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ECZ GRADE 10 - 12 ENGLISH NOTES FOR
SUMMARY, COMPREHENSION AND STRUCTURE.

PRONOUNS

- ✓ Pronouns are words that stand in place of nouns.
- ✓ They function to help us avoid repeating ourselves all the time. If a noun has already been referred to by name there is no need to go on repeating the noun.

*I really like **Elvis**. **Elvis** is the greatest. **Elvis** makes great music. Of all the singers in the world, I admire **Elvis** the most.*

Repeating the name of the person like this is unnecessary and tedious. You can therefore use pronouns instead of nouns. (In the above case, Elvis)

TYPES OF PRONOUNS

1. Personal Pronouns

- ✓ Take the place of names of other people, ourselves, animals and things. E.g. **I, we, you, she, it.**
- ✓ Personal pronouns as above are used as the subjects of sentences.
- ✓ When they are used the objects of sentences they mostly take a different form. (*I → me, we → us, he → him, she → her*)

2. Possessive Pronouns

- ✓ Used in place of nouns to indicate ownership. E.g. **its, mine, ours, yours.**

3. Relative Pronouns

- ✓ They relate one part of a sentence to another and also stand in for a noun or other pronouns E.g. **Whom, who, which, that, whose.**
- ✓ E.g. "She is a superstar **whom** I admire very much."
- ✓ **Whom** and **who** refer to people.
- ✓ **Which** refers to things.
- ✓ **Whose** indicates possession.
- ✓ **That** can be used for either things or people.

4. Demonstrative Pronouns

- ✓ These show E.g. ***This, that, these, those.***
- ✓ E.g. “**These** are the African champions.”

5. Interrogative Pronouns

- ✓ These seek to find out information E.g. **Who, whom, whose, what, which.**

6. Reflexive Pronouns

- ✓ They refer back to the subject of the sentence. E.g. *He drove **himself** crazy with fear.*
- ✓ E.g. **myself, himself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, herself, itself, themselves, himself.**

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ARTICLES

- ✓ Articles are words that define or introduce other words.
- ✓ There are two types of articles

THE TWO TYPES OF ARTICLES

1. Definite Articles

1. This is an article that refers to a particular thing.

2. Indefinite Articles

2. These refer to a general type of thing.

Examples

The egg was eaten by Sara.

***An** egg was eaten by Sara.*

'A' and 'an' are indefinite articles because even in the sentences above they are generally referring to things.

'The' is definite because even in the examples above, we know that the things being referred to are particular or already known.

*'An' is a form of 'A' when used with vowels (a e i o u). Articles are sometimes referred to as determiners because they do play a determining role in sentences sometimes. Other examples of determiners are **one, any, much, many, all, both, each, every, none, few, little, some.***

EXAMPLES

*The articles/determiners in each of the following sentences are ***underlined***.*

1. The computer crashed on a Wednesday.
2. The book was on the floor.
3. The furniture was shabby.
4. A boy threw some stones.
5. The bicycle was a present.

NOUNS

1. A noun is a word that names people, places and things.

CLASSIFICATIONS OF NOUNS

1. Common Nouns

2. There are the names of people, places and things that are general and not special to a particular place, person or thing E.g. **boy**.

2. Proper Nouns

3. These refer to a particular, unique person, place or thing E.g. **Abigail**.

3. Concrete Nouns

These name physical objects that can be touched E.g. **ranch, milk, team**.

4. Abstract Nouns

These name actions or ideas that cannot be touched.

5. Collective Nouns

These are nouns that name a single group of animals or people E.g. herd of cattle, pride of lions.

6. Compound Nouns

More than one word acts as a single noun E.g. **address book**.

EXAMPLES

The noun mentioned in the brackets “[]” indicates the type of noun of the noun which is underlined.

1. Vanessa travelled to Australia and Thailand. [Proper Nouns]
2. Cats are very useful on a farm, catching vermin. [Common Nouns]
3. My grandfather wasn't liked because of his bad temper. [Common Nouns]
4. His frown changed to a smile when he saw his girlfriend. [Common Nouns]
5. The English National Opera will no longer perform at Conrent Gardens. [Proper Nouns]

EXAMPLES

The following shows which nouns are **abstract** or **concrete**.

Animal →	Concrete
Cat →	Concrete
Heroism →	Abstract
Idea →	Abstract
Newspaper →	Concrete
Problem →	Abstract
Silence →	Abstract
Zoology →	Abstract
Year →	Abstract
School →	Abstract

EXAMPLES

Collective nouns are underlined.

1. Sir Frederick was a member of the aristocracy.
2. The audience was very appreciative of the orchestra.
3. Jerry experimented with bacteria in his laboratory.
4. The company sacked many workers at Christmas.
5. The enemy surrounded the regiment.

EXAMPLES

Compound nouns are underlined.

1. There was tremendous damage during the air raid.
2. The alarm clock was set to go off at 5:45AM.
3. The baby sitter was brilliant with the children.
4. My daughter is a real back-seat driver.
5. I gave Dominic a book for his birthday.

ADJECTIVES

- ✓ These are words that describe or modify a noun E.g. ***tall, beautiful, fat, short, slim e.t.c.***
- ✓ Adjectives can come before or after the nouns that they describe E.g

EXAMPLES

Adjectives are underlined.

1. Sir Frederick was a member of the **aristocracy**.
2. The **audience** was very appreciative of the **orchestra**.
3. Jerry experimented with **bacteria** in his laboratory.
4. The **company** sacked many workers at Christmas.
5. The enemy surrounded the **regiment**.

VERBS

✓ Verbs are simply action words. E.g. *jumping, dancing, running, swinging Etc.*

TYPES OF VERBS

1. Regular Verbs

These are verbs that carry 'ed' in their past tense form E.g. *jumped, walk – walked, talk – talked.*

2. Irregular Verbs

These are verbs that do not carry 'ed' in their past tense form E.g. *eat – ate, sing – sang, see – saw, read – read.*

EXAMPLES

REGULAR VERBS	IRREGULAR VERBS
Chop	Run
Knock	Swim
Laugh	Swing
Skip	Sing
Carry	Write

ADVERBS

- ✓ Adverbs are words that describe an action or a verb, they state how the action is being performed.

EXAMPLES

Adverbs are underlined.

1. He walked slowly.
2. The dog bit him viciously.
3. The class laughed loudly.
4. After the dog was poisoned, it ran around madly.
5. Abigail answered the teacher rudely.

