It was **such** a good book **that** I couldn't put it down.*

*It was **such** nice weather **that** we spent the whole day on the beach.*

*It was **such** nice weather we spent the whole day on the beach.*

(sometime we leave out that)

- Use *so long/far/much/many*

For example;

*I haven't seen him for **so long** I've forgotten what he looks like.*

*I didn't know it was **so far**.*

*I'm sorry I'm late, there was **so much** traffic.*

- Use *such a long time/way* or *such a lot*

*I haven't seen him for **such a long time**. (not so long time)*

*I didn't know it was **such a long way**.*

*I'm sorry I'm late, there was **such a lot** of traffic.*

Assignments

Chapter One: Articles and Nouns

1: Complete the following sentences by filling in *a* or *an* or *the* or *zero article* as may be suitable.

- a) The world is happy place.
- b) I first met her year ago.
- c) lazy students all over world often find examination difficult.
- d) My uncle arrived by rail last night.
- e) I had a breakfast at restaurant near river yesterday morning.
- f) Everest is one of highest mounts in world.
- g) Melia bought horse, ox, and buffalo.
- h) I like to spend evening listening to music, but my sister prefers going to see play.
- i) When she was librarian in Tanzania she had much higher salary than she has now as teacher in this country.

2: Insert *a*, *an*, *the* or *zero article* where necessary in the gaps in the following passage.

..... day before yesterday I went shopping. There is bus which goes from near my house to main market of town, but as I was not in hurry, I went on foot. On way small boy tried to sell me magazine, but as he didn't have change, I couldn't buy it.

..... first shop I went to was butcher's. There are over ten butchers in our town, but now I always go to same one. His prices are lower than anywhere else, and quality of his meat is higher Last month I tried several others but I found few could compete with him. In this shop I bought kilo of beef and chicken.

I next went to buy packet of cigarettes. I don't

Assignments

smoke myself, but my brother does and he likes most expensive ones available older he gets more extravagant he becomes. I have often advised him to give up smoking as tobacco is dangerous, but he goes on smoking packet of cigarettes day.

Then I went and bought vegetables we needed for coming week. owner of shop I went to is old friend of mine and gives me bigger reductions than any other greengrocer. He invited me into his room at back of shop and offered me cup of coffee. We talked about latest news; there had been earthquake in Congo and he was most concerned because relation of his was working in area as doctor. earthquake had destroyed two hospitals.

After we had chatted for few minutes, I went home and had lunch with my family.

3: Insert articles where necessary.

- a) You must take care.
- b) Where did you buy orange?
- c) Draw map of Tanzania.
- d) Wild animals suffer when kept in captivity.
- e) Time makes worst enemies friends.
- f) Time we live ought not to be computed by number of years, but by use that has been made of them.
- g) Only best quality is sold by us.
- h) He likes to picture himself as original thinker.
- i) Man has no more right to say uncivil thing than to act one.
- j) Have you told her about accident?

4: Fill the gaps with *an* or *a* articles

- i) 8 year child.
- ii) university of Dodoma.
- iii) honest person.

- iv) hotel provides food and accommodation.
- v) FBI recent report.

Chapter Two: Degrees of Comparison

1. Complete the following sentences using the *as.....as* or *so.....as* construction.
 - i) Her writing is (untidy) mine.
 - ii) She speaks English (well) she speaks Kiswahili.
 - iii) That exercise was not (difficult) I expected.
 - iv) This month is (dry) it usually is.
 - v) She does not correct her work (thoroughly) she should.
2. Point out the adjectives and name the degree of comparison of each.
 - i) A live ass is stronger than a dead lion.
 - ii) His son makes no progress in his studies.
 - iii) There is much to be said on both sides.
 - iv) Lead is heavier than any other metal.
 - v) Her simple word is as good as an oath.
3. Put an appropriate comparative or superlative to each of the following sentences.
 - i) Prevention is than cure.
 - ii) The piano was knocked down to the bidder.
 - iii) She writes a hand than her sister.
 - iv) Clouds float in the sky because they are than the air.
 - v) It is good to be clever, but it is to be industrious.
4. Change the degree of comparison without changing the meaning in the following sentences.
 - i) Soya beans are at least as nutritious as meat.
 - ii) You do not know her better than I do.
 - iii) The tiger is the most ferocious of all animals.
 - iv) A wise enemy is better than a foolish friend.
 - v) She would sooner die than tell a lie.

Assignments

5. Complete the following sentences using the *comparative adjective* or *adverb + than* construction.
 - i) She is (young) her brother.
 - ii) He speaks Kiswahili (correctly) I do.
 - iii) Her health is (bad) it was last month.
 - iv) Most people understand a language (well) they speak it.
 - v) Melia reads (fast) Salome.
6. Complete the following sentences using constructions with the comparative or superlative form of the adjective or adverb as necessary.
 - i) Last term she got (high) mark in the class.
 - ii) Musa stayed (long) anyone.
 - iii) She is (selfish) person I have ever come across.
 - iv) Didas works (hard) any boy in the class.
 - v) This is (unpleasant) medicine I have ever tested.

Chapter Three: Conjugation of the Verbs

1. Write five sentences using the present simple to indicate the following;
 - a) Abilities.
 - b) Facts.
 - c) Customs.
 - d) Repeated actions.
 - e) Habits.
2. Write five sentences using the present simple to indicate the future after the following;
 - a) "if" in likely conditional clauses.
 - b) when, until, as soon as, after, before, e.t.c.
3. Change the infinitives in brackets to either the present perfect or the past simple tense.
 - a) Our headmistress (be born) in 1920.
 - b) Up to now she (be rejected) by every employer she has

Assignments

- applied to.
- c) I nearly (finish) this exercise on the past simple and present perfect.
 - d) Up till now he (make) a good impression on his tutors.
 - e) Before she (join) our club she (play) netball for her college team.
 - f) We (own) this house since 1960.
4. Change the infinitives in brackets to either the present simple or present continuous tense.
- a) My sister (write) a letter and I (read) a novel.
 - b) She (love) her children and (prefer) to spend money on school fees rather than on herself.
 - c) She (speak) seven languages quite fluently.
 - d) This house (smell) very stuffy this morning.
 - e) The moon (go) around the earth.
 - f) She usually (drive) very carefully, but today she (drive) recklessly.
5. Write five sentences using the present continuous with *always*, *continually* or *constantly* to show disapproval.
6. Write five sentences (using the five different verbs in the present continuous) about the future plans of members of your class and family.
7. Change the infinitives in brackets to either the past simple or the past continuous tense.
- a) Our college netball team (win) the champion last month.
 - b) He (live) with his parents when the war (break) out.
 - c) While she (dig) in the shamba, she (find) an old coin.
 - d) Papers and novels (be) scattered everywhere in her study. Obviously Mr. Bihemo (write) a novel.
 - e) The patient (recover) from her illness by the time the drugs (arrive). She (leave) hospital a month later.

Assignments

8. Complete the following sentences by using *going to* wherever possible and *will* or *shall* in other cases.
- The sun rise at quarter past six tomorrow morning.
 - The train arrive in twenty minutes' time.
 - When you telephone your mother?
 - If you spend a few months in Tanzania, you become quite fluent in Kiswahili.
 - She give you change if you ask her.
 - The President make an important speech tonight.
 - She leave for Zanzibar on Friday.
 - Our dog bark if someone tries to break into the house.
 - Those trees be cut down next month.
 - I don't know if you ... be chosen for the play.
9. Write four sentences using the future continuous to indicate or emphasize the following:
- an activity or state beginning before and continuing after a point of future time.
 - that an event has been definitely planned for the future.
 - that an activity or state will be going on continuously over a period of future time.
10. Write four sentences using the following:
- will* to express insistence.
 - shall* in questions about the wish or suggestion of another person.
 - will* to express willingness or a wish.
 - shall* with the second or third persons to imply a promise or a threat.
 - will* to express characteristics.
11. Write four sentences using the following:
- would not* with the meaning *refused to*.
 - should* to express obligation.
 - would* to show past habit.

Assignments

- d) *should* in clauses of purpose.
- e) *would* with the meaning *insisted on*.
- f) *would* in polite requests.

12. Complete the following sentences:

- a) If she saves enough money,
- b) We would be able to read her letter if
- c) If I had a car,
- d) The headmistress would have expelled that student if
- e) I will buy a copy of that newspaper if
- f) If it hadn't rained all last night,

13. Change the infinitives in the following sentences to the future perfect.

- a) Her brother (cook) the meal before she gets home.
- b) The rain (stop) by the time they reach the town.
- c) It is expected that man (land) on several planets by the end of this century.
- d) By the time she has repaid the loan the value of money (fall).
- e) My sister (take) her degree before I leave school.

14. Change the infinitives in brackets to the most suitable tenses.

- a) She (visit) the dentist if she had toothache.
- b) If she knows there will be a test next week, she (spend) the weekend revising.
- c) There (be) a shortage of water next week unless it rains.
- d) The electricity supply would fail if the workers at the power station (go on strike).
- e) If the rains come early next year, there (be) a good harvest.
- f) The headmistress would announce a holiday if she (have) the permission of the Ministry.

15. Change the infinitives in brackets to either the past simple or the past continuous tense.

The debate (begin) at four o'clock while some of the students still (arrive). The chairwoman (say) she (think) everybody should make an effort to arrive on time. She (read) out the motion for debate: "Cockroaches are found only in dirty houses ", and then (introduce) the main speakers. The proposer (speak) for ten minutes. The opposers (treat) the subject humorously and the applause for her speech (last) over a minute. Several people (speak) from the floor, but because of a time limit of two minutes for each speech some speakers (have) to stop while they still (develop) their arguments. As the proposer (make) her closing remarks, somebody (release) a cockroach which (run) in front of the main speakers. Since nobody (want) to admit that this was a dirty house, not one vote (be cast) for the motion.

Chapter Four: Verbs and Tenses

1. Re-write the following sentences using the correct words from the bracket given.
 - a) Poor people are not able (*to wear/put on clothes/dress*) well.
 - b) The teacher told the student to (*make/do*) her homework regularly if she wanted (*to make/do*) progress.
 - c) Her father was (*injured/wounded/hurt*) in the war and could no longer work.
 - d) I (*told/said*) him to come early.
 - e) By (*winning/beating*) that team we came third in the league.
 - f) He has been (*laying/lieing/lying*) in bed all morning.
 - g) I don't think my friend saw me because she didn't (*salute/greet*) me.
 - h) He (*lent/borrowed*) more than he could return.
 - i) Please (*say/tell*) him why you are late.
 - j) Their chickens have (*lied/lain/laid/lay*) plenty of eggs this week.

Assignments

- k) Although I speak Kiswahili fluently, I have never (*gone/been*) to Tanzania.
 - l) The train (*arrived/reached*) my town at seven in the morning.
 - m) The doctor told her to (*loose/lose*) weight.
 - n) The thieves (*stole/robbed*) all the jewelry.
 - o) The enemy (*lay/lied/laid*) down their arms last night.
2. Change the *infinitives* in brackets to the most suitable tense (conditional, past simple or past perfect).
- a) I wish that the examination (be) further away. It starts next Monday afternoon.
 - b) I wish you (repeat) what you have just told me so that I don't forget.
 - c) We wish we (plant) those seeds earlier last month.
 - d) I wish I (have) more books than I have.
 - e) I wish she (not tell) me how badly I had done. I feel very depressed now.
 - f) That farmer wishes her (not sell) all her cattle. She didn't get very much for them.
 - g) I wish I not (be) so lazy when I was in the ordinary level.
 - h) I wish she (stop) singing. I can't bear it any longer.
 - i) Our teacher wishes she (choose) another profession.
 - j) I wish we (not arrive) late for this film. I can't follow the story.

