

SYLLABUS

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WORKPLACE ENGLISH

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Unit 1: talk about familiar events and activities

1. THE NOUN

A noun is a part of speech that names a person, a place, a thing, an animal, an idea, or an action.

Examples: John, Kigali, a car, a dog, truth, hunger, writing

Kinds of nouns

There are five kinds of nouns.

A) Common noun: most nouns are common nouns. They name any one of a class, kind of people, places or things. E.g. a hat, a boy, a tree, a town, a hill, a car, an animal.

B) Proper noun: a proper noun is the official name of a particular person, a place, or a thing. The proper noun is always beginning by capital letter. A proper noun sometimes includes more than one word. Notice that each important word in the group begins with a capital letter. E.g. Mr. William Jones, Englishman, Pope Paul, Constitution of the United States.

C) Collective noun: it is a noun used to describe a group of people or things that is regarded as one or single. E.g. crowd, class, army, flock, group, committee.

D) Abstract and concrete nouns: a noun that names a member of a class, a group of people, place or thing is a concrete noun because what it names is physical, visible, and tangible. E.g. a book, Sue, a girl, rose, court, newspaper.

Abstract noun names a quality or a mental concept, something intangible that exists only in our mind. E.g. truth, beauty, love.

There are also countable and no countable (uncountable) nouns. Most nouns can be made plural by changing the ending, these are countable nouns. There is a group, however, that has no plural. It is called uncountable nouns.

Countable nouns: desk, pen, paper, book

Uncountable nouns: dust, water, milk, sugar.

E) Compound noun: A compound is a group of words usually two that functions as a single part of speech.

Example: - Her mother-in-law watched closely as the blackbirds fluttered about the birdbath behind the flower garden.

- I lost my credit card

Compounds nouns generally take one of the following forms:

- a) noun and noun: birthday, birdbath, bookstore, seatbelt, notebook, basketball, bridesmaid, bridegroom, guesthouse.
- b) Adjective and noun: Blackman, greenhouse, best man
- c) Possessive noun and noun: traveler's check, cook's assistant
- d) Noun and prepositional phrase: mother-in-law, woman of the world
- e) Verb and noun: search warrant, watchman, pitchfork, punch ball
- f) Gerund and noun: living room, managing director, swimming pool
- g) Noun and verb: sunset, bodyguard, toothpick, sunshine
- h) Preposition and noun: overview, undergraduate, underwear, afterthought
- i) Noun and gerund: peacekeeping, dressmaking, handwriting
- j) Verb and adverbial preposition: breakdown, layoff, cleanup

Compound nouns cause problems because they are formed in so many different ways. They can be written as one word, two words, or a hyphenated word. The hyphenated form appears less common. The only way to be sure of the accepted spelling of compound nouns is to consult a dictionary.

Gender

English, unlike most other languages, regards gender as a grammatical classification according to sex.

In English there are four genders:

- A) Masculine: used for all males
- B) Feminine: used for all females
- C) Common: here the sex cannot be told from the form of noun
- D) Neuter: it is used for inanimate objects (no sex)

Masculine	Feminine	Common	Neuter
Father	Mother	Parent	Table
Uncle	Aunt	Cousin	Book
Brother	Sister	Friend	Chalk
Boy	Girl	Child	Desk
John	Mary	Driver	Tree
Horse	Mare	Animal	Box

Formation of feminine

There are three customary methods of forming the feminine from the masculine.

- A) By use of-“ess”

Author- authoress, actor- actress, Jew-Jewess, master-mistress, duke, duchess, tiger-tigress, poet-poetess, waiter-waitress, lion-lioness, prince-princess

B) By composition- usually by prefixing or affixing a word

Manservant-maidservant, turkey-cock-turkey-hen, landlord-landlady, boyfriend- girlfriend, bull elephant- cow elephant, Billy-goat-she goat

C) By employing a different word

Gentleman-lady, husband-wife, monk-nun, king-queen, boy-girl, bachelor-spinster, bull-cow, horse-mare, nephew-niece, sir-madam, uncle-aunt, brother-sister, wizard-witch, calf-heifer, dog-bitch, gander-geese, ram-ewe, widower-widow, fox-vixen

Formation of nouns

There are three methods for making nouns.

A) By adding-ion, ment, (t)ion, ation, ance, sion, r, to a verb

Verbs	Nouns
To invent	invention
To corrupt	corruption
To enjoy	enjoyment
To punish	punishment
To develop	development
To announce	announcement
To plant	plantation
To educate	education
To describe	description
To inform	information
To appear	appearance
To allow	allowance

To decide	decision
To bake	baker
To drive	driver

B) By adding –ness or –ce to adjective

Adjective	Noun
Ill	illness
Happy	happiness
Sad	sadness
Sick	sickness
Violent	violence
Heavy	heaviness
Selfish	selfishness
Silent	silence

NB: adjectives ending in –y, we first change –y into ‘i’ and after we add-ness. Adjectives ending in-t; we first drop off –t and we add an ending –ce

C) By adding –hood- or –ship- to noun

Brother	brotherhood
Child	childhood
Friend	friendship
Leader	leadership

NUMBERS

In any language, there are two numbers: singular form and plural form

General rule

To form the plural on nouns in English, we usually add- s to the singular form

E.g. a pen-pens, an egg-eggs, a letter- letters, an idea- ideas a smile-smiles, a shirt-shirt

However, many nouns don't respect that rule. Such nouns are considered irregular

- 1) Nouns ending in-o, x, sh, ch, s or z form their plural by adding –es to the singular

E.g. a tomato-tomatoes, a fox-foxes, a box-boxes, a potato-potatoes, a class- classes, a kiss-kisses, a watch-watches-a match-matches, a dish- dishes, a bush-bushes, a buzz-buzzes

However, if the-ch- is pronounced –k- only-s- is added

E.g. stomach- stomachs, monarch-monarchs, epoch-epochs

Foreign words ending in-o- merely add's', for instance

Photo-photos, avocado-avocados, radio-radios, piano-pianos, kilo-kilos

- 2) Nouns ending in-y- preceded by a consonant, we change –y- to –i- and we add –es-

E.g. lady-ladies, baby-babies, sky-skies, country-countries, body-bodies

If the final –y- is preceded by a vowel, no change is made, and the plural is formed by adding –s-

E.g. a buy- buys, guy-guys, a boy-boys- a day-days, toy-toys

- 3) Nouns end in-fe or –f change to –ves

E.g. a leaf-leaves, a wife-wives, a loaf-loaves, a thief-thieves, a life-lives a knife-knives, a scarf-scarves, a shelf-shelves

Notice: roof, chief, safe, hoof, gulf, cliff, and dwarf take s

- 4) Some nouns form their plurals irregularly as ox-oxen, child-children, mouse-mice, louse-lice
- 5) Some nouns change a vowel or vowels within themselves as a woman-women, a man-men, a tooth-teeth, a foot- feet a goose-geese
- 6) Some nouns do not change like wealth, deer, sheep, knowledge, furniture, fish, luggage, advice, business, care, darkness, hair, intelligence, information, , rubbish, spinach and strength
- 7) Some nouns have no singular as alms, billiards, contents, customs, fireworks, pants, glasses, trousers, news, knickers, thanks, scissors, means, premises, measles and wages.
- 8) Some nouns have two plurals: brother-brothers or brethren, die-dies or dice, genius-geniuses or genii, penny -pennies, pence, index-indexes- indices, cloth-cloths or clothes, people-peoples or people.
- 9) Compound nouns: a compound noun is a noun composed of more than one word. The sign of plural is generally added to the principal word
E.g. passer-by - passers -by; looker-on – lookers-on; father-in -law- fathers-in-law
- 10) Couple, dozen, hundred, thousand, and million nouns do not take –s- and are not followed by –of- when there is a cardinal number before them.
E.g. four hundred eggs but hundreds of eggs; two dozen boxes but dozens of boxes.

EXERCISES

- 1) Write P beside the words that are in plural and S beside the words that are in singular in this list: a) oxen, hundred, berries, geese, puppy, scissors, gas, inch, feet, and men.
- 2) Write the plural form of these nouns
City, church, radio, half, piano, glass, raspberry, mosquito, roof, bus, bush , valley, box, hero, knife, guess, key, castle, lumberman, cupful, deer, child, mouse, mother-in-law, igloo, factory, proof and bench

3) Circle the correct form of the plural and justify your answers

- The hunter shot three (moose, mooses)
- Add two (spoon, spoonfuls) of flour
- Mrs. Franck is proud of her two (son-in-laws, sons-in-law)
- Many (deer, deers) are found in Alberta
- Charlie has three pairs of (pant, pants)
- Help yourself to three (handfuls, handful)
- They are playing a game with (dice,dices)
- Please send a doze (lilys, lilies)
- The farmer purchased two more (oxes, oxen)
- The (armies, armys) clashed near the border
- The (ladys',ladies') department is near the back of store
- The (cattles,c attle) were grazing in the field
- The (passers-by, passer-bys) stopped to watch the fire
- Ted bought two new pairs of (glove, gloves) for his wife
- Mr. Arnold fixes(chimneys, chimnies)
- She served the coffee on her best (trays, traies)
- Alex needs a new pair of (plier, pliers)
- The (women, womans) were angry when they left the meeting
- The (benchs benches) were lined up against the wall

2. **PRONOUNS**

Introduction

Pronouns are the simple everyday words used to refer to the people, places, or things that have already been mentioned, such as him, she, me, and it or to indefinite people, places, things or qualities such as who, where this and somebody. Pronouns usually replace some nouns and make an expression concise.

Traditionally, pronouns are divided into six groups; each group has its own name, definition and special functions. These categories are helpful in learning how to recognize the different kind of pronouns and how to use them correctly, since they come in such a wide variety of forms.

Definition

A pronoun is a word that stands for a noun.

Kinds of pronouns

Pronouns are classified as follows:

1. Personal pronouns
2. Relative pronouns – interior sentences (clauses)
3. Interrogative pronouns – questions
4. Demonstrate pronouns – pointers
5. Indefinite pronouns
6. Reflexive pronouns

A) The personal pronouns

Personal pronouns may be in the nominative, the objective or the possessive case.

Number	Person	Subject	Object	Possessive pronoun	Possessive adjective
Singular	First	I	Me	Mine	My
	Second	You	You	Yours	Your
	Third (masculine)	He	Him	His	His
	(feminine)	She	Her	Hers	Her
	(neuter)	It	It	Its	Its
Plural	First	We	Us	Ours	Our
	Second	You	You	Yours	Your
	Third	They	Them	Theirs	Their

Notes on Personal pronouns

There are three forms of personal pronouns:

Person: to indicate whether the person is the speaker (first person), the person being spoken to (second person) or the person being spoken about (third person).

Case: to show the job the pronoun is performing in the sentence.

Number: to indicate whether the word is plural or singular.

‘I’ is written with a capital letter, but not me or we or us.

He, him, his are used for males, she, her, hers for females.

It for things and as the *impersonal subject*, e.g. It has been a fine day.

The plural ‘we’ instead of the singular ‘I’ is used in royal proclamations and by editors in their editorials.

Examples of personal pronoun use

- I went yesterday to see her.
- Between you and me, I really don’t want to go with him.
- They say you can’t take it with you.

Errors to avoid – pronoun case

When a compound subject or object includes a pronoun, be sure that the case chosen is in agreement with the pronoun’s place in the sentence: a subject case pronoun is used as the subject of the verb; an object case pronoun is used as the object.

The same rule of agreement is true when using an appositive (a word or words with the same meanings as the pronoun); the pronoun must be in the same case form as the word it renames.

Compounds:

- Both Mary and he (not him) have seen the movie. (subject: Mary and he)
- Last year the team elected both Jane and me. (not I) (object: Jane and me)
- Could you wait for my brother and me (not I)? (object of a preposition: “my brother and me”)
- A trip to Europe appeared to Susan and him. (not he) object of a preposition: Susan and him.
- There has always been a great friendship between you and me. (not I) (object of a preposition “you and me”)
- Mrs. James and I (not me) will direct the chorus. (subject “Mrs. James and I”)

Appositions

- We (not us) Americans value freedom. (subject)
- They invited us (not we) cheerleaders. (object)
- Both players, James and he (not him) could be stars. (subject)
- Let’s you and me (not I) go together. (object)
- Our school sent two delegates, Mark and him. (not he) object
- It is not for us (not we) writers to determine editorial policy. (object)
- Will you give your decision to us (not we) applicants soon? (object)

B) Relative pronouns – Interior sentences (clauses)

Relative pronouns play the part of subject or object within sentences (clauses). They often refer to nouns that have preceded them, making the sentence more compact. In other words, the relative pronouns are *who* (nominative) *whom* (objective) *whose* (possessive) *which*, *that*, *what* and occasionally *asandbut*. They have the same form for singular or plural. The relative pronoun stands of a noun and also joins sentences. The noun which it refers is called its *antecedent*.