INTRODUCTION TO VARIOUS STRUCTURES IN ENGLISH

1. So _____ that
E.g. He is so tall that he cannot enter class without bending.
2. Too _____ to
E.g. He is too tall to enter class without bending.
3. Rather _____ than
E.g. I would rather eat nshima than rice.
4. Prefer _____ to
E.g. I prefer eating nshima to rice.
5. No sooner had _____ than
E.g. No sooner had the teacher walked into the classroom into the classroom than the pupils stopped making noise.
6. As _____ as
E.g. As soon as the teacher walked into the classroom, the pupils stopped making noise.
7. Either _____ or
E.g. I will either go to town or Manda Hill tomorrow.
8. Neither _____ nor
E.g. Neither John nor Mary will go to town tomorrow.

9. In spite _____ of

E.g. **In spite of the rains, the boys continued to play soccer.**

10. Despite _____

E.g. **Despite the rains, the boys continued to play soccer.**

11. Not only _____ but also

E.g. **Not only is he tall but also very strong.**

12. Scarcely/Barely/Rarely/Seldom/Hardly had _____ when

E.g. **Hardly had the thief broken into the house when the owners showed up.**

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IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS

- ✓ These are phrases which mean something different from the meanings of their separate words.
- ✓ One could also say idiomatic expressions are special phrases or expressions which may sound strange or silly unless you know what they mean.
- ✓ There are many idioms in English, many of which people who are familiar with the language use without noticing.

Idiomatic Expressions	Meaning
1. Lion – hearted.	✓ Courageous
2. The man in/on the street.	✓ An ordinary person
3. Good for nothing.	✓ Useless
4. Have a feather in one's cup.	✓ Something to be proud of
5. Sweep the board.	✓ To win
6. Sit on the fence.	✓ Not to take sides
7. Face the music.	✓ To face the consequences
8. To throw cold water on.	✓ To discourage
9. Smell a rat/something fishy.	✓ Suspect something is wrong
10. Throw up the sponge/throw in the towel/to wave the white flag	✓ To give up

POSSESSION

- ✓ Possession has all to do with belonging.
- ✓ Possession shows that something or someone belongs to another.
E.g.
 1. The girl took the ball of the boy.
 2. They print and publish books of children.
- ✓ They print and publish **children's** books.
- ✓ An apostrophe is also used to show possession aside contractions.

EXAMPLES

The following have been rewritten to show whose it is.

1. The cat ran into the hole of the rat.

A: **The cat ran into the rat's hole.**

2. He admired the tail of the horse.

A: **He admired the horse's tail.**

3. A barber cuts the hair of people.

A: **A barber cuts people's hair.**

4. Mary is in the dormitory of the girls.

A: **Mary is in the girls' dormitory.**

CLAUSES

- ✓ A clause is a part of a sentence that contains a subject and a predicate
- ✓ **A predicate is a part of a sentence containing a verb that makes a statement about the subject verb.**

E.g.

John went home.

- ✓ The predicate in the above sentence is **went** home. The subject is the performer of an action in a sentence.
- ✓ Clauses may be independent or sub-ordinate.

INDEPENDENT AND SUB-ORDINATE CLAUSES

1. Independent Clause

- ✓ An independent clause is one that makes sense on its own. It does not depend on any other part of a sentence to have meaning.

2. Subordinate Clause

- ✓ A subordinate clause is one that depends on the main clause to make a complete sentence. Without the main clause it does not make sense.

EXAMPLES

- ✓ They were allowed to go to class although they had not paid school fees.
 - **"They were allowed to go to class"** is the independent clause.
 - **"Although they had not paid school fees"** is the subordinate or dependent clause.

EXAMPLES

The **subordinate** and **independent** clauses in the sentences below have been identified.

1. He had no interest in those poets who demanded too much from the reader.

A: **"He had no interest in those poets"** is the independent clause.

B: **"Who demanded too much from the reader"** is the subordinate clause.

2. The council proposed a plan that all members could accept.

A: **"The council proposed a plan"** is the independent clause.

B: **"That all members could accept"** is the subordinate clause.

3. He left before we could finalise the matter.

A: **"He left"** is the independent clause.

B: **"Before we could finalise the matter"** is the subordinate clause.

4. Until you behave properly, you will not receive an award.

A: **"Until you behave properly"** is the subordinate clause.

B: **"You will not receive an award"** is the independent clause.

5. Though you were absent, the students did their work quietly.

A: **"Though you were absent"** is the subordinate clause.

B: **"The students did their work quietly"** is the independent clause.

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CONJUNCTIONS

- ✓ A conjunction is a word that is used to join words, phrases or clauses. There are three types of conjunctions.
 1. **Coordinating conjunctions.**
 2. **Subordinating conjunctions.**
 3. **Correlative conjunctions.**

TYPES OF CONJUNCTIONS

1. Coordinating Conjunctions

These join words, phrases or clauses of equal value.

- ✓ **and adds one statement to another**
- ✓ **but expresses contrast**
- ✓ **or indicates a choice or alternative**

2. Subordinating Conjunctions

A subordinating conjunction begins a subordinating clause and joins it to an independent clause.

E.g

✓ After	✓ Because	✓ Since
✓ Until	✓ Although	✓ Before
✓ So that	✓ When	✓ As
✓ How	✓ Than	✓ Whenever
✓ As if	✓ If	✓ That
✓ Where	✓ As much as	✓ In order that
✓ Though	✓ Wherever	✓ As though
✓ Provided	✓ Unless	✓ While

3. Correlative Conjunctions

These are those conjunctions used in pairs.

E.g.

- ✓ “Neither _____ nor” combine two negative clauses
- ✓ “Either _____ or” express a chance or alternative
- ✓ “Both _____ and” is emphatic
- ✓ “Not only _____ but also” and “both _____ and” are indicative of an additive relationship.

EXAMPLES

The types of conjunctions in each of the following sentences are identified.

1. Not only did Kefa excel in academics, but he also participated in several co-circular activities.

A: “Not only..... but also” is a correlative conjunction.

2. Neither Mumbi nor Chebet attended the end-of-year class party.

A: “Neither..... nor” is a correlative conjunction.

3. Are you reading or watching television?

A: “Or” is a coordinating conjunction.

4. When Kenya attained her independence in 1963, thousands of Mau Mau fighters went to their homes.

A: “When” is a subordinating conjunction.