3. Use the following expressions in meaningful sentences, using the tenses indicated with causative *have* or *get*.

For example;

Mending the roof (future) have.

Answer: *We shall have the roof mended tomorrow.*

Installing a phone (past simple) get.

Answer: *We got a phone installed before we moved into that room.*

- a) Polishing the floor. (future perfect) have

Assignments

- b) Framing a picture. (past simple) get
 - c) Cutting down a tree. (future with *going to*) have
 - d) Marking this exercise. (future with *going to*) get
 - e) Cutting my hair. (past continuous) have
 - f) Cutting down this tree. (present continuous) get
 - g) Shortening the sleeves. (future) have
 - h) Making a table. (future) get
 - i) Washing that skirt. (conditional) have
 - j) Checking the bill. (conditional) get
4. Complete the following sentences using *am to*, *is to*, *are to*, *was to*, *were to*, as required by the sense.
- a) I be given another opportunity to take the examination.
 - b) Her mother retire next year.
 - c) The cost of electricity be increased soon.
 - d) All the doors in the dormitory be left open at night in future.
 - e) The next issue of the school magazine appear this October.
5. Supply *must*, *must have*, *can't*, *can't have*, *have*, as required in the following sentences.
- a) It been raining during the day since the ground is so dry.
 - b) My watch be wrong even though I had it repaired last month.
 - c) She left for work by now or she will be late.
 - d) Mazige come by bus instead of walking since he has arrived so early.
 - e) She be at home since she never leaves for work before this time.
6. Write five different sentences using the following verbs.
- a) were to. c) was to. e) am not to.
 - b) was not to. d) were not to. f) are not to.

Assignments

- g) is to. i) is not to.
h) are to. j) am to.

7. Write a sentence expressing the following ideas, using instead of the words in ***bolds*** one of the following in each case: *must, must have, can't, and can't have*.

For example;

I am sure *that railway is seven kilometers long.*

*Answer: That railway **must** be seven kilometers long.*

- a) **I am sure** *she succeeded because she worked so hard.*
b) **He is definitely** *older than he looks.*
c) **The battery in that radio has run out, I'm certain.**
d) **I'm sure** *there is a report on the basketball match in the newspaper.*
e) **Presumably** *that was Mr. Dogo who left.*
f) **I assume** *she is medically fit since she is in the army.*
g) **It's obvious** *the weather has been wet lately since the grass is so green.*
8. Change the verb in brackets to *-ing, present participle or infinitive* as required.
- a) We expect his (arrive) in Tanzania at ten o'clock.
b) Her father reminded her (post) the letter.
c) I felt the rain (fall) so I quickly put on my coat.
d) She has given up (study) Kiswahili.
e) As cigarettes affected her breathing, the doctor told her to try (smoke) a pipe.
f) Hark at the dog (bark).
g) Forgive me (ask) you, but have you forgotten my invitation?
h) I saw the bus (arrive) and when all the passengers had got off I went home.
i) Every student remembered (bring) his/her textbook with him/her and was able to do the exercise.

Assignments

- j) Without (take) care very little of lasting value can be achieved.
9. Join the following sentences, making the one in *bolds* a *past participial phrase*.
- a) **She had been up all night.** *She fell asleep during the afternoon lessons.*
- b) **I had read that book before.** *I didn't want to read it again.*
- c) *The student went to her desk.* **She had apologized to the teacher for coming late.**
- d) **She had been elected to the committee of the club.** *She knew she had to attend all the meetings.*
- e) **Mr. Rugeye had read my books on the subject.** *He was able to give us an interesting talk.*
10. Join the following sentences, making the one in *bolds* a *present participial phrase*.
- a) **He played basketball every evening.** *He soon lost weight.*
- b) **She was sitting at the back of the hall.** *She heard very little of the lecture.*
- c) **She wished to earn money to support her parents.** *She left school at seventeen.*
- d) **He found that chemistry did not interest him.** *He decided to drop the subject.*
- e) **The tutor knew that there would be a free afternoon.** *She gave us extra homework.*
11. Add to the following *participial phrase* so as to make sentences.

For example;

Walking along the road,

*Answer: Walking along the road, **she met her aunt.***

- a) *Having saved up enough money,*
- b) *Lifting up the lid of the box,*
- c) *Having searched for the number in the telephone directory,*

Assignments

- d) Searching in the dark for a torch,
 - e) Riding her bicycle along the main road,
12. Which is preferable in the gaps in the following sentences *must* or *have to*? The sense of the sentence is given in brackets.
- a) You spend the week with us. (We want you to.)
 - b) She take this medicine three times a day. (That's what the doctor ordered and I'm only repeating what she said.)
 - c) I hand in my assignment by tomorrow morning. (I know and accept that that is the latest time.)
 - d) I get up very early tomorrow morning. (I resent it, but there is nothing I can do about it.)
 - e) I copy out this exercise again. (I feel I should since my work looks very untidy.)
13. Complete the following sentences using *was able to*, *were able to*, *will be able to*, *shall be able to* if the idea of ability should be stressed. *Could* or *can* if the sense of the sentence is permission.
- a) She to drive her car to Dar-es-salaam as soon as it is repaired.
 - b) She drive her car to Mwanza as soon as she gets her driving license.
 - c) The cleaners not clean the dining room as it was locked.
 - d) The principal said we go to the football match.
 - e) Nobody leave before the end of the play because the regulations did not allow it.
 - f) He do exactly as he wishes when he leaves college.
 - g) We (do) have the debate as the electricity failed.
 - h) When he has lived in Tanzania for a year he speak the language fluently.
14. Change these sentences into the past by adding the adverbs of past time given in brackets.

Assignments

- a) We must get permission before leaving school. (last term)
- b) The gardener must water the garden every day. (during the dry weather)
- c) Ediud must pass an examination. (before he entered the college)
- d) I must return my library books. (last Saturday)
- e) She must save some money for her holiday. (last year)

15. Complete these sentences by supplying *must not* or *need not* as appropriate.

- a) One smoke at the petrol station.
- b) Members of the team train tomorrow as Sunday's match has been cancelled.
- c) I stay talking too long or my dinner will get cold.
- d) You make coffee without first boiling the water.
- e) Borrowers keep books longer than two weeks.
- f) She stay too late at the dance or she will miss the last bus home.

16. Expand the following into sentences containing the idea of compulsion using the suggested tense of the verb *have to*.

For example;

Leave early. (past simple)

Answer: *We had to leave early to catch the bus.*

- a) Take the examination again. (perfect conditional)
- b) Walk all the way. (present perfect)
- c) Buy a new battery for her radio. (past interrogative)
- d) Borrow money. (conditional negative)
- e) Complete the application form. (past simple)
- f) Learn to write more legibly. (future)
- g) Pay her school fees. (past simple negative)
- h) Stop playing netball. (present perfect interrogative)

17. Supply *didn't need to* or *needn't have* and the appropriate form of the verb as required in the following sentences.

Assignments

- a) I (ask) permission to leave since anybody could leave whenever they liked. (I didn't know that at the time.)
- b) He (rewrite) the sentence since it was right. (It was only later when his teacher gave him back his work that he realized the original sentence was right.)
- c) My aunt (build) a new house and decided instead simply to add three rooms to the one she already had.
- d) He (ask) for a loan as some money from his father was already on the way although he didn't realize it.
- e) You (tell) me as I knew already.
- f) We (put) more petrol in our tank since we had enough for the rest of the journey. (We didn't realize it at the time.)

Chapter Five: Direct and Indirect Speech

1. Write the following sentences into indirect speech form.

- a) 'Anybody who finds the ring and hands it in at a police station will be rewarded.' The notice said that ...
- b) 'The coffee crop has been much better this year and our earnings from exports will enable us to expand our home industries.' The minister told the conference that our ... (report two weeks later)
- c) 'Don't you know the way home?' I asked.
- d) 'Which is the proper way to answer this question, father?' the boy enquired.
- e) The teacher said to her, 'do not read so fast.'
- f) She said, 'oh! That's a nuisance.'
- g) 'Hurry up,' she said to her servant, 'do not waste time.'
- h) One day he sent for Merry and said to her, 'you are now old enough to earn your living, so you must set off, and make your own way in the world.'
- i) 'You have all done very badly!' remarked the teacher.
- j) He said to me, 'wait until I come.'

2. Put the following sentences into direct speech

Assignments

- a) He asked John to go with him.
- b) The master requested that they would attend carefully to what he was saying.
- c) He said that he was tired, and that he wished to go to bed.
- d) The mother asked her boy where he had been all the morning.
- e) He replied that he had promised to reward his soldiers and that he had kept his word.

Chapter Six: Regular and Irregular Verbs

From the verbs given, fill in the Past Tense or Past Participle

1. The toast was with great enthusiasm. (drink)
2. A better day for a drive could not have been (choose)
3. Recently the price of sugar has up. The argument home. The verdict against her. (go)
4. I I was in love again. (dream)
5. She has for the examination. (sit)
6. The story is tediously out. (spin)
7. After the storm we a spell of fine weather. (have)
8. Walking on the beach, we sight of a strange bird. She has a Tartar. (catch)
9. On the arrival of a policeman, she a hasty retreat. She the Sudan in a bloody battle. (beat)
10. Her path was with flowers. (strew)
11. The tempest the boat ashore. (blow)
12. Let us have with it. I my duty. (do)
13. Adam and his wife themselves from the presence of the Lord God. (hide)
14. Her enemies over her fall. (crow)
15. During the night the river had its banks. (overflow)
16. Not a drum was, not a funeral note. She hopes his prayer will be (hear)
17. She was accidentally in the arm. (shoot)

Assignments

18. Christ his crucifiers. (forgive)
19. He never to rise again. A certain man went down from Jerusalem to Jericho, and among thieves. He has asleep. (fall)

Chapter Seven: Parts of Speech

Name the part of speech of each word in the following sentences. Remember to give the reason for classification in each case.

1. She still lives in that house. (still)
2. Let us move on. (on)
3. I will watch while you sleep. (while)
4. They while away their evenings with books and games. (while)
5. She is on the committee. (on)
6. The after effects of the drug are bad. (after)
7. She told us all about the battle. (about)
8. Suddenly one of the wheels came off. (off)
9. She kept the fast for a month. (fast)
10. After the storm comes the calm. (after)

Use *for*, *since*, *at*, *in*, *on*, *by* where required in the following sentences:

11. World War II broke out 1939.
12. He will finish his exams four days' time.
13. She drinks a lot of milk the mornings.
14. I have been waiting over half an hour.
15. Her birthday is next Sunday.
16. the summer I will have my holidays.
17. He has been collecting stamps the age of twelve.
18. She was headmistress of that school twenty years.
19. She studied three hours last night.
20. He did not finish her work time to check it.
21. I used to live Mwanza.

Assignments

22. My house is the top of the hill.
23. She was Tanzania when the President was here.
24. There has been an accident the main road.
25. She put her desk the middle of the room.
26. I was swimming the lake.
27. my village there is one primary school.
28. JUMA ISLAND is one of the islands Lake Victoria.
29. She was sitting her desk the middle of the room.
30. There is a bus-stop the end of the road.
31. Rewrite the following sentences using prepositions where it is applicable.

John is my friend. John is in form five. John's father is a doctor. My father loves John very much.