Who, whom and whose are used for persons:

- The man who spoke was my brother.
- The man whom you saw was my brother.
- He is a writer whose style is most attractive.

When the antecedent is the noun of a person, we use *who* as subject and *whom* as objective or after the preposition.

He lived with a farmer whom he had met before.

This is the friend with whom I went to London.

Whose is for the possessive case. It has generally as antecedent the noun of a person; sometimes the antecedent is a noun of a thing.

Examples: Peter whose feet were frozen could hardly walk.

Do you know any mountains whose tops are always covered with snow?

Notice: do not use an article after whose.

Which as a relative pronoun is used only for *things* or *animals*.

Examples: - The current, which is very rapid, makes the river dangerous.

- My dog, which was lost, has been found.
- The flower, which was yellow, made her smile.
 - She asked him to look after the cakes which were on the fire.
 - His handkerchief was in the pocket of the coat which he had just taken off.
 - What was the name of the dog which disappeared with Rip?

Note: “which” is used for non – defining clauses.

“that” for defining clauses.

“ which” may also be used to stand for an entire sentence.

Examples: The boy’s work was praised, which pleased him very much.

With collective nouns denoting persons, “which” is used with the singular, but “who” with the plural.

Examples: - The London team, which played so well last year, has done badly this season.

- The team, who are getting their tickets, will meet on the platform at 2.30.

“That” is used for persons or things.

- My brother that is in Paris has sent me a letter.
- This is the house that Jack built.

Note: a) That can’t follow a preposition.

Examples: Here is the book that I told you of. But

Here is the book of which I told you.

b) “That” has a restrictive sense which sometimes makes it impossible as a substitute for “who” or “which”

Examples: I can say, “I have heard from my brother that is in America”; because I may have several brothers and the relative pronoun that restricts the meaning to one of them. But I can not say: “I have heard from my wife that is in America;” because the restrictive clause would infer I had more than one wife.

I could use “who” here because who is continuative and would mean she.

c) “That” is used after superlatives (including first and last) and indefinite pronouns (only, all, something, anything, nothing and everything.)

Examples: - He is the cleverest man that I know.

- He did all that he could to help us.
- There is something that I must tell you.
- Shakespeare is the greatest poet that England has ever had.

- “We were the first that ever burst into that silent sea.”
- I will tell you something that you didn’t know before.
- All that glitters is not gold.
- Nothing that he does is badly done.

d) Where the antecedent is both a person and a thing “that” not “who” or “which” is used.

Example: He talked brilliantly of the men and books that interested him.

e) “that” follows the opening “ it is ...” E.g. It’s a long lane that has no turning.

“What” is used where the antecedent is not expressed.

E.g. Tell me what you want to know but NOT tell me the things what you want to know.

“As” is used as a relative pronoun after some and such.

Examples: My book is not the same as yours is.

We are such stuff as dreams are made on” (Shakespeare, the Tempest)

“But” is a relative pronoun in certain rare negative constructions.

Examples: - There is no one here but wishes you well. But wishes = who doesn’t wish

- There was no one there but was sorry for the man.

Omission of the relative pronoun

The relative is frequently omitted when, if it were expressed, it would be in the objective case.

Examples:

- I went to the play ^ you told me about.
- The man ^ we met is the teacher.
- He lived with a farmer ^ he had met before.
- He is the cleverest man ^ I know.

- He did all ^ he could to help us.
- His handkerchief was in the pocket of the coat ^ he had just taken off.

The relative pronoun and its antecedent

The relative pronoun should be as near its antecedent as possible. This will avoid absurdities such as, “after the wedding the bride and bridegroom left in a motor – car for London which was lent for the occasion by Mr.--” She took her hat from her head which was wearing.”

C. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS: POINTERS

The demonstrative pronouns are: this, that, (singular) these, those (plural). They are the most common words used as pronouns to point to someone or something clearly expressed or implied. They can be used as subject or object.

Example:

- That is the apple I wanted. (subject)
- Bring me those, please. (object)
- These are the ones I’ve been looking for. (subject)
- That really made me mad! (Subject)
- Give this to her for me. (object)

Such, so, the former, and the latter, may also serve as pointing pronouns.

Examples: Such was his fate. (subject)

He resented Jerry and told him so. (object)

Bring her the former.

He asked me to fetch the latter.

These same words are often used as adjectives, and at first glance it is easy to classify them as adjectives, forgetting that they also take the place of nouns and serve as pronouns.

The former is used for the first of two, *the latter* for the second of two.

E.g. Shakespeare and Goethe were both great poets, the former was an Englishman, the latter a German.

“Such” is used predicatively to mean so great of that kind.

Examples: Such is the power of the press. (adj. describing power)

It was such a tiring day. (adj describing day)

Such is the state of a man. (adj describing state)

D. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

This group of pronouns acquired its name because the reference (the noun for which they are standing in) is indefinite. In other words, they refer to things or people in a vague or general way.

Indefinite persons or things (all singular pronouns)

- everybody, everyone, everything
- somebody, someone, something
- anybody, anyone, anything
- nobody, no one, none

Examples:

- Everybody joined in the chorus.
- No one took less than he did.
- Is anyone here?
- I hope someone answers my calls.
- There is somebody at the door.
- He doesn't know anything about it.

E. INDEFINITE QUANTIFIERS

All, some, few, several, least, little, plenty, many, less, more, lots

Examples:

- Much has been said on the subject of delinquency.
- She took several for herself.
- It is less than I'd bargained for.
- There are plenty of people who want your job.
- Many are called, but few are chosen.
- He wants a few.

Note: all, some, any, one, can also be used adjectively.

Examples: - Yesterday, two pupils were absent, today all are present. (Pronoun)

- All the students are late today. (Adjective)
- "Some are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them" (pronoun)
- Some men are born great. (adjective)
- Did you meet many people? I didn't meet any. (pronoun)
- I haven't anytime for amusement. (adjective)
- One cannot always be sure what the best thing to do is. (pronoun)
- One person can't build a house. (adjective)
- I must have seen him at one time or another. (adjective)

"All" can be used in the singular or the plural, according to the meaning.

Examples: All are present today. All is lost.

'All' and 'the whole'

These two expressions are very similar in meaning but:

All England generally means the inhabitants,

The whole England generally means the country itself.

It should be noted that 'all' may also be used adverbially in such a phrase as: "The all – important thing."

F. DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS

The distributive pronouns are: each, either and neither. They are similar to the distributive adjectives.

The difference is that when they stand instead of noun, they are pronouns, when they qualify the nouns, they are adjectives.

Each:

- Each of the men received a reward.
- Each man received a reward. (adjective)

Each is similar in use and meaning to 'every' but, in addition to the difference in use. Each can be used as a pronoun, every can't.

Example: Give each of the men a drink. (Correct)

Give every of the men a drink. (Incorrect)

'Each other' and 'one another' are used after transitive verbs to express reciprocal action; i.e. that the feeling is mutual.

With 'each other' there are two people concerned.

E.g. the two brothers love each other.

With 'one another' there are more than two people concerned.

E.g. "Little children, love one another."

Either: means one or the other of two.

E.g. I have two books here; either would suit you well quite.

Either can also have the meaning both of two, but it is only used adjectively with this meaning.

“On either side the river lie long fields of barley and of rye.”

Neither means none of two.

E.g. He gave me two novels, but neither is very good. (pronoun)

Neither book was what I wanted. (adjective)

Neither, either and each take singular verb.

G. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS - QUESTIONS

These pronouns are easy to recognize because they always introduce either direct or indirect question. The words just discussed as relative pronouns are called interrogative pronouns when they introduce a question: who, what, that, which, whom, whose, whoever, whichever, and whatever.

Who, whom, whose are used for persons.

Who as a subject.

Whom as an objective.

Whose as possessive.

Examples:

- Who rang you up? (refers to a person)
- Who is at the door? (refers to a person)
- Whom have you met at the party?
- Whom did you telephone last night?
- Whose is this car?
- Whose is this book?

Which is selective, it can be used for persons or things when one or more out of number is referred to, i.e. it implies the choice of idea or the preference.

E.g. Which of these words is the right one to use?

Which of these men did you see?

Tea or coffee, which do you prefer?

Which European language is the easiest to learn?

Which the boy won the match?

Notice: when the sense is not exactly selective, we use 'what.' Compare

E.g. What foreign languages do you know? And

Which European language is the easiest to learn?

What shall we read? And

Which of Shakespeare's play shall we read?

“What” 1. What is general meaning. It is generally used for things.

E.g. What is your name?

What are you doing?

What do you want from me?

What did he say?

2. Sometimes “what” can be used for a person if the question insists on the classification.
(profession)

E.g. What are you? (refers to a classification)

What is he? (refers to a classification)

Note: if the question is an indirect one the verb is not inverted. Compare

- “ What are you doing?” (direct) and
- He asked me what I was doing. (indirect)

H. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

These are the pronouns that end in- “self” or “selves”

Singular	Plural
Myself	Ourselves
Yourself	Yourselves
Himself, herself, itself	Themselves

I. THE POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

The possessive pronoun in place of a noun; the possessive adjective qualifies the noun.

1. The possessive pronoun, like the possessive adjective, changes its form according to the number and gender of the possessor, and not as in some other languages according to the thing possessed.

Examples: The boy lost his book. The boy lost his. The girl lost her book. The girl lost hers.

2. The form of the pronoun or adjective doesn’t change with the number or the word qualified.

Examples: The boy lost his book. The boy lost his.

The boy lost his books. The boy lost his.

3. The possessive form is used in English where often the definite article would be used in other languages.

Examples: - I have had my hair cut. He hurt his foot.

4. “own” is sometimes added to make the possessive more emphatic.

E.g. “ A man may do as he likes with his own goods; they are his own”

The idiomatic phrases: on my own, on his own, etc mean alone or unaided.

- I was on my own yesterday. I did that work on my own.

5. The form of mine, of his, of yours, etc...is frequently used.

A friend of yours called to see me.

That brother of mine has been in trouble.

There is a difference in meaning between:

a) On the desk were some letters of mine, and

b) On the desk were some of my letters.

Sentence (a) states that some letters were there.

Sentence (b) states that these letters were only a part of the total number.

Possessive pronouns are:

Mine ---- ours

Yours --- yours

His }
Hers } theirs

Its

2. ADJECTIVES

You can recognize an adjective because it always refers to a noun, a pronoun, or any other word or group of words playing the part of a noun.

Examples: - Living *well* is the *best* revenge.

- *The shrewd* guess, *the fertile* hypothesis, *the courageous* leap to a tentative conclusion--- these are *the most valuable* coins of *the* thinker at work. By J. Bruner

- The *opposing* team played *an aggressive, sophisticated* game.

An adjective is a word that qualifies (modifies) a noun.

E.g. - The new book.

- The black sheep.

An adjective may be used (1) to qualify a noun, i.e. as an EPITHET as in the examples above, or (2) to form PART OF PREDICATE and say what the person or thing denoted by the subject is declared to be, e.g. The book is new. The sheep is black. It is then said to be used predicatively.

KINDS OF ADJECTIVES

1. **Adjectives of quality:** which show what kind, e.g. a brave boy, a jealous girl, a lazy student, a Rwandese student.
2. **Adjectives of quantity:** which tell how many or how much. These may be: a) definite: one, two, three..., b) indefinite: all, some, several, half...
3. **Possessive adjectives:** possessive adjectives show possession. They are: my, your, his, her, its, our, your, and their. E.g. My God is my Savior. Their names are Paul and John.
4. **Distributive adjectives:** which show that the persons or things denoted by the noun are taken singularly or in separate lots. These are: each, every, either, and neither. Each is used for one of two, or one of any exceeding two. Every is used for any number exceeding two. Examples: Each of the two boys gained prize. Every one of the boys gained prize. Distributive adjectives are always in singular. E.g.- Every one of the girls has done her work. - Neither book is good.

NOTICE WITH 'NEITHER'

- Neither can be used as an adverb. Eg. He will neither eat nor drink.
- Neither can be used as a conjunction. E.g. If you don't go neither will I.
- Neither is used as an adjective. Neither driver was injured.
- Neither can also be used as a pronoun. E.g. Which do you want? Neither.

5. Demonstrative adjective: Demonstrative adjectives point out.

E.g. This child is stranger. I hate such words.

RECOGNIZING ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

Sometimes we can recognize a word as an adjective or an adverb by its form, but sometimes the same form of a word is used for both functions. In these cases, it is difficult to distinguish between an adjective and an adverb. One clue is that many adverbs end in “ly.”