5. I enjoyed reading “A Christmas Carol” as much as you did.

A: “As much as” is a subordinating conjunction.

6. Have you decided whether you will take law or medicine?

A: “Whether” is a subordinating conjunction.

THE FOUR KINDS OF SENTENCES

- ✓ The following are the four kinds of sentences:

1. A Declarative Sentence

- ✓ This is one that makes a statement E.g. **Joseph is a pupil. Sara is a girl. I have four pets. Two of my pets are dogs.**

2. An Imperative Sentence

- ✓ This gives a command or makes a request E.g.
Get off the table.
Zelda, please leave the cats alone.
- ✓ Declarative and imperative sentences end in full stops.

3. An Interrogative Sentence

- ✓ This asks a question. E.g.
how many pets do you have?
Do you like dogs?

4. An Exclamatory Sentence

- ✓ This expresses strong emotion. E.g.
she is such a beautiful girl!
Don't chew on that!
I love you!

PUNCTUATION

FULLSTOP AND COMMA

- ✓ The word punctuation means to make a point on a page of writing.
- ✓ **Punctuation** is used to show the length and meaning of a sentence. The most widely used punctuations are the full stop (.) and the comma (,)

1. Full Stop

- ✓ The full stop is sometimes called a period.
- ✓ Full stops show; where a sentence ends E.g
My cat has fleas.
- ✓ Abbreviations and shortened forms E.g
22nd Feb. 2002.

2. The Comma

- ✓ Comma's help the reader to understand the rhythm of a sentence and to be clear about its meaning. Comma's show the reader that;
- ✓ They need to pause briefly E.g.
Yes, {pause} I'd like an ice cream.
- ✓ There are different parts of a sentence, E.g. two clauses or when words, phrases interpret the sentence E.g.
When the battle was over, the soldiers returned to base.
- ✓ The comma is also used when there are separate items in a list or series E.g.
I had an apple, a banana, an orange and a mango fruit in my bag.

CLOZE PASSAGES

A **cloze passage** is a passage where words are omitted. This passage requires one to complete its sense by filling in the blank with the correct word per missing blank.

HOW TO HANDLE ECZ CLOZE PLASSAGES

Steps:

1. Read through the whole passage
2. Work through the passage slowly
3. Can't think of a word to fill in the blank? Read the rest of the sentence carefully.
4. Go back to the beginning and read through again.
5. As a **last resort**, guess intelligently.

SUMMARY

- ✓ Summary is an abridged/short version of something.
- ✓ There are two major types of summary.

TWO MAJOR TYPES OF SUMMARY

Note Summary

Prose Summary

HOW TO HANDLE ECZ SUMMARY QUESTIONS

Tips:

1. Start by reading the question.
2. Then, read the passage to get what it's about.
3. Read and understand the passage before you go through it the second time.
4. Underline key parts of the passage.
5. If you are required to make a prose summary (this is usually the case for ECZ English examinations), consider writing a brief note summary.
6. In your note summary, **leave out** details, examples, illustrations and irrelevant points.
7. From time to time, look back at the question to ensure that you are answering it correctly.
8. Once you are sure that your note summary is ready, write your **prose** summary.
9. Try your best to use words from the passage. However, you are free to use words of your own. Ensure that you exhaust all points.
11. Use sequence indicators in your prose summary. E.g. **first, next, last, finally, then Etc.**

EXPRESSING REASON

WORDS USED TO EXPRESS REASON

Because

That is why

Since

As

In order to

Due to

So that

Note:

- ✓ When you begin with the main clause, the comma is omitted.

E.g.

You may read your library book **now that/seeing that** you have finished your work.

- ✓ “**Now that**” is best avoided when the action occurred in the past E.g.

i. Now that there was no support from the government, the villagers abandoned the project. **X**

ii. They proceeded to the next exercise now that they had finished their work. **X**

EXAMPLES

*The following have been rewritten using **now that** and **seeing that**.*

1. As John has come, we can start the game.

A: **Now that John has come we can start the game.**

2. Since you are going to town, would you mind buying me some stamps?

A: **Seeing that you are going to town, would you mind buying me some stamps?**

3. I asked a policeman for directions because I was a stranger.

A: **I asked a policeman for directions seeing that I was a stranger.**

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CONDITIONS

EXAMPLES

1. You will only go for P.E given that/if you have your attire.
2. If she married him, she would have been rich.
3. If he played, they would have won.
4. If he plays, they will win.
5. If he hadn't played, they wouldn't have won.

THREE TYPES OF CONDITIONS

1. Likely Condition

- ✓ Here, x will happen if y happens.
E.g.
If John asks Mary, she will marry him.
- ✓ Mary will marry John if he asks her.

2. Unlikely Condition

- ✓ Here, x might happen if y happens.
E.g.
Mary might/may marry John if he asks her.
- ✓ If John asks Mary, she may/might marry him.

3. Impossible Condition

- ✓ Here, x would have happened if y had happened.
E.g.
If John had asked Mary, she would have married him.
- ✓ Mary would have married John if he had asked her.

"Unless" and "even if" are also to express condition.

- ✓ Unless John asks Mary, she will not marry him.
- ✓ Mary will not marry John unless he asks her.

- ✓ *Even if John asks Mary, she will not marry him.

Or

Mary will not marry John even if he asks her.

A. USE OF “BUT FOR” IN EXPRESSING CONDITIONS

It's used to show a negative condition.

E.g.

1. I would have passed the English exam **but for** the summary section.

I would have passed the English exam if it hadn't been for the summary section.

- ✓ “**But for**” can also come in the initial position.

But for the summary section, I would have passed the English exam.

But for the gun the thief was pointing at her, Jane would have run away.

- ✓ “**But for**” can also be followed by a noun phrase E.g.

Mr Bwalya would have paid off the loan **but for** the bad harvest.

- ✓ “**But for...**” simply means “**if it hadn't been for...**”

EXAMPLES

The correct forms of the **verbs in the brackets** have been given by rewriting the entire sentence.

1. If Mwenya hears you're here, he (**come**).

A: If Mwenya hears you're here, he will come.

2. We would have beaten Manda Basic if we (**practise**) seriously before the match.

A: We would have beaten Manda Basic if we had practiced seriously before the match.

3. If Marita (**know**) she would lose her money, she wouldn't have invested in that company.

A: If Marita had known she would lose her money, she wouldn't have invested in that company.