Chapter Eight: Punctuation

1. a) Define the term punctuation.
b) Define the term punctuation marks.
2. What are the uses of the following punctuation marks?
 - a) Colon
 - b) Question mark
 - c) Ellipsis
 - d) Full stop
 - e) Comma
3. With examples, differentiate between the following punctuation marks.
 - a) Colon and Hyphen
 - b) Question mark and Semicolon
 - c) Ellipsis and Quotation mark
 - d) Ellipsis and Apostrophe
 - e) Full stop and Exclamation mark
4. Punctuate the following sentences;
 - a) Take away that bauble said Didas pointing to the mace which lay upon the table and when the House was empty

Assignments

he went out with the key in his pocket

- b) Truly a popular error has as many lives as a cat it comes walking long after you have imagined it effectually strangled
 - c) If you look about you and consider the lives of others as well as your own if you think how few are born with honor and how many die without name or children how little beauty we see and how few friends we hear of how many diseases and how much poverty there is in the world you will fall down upon knees and instead of repining at one affliction will admire so many blessings which you have received from the hand of God
5. Put full stops or change commas to full stops or full stops to commas where necessary:
- i) Most of the students are boys, some are over eighteen.
 - ii) Some people live to eat. While others eat to live.
6. Add question marks or exclamation marks where necessary:
- i) She wanted to know if I had seen the headmistress.
 - ii) If only I had known before today.
 - iii) How very foolish of you to think that he would arrive on time.
 - iv) I heard the commands shouted in the barracks: "Attention. Quick march. Stand at ease."
 - v) "Did you hear the chairman say, 'The fee will be raised next year'."
7. Put commas and use capital letters where necessary in the following:
- i) her mother who used to work as a nurse looked after her well when she was sick.
 - ii) looking through the telescope the students saw the planet mars.

Assignments

- iii) having been warned about her work on three previous occasions the clerk was not surprised when she was given notice.
 - iv) the essay which she wrote last night was for our new kiswahili teacher mr mazige but the one I am writing now is for the college magazine.
 - v) joining the school late in the year korushushu found it very difficult to retain her place.
 - vi) however hard she tries no first-year student will ever be able to understand such a difficult book.
8. What is meant by apostrophe and how can it be used in academic work?

Chapter Nine: Relative Clauses

- 1: Complete the following sentences by filling in the blanks with suitable relative pronouns *unless no relative is necessary* (i.e. omit the relatives wherever possible).
- a) We always like girls speak the truth.
 - b) She does her best shall be praised.
 - c) Here is the pen you lost.
 - d) She is a woman you can trust.
 - e) I have said, I have said.
 - f) Is this the street leads to the station?
 - g) Such books you read are not worth reading.
 - h) That woman will not work must starve.
 - i) pleases you will please me.
 - j) The pen is lying on the table is mine.
 - k) Anybody comes is welcome.
 - l) The toothbrush she used is almost worn out.
 - m) On her way to Tanzania, she had visited before, she stopped in several African countries.
 - n) I haven't seen the boy suitcase was stolen.

Assignments

2: Connect the following pairs of sentences, making one a relative clause but using a relative pronoun or adverb only when necessary and remembering to use essential commas.

- a) I met a boy. He was very cruel.
- b) Those boys were kept in. They had been very lazy.
- c) Do you like this suit? I have just bought it.
- d) You were telling me about a singer. How old is he?
- e) The official gave me a travel warrant and some other documents. I needed them for my journey.
- f) The woman is deaf. You spoke to the woman.
- g) He is a rogue. No one trusts him.
- h) Once upon a time there lived a giant. The giant was very powerful and cruel.
- i) A man came running up. He heard the calling.

Chapter Ten: Spelling

- 1. One word is misspelt in each of the following sentences below. Give the correct spelling and state the relevant rule.
- a) I do not beleive a word she says.
- b) Her mistakes are not very noticable.
- c) The candidate conceeded defeat.
- d) Candidates will be informed officially of the results in November.
- e) She did a lot of unecessary work.
- f) She spent all her money at the begining of the first semester.
- g) They entertained their friends last Sunday.
- h) The scientist invented a useful devise.
- i) Inspite of trying hard she was unsuccessful.
- j) All the students were successfull in the examination.
- k) There is no doubt that the prisoner was lieing when she made the statement.
- l) She felt greatly releived when she received the letter.

Assignments

m) Her absence went unnoticed.

2. Fill the gaps in the sentences below by adding *every one* or *everyone*.

i) The referee said the match could not continue until of the players was ready.

ii) I met at the party was enjoying herself.

iii) of those girls has been in the school over four years.

iv) Has arrived?

3. Fill the gaps in the sentences below by adding *every day* or *everyday*.

i) It happens

ii) I go there

iii) It is an occurrence.

iv) For a soldier hardship may be an experience.

4. Fill the gaps in the sentences below by adding *all together* or *altogether*.

i) This is an insoluble problem.

ii) Her brother is too mean.

iii) no less than two thousands students entered the competition.

iv) She put her exercise books in a box.

5. Fill the gaps in the sentences below by adding *every body* or *everybody*.

i) in the mortuary is washed before burial.

ii) The headmistress said that should leave the school by six o'clock.

iii) I have met agrees with me on the subject.

6. Fill the gaps in the sentences below by adding *all ready* or *already*.

i) It has rained.

ii) The players are to begin.

- iii) Are the parcels for posting?
- iv) She had been told.

Chapter Eleven: Word Formation

1. Identify five ways of forming new words and give two examples for each.
2. Define the compound word formation. How can compound word formation be expressed?
3. Differentiate between derivation and inflection.
4. Identify the types of inflectional affixes in the English language.

Chapter Twelve: Words Expressing Quantity

1. Put *some* or *any* as necessary in the following sentences;
 - a) She hasn't ink left.
 - b) Write a composition of length you like.
 - c) Has he read novels this term?
 - d) She was unable to give us advice.
 - e) I hope there won't be rain tomorrow.
 - f) That question is so easy that student could answer it.
 - g) Is there coffee left in the tin? There ought to be.
 - h) If there are latecomers they won't be admitted.
 - i) languages are much more difficult than Kiswahili.
 - j) He hasn't children.
 - k) She asked if I had seen films this week.
 - l) Please buy milk this morning. We have hardly left.
 - m) Have you met foreigners in your town?
 - n) She gave me book I asked for.
 - o) of the work was completed by eleven o'clock.
 - p) They had money but not enough.
 - q) She didn't give me news.
 - r) dictionaries are useless.
 - s) She couldn't find book on the subject.
 - t) artists are poor men.

Assignments

- u) Do you want soup? (Expecting the answer *yes*)
2. Write six sentences using *any* in conditional sentences.
 3. Write six sentences using *some* in affirmative sentences.
 4. Write six sentences using *any* in negative sentences.
 5. Write six sentences using *some* in questions expecting the answer *yes*.
 6. Write six sentences using *any* in questions.
 7. Write six sentences using *some* with the meaning *not all*.
 8. Write six sentences using *any* with the meaning *no matter which*.
 9. Put *much*, *many* or other suitable expressions of quantity or number in the gaps in the following sentences:
 - a) She read geography when she was young.
 - b) My sister has money.
 - c) There are rose bushes in her garden.
 - d) Did the postman bring letters?
 - e) There was water on the grass.
 - f) So people applied for that post that I don't think I will get it.
 - g) The librarian has ordered books for the school library.
 - h) That author has written books.
 - i) They have time to spare this month.
 - j) Were there students at the debate?
 10. Combine the following pairs of sentences using *too* in place of *very*:

For example;

This book is very difficult. It is not suitable for first year students.

*This book is **too** difficult for first year students.*

- a) That box is very heavy. I can't carry it.
- b) The rent of this house is very high. They can't pay it.
- c) The ground was very stony. The plants wouldn't grow.

Assignments

- d) She was very young. She wasn't allowed to get married.
- e) The light from this torch is very faint. We can't see our way.
- f) The water in the tank is very dirty. They can't drink it.
- g) This road is very narrow. The bus can't go along it.
- h) She is very short. She can't become a policeman.
- i) Her handwriting is very untidy. I can't read it.
- j) She is very stupid. She can't pass the simplest exam.

11. Combine the following pairs of sentences using *enough*:

For example;

He knows some Kiswahili. He understands what I said.

*He knows **enough** Kiswahili to understand what I said.*

- a) The water was deep. We were able to swim in it.
- b) Her exam results were quite good. She was promoted.
- c) She speaks French very well. She could pass as a Frenchman.
- d) He bought some cloth. It will make three shirts.
- e) She is quite clever. She will go to the university.
- f) The trousers he was wearing were long. They could have been worn by his elder brother.
- g) There was some food in the store. We all had something to eat.
- h) She went to school for some time. She learnt to read and write.
- i) It was still light. They were able to finish the game.
- j) The passage was short. They were able to study it in one lesson.

12. Rewrite the following sentences using *too* or *enough* according to the sense:

For example;

My uncle is quite strong and can lift a motorcycle alone.

*My uncle is strong **enough** to lift a motorcycle alone.*

The bread was so stale that we couldn't eat it.

Assignments

*The bread was **too** stale for us to eat.*

- a) She saved up some money and bought a plot.
- b) He arrived so late that he couldn't catch the bus.
- c) Her desk is so untidy she can't work at it.
- d) He was very ill and couldn't go to work.
- e) The explanation of the meaning of the word was so difficult I couldn't understand it.
- f) That small radio is powerful and can pick up stations thousands of miles away.
- g) Her mother is so quite young and may marry again.
- h) Radio reception was so poor that we didn't hear the announcement.
- i) The sun shone for quite a long time and dried up the pools of water in the streets.
- j) There were so many people in front of me that I couldn't see the procession.

13. Identify all nouns in the following sentences.

- a) Bihemo wrote a book about his father.
- b) There is only one way to discover the truth.
- c) He used this umbrella in Alabama.
- d) After the rain, the electrician checked the box.
- e) The end of the afternoon arrived quickly.
- f) The ostrich and the orangutan are interesting.
- g) My doctor and my orthodontist are neighbors.
- h) In the evening, Archie likes to go boating.
- i) Unfortunately, he had a rash and an allergy.
- j) Her height and agility helped her win the match.

Chapter Thirteen: Word order

- 1. Rearrange each of the following groups of words in the normal, unemphatic order of English sentences. The words within each pair of dashes must remain in the order they appear.

Assignments

- a) – to his parent's home – at weekends – often – goes – he –
 - b) – usually – flight – from Tanzania – four times a week – there is –
 - c) – often – she – to church – twice – goes – on Sundays –
 - d) – chess – this term – every Saturday – play – will – he –
 - e) – he was – when – at elementary school – sometimes – told he was lazy – he – was –
 - f) – finished – his speech – scarcely – had he – when – among the audience – broke out – disorder –
 - g) – gets up – he – before six o'clock – never – these days –
 - h) – before – had – been – we – there – never –
 - i) – to do – usually – a lot of revision – before – have – we – examinations –
 - j) – hardly – this year – able – be – her education – to complete – she will –
2. Arrange the adjectives in the correct order before the noun, changing *a* to *an* where necessary.
- a) Some oil (cooking fresh)
 - b) A bag (empty large)
 - c) A shirt (green nylon wet)
 - d) A lamp (gas dim)
 - e) A carpet (beautiful multicoloured square)

Chapter Fourteen: Possession

1. Fill the correct answer from the bracket
- a) That coat is ... (my/mine)
 - b) You might want ... phone. (your/yours)
 - c) The new car is ... (their/theirs)
 - d) The grey scarf is ... (mine/my)
 - e) Are these phones ... (their/theirs)
 - f) The ... leaves are red (trees'/trees's)
 - g) The ... backpacks were all in the closet. (childrens'/children's)

Assignments

- h) The ... dresses arrived on time. (womens' / women's)
 - i) The ... habitat was very clean. (aniamals' / animal's)
2. Write the words in the correct order
- a) my is Edna sister's name.
 - b) are parents' names his George and Fatuma.
 - c) our is son John teacher's.
 - d) is Juma father Natasha's
3. Rewrite these sentences using the correct form of the possessive 's.
- a) The girls bathroom has just been painted.
 - b) Can you borrow your parents car at the weekend?
 - c) Have you visited Peter and John new shop?
 - d) What is your friend name?
 - e) I read about a murder in this morning newspaper.