COMPOUND ADJECTIVES

Compound adjectives are formed with several various words. The commonest are:

1. adjective + adjective E.g. Dark green eyes.
2. adjective + gerund E.g. A good – looking girl
3. adjective + past participle E.g. A ready – made suit.
4. adjective + noun E.g. A long – distance telephone call. A ten-year old child. A two – way conversation.
5. adjective + noun with the suffix –ed E.g. A one-armed boy. A double- bedded room. A blue- eyed child.
6. Noun + adjective E.g. sky – blue shirt
7. Noun + past participle E.g. A worm –eaten bird
8. Noun + noun + ed E.g. A thatch – roofed house (nyakatsi)
9. Adverb + past participle E.g. A well educated boy.

THE POSITION OF THE ADJECTIVE

A qualifying adjective has two positions in a sentence.

1. Before the noun it qualifies; i.e. the adjective precedes its noun.

Examples: The new book is good.

A new powerful and very expensive car is very good.

2. After the verb to be or a linking verb

Examples: The house is new. She looks happy.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

Adjectives have three forms that show a greater or lesser degree of the characteristic of the basic word: the positive, the comparative and the superlative degree. The basic word is called the positive.

The comparative is used in referring to two persons, things or groups. The superlative is used to refer to more than two people, things or groups; it indicates the greatest or least degree of the quality named.

COMPARISON OF EQUALITY

In the comparison of equality, the two subjects are equal.

Subject 1 + verb + as + adjective + as + subject 2

Examples:

- Peter is as tall as John.
- I am as old as you.
- Chemistry is as difficult as physics.
- She sings as well as her husband.

COMPARISON OF INFERIORITY

In the comparison of inferiority one subject is inferior to the other.

Subject 1 + verb + less + adjective + than + subject 2

Examples:

- A house is less big than a church.
- A bicycle is less expensive than a car.
- She drives less quickly than her husband.

COMPARATIVE FORM OF DECREASE

“Less and less”

Examples: - I feel less and less weak.

- As he grows old, uncle Edward is less and less selfish.

COMPARATIVE OF ONE SYLLABLE

Most adjectives of one syllable become comparative by adding “er” to the ending; they become superlative by adding “est” to the ending.

If an adjective ends in – y, the –y changes into ‘i’ before adding the ending.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Little	Littler, less	Littlest, least
Happy	happier	Happiest
Late	Later	Latest
Brave	Braver	Bravest
Lovely	Lovelier	Loveliest
Long	Longer	Longest
Friendly	Friendlier	Friendliest
Fast	Faster	Fastest
Tall	Taller	Tallest
Clear	Clearer	Clearest
Ugly	Uglier	Ugliest
Clean	Cleaner	Cleanest

Dirty	Dirtier	Dirtiest
Dark	Darker	Darkest
Light	Lighter	Lightest
Easy	Easier	Easiest
Fancy	Fancier	Fanciest
Plain	Plainer	Plainest
Fat	Fatter	Fattest
Thin	Thinner	Thinnest
Full	Fuller	Fullest
Empty	Emptier	Emptiest
Large	Larger	Largest
Small	Smaller	Smallest
Low	Lower	Lowest
High	Higher	Highest
Narrow	Narrower	Narrowest
Wide	Wider	Widest
New	Newer	Newest
Old	Older	Oldest
Messy	Messier	Messiest
Neat	Neater	Neatest
Quiet	Quieter	Quietest
Loud	Louder	Loudest

Rich	Richer	Richest
Poor	Poorer	Poorest
Dull	Duller	Dullest
Slow	Slower	Slowest
Thick	Thicker	Thickest
Soft	Softer	Softest
Hard	Harder	Hardest
Short	Shorter	Shortest
Tight	Tighter	Tightest
Loose	Looser	Loosest
Weak	Weaker	Weakest
Strong	Stronger	Strongest
Sick	Sicker	Sickest
Hungry	Hungrier	Hungriest
Thirsty	Thirstier	Thirstiest
Clever	Cleverer	Cleverest
Cold	Colder	Coldest
Hot	Hotter	Hottest
Sad	Sadder	Saddest
Cool	Cooler	Coollest
Young	Younger	Youngest

COMPARATIVE OF DISYLLABIC

Adjectives of two or more syllables form their comparative degree by adding “more” or “less” and they form their superlative degree by adding “most” or “least.”

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Handsome	More or less handsome	Most or least handsome
Timid	More or less timid	Most or least timid
Tentative	More tentative or less tentative	Most or least tentative
Active	More active or less active	Most or least active
Beautiful	More or less beautiful	Most or least beautiful
Difficult	More or less difficult	Most or least difficult
Interesting	More or less interesting	Most or least interesting
Generous	More or less generous	Most or least generous

Some adjectives are irregular, their comparatives and superlatives are formed by changes in the words themselves.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Good	Better	Best
Many	More	Most
Much	More	Most
Little	Less, lesser	Least
Bad	Worse	Worst
Far	Farther, further	Farthest, furthest

Late	Later or latter	Latest or last
Well	Better	best
Ill	Worse	Worst
Old	Older or elder	Oldest or eldest

NOTES ON COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

- We double the last consonant when it is preceded by one single vowel.

Example:

- A church is bigger than a house.
- Paul is fatter than Mary.
- Jane is thinner than I.
- Latter means the second of two and in contrast with former.

Example: I studied French and Germany, the former language I speak well, but the latter one only imperfectly.

- Last means the final one. E.g. “The Tempest” was probably the last play Shakespeare wrote.
- Latest means the most recent. E.g. The latest letter arrived on Monday.
- Less is used for quantitative. E.g. Use less butter. You will lose less money if you follow my plan.
- Lesser is used for qualitative. The lesser of two evils. There is a lesser degree of irony in this novel.
- Farther refers generally to distance. E.g. I can’t walk any farther.
- Further means additional, greater degree, time or quality. E.g. I will give you further details later.
- Elder / eldest: refers generally to relatives. E.g. This is my elder / eldest sister.
- Older / oldest refers generally to ages. I am older than you. Paul is the oldest.
- Much is used with the singular. E.g. I have not much time.

USE OF QUANTITATIVE ADJECTIVES

Quantitative adjectives are adjectives that indicate or express quantity or number.

1. *Much*: expresses a big quantity. The noun is uncountable and singular.

E.g. A rich has much money. Kabuye Factory produces much sugar.

2. *Many*: is used to indicate a big number. The number is countable and plural.

E.g. There are many persons in the market. Many wild animals live in forest.

3. *Some*: Indicates a part of (not all), it is used for countable and uncountable nouns.

E.g. Some students in this class wear glasses.

When I have some money I can go to a restaurant.

Have you any news? Yes, I have some.

4. *Any*: is used both in negative and in interrogative sentences. But ‘any’ in negation, the verb is also negative.

E.g. Have you any news? No, I haven’t any.

Protestants don’t drink any beer.

I have some letters, have you any?

Have you any work to do?

In affirmative form “any” means “every”

E.g. A president can buy any car he likes.

If I have much money I can visit any country.

5. *No*: It expresses the negation but the verb is affirmative.

E.g. He has no money.

He is no friend of mine.

6. *A few*: Indicates a small number, the noun is countable and plural; a few is more positive

E.g. There are a few girls in this class.

A few African countries speak Spanish and Portuguese

I enjoy my life there. I have a few friends and we meet quite often.

7. *Few*: Indicates a negative idea.

E.g. He isn't popular. He's few friends. (not enough friends)

8. *A little*: Indicates a small quantity, the noun is uncountable and singular.

E.g. There is a little water in this bucket.

9. *Little*: Indicates a negative idea. The noun is uncountable and singular.

We must be quick; there is little time.

10. *A lot of = lots of = a great deal of = plenty of* all are synonyms. They indicate a big number or a big quantity.

E.g. A lot of luck. A lot of friends. Lots of time. Plenty of time. Lots of people.

SOME COMPOUND NOUNS FROM QUANTITATIVE ADJECTIVES

Someone, something, somewhere, sometime (s)

No one, nobody, nothing, nowhere.

Anyone, anybody, anything, anywhere, anytime.

NOUNS FROM SOME ADJECTIVES

NOUN	ADJECTIVE
Absence	Absent
Accident	Accidental
Angel	Angelic

Attraction	Attractive
Beauty	Beautiful
Boy	Boyish
Bravery	Brave
Breadth	Broad
Care	Careful
Child	Childlike, childish
Circle	Circular
Cruelty	Cruel
Courage	Courageous
Coward	Cowardly
Crime	Criminal
Danger	Dangerous
Dirt	Dirty
Fault	Faulty
Fool	Foolish
Freedom	Free
Friend	Friendly
Girl	Girlish
Hero	Heroic
Honesty	Honest
Hunger	Hungry

Man	Manly
Woman	Womanly
Mercy	Merciful
Mischief	Mischievous
Music	Musical
Nation	National
Noise	Noisy
Parent	Parental
Poison	Poisonous
Pride	Proud
Truth	True
Quarrel	Quarrelsome
Safety	Safe
Silence	Silent
Violence	Violent
Storm	Stormy
Sun	Sunny
Rain	Rainy
Urgency	Urgent
Vacancy	Vacant
Wind	Windy
Fog	Foggy

4 ADVERBS

An adverb is a word which modifies the meaning of a verb, an adjective or another adverb. An adverb mostly answers the question: what, how, why, when or where.

Examples: a) John writes quickly.

b) That is a very sweet mango.

c) Ben reads quite clearly.

In sentence a) ‘quickly’ shows how or what manner John writes, so quickly tells more about the verb ‘writes’

In sentence b) ‘very’ shows how much the mango is sweet, in that case ‘very’ is an adverb that modifies the adjective ‘sweet’

In sentence c) ‘quite’ shows how Ben reads clearly, here quite modifies the adverb ‘clearly’

An adverb can be one word or group of words. When there is a group of words not containing a verb, it is called a phrase.

Example: hurriedly cross the road, through the gate, before the sun – rise, etc.

KINDS OF ADVERBS

Adverbs can be divided into several groups according to their uses.

A. Adverbs of time

These are not usually formed from adjectives; they answer the word ‘when.’ Here are the commonest: now, before, afterwards, then, soon, often, always, today, yesterday, at once, first, already, tomorrow, still, again, not yet, at last, finally, sometimes, seldom, late, early, immediately.

Examples: - It’s your birthday already!

- He is still studying.
- I had dreamt her before.
- They haven’t arrived yet.
- Very soon, we’re going to leave.

B. Adverbs of place

Adverbs of place show the place and express the question “where.” Here are the commonest ones: here, there, anywhere, everywhere, where, outside, somewhere else, far away, on top, on it, over, above, underneath, below, inside, in front of, ahead, behind.

Examples: Go in front of. Don’t come here. Don’t stay outside. You will find my name on it.

C. Adverbs of manner

These adverbs of manner show “how” or in what manner (way) the things are done or persons are.

The commonest ones are: badly, well, easily, slowly, carelessly, loudly, quickly, gently, softly, hardly.

Examples: Paul writes hardly. This letter is well written. Slowly and sadly I left her.

D. Adverbs of degree

These adverbs show how much, in what degree or to what extent things are. The common adverbs are: only, very much, quite, rather, very, too, almost, so, enough, as much, many, a lot, little, less, more, and about.

Examples: - You have had enough to eat!

- We read a lot.
- She doesn’t talk too much.
- I’m feeling a little better.
- They are very shy.
- I was too careless.
- You are quite beautiful.
- I am so glad.
- She is almost on time.

E. Adverbs of frequency

The following adverbs can also be used as the frequency adverbs. A frequency adverb is an adverb which tells us how often an action takes place.

Frequency adverbs are: always, usually, unusually, sometimes, twice, often, seldom, frequently, daily, occasionally, and rarely.

Examples: - We usually remember to pray when we have problems.

- God is always ready to help us.
- Christians often have troubles.
- I rarely drink beer.

F. Affirmative adverbs

Adverbs of affirmation are adverbs that confirming the action in the sentence. There is no probability idea. These are surely, certainly, really, exactly, truly, and yes.

Examples: - Surely Mukeshimana is kind.

- He certainly teaches.
- They are really Rwandans.

G. Interrogative adverbs

The following are adverbs of interrogative: when, where, how, and why.

Examples: - Where is your mother? (adverb of place)

- When did you start your job? (adverb of time)
- Why are you late? (adverb of reason)
- How does he type? (adverb of manner)

HOW TO FORM AN ADVERB

1. Adverbs of manner are generally formed by adding “ly” to the corresponding adjective.

Noun	Adjective	Adverb
Truth	truthful	truthfully
Intention	intentional	intentionally
Theory	theoretical	theoretically
Quiet	quiet	quietly

2. When an adjective ends in ‘e’ you only add – ly

Example: wide --- widely. She opened widely her eyes.