4. Shula (**write**) the History homework if he hadn't fallen ill.

A: **Shula would have written the History homework if he hadn't fallen ill.**

5. Mr Banda (**take**) us to Lochinvar Park if the school bus is repaired?

A: **Will Mr. Banda take us to Lochinvar Park if the school bus is repaired?**

EXAMPLES

The following have been rewritten using "but for".

1. Kangwa would have drowned if Sililo hadn't pulled her out of the pool.

A: **Kangwa would have drowned but for Sililo pulling her out of the pool.**

2. This would have been a model village if the youths had not migrated to urban areas.

A: **This would have been a model village but for the youths migrating to urban areas.**

3. If it hadn't been for the prompt action by the police, the car would have been stolen.

A: **But for the prompt action by the police, the car would have been stolen.**

4. Our village would have had a basic school by now if the funds hadn't been diverted to build a bridge.

A: **Our village would have had a basic school by now but for the funds being diverted to build a bridge.**

5. If it hadn't been for the children telling us about it, we wouldn't have known there was a riot.

A: **But for the children telling us about it, we wouldn't have known there was a riot.**

B. USE OF “SUPPOSING THAT” AND “SUPPOSE THAT” IN EXPRESSING CONDITION.

1. **Suppose/supposing that** John asks Mary, will she marry him?

**instead of...*

If John asks Mary, will she marry him?

2. **Suppose/supposing that** Fred was posted to Tunduma, would you go with him?

**instead of...*

If Fred was posted to Tunduma, would you go with him?

✓ **“Suppose/supposing that”** normally introduces questions and are used in the initial position.

C. USE OF “IF ONLY” IN EXPRESSING CONDITION.

✓ **E.g.** Here I am. Hungry, nowhere to sleep and nobody to turn to for help. **If only** I had listened to my mother’s advice, I wouldn’t have been suffering.

✓ **“If only”** can be used to express regret for an action not taken in the past.

✓ **“If only”** can be used to express longing.

E.g.

If only I could eat something. (*He hopes or longs to eat something*)

DIRECT SPEECH

This has to do with the actual words spoken by someone. In writing, the words are put in inverted commas (quotation marks).

EXAMPLES

"Mary, have you done the exercise?" asked the teacher.

Mary replied, "'No, it's too difficult for me."

"What is your problem?" the teacher asked, "don't you know this is a classroom?"

Whenever we wish to write down what a person has actually said, we use direct speech. The actual words spoken are placed in inverted commas, that is, quotation marks.

...asked the teacher.

Mary replied...

...the teacher asked...

- ✓ The above parts of the direct speech from the examples are known as **speech tags**. The following are more examples of sentences in direct speech. Note the speech tags and the actual words spoken.
- ✓ Speech tags can come before, after or between the words that are spoken.

Rules for Direct Speech Punctuation

1. If the speech tag comes before the direct speech:

- we put a comma after the speech tag.
- we open the inverted commas before the first word of the direct speech.
- we begin the direct speech with a capital letter.
- we close the inverted commas after the final punctuation mark of the direct speech.

2. If the speech tag comes after the direct speech.

- we open inverted commas before the first word of direct speech.
- we begin the inverted commas after the last punctuation mark of this direct speech.
- we close the inverted commas after the last punctuation mark of this direct

speech.

- we add the speech tag, beginning with a small letter and ending with a full stop.

- The speech tag in this case will only begin with a capital letter if it starts with a name.

- If the direct speech is a statement, we use a comma instead of a fullstop. If the direct speech is a question or exclamation, we use a question mark or exclamation mark.

3. If the speech tag comes in between or within words.

- The way the first part ends will determine how the second part begins as its evidence in the already given examples.

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REPORTED SPEECH

When we use **reported speech (indirect speech)**, we give the meaning of what the speaker said without using the exact words that were used.

E.g.

Mary told Tom that the Headteacher wanted to him.

- ✓ Whenever we write the reported speech, we do not use quotation marks.
- ✓ Whenever we change or turn direct speech sentences into reported speech, there are certain rules that we follow.

The following are the major changes.

<i>Direct Speech</i>	<i>Reported Speech</i>
1. Today	- <i>That day</i>
2. Tomorrow	- <i>The following day/next day</i>
3. Yesterday	- <i>The previous day</i>
4. Now	- <i>Then</i>
5. Will	- <i>Would</i>
6. Can	- <i>Could</i>
7. May	- <i>Might</i>
8. Last year	- <i>The previous year</i>
9. Next year	- <i>The following year</i>
10. This year	- <i>That year</i>
11. Is	- <i>Was</i>
12. Are	- <i>Were</i>
13. Do	- <i>Did (sometimes)</i>
14. Next week	- <i>The following week</i>
15. This week	- <i>That week</i>
16. Last week	- <i>The previous week</i>
17. This	- <i>That</i>
18. Here	- <i>There</i>
19. Shall	- <i>Should</i>
20. Come	- <i>Go</i>

EXAMPLES

The following sentences have been changed into reported speech.

1. Christopher said, "I don't like mangoes."

A: **Christopher said that he did not like mangoes.**

2. "We will go shopping tomorrow," they said.

A: **They said that they would go shopping the following day.**

3. "I'm getting married next June," Agnes told her friends.

A: **Agnes told her friends that she was getting married the following June.**

4. "I haven't been to England," said Chanda.

A: **Chanda said that he hadn't been to England.**

5. "All the girls are absent," said the monitor.

A: **The monitor said that all the girls were absent.**

EXPRESSING “CONTRAST”, “ALTERNATIVE” OR “ADDITION” CONTRAST

A. CONTRAST

Contrast has to do with highlighting differences. The following are key words used to express that concept of contrast.

1. Although

Although she can walk very fast, she is incapable of running.

2. But

Robert was in a terrible accident but he is okay.

3. Despite

Kanye and Clara obtained distinctions in English despite numerous family problems during exam times.

4. In spite of

In spite of being tall, he is unable to reach the roof with his hand.

B. ALTERNATIVE

When dealing with alternative, one action or ideal is rejected in favour of another. Key words that express alternative.

Instead of.

E.g

1. Instead of using his pen, he used a pencil.

2. She ran outside to play instead of eating her supper.

C. ADDITION

Examples of words that express this concept:

1. Besides

Besides being an engineer, she is a lecturer.

Besides does not take '**also**', so you do not say; besides being an engineer, she is also a lecturer.

2. Apart from

E.g. I can't think of anything else we need to do apart from getting milk.