Chapter Fifteen: Pronouns

1. Underline the correct pronoun.
- a) *John and **me/I** went to town.*
 - b) *Baraka and **we/us** did the work.*
 - c) ***They/them** are very reliable students.*
 - d) *Don't forget to tell **them/they** the directions.*
 - e) *Please inform **they/them** that their car is ready.*
 - f) *What if **they/them** forget to bring all their materials?*
 - g) *The boy **who/whom** came here yesterday is my friend.*
2. Explain the difference in meaning between the following sentences.
- a) *Rose loves David more than me.*
 - b) *Rose Loves David more than I.*
3. Replace the underlined words with the appropriate pronouns in the brackets. Use capital letters when necessary. (she, her, he, him, it, we, us, they, them)

Assignments

- a) My aunt lives in Dar es salaam but my aunt often comes to visit my family and me.
 - b) I saw Mr. John this morning and gave Mr. John my homework.
 - c) If you have your ticket, you can give your ticket to that man over there.
 - d) Joyleen and I paid for the meal but the waiter forgot to bring Joyleen and me the food.
 - e) John is a really nice guy. I like John a lot.
 - f) First, my friend and I went shopping. Later, my friend and I went home.
 - g) Where was Judith? I didn't see Judith at the party last week.
 - h) The planet Mars has two moons. The two moons are both very small.
 - i) I really like cake. Unfortunately, I didn't have time to finish the cake.
 - j) Edwin likes computer games but he doesn't play computer games very often.
4. Choose the correct answer from the bracket and fill in the sentence bellow.
- a) Everyone is so hungry, ... can hardly wait. (her, we, me, them)
 - b) ... want to leave by 6:15pm. (we, her, me, us)
 - c) "Did ... like your spaghetti?" Mother asked Jacline. (me, you, they, we)
 - d) My mother said ... was the best lemonade she ever had. (him, it, I, them)
 - e) ... have waited a long time to get in here. (him, she, me, we)
 - f) By the time our food arrived, ... were starving. (her, me, them, we)
 - g) "... was fantastic!" Aisha exclaimed. (it, me, you, us)

Assignments

- h) ... all enjoyed the food and then ordered dessert. (we, her, you, it)
- i) When will ... be ready to go? (him, he, me, us)
- 5. What kind of pronoun is used in the sentence?
 - a) The guy whom Joel admires the most is my cousin.
 - b) The teacher gave herself a long weekend.
 - c) Someone took a picture of Musa and John.
 - d) Ediud taught himself Japanese.
 - e) This pencil was made in Kenya.
 - f) Your deadline is as close as mine!
 - g) Jane made a promise to visit John this weekend. She seems so excited about it.
 - h) The athletes congratulated each other after the Olympics.
 - i) The girl herself published the poems.
- 6. Underline the pronouns in each sentence.
 - a) Jane went to school early. She is a great student.
 - b) Godwin's family loves take away. They eat it every Friday.
 - c) The new teacher is so friendly. She is kind to everyone.
 - d) John has new shoes. He loves them a lot.
 - e) Musa plays soccer on Saturdays. He is the best player.
 - f) John and Jane work at the bakery. They love working there.
- 7. Substitute the underlined words with subjective or objective pronouns.
 - a) The team meets every Saturday morning.
 - b) Open your book now!
 - c) John speaks English fluently.
 - d) Do you understand all of the questions?
 - e) Avelina reads books on the bus.
 - f) Please, don't tell my parents.

Assignments

- g) Joan likes her science fiction books.
 - h) Edna and I are ill in bed now.
 - i) My mother gives my sister and me an orange every morning.
 - j) John and his sister have bread and butter for breakfast every day.
8. Undeline the personal pronouns in each sentence and then classify whether they are subjective or objective pronouns.
- a) The houses were destroyed by the typhoon, but they were fixed after a month.
 - b) Mary is very busy. I cannot reach her on the phone.
 - c) Mery and Jane planned on playing netball today but they forgot to bring the ball.
 - d) Edwin is a nice person. Everybody in the group loves him.
 - e) Justina is such a genuine kid, and she is also very polite.
 - f) The cake flavor you want is unavailable. It sold out in just five minutes.

LIST OF SYNONYMS

Abandon – Desert, Leave, Forsake	Emotion – Fremor, Passion, Feeling
Ability – Skill, Capacity, Capability	Enemy – Foe, Opponent, Antagonist
Abundant – Ample, Plentiful, Copious	Enquire – Seek, Search, Pry
Adore – Worship, Idolize, Admire	Entire – Whole, Total, Complete
Alive – Lively, Vivacious, Living	Eradicate – Exterminate, Destroy, Eliminate
Ally – Colleague, Accomplice, Partner	Esteem – Love, Value, Honour
Alms – Offertory, Dole, Gratuity	Excess – Surplus, Increase, Surfeit
Assent – Consent, Agree, Acquiesce	External – Ceaseless, Infinite, Perpetual
Bad – Naughty, Worthless, Evil	Famous – Celebrate, Eminent, Renowned
Beautify – Decorate, Adorn, Smarten	Fashion – Custom, Style, Form
Beg – Implore, Solicit, Beseech	Fasten – Bind, Fix, Join
Behaviour – Deportment, Demeanour, Conduct	Fatal – Deadly, Mortal, Lethal
Big – Large, Bulky, Immense	Fate – Lot, End, Destiny
Blessing – Benison, Benediction, Sanction	Fault – Error, Defect, Flaw
Brittle – Frail, Fragile, Delicate	Firm – Durable, Lasting, Substantial
Burglar – Bandit, Thief, Brigand	Float – Glide, Drift, Slip
Busy – Diligent, Active, Assiduous	Fond – Loving, Devoted, Affectionate
Care – Solicitude, Anxiety, Concern	Frank – Outspoken, Artless, Sincere
Catch – Capture, Arrest, Apprehend	Friend – Comrade, Colleague, Companion
Cause – Purpose, Motive, Reason	Frugal – Sparing, Economical, Thrifty
Choose – Select, Discriminate, Differentiate	Fruitful – Fertile, Productive, Fecund
Clever – Precocious, Versatile, Ingenious	Game – Sport, Fun, Pastime
Clothes – Attire, Garb, Raiment	Gay – Cheerful, Merry, Jolly
Constant – Eternal, Perpetual, Continuous	Gaze – Peer, Espy, Stare
Cross – Crusty, Fretful, Ill-Humoured	General – Universal, Common, Broad
Cruelty – Persecution, Tyranny, Oppression	Generous – Liberal, Noble, Big-Hearted
Dangerous – Risky, Hazardous, Perilous	Genuine – Pure, Real, Actual
Dear – Costly, Expensive, Precious	Good – Righteous, True, Virtuous
Difficult – Hard, Intricate, Perplexing	Habit – Usage, Way, Custom
Disaster – Calamity, Adversity, Catastrophe	Hateful – Execrable, Detestable, Abominable
Discourse – Sermon, Exhortation, Lecture	Help – Assist, Aid, Support
Disfigure – Deface, Injure, Mar	High – Tall, Elaborate, Lofty
Dishonest – Unjust, Unfair, Fraudulent	Hinder – Obstruct, Impede, Thwart
Disorder – Confusion, Chaos, Mess	Home – Dwelling, Abode, Residence
Dull – Dreary, Gloomy, Backward	Increase – Enlarge, Amplify, Extend
Eager – Keen, Enthusiastic, Ready	Infinite – Eternal, Boundless, Limitless
Earn – Achieve, Win, Acquire	Injure – Hurt, Harm, Wrong
Ebb – Wane, Recede, Sink	Insolvent – Bankrupt, Bust, Broke
Educate – Guide, Teach, Instruct	Invasion – Raid, Attack, Assault
Eject – Expel, Emit, Cast	Invoke – Call, Summon, Raise
Elevate – Lift, Improve, Heighten	Irritate – Tease, Provoke, Bother
Elude – Avoid, Fool, Cheat	Kind – Thoughtful, Tender, Good

List of Synonyms

<i>Laughable – Funny, Pathetic, Pitiful</i>	<i>Praise – Compliment, Commend, Applaud</i>
<i>Lazy – Indolent, Idle, Inactive</i>	<i>Predict – Presage, Herald, Foretell</i>
<i>Leave – Quit, Relinquish, Depart</i>	<i>Pretty – Beautiful, Lovely, Fine</i>
<i>Look – Glimpse, Seem, Stare</i>	<i>Propagate – Broadcast, Advertise, Increase</i>
<i>Loyal – Faithful, Reliable, Trusty</i>	<i>Quiet – Calm, Still, Serene</i>
<i>Lucid – Clear, Cogent, Logical</i>	<i>Quote – Cite, Extract, Excerpt</i>
<i>Lure – Wax, Entice, Beguile</i>	<i>Rash – Careless, Reckless, Tactless</i>
<i>Magnificent – Grand, Majestic, Superb</i>	<i>Real – Authentic, Original, Genuine</i>
<i>Map – Plan, Design, Chart</i>	<i>Recreation – Amusement, Entertainment</i>
<i>Mature – Ripe, Adult, Older</i>	<i>Recruit – Tiro, Novice, Amateur</i>
<i>Merry – Gay, Mirthful, Jolly</i>	<i>Refugee – Outlaw, Exile, Fugitive</i>
<i>Mistake – Error, Fault, Blunder</i>	<i>Reprove – Reproach, Scold, Rebuke</i>
<i>Motive – Reason, Purpose, Cause</i>	<i>Rude – Insolent, Impolite, Offensive</i>
<i>Mute – Dumb, Quit, Silent</i>	<i>Rule – Govern, Supervise, Manage</i>
<i>Narrate – Tell, Say, Report</i>	<i>Safe – Secure, Locked, Sure</i>
<i>Naughty – Mischievous, Bad, Wicked</i>	<i>Scorn – Despise, Abhor, Condemn</i>
<i>Necessary – Needful, Essential, Requisite</i>	<i>See – Behold, View, Scan</i>
<i>Necessity – Want, Need, Requisite</i>	<i>Silent – Taciturn, Speechless, Reticent</i>
<i>Noisy – Rowdy, Strident, Loud</i>	<i>Sin – Vice, Crime, Guile</i>
<i>Nuptial – Marriage, Bridal, Marital</i>	<i>Sly – Crafty, Wily, Subtle</i>
<i>Obey – Yield, Submit, Conform</i>	<i>Small – Tiny, Puny, Little</i>
<i>Oblation – Gift, Offering, Reward</i>	<i>Souvenir – Memento, Token, Remembrance</i>
<i>Obscene – Indecent, Impure, Vile</i>	<i>Spread – Scatter, Distribute, Diffuse</i>
<i>Obscure – Dark, Vague, Murky</i>	<i>Strange – Alien, Immigrant, Foreigner</i>
<i>Obstinate – Stubborn, Adamant, Persistent</i>	<i>Strict – Severe, Stern, Harsh</i>
<i>Occur – Happen, Arise, Transpire</i>	<i>Strong – Powerful, Robust, Able</i>
<i>Odious – Offensive, Hateful, Horrible</i>	<i>Suitable – Appropriate, Becoming, Befitting</i>
<i>Old – Ancient, Obsolete, Antique</i>	<i>Surrender – Yield, Abandon, Submit</i>
<i>Omen – Sign, Augury, Foreboding</i>	<i>Tale – Story, Fiction, Legend</i>
<i>Oral – Verbal, Unwritten, Spoken</i>	<i>Thought – Idea, View, Notion</i>
<i>Oratory – Eloquence, Rhetoric, Speechifying</i>	<i>Throw – Fling, Hurt, Toss</i>
<i>Pale – Wan, Pallid, Pastel</i>	<i>Timid – Cowardly, Fearful, Faint-Hearted</i>
<i>Pardon – Excuse, Forgive</i>	<i>Trust – Rely, Believe, Hope</i>
<i>Patron – Champion, Advocate, Supporter</i>	<i>Try – Attempt, Strive, Essay</i>
<i>Peculiar – Strange, Odd, Weird</i>	<i>Ugly – Hideous, Horrid, Repulsive</i>
<i>Persuade – Induce, Urge, Incite</i>	<i>Utter – Speak, Sheer, Absolute</i>
<i>Pitiful – Sympathetic, Consoling, Merciful</i>	<i>Value – Esteem, Worth, Reverence</i>
<i>Plead – Entreat, Argue, Beg</i>	<i>Victory – Conquest, Triumph, Win</i>
<i>Polite – Affable, Civil, Obliging</i>	<i>Weak – Feeble, Impotent, Frail</i>
<i>Poor – Needy, Destitute, Meager</i>	<i>Wholesome – Healthy, Salutary, Good</i>
<i>Port – Harbour, Shelter, Haven</i>	<i>Wonder – Amazement, Surprise</i>
<i>Poverty – Want, Penury, Paucity</i>	<i>Zone – Area, Region, District</i>
<i>Power – Ability, Capacity, Talent</i>	