Exceptions: true --- truly; whole---wholly

3. If an adjective ends in ‘y’ preceded by a consonant, we change ‘y’ into ‘i’ and then we add – ly

Examples: happy – happily

hungry – hungrily

easy – easily

Exceptions: shy – shyly; dry – dryly

4. When an adjective ends ‘ic’ we simply add – ally

Examples: automatic – automatically; scientific—scientifically; intrinsic – intrinsically; drastic—drastically

Exceptions: public – publicly

5. If an adjective ends in ‘le’ you have to drop - ‘e’ then add – ‘y’

Examples: gentle – gently, simple – simply, sensible – sensibly

6. The adverb corresponding to ‘good’ is ‘well.’

7. Adverbs that do not end in – ‘ly’ are: now, then, soon, very, often, quite, when, down, yet, around, still, almost, here, too, there, and yes.

Examples: - I’ll be quite unhappy if you don’t say yes.

- Now they are ready to be very helpful.
- Call me often if you still love me.
- I almost feel at ease when I talk to her.
- He is around here.

Examples of adjectives that end in ‘ly’

Lovely, lively, homely, likely, orderly, friendly, kindly, timely, lonely, jolly, lowly

- Vedrine is a lovely girl but her sister is homely.
- It was a timely decision that led to friendly relation between the two schools.
- On the lonely cross – country drive, he wasn’t likely to meet many kindly strangers.

ADVERBS THAT HAVE TWO ACCEPTABLE FORMS

- Direct – directly
- Tight – tightly
- High – highly
- Quick – quickly
- Deep – deeply

ADVERBS FROM NOUNS

Nouns	Adverbs
- Ability	ably
- Duty	dutifully
- Economy	economically
- Hope	hopefully

ADVERBS FROM ADJECTIVES

Adjectives	Adverbs
- Able	ably
- Simple	simply
- Skillful	skillfully
- True	truly
- Wise	wisely

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

Adverbs are compared in the same way as adjectives.

1. Adverbs of one syllable take 'er' for the comparative degree and 'est' for the superlative degree.

Example: near – nearer – nearest

2. Adverbs of more than one syllable form their comparison by adding 'more' or 'less' for the comparative degree and 'most' or 'least' for the superlative.

Examples:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Easily	more easily	most easily
	less easily	least easily
Quickly	more quickly	most quickly
	less quickly	least quickly
Brightly	more brightly	most brightly
	less brightly	least brightly

Exception

Early	earlier	earliest
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SOME IRREGULAR ADVERBS

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Little	less	least
Well	better	best
Far	farther	farthest
	further	furthest
Badly	worse	worst
Much	more	most

Some of examples:

- Mary is the laziest girl I know.
- This is the creamiest cheese I've never tested.
- Marcus is the shortest boy in the class.
- Of those five girls, I like Christine best.
- My teacher is the kindest in the school.
- This book is the most interesting of the three.

Notice: use the superlative to compare more than two things or persons.

- Mary is the lazier of the two.
- I've tasted creamier cheese than this.
- Of the two, I like Paul better.
- My teacher is kinder than yours.
- This book is more interesting than that one.

Notice: Use the comparative to compare two things or persons.

THE PLACE OF THE ADVERB

1. The adverb is generally placed before adjectives, other adverbs, and past participles.

Examples: - He was very clever and was exceedingly well educated.

But notice 'enough' which comes after the adjective.

That is good enough for me.

2. Generally adverbs of manner come after verbs that they modify.

James walks slowly. She was speaking quietly.

3. When the verb has an object, it generally comes after the object.

Examples: he banged the door noisily. The wife was kissing her husband gently. The driver was driving his car quickly.

When the object is an infinitive, it may come before. They kindly asked me to stay at their home.

4. Adverbs of place and time are put at the end.

Examples: he left early. I am sitting here.

But adverbs of time are put either at the beginning or at the end.

‘Yet’: is placed at the end of the sentence. He has not finished yet.

‘still’ is placed before the verb. He still writes.

5. The adverbs: never, often, always, seldom, sometimes, usually, precede the principal verb.

Examples

- I always do that.
- I have often done that.
- They will never do that.

But with the verb “to be” they follow the verb.

E.g. - He is never at home. They are sometimes on time.

6. Adverbs of *definite time*: yesterday, today, tomorrow, are placed at the end of the sentence, or, if we wish to emphasize on the time, at the beginning.

Example: I went to his house yesterday. Or Yesterday, I went to his house.

7. If an adverb of time and an adverb of time place are used together, the latter precedes the former.

Examples: - He usually goes there early. We went there yesterday.

8. When there are adverbs of place, time, and manner, the form is manner, place, and time.

Example: They were sitting calmly there last week.

9. Some adverbs come either in front position or in end position, or in middle position. They are normally, sometimes, and occasionally.

E.g. I feel happy sometimes. Sometimes I feel happy. I sometimes feel happy.

10. Also and too. ‘*Also*’ comes in middle position. He also speaks French.

‘*Too*’ comes at the end. He speaks French too.

Too means also, as well, and in addition.

VERBS AND TENSES

1. A *verb* is a word that shows an action in the sentence. It is the life of the sentence. Verbs express action or a state of being. Action verbs are often found in predicate (verb+ c) that tell what the subjects of the sentences do or did.

Verbs express also action that can be seen or heard. For example: to play. Verbs also express action of the mind such as to think, to know, and to doubt. Verbs of state of being are usually found in predicates that tell what or where the subject is or what the subject is like. Some examples are: it was a good gift. The characters are Indians.

Small changes in their form reflect many differences in meaning. One variable is number; a verb can be either singular or plural.

2. *Agreement.* The most important kind of agreement is between the subject and the verb. The verb must agree with the subject in both number and person. That is to say, if the subject is singular, the verb must also be, if the subject is in the plural, the verb must be plural.

3. *Classification:* verbs are classified into three groups namely auxiliaries verbs (to have and to be), defective verbs (can, may, and must) and ordinary verbs (others).

Review the auxiliaries and defective verbs.

4. *How to conjugate ordinary verbs.*

There are three rules we follow when we conjugate these verbs in simple present.

- We add “es” to verbs ending in ch, sh, o, x, s, and ss to the third person singular. (he, she, & it) Examples: *he teaches, she does, and it passes.*
- Verbs ending in –y preceded by a consonant, the –y changes into [i] and then we add “es” to the third person singular. When the verbs ending in – y preceded by a vowel, we only add “s” to the 3rd p.s. Examples: *he studies, she tries, and it dries, he says.*
- Other verbs take “s” to the 3rd p.s. For example: he speaks, she writes.

5. *Negative and interrogative forms*

1. The negative form of the verb is shown:

a) For tenses containing an auxiliary or modal auxiliary (defective verb), by “NOT” after the auxiliary.

Examples: I am not going. He can not go. He has not a pen. I may not do.
He must not come.

b) For ordinary verbs; the rule is: subject+ do not or does not + verb

Examples: I do not understand. They do not study. She does not come.

2) The interrogative form is shown:

a) In tenses containing an auxiliary by an inversion of the subject and verb.

Examples: Have you a car? Are you here? Should he speak? Can he say something?

b) For ordinary verbs the rule is: do or does + subject +verb

Examples: Do you eat potatoes?

Does it drink milk?

Do they play football?

NOTE: Instead of the ‘do’ form, a negative pronoun or adjective may sometimes be used.

E.g. I know no reason for disagreeing.

She knows nothing about English.

I meet nobody today.

The double negative, e.g. I do not meet nobody, must never be used though it may be heard in the speech of uneducated people.

Sometimes 'do' is not used if the sentence begins with an interrogative pronoun or adjective. E.g. who reads the classics? What helps you to understand English?

6. *The interrogative and negative form in simple past*

1) The negative form of the verb is shown:

- a) For tenses containing an auxiliary verb, by "not" after the auxiliary. E.g.
I had not money. I was not at home. They could not call.
- b) For ordinary verbs the rule is: subject + did not +verb
Examples: They did not attend the class yesterday.

She did not come.

I did not study.

2) The interrogative form is shown:

- a) In tenses containing an auxiliary by an inversion of the subject and verb.

Examples: Was he a teacher? Could she come? Had he a car?

- b) For ordinary verbs: did + subject+ verb

For example: Did he smoke? Did they sing?

7. *Tenses*. The tense of a verb is the form used to denote the TIME of the action and its completeness or incompleteness. The English tense system is quite complicated, but the most common problem is not how to form tenses. The mechanical manipulation of verbs is easily learned through a few rules and formulas. The biggest problem is deciding which tense to use in a given situation; because tense is not the same as time. There are three times at which an action can take place: *present, past, and future*. And in each of these, there are three stages of completeness or incompleteness

7. 1. *Simple present tense*

The simple present tense shows clearly that in English; tense is not the same as the time. The present tense is not usually used to describe present time. Instead, it describes activities and states which are generally and universally true.

Examples: A secretary writes letters. I always go to school on foot.

Africa is a continent. For more info see how to conjugate ordinary verbs and auxiliaries in simple present tense.

Pronunciation: after verbs end in voiced sounds, the “s” for he, she, it is pronounced like /z/; examples: answers, brings, buys, carries, and gives.

After verbs end in voiceless sounds, such as f, k, p, and t the third person singular –s is pronounced like /s/

Examples: helps, keeps, likes, talks, laughs, and wants.

USE: - We use simple present tense to say or ask about what we do regularly or every day. It is also called present habitual tense because it is used to describe habitual, repeated actions.

Examples: I play handball every Sunday afternoon.

My parents take me to school in their car.

A musician usually works with others to make music.

- We also use simple present tense to describe or ask about general truth.

Examples: Actions speak louder than words.

The Albert Nile flows out of Lake Albert.

The earth turns round the sun.

The moon shines at night.

Adverbs of frequency are common time tellers (markers) in the present tense. They tell how often an action is repeated. They are: always, usually, often, sometimes, occasionally, seldom, hardly, ever, never, and every.

Examples: I always go to KIREHE.

He sometimes finishes late.

Every week we go to camp.

7.2 Present continuous tense. The present continuous tense or a progressive tense is a tense that includes the *auxiliary to be* in present and then we add a verb which expresses an action and finally *ing* form.

Examples: we are learning English tenses.

He is eating banana.

They are playing football.

7.2.1 How to form the present continuous tense

- When a verb ends in a single “e” we drop it before adding “ing”
E.g. I am driving a car. But to be – being.
- When a verb ends in “ee” we simply add “ing”
E.g. they are fleeing to Tanzania.
- When a verb ends in “ie” change the two letters into “y” and adds “ing”

E.g. they are tying their cows. (to tie)

You are lying. (to lie)

- When a monosyllabic verb ends in a consonant preceded by a single vowel, we double the final consonant and next we add “ing”
E.g. The policeman is stopping the thief.

Children are clapping their hands.

NB. In English, a certain group of verbs cannot take any continuous tense. These are verbs which describe mental states or mental activity or conditions of things.

7.2.2. Time markers: Time markers for present continuous are: now, this, at this moment, exclamation mark.

7.2.3. *USE*: The present continuous tense describes present time. It is used for action which is happening now.

7.2.4. *A particular use*: the present continuous tense expresses also a short (near) future.

E.g. Tomorrow, I am visiting my friends.

I am going to the market this afternoon.

We are going to school tomorrow.

What are you doing during the school holidays?

VERBS FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS

Admit- advise- anticipate- appreciate- avoid- complete- consider- delay- deny- discuss- dislike- enjoy- finish- forget- can't help- keep- mention- mind- miss- postpone- practice- quit- recall- recollect- recommend- regret- remember- resent-resist- risk- stop- suggest-tolerate- understand.

GO + GERUND

Go: bird watching, boating, bowling, camping, canoeing, dancing, fishing, hiking, hunting, jogging, mountain climbing, running, sailing, shopping, sightseeing, skating, skiing, sledding, swimming, tobogganing, window shopping

VERBS FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVES

Afford-agree- appear- arrange- ask-beg- care- claim-consent-decide-demand-deserve-expect-fail-forget- hesitate- hope-learn-manage-mean-need-offer-plan-prepare-pretend-promise-refuse-regret-remember-seem-struggle-swear-threaten-volunteer-wait-want-wish.

COMMON VERBS FOLLOWED BY EITHER INFINITIVES OR GERUND

Verb + infinitive or gerund with no difference in meaning

Begin, like, hate, start, love, can't stand, continue, prefer*, can't bear

Examples: it began to rain or it began raining. I started to work or I started working.

It was beginning to rain (if the main verb is progressive, an infinitive is required).

Prefer + gerund: I prefer staying home to going to the concert.

Prefer + infinitive: I prefer to stay home than (to) go to the concert.

Verb + infinitive or gerund with a difference in meaning

Remember – regret- forget- try

I always remember to lock the door (remember + infinitive (remember to perform responsibility))

I remember seeing him. (Remember + gerund) means remember something that happened in the past

I will never forget seeing the Akagera Park. (forget + gerund) forget something that happened in the past.