3. In addition

E.g. In addition to insulting my sister, that small boy tore up her exercise books.

4. As well as

E.g. Situ was taking notes as well as listening to the radio.

OTHER WAYS OF SHOWING CONTRAST

1. (the) one...the other

E.g.

i) One of my brothers is a teacher, the other is an engineer.

ii) That boy is difficult to understand; on the other hand he is very kind to animals but on the other, he is very cruel to small children.

- ✓ There are various ways of joining the phrases containing the two ideas: "and", "while", "yet" and the semi colon are some of the ways.

2. No matter + how/what/where/who/which

E.g.

i) No matter how many sources she tried, Beatrice was unable to raise any money.

ii) No matter what she did, she was unable to raise money to buy oxen

- ✓ No matter is used with 'how', 'when', 'where', 'who', 'which', or 'what'

3. Adjectives used with “as” or “though”

E.g.

- i) Angry as she was, she could not tell anyone.
- ii) Unhappy though she was, she would not cry.

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QUESTION TAGS

Question tags have been given that name because they are attached or tagged to statements.

STATEMENT	QUESTION TAG
1. He is coming	<i>isn't he?</i>
2. He isn't coming	<i>is he?</i>
3. We are on time for the lesson	<i>aren't we</i>

Positive statements follow a negative question tag and vice versa. However, it is possible to have a positive statement followed by a positive question tag.

E.g.

i. Let's go now, shall we?

ii. Open the window, will you?

Negative statements are **always** followed by positive tags.

After statements containing subjects like "**anyone**", "**somebody**", "**no one**", "**none**" and "**neither**", we use them in the question tag E.g.

i. Somebody told you, didn't they?

ii. No one was there, were they?

Words like "**nothing**", "**scarcely**", "**hardly**" and "**seldom**" have a negative meaning and are therefore followed by a positive question tag E.g.

i. Nothing happened, did it?

ii. You seldom go to town, do you?

We usually reply to a question tag using a short answer.

STATEMENT/ QUESTION TAG	EXPECTED SHORT ANSWER
i. He's coming tomorrow morning, isn't he?	-Yes, he is.
ii. Mary won't come, will she?	- No, she won't.
iii. I'm late, aren't I?	- Yes, you are.
iv. You can't swim, can you?	-No, I can't.

EXAMPLES

The question tags have been underlined.

1. She is clever, isn't she?
2. She has gone home, hasn't she?
3. They have taken their bags away, haven't they?
4. We shall be late, shan't we?
5. It might rain in the afternoon, will it?

SYNONYMS

Definition

- ✓ Synonyms are words that are very similar or the same in meaning.

EXAMPLES

Illegal	Unlawful
Huge	Gigantic
Fair	Just
Intelligent	Bright/Sharp/Smart
Honest	Sincere

ANTONYMS

Definition

- ✓ Antonyms are words that are opposite in meaning.

EXAMPLES

Tall	Short
White	Black
Right	Left/Wrong
Legal	Illegal
Cruel	Kind

HOMONYMS

- ✓ These are words that are spelt in the same way but have different meanings.

Example

Where are the **rest** of the girls?

You should get some **rest**. You look tired.

HOMOPHONES

- ✓ These are words that are spoken in the same way but which have different meanings and origins. They are spelt differently. For example:

Example

1. Bit and Beat

2. Through and Threw

3. Right and Write

HETERONYMS

- ✓ These are words that have the same spelling but different meanings and pronunciation.

Example

1. Read and Read

2. Live and Live

3. Abuse and Abuse

PHRASAL VERBS

Phrasal verbs are **two-word or three-word verbs** consisting of a verb and a **preposition or an adverb**.

E.g

Turn off, look up, hand in, come across, break down, carry on Etc.

Note:

- ✓ Some phrasal verbs are made up of three words. E.g. *Get on with, get out of, put up with, catch up with Etc.*
- ✓ and simple prepositions like *to, for, at, in, on, off, under, away, over, through Etc.*
- ✓ With many phrasal verbs, it is necessary to learn the meaning of the expression as a whole.
- ✓ Therefore, if you know the meaning of 'carry' and 'out', you will **not** know the meaning of 'carry out' until you learn the meaning of 'carry out' as a phrasal verb.

Examples

Each sentence has been completed using one of the following phrasal verbs. The meanings of the verbs are shown in the brackets.

Call off, care for, get over, put out, run into, give up, look forward to, put off, talk (somebody) into

1. I'll try to **talk** her **into** coming with us. (Persuade)
2. The District Governor is sick. He's had to **call off** his visit. (Cancel)
3. I've broken my leg. I'll have to **give up** football for six months. (Stop doing something)
4. We are all **looking forward to** the party. (Expect with pleasure)
5. Have you **got over** your illness yet? (Recover from)
6. The District Governor is sick. He's had to **call off** his visit. (Cancel)

PREPOSITIONS

- ✓ **Pre** means before.
- ✓ **Preposition** means to **position** before, or place before.
- ✓ **A Preposition** is therefore a word placed before a noun or a pronoun.
- ✓ Some prepositions tell the positions of one or more things in relation to each other.
- ✓ Prepositions also relate nouns and pronouns to other parts of the sentence.

EXAMPLES

The best answers in each of the following have been underlined.

1. Mary was in such a hurry that she left her umbrella____ her hotel room.
a. Under b. at c. in d. off
2. They agreed to meet____ eight O'clock.
a. On b. to c. in d. at
3. Martin dived____ the pool.
a. in b. on c. into d. onto
4. We sat____ the fire as the night was so cold.
a. on b. in c. at d. by
5. The herds boy was saved____ the lions by the hunters.
a. by b. from c. against d. to
6. I apologize for the delay in replying____ your letter.
a. to b. at c. for d. in
7. She stood____ her in times of trouble.
a. Near b. behind c. with d. by
8. He failed____ his exams for the third time.
a. in b. on c. by d. with
9. He does not often agree____ us.
a. for b. with c. about d. on
10. The policeman was mistaken____ the thief.
a. for b. by c. as d. from

TENSES

1. SIMPLE PRESENT, PAST AND FUTURE TENSES

What is a Tense of a Verb?

The tense of a verb shows the time of an action or event.

a. The Simple Present

Functions:-

- ✓ To show habitual actions.
E.g. He wakes up early every morning.
- ✓ To express general truths.
E.g. The sun rises in the East.
- ✓ To talk of future events.
E.g. We must complete the shopping before school starts next week.

b. The Simple Past

Functions:-

- ✓ Describes an action performed and completed in the past.
E.g. He lost his pen.

c. The Future

Future time refers to the period after now and this can be expressed in different ways.