LIST OF ANTONYMS

Words	Antonyms	Words	Antonyms
Ability	- Inability	Best	- Worst
Above	- Below	Bitter	- Sweet
Abundance	- Scarcity	Black	- White
Accept	- Reject/Refuse	Blessing	- Curse
Accurate	- Inaccurate	Blunt	- Sharp
Acknowledge	- Deny	Bold	- Timid
Acquit	- Convict	Bottom	- Top
Active	- Inactive	Bow	- Stern
Acute	- Obtuse	Brave	- Coward
Advance	- Retreat	Bright	- Dull
Adversity	- Prosperity	Broad	- Narrow
Advantage	- Disadvantage	Buy	- Sell
Aged	- Young	Calm	- Disturbed
Agree	- Disagree	Capable	- Incapable
Alive	- Dead	Care	- Neglect
Allow	- Disallow	Careful	- Careless
Alone	- Together	Cheap	- Expensive
Always	- Never	Cheerful	- Gloomy
Analysis	- Synthesis	Clean	- Dirty
Ancestor	- Descendent	Clever	- Stupid
Ancient	- Modern	Coarse	- Fine
Angel	- Devil	Cold	- Hot
Angry	- Pleased	Collect	- Disperse
Answer	- Question	Combine	- Separate
Antonym	- Synonym	Comfort	- Discomfort
Apart	- Together	Common	- Rare
Appear	- Disappear	Complainant	- Defendant
Arrival	- Departure	Complex	- Simple
Artificial	- Natural	Compulsory	- Voluntary
Ascent	- Dissent	Conceal	- Reveal
Asleep	- Awake	Concord	- Discord
Attack	- Defend	Condemn	- Concrete
Attractive	- Repulsive	Confine	- Release
Backward	- Forward	Confusion	- Orderliness
Bad	- Good	Continue	- Discontinue
Barbarous	- Civilized	Contract	- Expand
Barren	- Fertile	Contrast	- Comparison
Base	- Noble	Convex	- Concave
Beauty	- Ugliness's	Country	- Town
Before	- Behind	Courage	- Cowardice
Beginning	- End	Create	- Destroy
Belief	- Doubt or Disbelief	Creation	- Destruction
Beneficial	- Harmful	Credit	- Cash

List of Antonyms

Words	Antonyms	Words	Antonyms
Crude	- Refined	Exterior	- Interior
Cruel	- Kind	External	- Internal
Danger	- Safety	Fail	- Pass
Day	- Night	False	- True
Dead	- Alive	Familiar	- Unfamiliar
Death	- Birth	Famous	- Notorious
Deep	- Shallow, Light	Far	- Near
Defeat	- Victory	Fast	- Slow
Different	- Similar	Fat	- Thin
Deficit	- Surplus	Few	- Many
Delay	- Haste	Fine	- Rough
Demand	- Supply	First	- Last
Dependent	- Independent	Float	- Sink
Deposit	- Withdraw	Foolish	- Wise
Despair	- Hope	Forget	- Remember
Difficult	- Easy	Former	- Latter
Diligent	- Lazy	Fortunate	- Unfortunate
Discount	- Premium	Found	- Lost
Disease	- Health	Free	- Bound
Divide	- Multiply	Freedom	- Slavery
Dry	- Wet	Frequent	- Occasional
Dusk	- Dawn	Fresh	- Stale
Dwarf	- Giant	Front	- Back
Eager	- Reluctant	Fruitful	- Fruitless
Early	- Late	Gaiety	- Melancholy
East	- West	Gain	- Loss
Easy	- Difficult	Gather	- Scatter
Economy	- Extravagance	Gay	- Grave
Elevation	- Depression	General	- Particular
Emigrant	- Immigrant	Generous	- Selfish
Employed	- Unemployed	Gentile	- Jew
Empty	- Full	Genuine	- Counterfeit
Enemy	- Friend	Give	- Take
Enjoy	- Dislike	Glory	- Shame
Enmity	- Friendship	Go	- Come
Enrich	- Impoverish	Good	- Bad
Enter	- Exit	Grant	- Refuse
Entrance	- Exit	Grateful	- Ungrateful
Ever	- Never	Great	- Tiny
Exact	- Inaccurate	Greatness	- Smallness
Excess	- Shortage	Grieve	- Rejoice
Exhale	- Inhale	Guest	- Dweller
Expand	- Contract	Guilty	- Innocent
Expected	- Unexpected	Happy	- Unhappy
Export	- Import	Hard	- Soft

List of Antonyms

Words	Antonyms	Words	Antonyms
Harm	- Help	Land	- Water
Harmful	- Harmless	Late	- Early
Haste	- Delay	Latitude	- Longitude
Hate	- Love	Laugh	- Weep
Head	- Tail	Lawful	- Illegal
Healthy	- Diseased	Leader	- Ollower
Heaven	- Hell	Lend	- Borrow
Heavy	- Light	Length	- Breadth
Here	- There	Lenient	- Strict
Hero	- Villain	Let	- Hire
Heroic	- Base	Level	- Steep
Hide	- Show	Liberty	- Slavery
High	- Low	Light	- Darkness/Heavy
Hill	- Valley	Like	- Dislike
Hollow	- Solid	Liquid	- Solid
Honest	- Dishonest	Living	- Dead
Honour	- Shame	Long	- Short
Hope	- Despair	Loose	- Tight
Hopeful	- Hopeless	Loud	- Soft
Hostile	- Friendly	Love	- Hate
Humble	- Proud	Lovely	- Repulsive
Idle	- Busy	Loyal	- Disloyal
Ignorance	- Knowledge	Major	- Minor
Ill	- Well	Majority	- Minority
Import	- Export	Make	- Mar
Important	- Unimportant	Male	- Female
Improve	- Deteriorate	Many	- Some/Few
In	- Out	Masculine	- Feminine
Incessantly	- Rarely	Master	- Servant
Include	- Exclude	Maximum	- Minimum
Increase	- Decrease	Merit	- Demerit
Indigenous	- Exotic	Mighty	- Weak
Industrious	- Sloth	Mild	- Harsh
Inferior	- Superior	Miser	- Spendthrift
Ingenuous	- Insincere	Monogamy	- Polygamy
Inhale	- Exhale	Monotony	- Variety
Initial	- Final	Moral	- Immoral
Intentional	- Accidental	Morning	- Evening
Interesting	- Dull/Uninteresting	Mortal	- Immortal
Joy	- Sorrow	Motion	- Rest
Junior	- Senior	Mountain	- Plain
Juniority	- Seniority	Movable	- Immovable
Justice	- Injustice	Much	- Little
Kind	- Cruel	Multiply	- Divide
Knowledge	- Ignorance	Natural	- Unnatural

List of Antonyms

Words	Antonyms	Words	Antonyms
Near	- Far/Distant	Public	- Private
Negative	- Positive	Pugnacious	- Peaceful
New	- Old	Punctual	- Late
Next	- Previous	Punish	- Reward
Normal	- Abnormal	Pure	- Mixed/Impure
Nothing	- Everything	Question	- Answer
Notorious	- Famous	Quick	- Slow
Numerous	- Sparse	Quiet	- Noisy
Obey	- Defy/Disobey	Raise	- Lower
Odd	- Even	Real	- Unreal/ Imaginary
Offer	- Refuse	Rear	- Front
Often	- Seldom	Reject	- Accept
Old	- Young	Rejoice	- Mourn/Grieve
Open	- Shut	Right	- Left/ Wrong
Optimism	- Pessimism	Rigid	- Flexible
Optional	- Compulsory	Rise	- Fall
Oral	- Written	Rough	- Smooth
Ordinary	- Unique/Rare	Rural	- Urban
Pardon	- Punish	Safety	- Danger
Part	- Whole	Sin	- Virtue
Peace	- War	Sink	- Swim
Pedestrian	- Passenger	Slender	- Stout
Permanent	- Temporary	Slow	- Fast
Persuade	- Dissuade	Smart	- Non-smart/Dull
Pleasant	- Unpleasant	Smile	- Frown
Please	- Displease	Sober	- Intoxicated
Pleasure	- Pain	Soft	- Hard
Polite	- Rude	Spacious	- Limited
Poor	- Rich	Straight	- Crooked
Posterity	- Ancestry	Summit	- Base
Powerful	- Feeble	Superior	- Inferior
Praise	- Defame	Surplus	- Deficit
Precept	- Ambiguity	Sweet	- Better/Sour
Predecessor	- Successor	Tall	- Short
Presence	- Absence	Tame	- Wild
Present	- Absent	Teach	- Learn
Pride	- Humility	Thick	- Thin
Profit	- Loss	Top	- Base
Prolific	- Sterile	Tragedy	- Comedy
Prologue	- Epilogue	Transparent	- Opaque
Prompt	- Slow	Trust	- Doubt/Distrust
Proper	- Common	Truth	- Falsehood
Prose	- Verse	Unite	- Separate
Prospective	- Retrospective	Up	- Down
Prudence	- Indiscretion	Use	- Misuse

List of Antonyms

Words*Vacant**Vague**Valour**Verbal**Virtue**Visible**Warm***Antonyms***- Occupied**- Definite**- Cowardice**- Written**- Vice**- Invisible**- Cool***Words***Weak**Wide**Wisdom**Wise**Work**Yield***Antonyms***- Strong**- Narrow**- Folly**- Foolish**- Rest**- Resist*