I regret to tell you that you failed the test (regret+ infinitive) regret to say bad news

I regret lending him my money. (regret +gerund) regret something that happened in the past

I am trying to learn English (try + infinitive) make an effort

The room was hot. I tried opening the window, but that didn't help. Try +gerund experiment with a new or different approach to see it works.

7.3. The present perfect tense.

7.3.1. The form is: have in present + past participle.

Examples: The three friends have known each other for many years.

They have been neighbors since they were children.

They have grown up together.

Tom has bought a new car.

7.3.2. Pronunciation

In normal spoken English, pronouns contract with the auxiliary verbs “has” and “have” in the present perfect. He's, she's and it's sound like the contractions for he+ is, she+ is, and it +is.

7.3.3. *Time markers*

Some words frequently used the present perfect are: just, never, ever, already, since, for, not yet, and still.

7.3.4. *USE:* the present perfect tense expresses an action that has been completed before the present time. This action has an effect on the present situation, but it is not happening in the present. The time ore period is not précised.

7.4. *The present perfect continuous tense*

7.4.1. *The form:* have +been +verb +ing

Examples: The people have been standing on the corner for fifteen minutes. They have been watching the traffic, looking for the bus, and hoping it will come soon. They have been talking about the bus and complaining about the weather.

7.4.2. *Time markers:* time markers show the length of the activity are: for and since

Examples: He has been studying Spanish for six years.

She has been living in England since 1990.

7.4.3. *USE:* the present perfect continuous tense is used for activities or states that began in the past and have continued to the present. The activity or state has not stopped at the present time, it is still happening.

7.5. *The simple past tense:* there are two types of the verbs when we consider the simple past tense. Regular verbs and irregular verbs.

7.5.1. *Regular verbs:*

1) They form their past tense by adding a- d or an-ed to the basic verb without (to)

Examples: cook—cooked, walk—walked, finish—finished, smoke—smoked.

2) Verbs ending in – y form their past tense by changing –y into “ied” if –y is preceded by a consonant.

Examples: try- tried, carry—carried, study—studied

However, when –y is preceded by a vowel, only ed is added.

Examples: play—played

7.5.2. *Irregular verbs*

The irregular verbs do not respect the general rule of adding “ed” or “d” to the basic verb.

Examples: see—saw, buy—bought, eat—ate

7.5.3. *Pronunciation*: the –ed for regular verbs is pronounced /t/ if the infinitive is ending in k, f, s, sh, ch, and p sounds.

Examples: worked, washed, laughed, passed, and watched.

If the last sound of infinitive is /d/ or /t/ the ed is /id/

Examples: acted, started, decided, ended, and wanted.

For other cases /ed/ is pronounced /d/

7.5.4. *Time markers*

They are yesterday, last, ago, and specific points in time with the prepositions in, on, and at.

7.5.5. *USE*: the most basic use of simple past tense is to describe one completed action in the past at a precise period.

Examples: He was ill (wrong) = he was ill last week.

I did not travel to Tanzania in 2008.

7.6. *The past continuous tense*

The past continuous tense is a tense that includes the auxiliary to be in past and then we add a verb which expresses an action and finally “ing” form.

Examples: I arrived yesterday when Peter was eating.

She was standing at the side of the road when a bicycle knocked her down.

I was studying while she was sleeping.

The past continuous tense is rarely used by itself. Rather, it is used to describe what was taking place when another activity happened in the past. Usually the past continuous is joined to another clause in the past continuous or in the past tense.

7.6.1. Time markers

The time marker “while” introduces a clause in the past continuous and expresses a *simultaneity* situation.

E.g.: Safi was cooking while her husband was sleeping.

The time marker “when” introduces clauses in the past. It expresses *anteriority*.

He was eating when we arrived last Tuesday.

7.6.2. *USE*: -- The past continuous tense is used when an action was happening before the second was completed.

-- To talk about something that was happening in the past.

Example: What were you doing at four yesterday?

7.7. The past perfect tense

The form of past perfect tense is “had+ past participle”

Examples: I had studied English before I left Germany.

When I reached Nambwire’s house, she had already left.

I got to the library at five past five and it had just closed.

7.7.1. Time markers

Common time markers as in present perfect tense are; already, just, and yet.

Examples: The ship had already received six ice warnings on its radio when it struck.

The students had not yet received their bulletins when I arrived.

7.7.2. *USE*: the past perfect tense has two uses.

The first is used to show an action which was completed before a second time in the past.

When a past perfect tense is used in the same sentence with a past tense, the order of events is clear from the tenses themselves. The past perfect action happened first. The word when can be used to join such sentences.

Example: Only 651 people had gotten into lifeboats when the Titanic sank.

The second is used to indicate an action that had happened very far.

Example; Kayibanda had been the president of Rwanda.

7.8. *The past perfect continuous tense.*

7.8.1. *Form* is: had + been + verb +ing

Examples: I had been driving for twenty minutes when the accident happened.

I'd been stopping to clean my window every few minutes.

7.8.2. *USE*: the past perfect continuous tense describes an activity or a state which began in the past and lasted until a second time in the past.

Examples: it had been snowing for an hour when I started to drive home.

I had been waiting ten minutes when the police came in.

7.9. *The simple future tense*

7.9.1. *Form* is: will + verb

Examples: Pascal will be a manager of Kabuye factory after his studies.

I will help you if I can.

7.9.2. *Time markers.* The common time tellers are next, in the future, in two years, from now, and tomorrow.

7.9.3. USE

The future tense describes actions in the future.

7.10. The future continuous tense

7.10.1. Form: will + be + verb + ing

Examples: this year we will be learning new skills.

I won't be here on Saturday. I will be watching the football match.

7. 10. 2. USE: the future continuous is used to talk about or ask a period of time in the future.

7.11. The future perfect tense.

7.11.1. the form: will+ have+ past participle

Examples: They will have checked the oil.

He'll have repaired any problems in the car.

7.11.2. USE: the future perfect tense shows a completed action which will happen before a second action in the future. The future perfect is used with the action that happens first. The other action is often introduced by a time word such as 'when', 'by', and takes a present tense.

Examples: The mechanics will have checked the car when it leaves the pit.

The mechanics will have checked the car by the time that it leaves the pit.

The mechanics will have worked on the car before the race starts.

Do not confuse similar verbs. Two pairs of verbs that often cause trouble are lie and lay and sit and set.

Present	Past	Past participle	ING form
Lie (to rest)	Lay	Lain	Lying
Lay (to place)	Laid	Laid	Laying
Sit (to be seated)	Sat	Sat	Sitting
Set (to place)	Set	Set	Setting

Regular Verbs List

There are thousands of regular verbs in English. This is a list of 600 of the more common regular verbs. Note that there are some spelling variations in American English (for example, "practise" becomes "practice" in American English).

- accept
- add
- admire
- admit
- advise
- afford
- agree
- allow
- amuse
- analyse
- announce
- annoy
- answer
- apologise
- applaud
- appreciate
- approve
- argue
- arrange
- arrest
-

Irregular Verbs List

This is a list of some irregular verbs in English. Of course, there are many others, but these are the more common irregular verbs.

Base Form	Past Simple	Past Participle
awake	Awoke	awoken
be	was, were	been
beat	Beat	beaten

THE GERUND

The gerund is a verb form that ends in 'ing' and is used as a noun.

Examples: - Writing a paper is not as easy as you might think.

- John's laughing in class caused the principal to reprimand him.
- Running requires diligence.

The gerund has two tenses: present and perfect.

The perfect tense refers to action occurring before the action represented by the main verb in the sentence.

Present: walking, speaking

Perfect: having walked, having spoken.

Examples: - I enjoy walking so I stay healthy.

- Eating all those cookies gave Leon a stomachache.
- Having completed the job earned me a vacation.
- Having missed the bus made us late for the concert.

WRITING GOOD SENTENCES

What is a sentence?

A sentence is a group of words which makes a complete sense by itself, i.e. a complete thought. A sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, a question mark, or an exclamation point. Every sentence, unless, it is a command, has a subject and a predicate (a verb + complement). The subject of the sentence is the person, place, thing, or idea the sentence is about. The verb is what the subject does (action) or is (state of being).

Example:

A big dog barked at us. The sentence names something: A big dog. It tells something the dog did: barked at us. As you see a sentence has these parts 1) a subject and 2) a predicate (verb+ complement / object)

Examples: - The student is reading the book.

- Harry drives his father's car.
- We saw a flock of geese.
- Kabarondo is a small town.

Clauses

The subjects and verbs in a sentence are contained in word groups called **clauses**. Clauses are the primary parts of a sentence; putting them together in different ways creates different sentence structures.

An **independent clause** is a group of words that contain a subject and a verb and expresses a complete thought. An independent clause can stand alone as a sentence. In fact, every sentence contains at least one independent clause.

E.g. The robins have migrated south already.

A **dependent clause** includes a subject and a verb but does not express a complete thought. It usually begins with a **subordinating conjunction** or a **relative pronoun**.

A dependent clause cannot stand alone as a sentence. To complete its meaning, it must be joined to an independent clause. Some sentence types contain one or more dependent

SENTENCE COMBINING

Good writers vary the structure of their sentences in order to include lots of information and to keep their readers' interest. **Sentence combining** is the process of building compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences from simple sentences. Sentence combining is especially useful in generating strong support in paragraphs.

COORDINATION

- Writers use **coordination** to combine two or more ideas of equal importance, giving each idea equal weight.
- *Original sentences:*

- Renovating my house is exciting. Remodeling can be expensive and tiring.
- *Combined sentences using coordination:*
- Renovating my house is exciting, but remodeling can be expensive and tiring.
- Renovating my house is exciting; however, remodeling can be expensive and tiring.

Coordinating Conjunctions

- A simple way to coordinate two ideas is to use a **comma** and a **coordinating conjunction** to create a compound sentence.
- *Original sentences:*
- I like to play Tennis. I enjoy swimming.
- *Combined sentences:*
- IC CC IC
- I like to play tennis, **and** I enjoy swimming. (IC: Independent clause; CC: coordinating conjunction)
- To choose the conjunction that most clearly shows the relationship between the ideas, the writer must know the meaning of each coordinating conjunction.
- **And** adds two ideas that are similar. I like English, and I love to write.
- **But** contrasts two ideas. I like English, and I hate math.
- **For** means “because.” I must leave the party now, for I have to get up early tomorrow.
- **Nor** negates both ideas. I don’t like English, nor do I like to write.
- **Or** offers the idea as equal choices. I must leave the party now, or I will never get up early tomorrow.
- **Yet** limits or contrast two ideas. I enjoy dancing, yet I’m not a very good dancer.
- **So** suggests results Emil’s Café offers soft lighting and romantic music, so this restaurant is a favorite.
- **Compound Predicates**
- Ideas can be coordinated using a **compound predicate** (two verb phrases). To do this, we add a coordinating conjunction and drop the subject of the second sentence. Note that in this method of coordination, we do not use a comma.

Original sentences:

- I love to cook. I hate to wash dishes.

Combined sentences:

- Verb phrase verb phrase
- I love to cook but hate to wash dishes.

Conjunctive Adverbs and Transitional Expressions

When joining two independent clauses with a **conjunctive adverb** or a **transitional expression** use a semicolon (;) before the adverb or transitional word and a comma after it. The semicolon must be placed before the conjunctive adverb or transition in order to end the first independent clause.

- **Formula:**
- ***Independent clause; conjunctive adverb, independent clause.***
- ***Independent clause; transition, independent clause***

Common conjunctive adverbs

- | | | | |
|----------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| - Accordingly | finally | meanwhile | specifically |
| - Also | furthermore | moreover | still |
| - Anyway | hence | nevertheless | subsequently |
| - Besides | however | next | then |
| - Certainly | indeed | nonetheless | therefore |
| - Consequently | instead | otherwise | thus |
| - Conversely | likewise | similarly | |

Common transitional expressions

- | | | |
|-----------------------|---------------|---------------------------------|
| - After all | for instance | in other words |
| - As a matter of fact | in addition | on the contrary |
| - As a result | in conclusion | on one hand / on the other hand |
| - For example | in fact | |

Subordinating Conjunctions

- The most common way to subordinate ideas is to use a **subordinating conjunction** to turn an independent clause to a dependent clause.

Original sentences:

- Renovating my house is exciting. Remodeling can be expensive.

Combined sentences:

- **Although** renovating my house is exciting, remodeling can be expensive and tiring.
- To combine sentences using subordinating conjunctions, writers must understand the relationship between the ideas and choose a subordinating conjunction that expresses that relationship. Subordinating conjunctions show the following relationships between ideas.

One idea is a contrast of the other

- Although; whereas; even though; while; though
- Example: **Though** it's late, I'm not tired at all.

One idea is a consequence of the other

- As because since
- Example: **Because** my favorite team is playing this weekend, I want to go to the game.