- ✓ **The Simple Present**
 - a. *He arrives from India today.*
 - b. *She leaves for Mecca at 4 pm.*
- ✓ **The Use of Will or Shall**
 - a. *We shall talk to you letter.*
 - b. *She will visit them later.*

✓ **Be + Going to + Verb**

a. Zanaco is playing Manchester United in the final of the Club World Championship later.

✓ **Will + be + -ing Form of the Verb**

a. The student's will be cleaning their dormitories later.

✓ **Use of be + About to**

a. She's about to complete her homework.

✓ **Be + Base form of Verb**

(to talk official plans or arrangements)

a. The President is to visit Nigeria next week.

The British Prime Minister is to visit Kenya.

SENTENCES

- ✓ A sentence is a group of words that express a complete thought.
- ✓ A sentence has two parts:
 - Subject
 - Predicate

E.g

Ntula **is playing**.

Ntula is the subject

is playing is the predicate

- ✓ The subject is a noun or pronoun that the sentence is about. The predicate is that that says something about the subject. We cannot have a sentence without a **noun and a verb**. These two are the **most essential** parts of any sentence.
- ✓ These are two types of subjects and predicates.
 1. **The simple subject and simple predicate.**
 2. **The compound subject and compound predicate.**
- ✓ Consider the following examples

<u>Mary</u>	<u>screamed.</u>
<u>They</u>	<u>prayed.</u>
↑	↑
simple	simple
subject	predicate

- ✓ These two sentences have a simple subject and a simple predicate because they both have one noun and one verb. However, in most cases, a sentence has more than one word, forming the **subject** and the **object** respectively.

1. SIMPLE SETENCE

- ✓ A simple sentence is made up of **subject + verb, subject – verb – object or subject - verb – complement.**
- ✓ The object receives the action of the verb and is usually a noun.
- ✓ The object comes after the verb e.g

Jack banged the door.
subject verb object

- ✓ The complement is a word or group of words that completes the meaning of the verb. Some verbs would be incomplete without adding some word after them. E.g.

He looks happy.
subject verb complement

- ✓ Sometimes there is more than one subject sharing a predicate in a sentence joined by a conjunction such subjects are called compound subjects. Similarly, if we have more than one predicate which shares the same object in a sentence joined by a conjunction they form compound predicates E.g.

Jack and John worked in school and got a price.
compound subject compound predicate

2. COMPOUND SENTENCES

- ✓ A compound sentence is a sentence made up of two or more independent clauses. Compound sentences are joined by conjunctions (e.g **and, but, as Etc.**)
They studied hard.
They passed their exams.
- ✓ These are main clauses and they make complete sense on their own. They can be combined by a coordinating conjunction to form a compound sentence.
- ✓ ***They studied hard and passed their exams*** (there is no need to repeat the subject “**they**” as this would sound monotonous)

3. COMPLEX SENTENCES

- ✓ A complex sentence is one that consists of a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

E.g

My father saw the man

Independent clause

who hit the young boy.

subordinate clause

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CORRECT USE OF...

1. THEIR AND THERE

a. There

- ✓ **There** can be used as a pronoun E.g. **There** are some pupils in the school shelter.
- ✓ As an adverb of place E.g.
Peter comes from Ndola. He goes there every month.

b. Their

- ✓ This is the possessive form of **"they"**. It means "belong to them."
Peter and Mary have to visit their parents.

2. ITS AND IT'S

its

- ✓ **"Its"** is the possessive form of **"it"**. It means "belong to it"
The dog ate its food.

it's

- ✓ It's is the short form of **it is, it has or it was.**
It's now 12:30 hours
It's time for lunch
It's yesterday when that happened
It's been long since we last met

3. WHERE AND WERE

Where

- ✓ An adverb meaning in or what place or situation.
Where do you live?
I wonder where they will take us.
Where (at which point) did I go wrong in my calculations.
- ✓ It can be used after words or phrases that refer to a place or situation to mean “at”, “in” or “to which”
It's one of the few countries where people drive on the left.
- ✓ It can also be used as a conjunction meaning (in) the place or situation in which.
Sit where I can see you.
That's where (the point in the argument) you're wrong.

Were

- ✓ “**Were**” is the plural past form of the verb “**are**”.
- ✓ Both “**were**” and “**are**” are some of the many forms of the verb “**be**”.
In present sense: They are going to town.
In past sense: They were going to town.

EXAMPLES

The most suitable words have been underlined.

1. There are quite a number of pupils who do not do their homework.
2. Do you think it's alright to give the baby its milk now?
3. The children just sat there hoping that the weather would change.
4. It's unlikely Juma will go there on his own.
5. It's uncertain whether he will help us.

ORDERING OF ADJECTIVES

An adjective is a word that modifies or describes a noun or pronoun.

Examples

1. John fell from a tall tree.
2. She wore a **blue** dress.

Tall → reason- it is describing or giving more information about the noun “tree”

Blue → reason- it is giving more information about the noun “dress”

N.B: When several adjectives are used together before a noun, the question of order arises. Observe the following;

- a. A stamp.
- b. A **Zambian** stamp.
- c. A **green, Zambian** stamp.
- d. A **square, green, Zambian** stamp.
- e. An **attractive, square, green, Zambian** stamp.
- f. He is a **handsome, tall, dark** boy.

- ✓ It is very rare to use more than three adjectives before a noun.
- ✓ Adjectives of **opinions** come before the adjectives of **facts**.

The usual order of adjectives is given in the table below:

Quality	Size, shape, weight	Colour	Noun/Participle	Noun
Handsome	Tall	Dark		Boy
Old	High	Red	Brick	Wall
Useful	Oblong		Tin	Box

EXAMPLES

The following have been arranged in the correct order to describe the noun given.

1. House (brick, old)

A: **An old, brick house.**

2. Handbag (black, shiny)

A: **A shiny, black handbag.**

3. House (old, tired)

A: **An old, tired house.**

4. Blanket (tattered, old)

A: **An old, tattered blanket.**

5. Tomato (ripe, large)

A: **A ripe, large tomato.**

6. Child (poor, little)

A: **A poor, little child.**

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THE PAST PARTICIPLE

A past participle indicates past or completed action or time. It is often called the 'ed' form as it is formed by adding "d" or "ed" to the base of **regular verbs**.