LIST OF REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS

Regular verbs

Present Tense (Mother verb)	Present Participle	Past Tense	Past Participle
<i>Abuse</i>	<i>Abusing</i>	<i>Abused</i>	<i>Abused</i>
<i>Accept</i>	<i>Accepting</i>	<i>Accepted</i>	<i>Accepted</i>
<i>Accuse</i>	<i>Accusing</i>	<i>Accused</i>	<i>Accused</i>
<i>Ache</i>	<i>Aching</i>	<i>Ached</i>	<i>Ached</i>
<i>Achieve</i>	<i>Achieving</i>	<i>Achieved</i>	<i>Achieved</i>
<i>Act</i>	<i>Acting</i>	<i>Acted</i>	<i>Acted</i>
<i>Adapt</i>	<i>Adapting</i>	<i>Adapted</i>	<i>Adapted</i>
<i>Add</i>	<i>Adding</i>	<i>Added</i>	<i>Added</i>
<i>Address</i>	<i>Addressing</i>	<i>Addressed</i>	<i>Addressed</i>
<i>Adjust</i>	<i>Adjusting</i>	<i>Adjusted</i>	<i>Adjusted</i>
<i>Admire</i>	<i>Admiring</i>	<i>Admired</i>	<i>Admired</i>
<i>Agree</i>	<i>Agreeing</i>	<i>Agreed</i>	<i>Agreed</i>
<i>Aim</i>	<i>Aiming</i>	<i>Aimed</i>	<i>Aimed</i>
<i>Allow</i>	<i>Allowing</i>	<i>Allowed</i>	<i>Allowed</i>
<i>Announce</i>	<i>Announcing</i>	<i>Announced</i>	<i>Announced</i>
<i>Answer</i>	<i>Answering</i>	<i>Answered</i>	<i>Answered</i>
<i>Appear</i>	<i>Appearing</i>	<i>Appeared</i>	<i>Appeared</i>
<i>Apply</i>	<i>Applying</i>	<i>Applied</i>	<i>Applied</i>
<i>Arrange</i>	<i>Arranging</i>	<i>Arranged</i>	<i>Arranged</i>
<i>Arrive</i>	<i>Arriving</i>	<i>Arrived</i>	<i>Arrived</i>
<i>Ask</i>	<i>Asking</i>	<i>Asked</i>	<i>Asked</i>
<i>Attack</i>	<i>Attacking</i>	<i>Attacked</i>	<i>Attacked</i>
<i>Bath</i>	<i>Bathing</i>	<i>Bathed</i>	<i>Bathed</i>
<i>Beg</i>	<i>Begging</i>	<i>Begged</i>	<i>Begged</i>
<i>Benefit</i>	<i>Benefiting</i>	<i>Benefited</i>	<i>Benefited</i>
<i>Boil</i>	<i>Boiling</i>	<i>Boiled</i>	<i>Boiled</i>
<i>Believe</i>	<i>Believing</i>	<i>Believed</i>	<i>Believed</i>
<i>Belong to</i>	<i>Belonging to</i>	<i>Belonged to</i>	<i>Belonged to</i>
<i>Borrow</i>	<i>Borrowing</i>	<i>Borrowed</i>	<i>Borrowed</i>
<i>Bleach</i>	<i>Bleaching</i>	<i>Bleached</i>	<i>Bleached</i>
<i>Brush</i>	<i>Brushing</i>	<i>Brushed</i>	<i>Brushed</i>
<i>Breath</i>	<i>Breathing</i>	<i>Breathed</i>	<i>Breathed</i>
<i>Call</i>	<i>Calling</i>	<i>Called</i>	<i>Called</i>
<i>Carry</i>	<i>Carrying</i>	<i>Carried</i>	<i>Carried</i>
<i>Cash</i>	<i>Cashing</i>	<i>Cashed</i>	<i>Cashed</i>
<i>Change</i>	<i>Changing</i>	<i>Changed</i>	<i>Changed</i>
<i>Chase</i>	<i>Chasing</i>	<i>Chased</i>	<i>Chased</i>
<i>Cheer</i>	<i>Cheering</i>	<i>Cheered</i>	<i>Cheered</i>
<i>Clap</i>	<i>Clapping</i>	<i>Clapped</i>	<i>Clapped</i>

List of Regular and Irregular Verbs

Present Tense (Mother verb)	Present Participle	Past Tense	Past Participle
Clean	Cleaning	Cleaned	Cleaned
Clear	Clearing	Cleared	Cleared
Climb	Climbing	Climbed	Climbed
Close	Closing	Closed	Closed
Collect	Collecting	Collected	Collected
Comb	Combing	Combed	Combed
Command	Commanding	Commanded	Commanded
Complete	Completing	Completed	Completed
Confess	Confessing	Confessed	Confessed
Control	Controlling	Controlled	Controlled
Consider	Considering	Considered	Considered
Copy	Copying	Copied	Copied
Cook	Cooking	Cooked	Cooked
Cool	Cooling	Cooled	Cooled
Correct	Correcting	Corrected	Corrected
Cover	Covering	Covered	Covered
Crow	Crowing	Crowed	Crowed
Cross	Crossing	Crossed	Crossed
Cry	Crying	Cried	Cried
Dance	Dancing	Danced	Danced
Decide	Deciding	Decided	Decided
Declare	Declaring	Declared	Declared
Demand	Demanding	Demanded	Demanded
Demolish	Demolishing	Demolished	Demolished
Deny	Denying	Denied	Denied
Destroy	Destroying	Destroyed	Destroyed
Deposit	Depositing	Deposited	Deposited
Die	Dying	Died	Died
Disagree	Disagreeing	Disagreed	Disagreed
Disappear	Disappearing	Disappeared	Disappeared
Discharge	Discharging	Discharged	Discharged
Discuss	Discussing	Discussed	Discussed
Dislike	Disliking	Disliked	Disliked
Divide	Dividing	Divided	Divided
Donate	Donating	Donated	Donated
Dress	Dressing	Dressed	Dressed
Drop	Dropping	Dropped	Dropped
Dry	Drying	Dried	Dried
Drag	Dragging	Dragged	Dragged
Educate	Educating	Educated	Educated
Encourage	Encouraging	Encouraged	Encouraged

List of Regular and Irregular Verbs

Present Tense (Mother verb)	Present Participle	Past Tense	Past Participle
Enjoy	Enjoying	Enjoyed	Enjoyed
Enter	Entering	Entered	Entered
Exchange	Exchanging	Exchanged	Exchanged
Expect	Expecting	Expected	Expected
Explain	Explaining	Explained	Explained
Execute	Executing	Executed	Executed
Explode	Exploding	Exploded	Exploded
Expel	Expelling	Expelled	Expelled
Fear	Fearing	Feared	Feared
Fill	Filling	Filled	Filled
Finish	Finishing	Finished	Finished
Fish	Fishing	Fished	Fished
Follow	Following	Followed	Followed
Fry	Frying	Fried	Fried
Guess	Guessing	Guessed	Guessed
Guide	Guiding	Guided	Guided
Happen	Happening	Happened	Happened
Harm	Harming	Harmed	Harmed
Help	Helping	Helped	Helped
Hope	Hoping	Hoped	Hoped
Hunt	Hunting	Hunted	Hunted
Hurry up	Hurrying up	Hurried up	Hurried up
Imagine	Imagining	Imagined	Imagined
Imitate	Imitating	Imitated	Imitated
Indicate	Indicating	Indicated	Indicated
Inform	Informing	Informed	Informed
Insist	Insisting	Insisted	Insisted
Inspire	Inspiring	Inspired	Inspired
Invite	Inviting	Invited	Invited
Join	Joining	Joined	Joined
Joke	Joking	Joked	Joked
Jump	Jumping	Jumped	Jumped
Iron	Ironing	Ironed	Ironed
Kick	Kicking	Kicked	Kicked
Kill	Killing	Killed	Killed
Kiss	Kissing	Kissed	Kissed
Knock	Knocking	Knocked	Knocked
Laugh at	Laughing at	Laughed at	Laughed at
Listen to	Listening to	Listened to	Listened to
Like	Liking	Liked	Liked
Live	Living	Lived	Lived
Lock	Locking	Locked	Locked

List of Regular and Irregular Verbs

Present Tense (Mother verb)	Present Participle	Past Tense	Past Participle
Look at	Looking at	Looked at	Looked at
Look for	Looking for	Looked for	Looked for
Look after	Looking after	Looked after	Looked after
Love	Loving	Loved	Loved
Leap	Leaping	Leaped	Leaped
Marry	Marrying	Married	Married
March	Marching	Marched	Marched
Mark	Marking	Marked	Marked
Miss	Missing	Missed	Missed
Mix	Mixing	Mixed	Mixed
Mop	Moping	Moped	Moped
Move	Moving	Moved	Moved
Mend	Mending	Mended	Mended
Multiply	Multiplied	Multiplied	Multiplied
Need	Needing	Needed	Needed
Notice	Noticing	Noticed	Noticed
Offer	Offering	Offered	Offered
Open	Opening	Opened	Opened
Operate	Operating	Operated	Operated
Oppose	Opposing	Opposed	Opposed
Order	Ordering	Ordered	Ordered
Own	Owning	Owned	Owned
Pain	Paining	Pained	Pained
Paint	Painting	Painted	Painted
Parade	Parading	Paraded	Paraded
Pass	Passing	Passed	Passed
Polish	Polishing	Polished	Polished
Phone	Phoning	Phoned	Phoned
Pick	Picking	Picked	Picked
Place	Placing	Placed	Placed
Plant	Planting	Planted	Planted
Play	Playing	Played	Played
Please	Pleasing	Pleased	Pleased
Point to	Pointing to	Pointed to	Pointed to
Post	Posting	Posted	Posted
Pour	Pouring	Poured	Poured
Practice	Practicing	Practiced	Practiced
Pray	Praying	Prayed	Prayed
Praise	Praising	Praised	Praised
Prepare	Preparing	Prepared	Prepared
Press	Pressing	Pressed	Pressed
Preach	Preaching	Preached	Preached