One idea is a condition of the other

- If unless
- Example: **If** I have to do chores around the house, I would like to do the ones I enjoy like to washing the car.

One idea is related in time to the other

- After until as when before while
- Example: Sometimes I play games on my computer **while** I am talking on the phone
- in the newspaper wasn't expensive.

Using Coordination and Subordination

- Understanding the relationship between two or more given ideas is the key to combining those ideas into strong sentences. The three most common relationships are addition of similar ideas, contrast of opposing ideas, and consequence of resulting ideas. Below are the conjunctions used to show these relationships.

	Addition	Contrast	Consequence
Coordinating conjunctions	and	But	so
Subordinating conjunctions	along with in addition to while	even though although though	because since
Conjunctive adverbs and Transitional Expressions	Moreover furthermore in addition also	however in contrast nevertheless	therefore as a result consequently
Relative pronouns	That which who		

UNIT2: WRITE SHORT COMPOSITION ON FAMILIAR TOPICS

What is a paragraph

- A paragraph is a group of sentences that focuses on one main idea. It can be short or long depending on the topic or idea you would like to explore in that paragraph. Note that a paragraph should not exceed 10 lines.
- Once you feel happy that you have nothing to say about that particular subject, you should move on to a next paragraph

Types of paragraph

Descriptive Paragraph

1. Describe: a sunset!

- Sunset is the time of day when our sky meets the outer space solar winds. There are blue, pink, and purple swirls, spinning and twisting, like clouds of balloons caught in a blender. The sun moves slowly to hide behind the line of horizon, while the moon races to take its place in prominence atop the night sky. People slow to a crawl, entranced, fully forgetting the deeds that still must be done. There is a coolness, a calmness, when the sun does set.

Persuasive Paragraph and Argumentative Paragraph

Persuade: to PERSUADE my neighbors to buy tickets to the school fair.

- The school fair is right around the corner, and tickets have just gone on sale. We are selling a limited number of tickets at a discount, so move fast and get yours while they are still available. This is going to be an event you will not want to miss! First off, the school fair is a great value when compared with other forms of entertainment. Also, your ticket purchase will help our school, and when you help the school, it helps the entire community. But that's not all! Every ticket you purchase enters you in a drawing to win fabulous prizes. And don't forget, you will have mountains of fun because there are acres

and acres of great rides, fun games, and entertaining attractions! Spend time with your family and friends at our school fair. Buy your tickets now!

Narrative paragraph

- Last week we installed a kitty door so that our cat could come and go as she pleases. Unfortunately, we ran into a problem. Our cat was afraid to use the kitty door. We tried pushing her through, and that caused her to be even more afraid. The kitty door was dark, and she couldn't see what was on the other side. The first step we took in solving this problem was taping the kitty door open. After a couple of days, she was confidently coming and going through the open door. However, when we removed the tape and closed the door, once again, she would not go through. They say you catch more bees with honey, so we decided to use food as bait. We would sit next to the kitty door with a can of wet food and click the top of the can. When kitty came through the closed door, we would open the can and feed her. It took five days of doing this to make her unafraid of using the kitty door. Now we have just one last problem; our kitty controls our lives!

Expository/Informational Article Version

This began as one paragraph, but needed two—one for the problem and one for the solution. Also, notice that the second paragraph is a process paragraph. It would be very easy to add an introduction and conclusion to these two paragraphs and have a complete essay!

- People often install a kitty door, only to discover that they have a problem. The problem is their cat will not use the kitty door. There are several common reasons why cats won't use kitty doors. First, they may not understand how a kitty door works. They may not understand that it is a little doorway just for them. Second, many kitty doors are dark and cats cannot see to the other side. As such, they can't be sure of what is on the other side of the door, so they won't take the risk. One last reason cats won't use kitty doors is because some cats don't like the feeling of pushing through and then having the door drag across their back. But don't worry—there are solutions to this problem.
- The first step in solving the problem is to prop the door open with tape. This means your cat will now be able to see through to the other side; your cat will likely begin using the

kitty door immediately. Once your cat has gotten used to using the kitty door, remove the tape. Sometimes cats will continue to use the kitty door without any more prompting. If this does not happen, you will want to use food to bribe your cat. When it's feeding time, sit on the opposite side of the door from your cat and either click the top of the can or crinkle the cat food bag. Open the door to show your cat that it is both you and the food waiting on the other side of the door. Repeat this a couple times, and then feed your cat. After a couple days of this, your kitty door problem will be gone.

Cause and Effect Paragraph

- **(Note: This is also a first person narrative.)**
- I do well in school, and people think I am smart because of it. But it's not true. In fact, three years ago I struggled in school. However, two years ago I decided to get serious about school and made a few changes. First, I decided I would become interested in whatever was being taught, regardless of what other people thought. I also decided I would work hard every day and never give up on any assignment. I decided to never, never fall behind. Finally, I decided to make school a priority over friends and fun. After implementing these changes, I became an active participant in classroom discussions. Then my test scores began to rise. I still remember the first time that someone made fun of me because "I was smart." How exciting! It seems to me that being smart is simply a matter of working hard and being interested. After all, learning a new video game is hard work even when you are interested. Unfortunately, learning a new video game doesn't help you get into college or get a good job.

Personal Narrative Paragraph

Last year was the first time I had ever been the new kid at school. For the first four days, I was completely alone. I don't think I even spoke to a single person. Finally, at lunch on the fifth day, Karen Watson walked past her usual table and sat down right next to me. Even though I was new, I had already figured out who Karen Watson was. She was popular. Pretty soon, all of Karen's friends were sitting there right next to me. I never became great friends with Karen, but after lunch that day, it seemed like all sorts of people were happy to be my friend. You cannot

convince me that Karen did not know what she was doing. I have a great respect for her, and I learned a great deal about what it means to be a true

- **Topic Sentence**

What is the topic sentence?

The topic sentence is the first sentence in a paragraph.

What does it do?

It introduces the main idea of the paragraph.

How do I write one?

Summarize the main idea of your paragraph. Indicate to the reader what your paragraph will be about.

Example:

There are three reasons why Canada is one of the best countries in the world. First, Canada has an excellent health care system. All Canadians have access to medical services at a reasonable price. Second, Canada has a high standard of education. Students are taught by well-trained teachers and are encouraged to continue studying at university. Finally, Canada's cities are clean and efficiently managed. Canadian cities have many parks and lots of space for people to live. As a result, Canada is a desirable place to live.

- **The Basic Parts of a Paragraph**

- *Topic Sentence*

- The **topic sentence** tells the reader what the paragraph is going to be about. It also helps you keep your writing under control. This is why a topic sentence is sometimes called the "controlling idea" of a paragraph. Below you will find a sample topic sentence and a simple formula for writing good topic sentences:

Topic sentence: Mr. Brown must have been a drill sergeant before he became our gym teacher.

Formula: A specific subject (Mr. Brown, our gym teacher) + a specific feeling or attitude (must have been a drill sergeant before) = a good topic sentence.

- **Body**
- The **body** is the main part of the paragraph. This is where you tell the reader about your topic by including specific details. All of the sentences in the body must relate to the specific topic of the paragraph and help it come alive for the reader. That is, all of the sentences in the body should contain details that make the topic more interesting or help explain it more clearly. These sentences should be organized in the best possible order.
- **Concluding Remarks**
- The **closing** or **clincher sentence** comes after all the details have been included in the body of the paragraph. The closing sentence reminds the reader what the topic of the paragraph is really all about, what it means. For example, let's say the topic sentence of a paragraph is "Mr. Brown must have been a drill sergeant before he became our gym teacher." A closing sentence for this paragraph could be something like the following:

Closing sentence: I'm surprised that Mr. Brown doesn't make us march into the shower room after each class.

COMPOSITION

A composition is very important because through it we can express our views or ideas. So it must be clear and to the point. While writing the composition remember to use correct English, grammar, correct spelling, separate your topic in different points, and separate paragraphs. The composition has three parts. Introduction, body, and conclusion.

INTRODUCTION

It is an opening paragraph of the topic. You define clearly in a few words what your topic is aimed at.

BODY

The body or the development of the topic is the main part of a topic. You develop it in different paragraphs showing clearly your idea supported by examples.

CONCLUSION

The conclusion is the last part of the topic. To conclude, you simply give a summary of the topic.

Words that can be used for instance are:

My conclusion is that, to reach conclusion, to conclude, as a conclusion, in the end.

Writing different types of composition

Essay writing

- An essay can have many purposes, but the basic structure is the same no matter what.
- You may be writing an essay to argue for a particular point of view or to explain the steps necessary to complete a task. Either way, your essay will have the same basic format.

If you follow a few simple steps, you will find that the essay almost writes itself. You will be responsible only for supplying ideas, which are the important part of the essay anyway

Essay Format

These simple steps will guide you through the essay writing process:

- Decide on your topic.
- Prepare an outline or diagram of your ideas.
- Write your thesis statement.
- Write the body.
- Write the main points.
- Write the subpoints.

- Elaborate on the subpoints.
- Write the introduction.
- Write the conclusion.
- Add the finishing touches

TYPES OF BUSINESS COMMUNICATIONS

The primary tools for communicating information in business include e-mail messages, memos, letters, reports, phone calls, meetings, and conversations

E-mail Messages

Because of its speed and informality, e-mail is ideal for routine communication between coworkers. For instance, an e-mail message is usually the best means of announcing a new policy, introducing a recent hire, informing colleagues of a meeting time, and reminding an employee of an approaching deadline.

E-mail messages are also useful for day-to-day or extremely timely exchanges with people outside the company. Because of their low cost, they often are preferred for communicating with overseas contacts.

Memos

Although e-mail messages are now used instead of memos for most inter company communication, memos are still suitable for notes sent to people higher in the company hierarchy, especially in conservative companies.

Letters

The letter is now used primarily for formal correspondence with clients, customers, and others outside the company, particularly people you have not met.

Imagine, for instance, that you need to ask for advice or information from someone you do not know personally. The person will likely give a letter more attention than an e-mail message because a letter conveys an added element of formality and courtesy.

Reports

A complex document of more than ten pages, especially one that will be shown to outside contacts, is best presented as a report.

Phone Calls, Conversations, and Meetings

The main advantage of a phone conversation is that it allows both parties to respond to each other immediately. If you and a coworker have several questions for each other, asking them in a single phone call is usually less time-consuming than exchanging a long series of e-mail messages.

Personal matters or topics that might elicit a highly emotional response are best discussed in person. As common sense will tell you, sending an e-mail or memo reading “You’re fired!” is not the most delicate or responsible way of dealing with a difficult situation

Face-to-face meetings are usually the safest way of communicating confidential information. Meetings are also useful when a quick group decision is needed on a particular problem or issue. Important side benefits of meetings are that they allow employees in different departments or divisions to become acquainted and can often foster a sense of shared mission among coworkers.

MEMORANDUM

A memo is a short official note to another person in the same company or organization.

The format of a memorandum:

A memo should include (1) the date, (2) a “to” line with the recipient’s name, (3) a “from” line with the sender’s name, and (4) a subject line summarizing the memo’s contents. Then signature or initials or signature and name

From: Insurance Department

To: All staff

Date: January 14, 1999

Re: Health Insurance Meeting

Dear All,

I would like to remind all of you that we have a meeting of health meeting today, 20th / 2/ 2010 at Urugwiro Motel from 8:00 to 11:00

The issues to discuss among others include:

- How many people have already paid for the health insurance?
- What measures to be taken?
- How to hire an accountant?

BEN RANSOM

Thanks (Kind Regards, Best wishes)

BUSINESS LETTERS

Despite the growing popularity of e-mail, much of the communication between businesses still depends on the letter. Letters are usually written to people outside a company—such as customers, clients, and suppliers—and very often take the place of a face-to-face meeting.

Particularly when writing to an outside contact you have never met, you should strive to make your letters as thoughtfully phrased, well structured, and attractively formatted as possible. A hastily drafted e-mail message or memo may embarrass you among your colleagues, but a poorly written letter can result in lost business for your company.

Parts of a Letter

A business letter comprises the following elements, presented in the order listed

Above the salutation in a business letter, you should include **(1) the return mailing address, (2) the date the letter is sent, and (3) the mailing address of the recipient.**

In the street address, spell out words such as *street*, *drive*, and *boulevard*. Do not abbreviate cardinal directions unless they follow the street name.

26 North Hampshire Street

But: 26 North Hampshire Street NW

The state name may be spelled out or abbreviated using the U.S. Postal Service's two-character codes.

If available, use the complete nine-digit ZIP code, placing a hyphen between the fifth and sixth digits.

Date

Place the date below the return address or, if you are using letterhead, at the top of your letter. You may write the date using either a month-day-year or day-month-year sequence (see Dates), but always spell out the name of the month.

Incorrect: 3/31/99

Correct: March 31, 1999

or: 31 March 1999

Recipient's Address

Below the date, insert the recipient's address. There should be at least one line space between them, although using three line spaces is usually preferred if the letter is short.