The **past participle** is used in the **present perfect** tense.

E.g. I have learnt English.

✓ It can also be used as an adjective

E.g. He had a broken arm.

Examples of **irregular verbs** and their changes.

Present	Past	Past Participle
1. Be	was/were	been
2. Sing	sang	sung
3. Drink	drank	drunk
4. Do	did	done
5. Go	went	gone
6. Make	made	made
7. Find	found	found
8. Eat	ate	eaten
9. Swim	swam	swum
10. Read	read	read
11. Write	wrote	written
12. Give	gave	given
13. Begin	began	began

✓ The Past Participle is best practiced using the present perfect tense.

✓ It shows something started in the past but continues until now.

Examples

1. She **has done** her homework.
2. Julia **hasn't eaten** anything today.
3. The men **haven't talked** about the women.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

This is the **tense** used to express an action or condition that occurred at some indefinite time (**lasting for a period of time that has no fixed end/imprecise**) in the past.

The Present Perfect Tense is formed by using “**has**” or “**have**” with the participle of the verb: *has permitted, have cut*.

N.B

- ✓ Do not be confused by the word “**present**” in the name of the **Present Perfect Tense**. This tense expresses past time. The word present refers to the tense of the **auxiliary verb** “**has**” or “**have**”.

i. The living-room clock **has stopped**.

ii. They **have brought** the new coach a day early.

- ✓ The Present Perfect Tense can refer to completed action in past time only in an indefinite way.
- ✓ Adverbs such as yesterday cannot be added to make the time more specific.

i. Chandhini has completed her projects.

ii. Jack has always wanted to visit Mexico.

The Present Perfect Tense can also be used to express the idea that an action or a condition **began in the past and is still happening**. To communicate this idea, you would normally add adverbs (or adverb phrases or clauses) of time.

i. The mall **has displayed** our artwork for two weeks.

ii. We **have kept** a spare house key under this rock ever since I left my key at school.

THE PAST PERFECT TENSE

- ✓ This is the tense used to indicate that one past action or condition began and ended before another past action or condition started.
- ✓ This tense is formed by using the auxiliary “**had**” with the past participle of a verb: *had praised, had written.*

i. Patricia **dedicated** her play to the drama teacher who **had encouraged** her long ago.

[First the drama teacher encouraged Patricia; then much later Patricia acknowledged her teachers support.]

ii. The meat loaf **had dried** to shoe leather by the time I **remembered** to check on it

[First the meat loaf dried up; then I remembered to check on it.]

THE FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

This tense is used to express one future action or condition that will begin and end before another future event starts.

- ✓ This tense is formed by using **will have** or **shall have** with the past participle of a verb: *will have practised, shall have formed*.

Example: *By September, I **will have** saved fifty dollars.*

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PROGRESSIVE AND EMPHATIC FORMS

Each of the six tenses has a **progressive form** that expresses a continuing action.

You make the progressive form by using the appropriate tense of the verb “**be**” with the Present Participle of the main tense.

Examples

Form	Sentence
1. Present Progressive	They are travelling.
2. Past Progressive	They were travelling.
3. Future Progressive	They will be travelling.
4. Present Perfect Progressive	They have been travelling.
5. Past Perfect Progressive	They had been travelling.
5. Future Perfect Progressive	They will have been travelling

- ✓ The Present Tense and Past Tense have additional forms, called **emphatic forms** that add special force, or emphasis, to the verb.
- ✓ You make the emphatic forms by using **do**, **does** or **did** with the base form of the verb.

E.g

Present Emphatic: - *I do hope the train is on time.*

- *Tom **does have** a plane to catch.*

Past Emphatic: - *He did miss his plane the last time because of a late train.*

SUBJECT – VERB – AGREEMENT – ACCOMPANYING VERB

Sentence – Group of words with complete meaning.

Subject – Who/what the sentence is about.

Helping verb – Helps give main verb tense.

*In conjunction with
as well as
lacked by
like
together with
including*

Verb agrees with first subject.

EXAMPLES

In each of the following sentences, the correct form of the verb given has been chosen and underlined.

1. Zambia, as well as Malawi, is/are an African country.
2. The manager, together with his personnel have/has invited the auditor to the meeting.
3. Kenneth Kaunda, like Nelson Mandela, Robert Mugabe, Julius Nyerere, Thabo Mbeki, as well as Sam Nuyoma is/are considered one of the greatest sons of Africa.
4. The president of Zambia, together with several other African leaders was/were present at the swearing in ceremony of President Mugabe.
5. Mutinta, like her sister, has/have gone to the Agricultural Show.

COMMON FORMS AND PREPOSITIONS MISUSED

Mistakes are often made using the wrong preposition. The following list gives the correct *prepositions* for words that often cause trouble.

1. "Absorbed *in*" **not** - "absorbed *at*".
2. "Accuse *of*" **not** - "accuse *for*".
3. "Charged *with*".
4. "Afraid *of*" **not** - "afraid *from*".
5. "Aim *at*" **not** - "Aim on/against".
6. "Angry *with*" **not** - "angry *against*".
 -> We get angry **at** something.
 -> We get angry **with** someone.
7. "Anxious *about* (troubled)" **not** - "anxious *for*".
8. "Anxious *for* (wishing for)" **not** - "anxious *about*".
9. "Arrive *at*" **not** - "arrive *to*".
10. "Arrived *in*" **not** - "arrived *at*". (For countries/cities/towns Etc)
11. "Ashamed *of*" **not** - "ashamed *from*".
 It is incorrect to use **ashamed of** to mean **shy**.
12. "Careful *of/with/about*" **not** - "careful *for*".
13. "Travel *by*" **not** - "travel *with*" ...train/car/bus Etc.

14. "Complain *about*" **not** - "complain *for*" ...someone/something
15. "Complain *of*" ...**an illness**
16. "Confidence *in*" **not** - "confidence *to*".
17. "Composed/Consist *of*" **not** - "Composed/Consist *from*".
18. "Congratulate *on*" **not** - "congratulate *for*".
19. "Covered *with*" **not** - "covered *by*".
20. "Cure *of*" **not** - "cure *from*" ...**E.g ...cured of** his illness.
21. "Depend *on/upon*" **not** - "depend *from*".
22. "Deprive *of*" **not** - "deprive *from*".
23. "Die *of*" **not** - "die *from*" ...an illness.
24. "Different *from*" **not** - "different *than*".
25. "Disappointed *by/about/at*" **not** - "disappointed *from*" ...something
26. "Disappointed *in*" ...**someone**
27. "Divide *into*" **not** - "divide *in*".
28. "No doubt *of/about*" **not** - "No doubt *for*".
29. "Dressed *in*" **not** - "dressed *with*" ...something
30. "Exception *to*" **not** - "exception *of*".
31. "Full *of*" **not** - "full *with/from*".
32. "Good *at*" **not** - "good *in*" ...something.