List of Regular and Irregular Verbs

Present Tense (Mother verb)	Present Participle	Past Tense	Past Participle
<i>Pretend</i>	<i>Pretending</i>	<i>Pretended</i>	<i>Pretended</i>
<i>Produce</i>	<i>Producing</i>	<i>Produced</i>	<i>Produced</i>
<i>Promise</i>	<i>Promising</i>	<i>Promised</i>	<i>Promised</i>
<i>Propose</i>	<i>Proposing</i>	<i>Proposed</i>	<i>Proposed</i>
<i>Protect</i>	<i>Protecting</i>	<i>Protected</i>	<i>Protected</i>
<i>Prove</i>	<i>Proving</i>	<i>Proved</i>	<i>Proved</i>
<i>Pull</i>	<i>Pulling</i>	<i>Pulled</i>	<i>Pulled</i>
<i>Push</i>	<i>Pushing</i>	<i>Pushed</i>	<i>Pushed</i>
<i>Rain</i>	<i>Raining</i>	<i>Rained</i>	<i>Rained</i>
<i>Recommend</i>	<i>Recommending</i>	<i>Recommended</i>	<i>Recommended</i>
<i>Receive</i>	<i>Receiving</i>	<i>Received</i>	<i>Received</i>
<i>Realise</i>	<i>Realising</i>	<i>Realised</i>	<i>Realised</i>
<i>Recruit</i>	<i>Recruiting</i>	<i>Recruited</i>	<i>Recruited</i>
<i>Refuse</i>	<i>Refusing</i>	<i>Refused</i>	<i>Refused</i>
<i>Remember</i>	<i>Remembering</i>	<i>Remembered</i>	<i>Remembered</i>
<i>Remind</i>	<i>Reminding</i>	<i>Reminded</i>	<i>Reminded</i>
<i>Remove</i>	<i>Removing</i>	<i>Removed</i>	<i>Removed</i>
<i>Reach</i>	<i>Reaching</i>	<i>Reached</i>	<i>Reached</i>
<i>Repeat</i>	<i>Repeating</i>	<i>Repeated</i>	<i>Repeated</i>
<i>Repent</i>	<i>Repenting</i>	<i>Repented</i>	<i>Repented</i>
<i>Replace</i>	<i>Replacing</i>	<i>Replaced</i>	<i>Replaced</i>
<i>Refund</i>	<i>Refunding</i>	<i>Refunded</i>	<i>Refunded</i>
<i>Refute</i>	<i>Refuting</i>	<i>Refuted</i>	<i>Refuted</i>
<i>Repair</i>	<i>Repairing</i>	<i>Repaired</i>	<i>Repaired</i>
<i>Report</i>	<i>Reporting</i>	<i>Reported</i>	<i>Reported</i>
<i>Request</i>	<i>Requesting</i>	<i>Requested</i>	<i>Requested</i>
<i>Rest</i>	<i>Resting</i>	<i>Rested</i>	<i>Rested</i>
<i>Rejoice</i>	<i>Rejoicing</i>	<i>Rejoiced</i>	<i>Rejoiced</i>
<i>Reply</i>	<i>Replying</i>	<i>Replied</i>	<i>Replied</i>
<i>Relieve</i>	<i>Relieving</i>	<i>Relieved</i>	<i>Relieved</i>
<i>Remind</i>	<i>Reminding</i>	<i>Reminded</i>	<i>Reminded</i>
<i>Recall</i>	<i>Recalling</i>	<i>Recalled</i>	<i>Recalled</i>
<i>Remain</i>	<i>Remaining</i>	<i>Remained</i>	<i>Remained</i>
<i>Rely on</i>	<i>Relying on</i>	<i>Relied on</i>	<i>Relied on</i>
<i>Reveal</i>	<i>Revealing</i>	<i>Revealed</i>	<i>Revealed</i>
<i>Revise</i>	<i>Revising</i>	<i>Revised</i>	<i>Revised</i>
<i>Roll</i>	<i>Rolling</i>	<i>Rolled</i>	<i>Rolled</i>
<i>Roar</i>	<i>Roaring</i>	<i>Roared</i>	<i>Roared</i>
<i>Sail</i>	<i>Sailing</i>	<i>Sailed</i>	<i>Sailed</i>
<i>Salute</i>	<i>Saluting</i>	<i>Saluted</i>	<i>Saluted</i>
<i>Serve</i>	<i>Serving</i>	<i>Served</i>	<i>Served</i>
<i>Select</i>	<i>Selecting</i>	<i>Selected</i>	<i>Selected</i>

List of Regular and Irregular Verbs

Present Tense (Mother verb)	Present Participle	Past Tense	Past Participle
<i>Save</i>	<i>Saving</i>	<i>Saved</i>	<i>Saved</i>
<i>Settle</i>	<i>Settling</i>	<i>Settled</i>	<i>Settled</i>
<i>Sign</i>	<i>Signing</i>	<i>Signed</i>	<i>Signed</i>
<i>Shout</i>	<i>Shouting</i>	<i>Shouted</i>	<i>Shouted</i>
<i>Stamp</i>	<i>Stamping</i>	<i>Stamped</i>	<i>Stamped</i>
<i>Start</i>	<i>Starting</i>	<i>Started</i>	<i>Started</i>
<i>Stay</i>	<i>Staying</i>	<i>Stayed</i>	<i>Stayed</i>
<i>Stop</i>	<i>Stopping</i>	<i>Stopped</i>	<i>Stopped</i>
<i>Succeed</i>	<i>Succeeding</i>	<i>Succeeded</i>	<i>Succeeded</i>
<i>Suggest</i>	<i>Suggesting</i>	<i>Suggested</i>	<i>Suggested</i>
<i>Surround</i>	<i>Surrounding</i>	<i>Surrounded</i>	<i>Surrounded</i>
<i>Survey</i>	<i>Surveying</i>	<i>Surveyed</i>	<i>Surveyed</i>
<i>Sweat</i>	<i>Sweating</i>	<i>Sweated</i>	<i>Sweated</i>
<i>Score</i>	<i>Scoring</i>	<i>Scored</i>	<i>Scored</i>
<i>Smile</i>	<i>Smiling</i>	<i>Smiled</i>	<i>Smiled</i>
<i>Shave</i>	<i>Shaving</i>	<i>Shaved</i>	<i>Shaved</i>
<i>Study</i>	<i>Studying</i>	<i>Studied</i>	<i>Studied</i>
<i>Slip</i>	<i>Slipping</i>	<i>Slipped</i>	<i>Slipped</i>
<i>Satisfy</i>	<i>Satisfying</i>	<i>Satisfied</i>	<i>Satisfied</i>
<i>Sponsor</i>	<i>Sponsoring</i>	<i>Sponsored</i>	<i>Sponsored</i>
<i>Suffice</i>	<i>Sufficing</i>	<i>Sufficed</i>	<i>Sufficed</i>
<i>Suppose</i>	<i>Supposing</i>	<i>Supposed</i>	<i>Supposed</i>
<i>Talk</i>	<i>Talking</i>	<i>Talked</i>	<i>Talked</i>
<i>Test</i>	<i>Testing</i>	<i>Tested</i>	<i>Tested</i>
<i>Tie</i>	<i>Tying</i>	<i>Tied</i>	<i>Tied</i>
<i>Thank</i>	<i>Thanking</i>	<i>Thanked</i>	<i>Thanked</i>
<i>Touch</i>	<i>Touching</i>	<i>Touched</i>	<i>Touched</i>
<i>Train</i>	<i>Training</i>	<i>Trained</i>	<i>Trained</i>
<i>Travel</i>	<i>Travelling</i>	<i>Travelled</i>	<i>Travelled</i>
<i>Try</i>	<i>Trying</i>	<i>Tried</i>	<i>Tried</i>
<i>Turn over</i>	<i>Turning over</i>	<i>Turned over</i>	<i>Turned over</i>
<i>Type</i>	<i>Typing</i>	<i>Typed</i>	<i>Typed</i>
<i>Underline</i>	<i>Underlining</i>	<i>Underlined</i>	<i>Underlined</i>
<i>Untie</i>	<i>Untying</i>	<i>Untied</i>	<i>Untied</i>
<i>Use</i>	<i>Using</i>	<i>Used</i>	<i>Used</i>
<i>Urgue</i>	<i>Urguing</i>	<i>Urgued</i>	<i>Urgued</i>
<i>Utilise</i>	<i>Utilising</i>	<i>Utilised</i>	<i>Utilised</i>
<i>Visit</i>	<i>Visiting</i>	<i>Visited</i>	<i>Visited</i>
<i>Wait</i>	<i>Waiting</i>	<i>Waited</i>	<i>Waited</i>
<i>Walk</i>	<i>Walking</i>	<i>Walked</i>	<i>Walked</i>
<i>Want</i>	<i>Wanting</i>	<i>Wanted</i>	<i>Wanted</i>
<i>Wash</i>	<i>Washing</i>	<i>Washed</i>	<i>Washed</i>

List of Regular and Irregular Verbs

Present Tense (Mother verb)	Present Participle	Past Tense	Past Participle
Water	Watering	Watered	Watered
Weed	Weeding	Weeded	Weeded
Warm	Warming	Warmed	Warned
Watch	Watching	Watched	Watched
Welcome	Welcoming	Welcomed	Welcomed
Wonder	Wondering	Wondered	Wondered
Work	Working	Worked	Worked
Wipe	Wiping	Wiped	Wiped
Wish	Wishing	Wished	Wished
Worship	Worshipping	Worshipped	Worshipped
Wean	Weaning	Weaned	Weaned
Weaken	Weakening	Weakened	Weakened
Warn	Warning	Warned	Warned

Irregular verbs

Present Tense (Mother verb)	Present Participle	Past Tense	Past Participle
Arise	Arising	Arose	Arose
Awake	Awaking	Awoke/Awaked	Awoke/Awaked
Be (am, are, is)	Being	Was/Were	Been
Bear	Bearing	Bore	Born
Beat	Beating	Beat	Beaten
Become	Becoming	Became	Became
Bind	Binding	Bound	Bound
Bite	Biting	Bit	Bitten
Bleed	Bleeding	Bled	Bled
Blow	Blowing	Blew	Blown
Break	Breaking	Broke	Broken
Bring	Bringing	Brought	Brought
Broadcast	Broadcasting	Broadcasted	Broadcasted
Build	Building	Built	Built
Burn	Burning	Burned/Burnt	Burned/Burnt
Burst	Bursting	Burst	Burst
Buy	Buying	Bought	Bought
Can	Canning	Could	Could
Cast	Casting	Cast	Cast
Catch	Catching	Caught	Caught
Chide	Chiding	Chidden	Chidden
Choose	Choosing	Chose	Chose
Cling	Clinging	Clung	Clung
Come	Coming	Came	Came

List of Regular and Irregular Verbs

Present Tense (Mother verb)	Present Participle	Past Tense	Past Participle
Cost	Costing	Cost	Cost
Creep	Creeping	Crept	Crept
Crow	Crowing	Crowed/Crew	Crowed/Crew
Cut	Cutting	Cut	Cut
Dare	Daring	Dared	Dared
Deal	Dealing	Deal	Deal
Dig	Digging	Dug	Dug
Do	Doing	Did	Done
Draw	Drawing	Drew	Drawn
Dream	Dreaming	Dreamt/Dreamed	Dreamt/Dreamed
Drink	Drinking	Drank	Drunk
Drive	Driving	Drove	Driven
Eat	Eating	Ate	Eaten
Fall	Falling	Fell	Fallen
Feed	Feeding	Fed	Fed
Fight	Fighting	Fought	Fought
Find	Finding	Found	Found
Feel	Feeling	Felt	Felt
Begin	Beginning	Began	Begun
Flee	Fleeing	Fled	Fled
Forbid	Forbidding	Forbade	Forbidden
Forget	Forgetting	Forgot	Forgotten
Forgive	Forgiving	Forgave	Forgiven
Forsake	Forsaking	Forsook	Forsaken
Freeze	Freezing	Froze	Frozen
Get	Getting	Got	Got
Give	Giving	Gave	Given
Go	Going	Went	Gone
Grind	Grinding	Ground	Ground
Grow	Growing	Grew	Grown
Hang	Hanging	Hung/Hanged	Hung/Hanged
Have	Having	Had	Had
Hear	Hearing	Heard	Heard
Hide	Hiding	Hid	Hidden
Hit	Hitting	Hit	Hit
Hold	Holding	Held	Held
Hurt	Hurting	Hurt	Hurt
Keep	Keeping	Kept	Kept
Kneel	Kneeling	Knelt	Knelt
Knit	Knitting	Knit	Knit
Know	Knowing	Knew	Known
Lay	Laying	Laid	Laid

List of Regular and Irregular Verbs

Present Tense (Mother verb)	Present Participle	Past Tense	Past Participle
Lead	Leading	Led	Led
Lean	Leaning	Leant/Leaned	Leant/Leaned
Learn	Learning	Learnt/Learned	Learnt/Learned
Leave	Leaving	Left	Left
Lend	Lending	Lent	Lent
Let	Letting	Let	Let
Lie	Lying	Lay	Lain
Light	Lighting	Lit/Lighted	Lit/Lighted
Lose	Losing	Lost	Lost
Make	Making	Made	Made
May	Might	Might	Might
Mean	Meaning	Meant/Ment	Meant/Ment
Must	Had to	-	-
Ought	-	-	-
Pay	Paying	Paid	Paid
Put	Putting	Put	Put
Read	Reading	Read	Read
Ride	Riding	Rode	Ridden
Ring	Ring	Rang	Rung
Rise	Rising	Rose	Risen
Run	Running	Ran	Run
Say	Saying	Said	Said
Seen	Seeing	Saw	Seen
Seek	Seeking	Sought	Sought
Sell	Selling	Sold	Sold
Send	Sending	Sent	Sent
Set	Setting	Set	Set
Sew	Sewing	Sewed	Sewed/Sewn
Shake	Shaking	Shook	Shaken
Shall	-	Should	-
Shed	Shedding	Shed	Shed
Shine	Shining	Shone	Shone
Shoot	Shooting	Shot	Shot
Show	Showing	Showed	Shown/Showed
Shrink	Shrinking	Shrank	Shrunk
Shut	Shutting	Shut	Shut
Sing	Singing	Sang	Sung
Sink	Sinking	Sank	Sunk
Sit	Sitting	Sat	Sat
Sleep	Sleeping	Slept	Slept
Slide	Sliding	Slid	Slid
Slit	Slitting	Slit	Slit