Include the following items in the address, each on a separate line:

1. the recipient's full name preceded by a courtesy title
2. the recipient's title
3. the company name (spelled and styled exactly as it appears in the company's own publications)
4. the company's street address
5. the city, state, and ZIP code

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1002 Market Avenue

Kodiak, AK99615-0037

If the recipient's title is short, you may list it on the same line as the name, using a comma to separate them.

Mr. Henry Thomason, Manager

If you do not know the recipient and cannot tell from the name alone whether the person is a man or a woman, omit the courtesy title.

Chris Thomason, Manager

BUSINESS LETTERS, SALUTATIONS

A letter's salutation is a brief greeting that appears before the body of a letter. In business correspondence, the salutation should begin with the word *Dear*, followed by a courtesy title and the recipient's last name. It may end in either a colon or a comma, although a colon is the most common choice for business letters.

Dear Ms. Richards:

If you do not know the gender of the recipient, omit the courtesy title and replace it with the person's first name.

Dear Leslie Richards:

For a relatively informal letter, you may use just the first name, but only if you know the recipient well.

Dear Leslie:

If you do not know the name of the person to whom you are writing, never use the salutation "Dear Gentlemen," which is dated as well as sexist. Only slightly better is "To Whom it May Concern." Because of its impersonal nature, this greeting is off-putting to many people.

Instead, when at all possible, try to find the name you need by consulting a phone directory or calling the person's company. If you still cannot locate the name, consider using the person's title in the salutation.

Dear Vice President of Financing:

Most business correspondence uses the full block letter format, in which all elements are aligned on the left margin (see Alignment). One blank line space appears below the following items: recipient's address, salutation, body of the letter, text block including the sender's name and title,

typist's initials, and list of enclosures. The blank line spaces generally follow the return address and complimentary close, to provide space for the signature. Either one or three line spaces may be inserted after the date, depending on the letter's length and the amount of room on the page.

Your Company Name

Street Address or P.O.Box

City, State, and ZIP Code

Date

Recipient's Name

Recipient's Title

Recipient's Company

Street Address or P.O. Box

City, State, and ZIP Code

Salutation

Body of the Letter

Complimentary Close,

[signature]

Your Name

Your Title

Your Telephone Number [optional]

Your Fax Number [optional]

Your E-mail Address [optional]

Typist's Initials [optional]

List of Enclosures [optional]

List of Recipients of Carbon Copies [optional]

As shown in the sample full block letter below, paragraphs in the body text are separated by one line space but are not indented.

Wheeler Copiers

145 Ridgewood Drive

Deerfield, IL60015-0900

January 10, 1996

Mr. Stephen Nickels

Client Services Manager

Metropolis Messenger Service

9099 Morningside Road

Chicago, IL60607-0021

Dear Mr. Nickels:

Thank you for your letter of January 4, in which you described your company's services.

I am interested in using your messengers for our local deliveries. For your reference, I have enclosed a list of the firms to which we regularly send packages.

If possible, I would like to meet with you late next week to discuss your fees and other terms of your contract. At your earliest convenience, please call me at the number below to schedule a meeting.

Sincerely,

Diane Morris

Office Manager

Phone: 847-555-0997

Fax: 847-555-0998

E-mail: dmorris@msn.com

kjm

Encl.: 1

cc: Jane Henry

Marion Henry

BUSINESS LETTERS, CLOSINGS

Every business letter should end with a complimentary close and a signature with the sender's name and title typed beneath. If needed, the typist's initials, a list of enclosures, or the names of people who have received copies of the letter may also appear below the signature.

Complimentary Close

Two line spaces below the final paragraph of a business letter, you should insert a polite closing statement, known as a complimentary close. Only the first word in the close should be capitalized, and a comma should follow the final word.

Sincerely yours,

In business correspondence, standards such as "Sincerely," "Yours truly," and "Best wishes" are usually the most appropriate. Avoid complimentary closes that are overly flowery (e.g., "Your humble servant," "Wishing you the very, very best") or informal (e.g., "Bye now," "'Til next time").

Signature

Sign your name in ink below the complimentary close, and type your name and title on separate lines below your signature.

Christine Evans

Director of Sales

Also consider adding your telephone number, fax number, and e-mail address if these are not printed on your stationery. Be sure to label clearly whether a number is for a telephone or fax line. For consistency's sake, also place a label before your e-mail address when it appears with a telephone or fax number.

Hamilton Boyce

Production Manager

Phone: 901-555-6734

Fax: 901-555-6723

E-mail: hboyce@msn.com

Enclosures

If any materials are to be sent along with the letter, insert the word *Enclosures* or the abbreviation *Enc.* or *Encl.* two line spaces below the typist's initials. To keep a record of what was sent, you can insert a colon after the word or abbreviation and either note the number of items enclosed or list a description of each.

Enclosures: 3

Encl.: Job application

“Working at Parnell Aerospace” (brochure)

Carbon Copies

If you send copies of a letter to anyone other than the person to whom it is addressed, insert the abbreviation *cc.* (for “carbon copy”) two line spaces below the enclosures line. Follow *cc.* with a colon and the names of everyone who received a copy. Use the same form for all of the names listed.

Incorrect:

cc: Mr. Bennett

Josie Morris

Tom

Correct:

cc: Harold Bennett

Josie Morris

Thomas Peterson

If more than one person receives a copy, list their names either according to their rank in your company or in alphabetical order.

Notice:

	Salutation	Subscription
President	Your Excellence	Yours respectfully, Yours faithfully
Ambassador	Your Excellence	Yours respectfully, Yours faithfully
Minister and MP	Honorable	idem
Pope & Bishop	Your lordship	idem
King / Queen	Your Majesty	idem
Prince / Princess	Your Highness	idem
Judge / Magistrate	Your lord	idem

REPORT WRITING

Reports, oral or written, are one of the most common ways of imparting information. A report is an account of work done, an event witnessed or examined, or an investigation carried out.

There are a wide variety of reports, for example a weather report, a school report, a progress report, an investigation report, and an annual report of a business, giving shareholders a breakdown of profits, income and expenditure for the past financial year.

Most reports include the following information:

Title

The title gives a brief but clear indication of what the report is about.

Background

The report must describe the circumstances that require the report to be written and explain how the information is gathered. The writer indicates what procedure was followed, which people were consulted, what places were visited or what research was done.

Findings

This is a factual account of events and circumstances

Conclusions

Longer reports often require the writer to formulate a conclusion based on the evidence obtained or the investigation that was made.

Recommendations

These are suggestions about how the situation can be improved or how the problem can be resolved.

Abstract/executive summary

Once the body of the report is written, write the abstract. The abstract (also known as the Executive Summary) is a concise summary presentation of the essential elements of the report, from the introduction through to and including the recommendations. It should be independent (can be read on its own), comprehensive (covers all the main points), clear and concise. As a general rule it should be short, only 10-15% of the length of the report, and should be written in full sentences and paragraphs. It should include a summary of the following:

- Purpose
- Scope
- Achievements
- Main points
- Conclusions
- Recommendations

SOCIAL LETTERS

A social letter is a letter written to members of your family or close friends. There are a few rules to follow, normally we put our address at the top right hand of the paper and then the date follows. We may begin like: Dear Mary, Dear Mother, Dear Cousin, etc

You use the name by which you usually call the person; this part of letter is called ‘salutation.’ Then you go on writing as interesting as you can, sharing your experience and giving your news; you may write briefly or at length. This part of the letter is called ‘the body of the letter.’

You would end with ‘Yours Sincerely’ for the person you do not know but for close friends and family members, you may end as you wish. This part is called the subscription or the conclusion.

You may start with:

- This is a difficult letter for me to start and I think you will understand how I feel
- It's such a long time since we had any contact and I hope you'll understand how I feel
- Many thanks for your letter
- It is always good to read from you
- It was wonderful to hear from you again
- I am sorry I have not written recently
- I apologize for the delay for writing you back

To end, for example, you can say:

- Best wishes
- Lots of love
- From your affectionate
- With love
- Yours faithfully
- With love and best
- Give my regards to
- Remember me to
- Give my kindest regards to
- Do not forget me to
- Yours cordially
- Affectionately yours

253 State Street

Pine Ohio

October 2nd, 2000

Dear Mr. Green,

My sister and I arrive in the United States two weeks ago. The classes started last week and I am enjoying them very much. I am taking four classes: business English, psychology, mathematics and art history.

I am living with an American student and he is majoring in business administration. He often helps me with my school work.

My sister is studying library science in the University of Michigan. We visited my aunt in Boston, and she showed us some interesting parts of the city. Do you know Boston well?

How was your vacation? How many students are you teaching now? Which books are you using this year?

I always remember your classes. They helped me very much.

Remember me to your colleagues.

Yours truly,

Las Madesn

245 Park Street

London, N. 7

14th June, 1980

Dear Geoffrey,

You can't understand how excited I am. My parents allow me to spend a fortnight in your country!

When we last met in Brussels, you promised to give me an advice about planning a holiday in Britain. I believe also you were kind enough to say I could stay for a week with you in London and that you would show me around. That was very nice of you and I'd be most grateful if you could do that.

I intend to spend the second week at a seaside resort in Suisse or Hampshire and would be glad if you could let me have some information about sailing holidays along the south coast.

Yours sincerely

Andrew

.

324 Park Street

London, N.6

18th June, 1998

Dear Andrew,

The news in your letter of the 14th was a very welcome surprise. My parents and I delighted that you are coming to stay with us and we'll be very pleased to have you for a week or so.

We hope your first visit to England will be a success. To be sure, we'll do our utmost to make it as enjoyable as possible.

I regret I am unable to give you information about sailing holidays along the south coast. My mother suggests however that you write to the British Travel and Holiday Association, 64 St James's Street, London, S.W.1, and they will let you have details.

Yours truly,

Geoffrey

Learning Unit 3: Read and interpret messages from simple texts and social letters

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LEARNING UNIT 4: React to common trade-related oral English

1. SPEECH

- The faculty or power of speaking; oral communication; ability to express one's thoughts and emotions by speech sounds and gesture: Losing her speech made her feel isolated from humanity.
- A form of communication in spoken language, made by a speaker before an audience for a given purpose: a fiery speech.

❖ DEBATE

A debate is a formal disputational discussion between two or more people about the particular topic.

INTRODUCTION

Introduce your theme or subject by giving a clear outline of the debate.

BODY

The body consists of the development of your theme. You exchange ideas (advantages, disadvantages, measure to take...)

To start, in this part, you can say: first, in the first place, first of all, to begin with, first and foremost, secondly, then, next, third, last but not least.

WORDS TO USE

- Do you think that – what do you think about, what is your opinion about- what is your suggestion about- would you agree with this? Yes, I see what you mean, but, in my opinion I can say that, I'd say that, I agree with you Mr. X - I do not agree with Mr. X- I quite agree- I don't agree at all- yes, that would be a great idea- yes that is a great idea- sorry Mr. Y to interrupt you, I'd like to second Mr. X about what he says – never – don't be silly- don't forget that- that's a silly idea- no, I don't think so – all right – it's all the same to me- why not- I don't mind – I think it will be in the interest of the public to say that or to do

COCNLUSION

You summarize your discussion by giving the positive measures to adopt and the negative ones to reject.

Please do not use hurtful words while debating and try to share (give others time to speak)

Some topics

- Why to study English?
- Nature is our future
- How to fight against AIDS
- Communication
- Importance of technology.

General work

A. Complete the sentences with the appropriate tense of the verb in the bracket./

5marks

- a) My feet are dirty because I have been.....in the shamba. (work)
- b) I passed the test last week because I hadhard the week before. (study)
- c) Imy dinner because I had eaten too much in the afternoon. (not want)
- d) I haven'tmy friend joe for a long time. (see)
- e) I have beenclothes since eight o' clock. (wash)

B. Choose the correct option to complete the sentences /each question 1 mark

1. Mount Muhabura is.....mountain in Africa.
a. most beautiful b. more beautiful c. the most beautiful
2. What time.....? 'At 8.30'.
a. begins the film b. does begin the film c. does the film begin
3. 'You don't know where Karen is,,.....?' 'sorry ,I have no idea'.
a. don't you b. do you c. is she d. are you.