List of Regular and Irregular Verbs

Present Tense (Mother verb)	Present Participle	Past Tense	Past Participle
Smell	Smelling	Smelled/Smelt	Smelled/Smelt
Sow	Sowing	Sowed	Sowed/Sown
Speed	Speeding	Speeded/Sped	Speeded/Sped
Spell	Spelling	Spelled/Spelt	Spelled/Spelt
Spend	Spending	Spent	Spent
Spin	Spinning	Spun	Spun
Split	Splitting	Split	Split
Spread	Spreading	Spread	Spread
Spring	Springing	Sprang	Sprung
Stand	Standing	Stood	Stood
Steal	Stealing	Stole	Stolen
Stick	Sticking	Stuck	Stuck
Sting	Stinging	Stung	Stung
Stink	Stinking	Stank	Stunk
Strike	Striking	Struck	Struck
String	Stringing	Strung	Strung
Strive	Striving	Strove	Striven
Swear	Swearing	Swore	Sworn
Sweep	Sweeping	Swept	Swept
Swell	Swelling	Swelled	Swelled/Swollen
Swim	Swimming	Swam	Swum
Swing	Swinging	Swung	Swung
Take	Taking	Took	Taken
Teach	Teaching	Taught	Taught
Tear	Tearing	Tore	Torn
Tell	Telling	Told	Told
Think	Thinking	Thought	Thought
Throw	Throwing	Threw	Thrown
Thrust	Thrusting	Thrust	Thrust
Tread	Treading	Trod	Trodden/Trod
Understand	Understanding	Understood	Understood
Wake	Waking	Waked/Woke	Waked/Woken
Wear	Wearing	Wore	Worn
Weave	Weaving	Wove	Woven
Weep	Weeping	Wept	Wept
Wet	Wetting	Wetted/Wet	Wetted/Wet
Will	Willing	Would	-
Win	Winning	Won	Won
Wind	Winding	Wound	Wound
Wring	Wringing	Wrung	Wrung
Write	Writing	Wrote	Written

Kiswahili Words in the English Language

Kiswahili Words	Meaning in English Language
Askari	<i>A person who is employed to guard a building, valuable things, etc. A security guard.</i>
Baba	<i>A father (often also used as a title or form of address for any older man, showing respect).</i>
Baraza	<i>A public meeting that is held in order to discuss important matters affecting the community. For example; School balaza.</i>
Boma	<i>(In wild country) An area surrounded by a fence, often made of sticks, used to protect animals or people.</i>
Boda boda	<i>(In some countries) A type of motorcycle or bicycle with a space for a passenger or for carrying goods, often used as a taxi. For example; Boda boda is the easiest means of transport.</i>
Dala dala	<i>(In Tanzania) a privately owned road vehicle with seats for about twelve people, that carries passengers and has a driver that you pay to take you somewhere, usually along a fixed route with other stops for people to get on and off. For example; Dala dala from Mwanza Airport to Kisesa.</i>
Harambee	<i>A meeting that is held in order to collect money for something, for example a community project. For example; They held a harambee to raise funds for a new school.</i>
Jembe	<i>A farming tool with a long handle and a blade at one end, used for digging, breaking up soil or moving weeds (plants growing where they are not wanted).</i>
Jiko	<i>A container made of metal or clay and used for burning charcoal or small pieces of wood. It is used</i>

	<i>for cooking or to give heat.</i>
Jua kali	<i>(In Kenya) the informal jobs that people do to earn money, for example making useful things from old metal and wood. For example; The jua kali sector.</i>
Kanga (also khanga)	<i>A large piece of light cloth with designs printed on it and worn by women around the waist and legs or over the head and shoulders.</i>
Kanzu	<i>A long outer clothing made from white cloth and worn by men.</i>
Mama	<i>(in some places in Africa, including East Africa). A mother or older woman (often used as a title that shows respect). For example; - Miriam Makeba became known as Mama Africa. - Mama Anna Mkapa.</i>
Matatu	<i>(In Kenya) A small privately owned bus, often decorated with pictures, words or phrases, that carries passengers and has a driver that you pay to take you somewhere, usually along a fixed route with other stops for people get on and off. For example; Many people go to work by matatu.</i>
Matoke	<i>A type of green banana grown in Uganda and other parts in East Africa and used for cooking; the cooked food made from this type of banana and eaten with stew.</i>
Mwalimu	<i>1. A teacher. 2. A title or form of address for somebody who is respected as a teacher. For example; Mwalimu Julius Kambalage Nyerere.</i>
Mwananchi	<i>An ordinary citizen; a member of the public. For example; The common mwananchi is demanding change.</i>
Makuti	<i>The leaves of a palm tree, used as material to make</i>

	<p>fence, baskets, etc, and roofs, especially on the coast of East Africa.</p> <p>For example;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A makuti roof. - A house roofed with makuti.
Ngoma	<p>A celebration or performance that involves dancing, singing and playing drums.</p> <p>For example;</p> <p>Mdumiko ngoma of Zaramo people in Tanzania.</p>
Mzee	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A person who is respected because of their age or authority; an elder. 2. A little for a man that shows respect. <p>For example;</p> <p>Mzee Jomo Kenyatta.</p>
Mzungu	<p>(Pl. Wazungu) A white person with European family origins.</p> <p>For example;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - He was the only mzungu who attended the meeting. (noun) - The mzungu wisdom rules the world. (adjective)
Panga	<p>A large heavy knife that is used for cutting grass or small sticks or for removing weeds.</p>
Posho	<p>A type of flour made from maize (corn).</p> <p>For example;</p> <p>A posho mill.</p>
Safari	<p>A journey, period of time spent travelling or when you are not at home or work.</p> <p>For example;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I just got back from a month long safari. - It arrived when I was on safari.
Sufuria	<p>A metal pot used for cooking.</p> <p>For example;</p> <p>Pour water in the sufuria and boil it for tea.</p>
Shauri	<p>Something that needs to be discussed or decided; something that causes a problem.</p> <p>For example;</p> <p>This shauri should be taken to the court.</p>

Shamba	<i>A small farm or field that is used for growing crops. For example; My mother is at shamba.</i>
Ugali	<i>A type of food made with flour from maize (corn), cassava or millet, usually eaten with meat, fish, beans or vegetable stew. For example; We usually eat ugali at night.</i>
Unga	<i>Flour made from maize (corn), cassava, millet, used to make ugali or porridge.</i>
Ujamaa	<i>(In Tanzania) Socialism. For example; Ujamaa villages.</i>
Ndugu	<i>(Usually in Tanzania) A title for a man or women that shows respect.</i>
Taarab	<i>A type of music that is popular in East Africa, especially along the coast, and that is influenced by Arabian and Indian music.</i>
Simsim	<i>An East African word for Sesame (a type of plant whose seeds and their oil are used for cooking.</i>
Mukene	<i>(In East Africa) Small fish that are dried to preserve them, and often fried and then cooked with tomatoes and milk to make a stew.</i>
Kikoi	<i>(In East Africa) A large piece of strong coloured cloth used mainly as an item of clothing around the waist or over the shoulders.</i>
Kiondo	<i>(In East Africa) A bag with one or two long handles and made from sisal (a dried grass twisted together) or other materials.</i>
Mandazi	<i>(in East Africa) A small cake made of fried dough.</i>
Omena	<i>(In East Africa) Small fish that are dried to preserve them, and often fried and then cooked with tomatoes and milk to make a stew.</i>

List of Short Forms and their Full Forms

Short Forms	Full Forms
He'll	He will <i>For example;</i> He'll come soon.
I'll	I shall/I will <i>For example;</i> I'll travel tomorrow.
I'd	I had/I would <i>For example;</i> I'd better go now. I'd advise you to do that.
He'd	He had/he would <i>For example;</i> He'd left before I arrived there. He'd act immediately.
It'll	It will <i>For example;</i> It'll cost you dearly.
Isn't	Is not <i>For example;</i> It isn't proper to steal.
It's	It is/It has <i>For example;</i> It's going to rain. It's rained heavily.
I'm	I am <i>For example;</i> I'm not feeling well.
Can't	Cannot <i>For example;</i> Who can't drive? Can't you come in?
Don't	Do not <i>For example;</i> They don't come this evening.

List of Short Forms and their Full Forms

She'd	She had/she would <i>For example;</i> She'd cooked food. She'd invite you to her birth day part.
She'll	She will <i>For example;</i> She'll not go.
That's	That is <i>For example;</i> That's good.
They'd	They had/they would <i>For example;</i> They'd gone. They'd get surprised.
They'll	They will <i>For example;</i> They'll apply for the job.
They're	They are <i>For example;</i> The're good friends.
They've	They have <i>For example;</i> They've asked me to go with him.
I've	I have <i>For example;</i> I've got two cars.
We'd	We had/we would <i>For example;</i> We'd come to see you. We'd like to apologize.
We'll	We will/we shall <i>For example;</i> We'll go out for lunch.
We've	We have <i>For example;</i>

List of Short Forms and their Full Forms

	We've taken it.
You'd	You had/you would <i>For example;</i> You'd left them back. You'd feel sorry.
You'll	You will <i>For example;</i> You'll pass the exams.
You've	You have <i>For example;</i> You've broken the glass.
Shan't	Shall not <i>For example;</i> I shan't apologize.
Won't	Will not <i>For example;</i> The bus won't arrive on time.
Wasn't	Was not <i>For example;</i> It wasn't an accident.
We're	We are <i>For example;</i> We're brothers.
Were'nt	Were not <i>For examples;</i> They weren't there.
Wouldn't	Would not <i>For example;</i> She wouldn't complain about it.
Couldn't	Could not <i>For example;</i> I couldn't drive at the age of seven.
Aren't	Are not <i>For example;</i> The pupils aren't in the class.
Who'd	Who had/would

List of Short Forms and their Full Forms

	<i>For example;</i> Who'd seen a lion? Who'd like to chat?
Who's	Who is/has <i>For example;</i> Who's shouting? Who's given you the money?
Who've	Who have <i>For example;</i> Who've told you this information?
Who're	Who are <i>For example;</i> Who're those people?
Here's	Here is <i>For example;</i> Here's my mother.
There's	There is Eg; there's a train coming.
He's	He is/has <i>For example;</i> He's reading a book. He's never written me a letter.
She's	She is/has <i>For example;</i> She's cooking food. She's already eaten.
Who'll	Who will <i>For example;</i> Who'll sign the contract?
You're	You are <i>For example;</i> You're late this morning.
Would've	Would have <i>For example;</i> They would've been here by this time.

List of Short Forms and their Full Forms

From the table above, ***short forms*** are also known as ***contracted forms*** commonly used in spoken English while ***full forms*** are used in written English.

For examples;

I am a teacher. (written English)

I'm a teacher. (spoken English)