4. Lisa was carrying abag.
 a. black small plastic b. small and black plastic c. small black plastic d. plastic small black.
5. Sally is doing OK at the moment.She has
 a. a quite good job b. quite a good job c. a pretty good job.
6. Patrick is a fast runner. I can't run as fast as.....
 a. he b. him c. he can
7.she can't drive ,she has bought a car.
 a. Even b. even when c. even if d. even though
8. I couldn't sleep.....very tired.
 a. so I was b. despite I was c. despite of being d. in spite of being.
9. The club is for members only.you.....you're a member.
 a.can't go in if b. can go in only if c. can't go in unless d. can go in unless
10. Yesterday we watched television all evening.....we didn't have anything better to do. A. when b. as c. while d. since
11. Jane doesn't enjoy her job any more. She is.....because every day she does exactly the same thing. A. boring B. bored
12. The more electricity you use.....
 A. Your bill will be higher B. will be higher your bill C. the higher your bill will be D. higher your bill will be.
13. Joe never phones me,...He.....
 A. always I have to phone him. B. always have to phone him C. I have always to phone him D. I have to phone always him.
14. The film was really boring. It was..... I have ever seen.
 A. most boring film B. the more boring film C. the film more boring D. the most boring film.
15. Maria's English is excellent. She speaks.....
 A. perfectly English B. English perfect C. perfect English

16. At first I didn't like my job, but.....to enjoy it now.

- A. I am beginning B. I begin

17. The robber stole the carthe lady parked in front of the supermarket

- A. Whose B. who C. which D. none

18. Robertaway two or three times a year

- A. Is going usually B. is usually going C. goes usually.

19. It was a boring weekend.....anything.

- A. I didn't B. I don't do C. I didn't do.

20. Mattwhile we were having dinner.

- A. Phoned B. was phoning C. has phoned

C. Choose the correct conjunction.

- 1) Wait there (**how, till**) I have finished.
- 2) He left (**before, that**) darkness fell.
- 3) (**after, unless**) they arrived, they sat down.
- 4) I can call (**however, whenever**) it is convenient to you.
- 5) She wrote a letter (**that, while**) I read a book.
- 6) (**until, As**) he went up the stairs, he stumbled.
- 7) My uncle was angry (**where, because**) he was deceived
- 8) We will go (**how, even if**) it rains.
- 9) (**except that, Unless**) he is sometimes nervous, he manages quite well.
- 10) He ran quickly (**when, so that**) he was in time for tea.

Integrated exercise

I. ADJECTIVES

A. Complete using as....as

1. EX: I am quite tall but you are taller. I am not **as tall as you**.
2. My salary is high but yours is higher. My salary is not
.....
3. You know a bit about cars but I know more. You don't
.....
4. It's still cold but it was colder yesterday. It
isn't.....
5. I still feel a bit tired but I felt a lot more tired yesterday. I
don't.....
6. They've lived here for quite a long time but we've lived here longer. They
haven't
.....
.....
7. I was a bit nervous before the interview but usually I'm a lot more nervous. I
wasn't
.....
.....

B. Complete the sentences using a comparative form (Older/ more important, etc)

1. EX: It's too noisy here. Can we go somewhere **quieter**?
2. This coffee is very weak. I like it a
bit.....
3. The hotel was surprisingly big. I expected it to
be.....
4. The hotel was surprisingly cheap. I expected it to be
.....
5. The weather is too cold in this country. I'd like to live
somewhere.....

6. My job is a bit boring sometimes. I'd like to do something
.....
7. I was surprised how easy it was to use the computer. I thought it would
be.....
...
8. Your work isn't very good. I'm sure you can do
.....
9. I was surprised we got here so quickly. I expected the journey to take
.....
.....
10. Don't worry. The situation isn't so bad. It could
be.....
11. You're talking very loudly. Can you speak a bit
.....
12. You hardly ever phone me. Why don't
you.....?
13. You're standing too near the camera. Can you move a bit
.....?
14. You were a bit depressed yesterday, but you
look.....today.

C. Complete the sentence using a Superlative (...est/most...)

1. EX: It's a very nice room. It **is the nicest room in the hotel.**
2. It is a very cheap restaurant. It's
.....the town.
3. It was a very happy day. It was
.....my life.
4. She's a very intelligent student.
She.....the class.

5. It is a very valuable painting. It
.....the gallery.

6. Spring is a very busy time for me.
It.....the year.

In the following sentences use one of +a Superlative +a preposition.

7. It's a very nice room. It is **one of the nicest rooms in** hotel.

8. He's a very rich man. He's
one.....the world.

9. It's a very old castle.
It..... Britain.

10. She's a very good player. She
.....the team.

11. It was a very bad experience. It
.....my life.

12. He's a very dangerous criminal. He
.....the country.

D. Fill in gaps with the adjectives in FULL

1. A.....driver. (care)

2. A.....man. (peace)

3. A.....daughter. (duty)

4. A.....wound. (pain)

5. A.....engine. (power)

6. A.....sight. (pity)

7. A.....success. (doubt)

8. A.....adventure. (wonder)

9. A.....voice. (beauty)

10. A.....play. (success)

E. Fill in with the adjectives in LESS

1. It is.....to try. (Use)
2. That diamond is said to be(Price)
3. He isof his clothes. (care)
4. It is acare. (hope)
5. I have spent anight. (sleep)
6. The.....waves broke against the rocks. (rest)
7. He is aruler. (pity)
8. He is a.....young fellow. (thought)

II. VERBS

A. Put these sentences in both interrogative and negative.

1. In Africa, people have lunch at 12:00' noon.

-
.....
-
.....

2. Mark has had a sandwich for his breakfast.

-
.....
-
.....

3. Joseph had a cigarette before going to bed.

-
.....
-
.....

4. Our guests had had a shower before the bus arrived.

-
.....
-
.....

5. Buravan is having fun with his followers right now.

-
.....
-
.....

6. Joseph and I were having a rest when you called.

-
.....
-
.....

7. Children have been having a swim since 10:00'.

-
.....
-
.....

8. My co-workers had been having a party for the whole night.

-
.....
-
.....

9. They will have a chat when they meet next week.

-
.....
-
.....
-

10. The new family will have had a baby before December this year.

-
.....
-
.....

B. Correct the mistakes in the following sentences. Remember the uses of Modal Verbs.

1. Jim musts do all he can to save his starving family.

-
.....

2. Tojo must had hated Westerners so much.

-
.....

3. Jane may joining our cause. She will ruining our plan.

-
.....

4. Tell the students that they should brought their pullovers, it might rained to night.

-
.....

5. Those traitors coulded disclose our secrets if we did not silence them.

-
.....

6. Geliebt woulds loved you if she knew you are a Jew.

-
.....

7. Don't worry Jason, you shall having your money tomorrow.

-
.....

- 8. Will you join in if we start that new project?
-
.....
- 9. Nicotinamide cans both is good and harmful to people's health.
-
.....
- 10. The weather mighted changed any time. Please be careful.
-
.....

C. Put the verbs in the past simple(Remember their correct forms if they are irregular)

- 1. The wind.....the rain against the window. (To blow)
- 2. A quarrel.....between the two friends. (to rise)
- 3. The clockfour. (to strike)
- 4. His eyes.....no idea of his thoughts. (to give)
- 5. A heavy silenceover the meeting. (to hang)
- 6. It.....him his life. (to cost)
- 7. The enemythe dust. (to bite)
- 8. He was tired andinto a chair. (to sink)
- 9. Who.....you to swim? (to teach)
- 10. Hetowards me in three very slow steps. (to come)
- 11. All his money.....at the bank. (to lie)

D. Fill in gaps with the correct form of present perfect.

- 1. I.....very busy. (to Be)
- 2. They.....just.....out. (to go)
- 3. Wenot.....the new church yet. (to see)
- 4. The windoff my hat. (to blow)
- 5.he.....you all about it? (to tell)

6. Wea rather strange adventure.
(to have)
7. My husband.....just.....to me about it.
(to speak)
8. They.....waiting for you since six
o'clock. (to be)
9. The soldiersa bridge across the
river. (to throw)

E. Put the appropriate verbs in the brackets in the past simple

1. Who.....you to swim? (to learn, to teach)
2. The book.....on the table. (to lay, to lie)
3. The servant.....the table. (to lay, to lie)
4. You.....to me when you told me that. (to lay, to lie)
5. She.....from her chair. (to rise, to raise)
6. He.....horses. (to rise, to raise)
7. Gulliver.....them dance on his body. (to leave, to let)
8. His father.....him a lot of money. (to leave, to let)
9. Sheup her mind at once. (to do, to make)
10. Sheher best. (to do, to make)
11. He alwaysblack shoes. (to wear, to bear)
12. Shethe pain bravely. (to wear, to bear)

F. Fill in the table with the appropriate form of the verb

INFINITIVE	PAST SIMPLE	PAST PARTICIPLE
To bear
.....	spoilt
To mean
.....	woke

	frozen
	chosen
To forbid
To spread
.....	hid
To bite
.....	won
.....	Leant
.....	flown

G. Insert the ADVERBS in their correct places in the sentences.

1. Hold it. (carefully)

2. We have coffee for breakfast. (generally)

.....

3. He has acted. (unwisely)

.....

4. Shake the bottle. (well)

.....

5. They go to bed very late. (sometimes)

.....

6. She speaks the truth. (always)

.....

7. The story is untrue. (certainly)

.....

8. He has trusted me. (never)

.....

9. I had a long talk with him. (Yesterday)

.....

10. He goes to school by bus. (Yesterday)

.....

11. She missed the train. (nearly)

.....

12. Delay. (never)

.....

13. We saw the difference. (soon)

.....

14. I have seen a better one. (rarely)

.....

15. They come here on Friday. (Generally)

.....

16. The English Channel has been swum. (often)

.....

17. She hopes to see him again. (still)

.....

18. We had finished when snow began to fall. (hardly)

.....

19. They laughed. (heartedly)

.....

20. Come back here. (never)

.....

21. She enjoys dancing. (very much)

.....

H. Fill in with the correct form of past simple tense of the verb from the brackets.

1. He.....a deep breath. (to draw)

2. She.....a cigarette. (to light)

3. Hethe picture on the wall.(to hang)

4. A stormthe town. (to sweep)

5. Theyshelter under a tree. (to seek)
6. Whothe war? (to win)
7. Hefrom London to Brussels. (to fly)
8. Heup to me. (to creep)
9. A serpenthim. (to sting)
10. I.....of the accident in the paper. (to read)
11. Sheher face. (to hide)
12. They.....down their arms. (to lay)
13. What.....him up? (to wake)
14. He.....out of the window. (to lean)
15. A doghim in the leg. (to bite)

I. Fill in with future perfect forms.

1. I.....this work by six o'clock. (to finish)
2.theyall the questions? (to understand)
3. They the country in two hours. (to leave)
4. On July 18th they.....
.....married for 20 years. (to be)she
.....by now? (to arrive)
5. Do you think he
6.many pictures? (to tell)
7. By next month she
.....her fourth novel. (to write)
8. I think he the news. (to hear)

J. Ask questions leading to the words in italics as the answers.

1. Dickens died *in 1870*.
.....
2. The farmer spoke well of Mally, *because she was so kind to her grandfather*.
.....
3. He noticed *that the clerk was bored with his job*.
.....
4. She learnt German *by listening to records*.
.....
5. Scott spent *five years* in the Antarctic.
.....
6. She was looking for *her handkerchief*.
.....
7. They intend to go *to Norway* next summer.
.....
8. The deepest principle in human nature is *the craving to be appreciated*.
.....
9. She went to the doctor, *because she was not feeling very well*.
.....
10. The post office closes *at 6*.
.....

K. Follow the given sentences with appropriate question tags

1. You felt uneasy,
2. He was immensely pleased,
3. He had made merry with his friends,
4. Your grandmother was in low spirits,

5. He richly deserves it,
6. It is all nonsense,
7. They have opened a new shop,
8. She did not guess the answer,
9. The river is not deep,
10. Those flowers smell nice,
11. The clerk was bored to death,
12. The back door is not locked,
13. He drops his h's,
14. You will have finished by the end of the month,
15. You know her new address,
16. She's late,
17. He's away,
18. She's clever,
19. It's complicated,
20. He's just left,
21. It's the shortest way,
22. She's just arrived,
23. The bill's paid,
24. He's enjoyed himself,
25. She's missed the bus,
26. It's a good idea,
27. Your work's finished,
28. Your car's been overhauled,
29. She's in service,
30. He'd promised to come with us,
31. They'd seen a ghost,
32. If you could, you'd come with us,
33. She'd pleased with it,
34. You'd guessed the answer,
35. She'd be angry,

36. You'd like to stay here,
37. We'd better postpone our meeting,
38. You'd accept the invitation,
39. He'd made a lot of mistakes,
40. You'd forgotten my name,
41. She'd got lost,
42. You'd like to see that film,
43. She'd made a fortune,
44. You agree with me,
45. He taught dutch,
46. You have not lost your fountain pen,
47. She is not selfish,
48. This gift will not be of use to you,
49. She has not apologized,
50. She has not opened the parcel yet,
51. You do not know many people around here,
52. Let us go now,
53. Lend me your English notebook,
54. We cannot tolerate his bad manners,
55. Jane must have gone out,
56. I am really serious about that,
57. I am not your right hand man,

END!