33. "Glad *about*" **not** - "glad *with/from*"
34. "Guilty *of*" **not** - "guilty *for*" ...
35. "Independent *of*" **not** - "independent *from*"
36. "Insist *on*" **not** - "insist *to*"
37. "Leave *for*" **not** - "leave *to*" ...a place
38. "Married *to*" **not** - "married *with*"
39. "Opposite *to*" **not** - "opposite *from*" ...something
40. "Pass *by*" **not** - "pass *from*"
41. "Play *for*" **not** - "play *with*" ...a team
42. "Prefer *to*" **not** - "prefer *from*" ...something
43. "Preside *at/over*" **not** - "preside *in*"
44. "Proud *of*" **not** - "proud *for*"
45. "Related *to*" **not** - "related *with*"
46. "Satisfied *with*" **not** - "satisfied *from*"
47. "Similar *to*" **not** - "similar *with*"
48. "Sit *at*" **not** - "sit *on*" ...a desk, chair Etc.
49. "Succeed *in*" **not** - "succeed *at*" ...something
50. "Superior *to*" **not** - "superior *from/than*" ...something
51. "Surprised *at/by*" **not** - "surprised *for*" ...something

52. "Tired *of*" **not** – "tired *from*"

53. "Translate *into*" **not** - "translate *to*" ...something

54. "Warn (a person) *of*" **not** - "Warn (a person) *about*" ...something

55. "Suspect *of*" **not** - "suspect *for*" **E.g** ...is **suspected of** doing something.

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PHRASES

NOUN PHRASES

- ✓ These are phrases that do the work of nouns E.g.
A machine that is easy to use.
Noun phrase: *a user friendly machine.*

ADVERB PHRASES

- ✓ These are phrases that do the work of adverbs E.g.
 - a. *He walked **slowly**.*
 - *He walked in a **slow way**. (Adverb Phrase)*
 - b. *Did he act **well**?*
 - *Did he act in a **good way**? (Adverb Phrase)*

ADJECTIVE PHRASES

- ✓ These are phrases that do the work of adjectives E.g.
 - a. *He wore a **golden crown**.*
 - *He wore a **crown made of gold**. (Adjective Phrase)*

RULES OF VERB AGREEMENT

1. Compound subjects referring to the same person, thing/reality have singular verbs.

The horse and carriage has left the town.

2. Subject accompaniment – if two or more singular subjects are joined by **together with, in conjunction with, backed by, as well as, like** and **including**.

The verb agrees in number and person with the first subject only.

Peter with Joseph is no longer my friend.

3. Rule of Proximity – when there are two singular subjects joined by **“(n) either... (n) or,” “one or other”** the verb should agree in number with the nearest subject to the verb.

One teacher or the other is likely to attend to you.

4. When one subject is plural and the other is similar, place the plural subject in front of the verb so that the verb becomes plural.

Neither Mary nor the twins are coming to the party.

5. Any singular subject proceeded by **“each”** or **“every”** require a singular verb.

Each day and every hour has its own surprise.

6. When **“each”** precedes a series of singular nouns, the verb remains singular.

Each woman, girl, one boy in the family was hungry.

7. Any plural noun followed by each will take a plural verb.

Three houses each are protected by high security cameras.

8. **“The number of”** must be followed by a **singular verb**.

The number of students has decreased drastically.

9. **“A number of”** allowed by a **plural verb**.

A number of graduates are out of formal employment.

EXAMPLES

The correct verbs from the following have been underlined.

1. Everybody (wish/wishes) to enjoy life.
2. A herd of cattle (is/are) passing through the field.
3. The number of healthy trees (is/are) dwindling.
4. My friend and benefactor (have/has) come.
5. The ship with its crew (was/were) lost.
6. Fifteen minutes (is/are) allowed for each speaker.

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CLAUSES

A clause is a part of a sentence that contains a subject and predicate.

TYPES OF CLAUSES

Noun Clauses:-

- ✓ Used as nouns
- ✓ E.g. What he did all those years he was abroad, I cannot tell.

Adjective Clauses:-

- ✓ Modify nouns or pronouns.
- ✓ E.g. Mrs Mukuka is a good coach who never shouts at her players.

Adverbial Clause:-

- ✓ Contains nouns and verbs and work as adverbs.
- ✓ E.g. I forgive you since you apologized for your mistake.

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS

A **transitive verb** is an **active verb** that needs an object. It denotes action which passes from the doer or subject to the object.

E.g

- ✓ *My aunt polished the floor.*
‘**the floor**’ is the object which receives an action from the subject (my aunt).
- ✓ An **intransitive verb** is a **passive verb** which does not need an object in order to make sense. The action does not pass over to an object. It expresses the state or being. The verbs are often followed by an adverb or adjective.

E.g

- ✓ They ate greedily.
- ✓ The verb “**ate**” is followed by the adverb greedily.
- ✓ Intransitive verbs answer the question when? or where?

RULES GOVERNING THE USE OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS

1. Who

- ✓ Is used for persons only.
- ✓ Rarely used for animals.

2. Whose

- ✓ Used in speaking of people, animals and inanimate (lifeless) things.

3. Which

- ✓ Used for animals and inanimate things.

4. That

- ✓ Used for persons and things.

5. What

- ✓ For things only.

6. Compound Relative Pronouns

E.g **whoever**, **whosoever**, **whichever**, **whatever** and **whatsoever**.

EXAMPLES

1. Did you receive the letter **that** I sent you?
2. Is this the street **which** leads to the station?
3. This is the system **which** most politicians favour.
4. The tree **which** was cut down was burnt.
5. The worst mistake **that** Bwalya made was to leave home.
6. None of the questions **that** were asked could be of practical nature.
7. **Whichever** way you look at it, you have created a problem.

MODIFIERS

ADVERBS AND ADJECTIVES COMPARISON

Comparison

Adverb/Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
1. <i>Easily</i>	More easily	Most easily
2. <i>New</i>	Recent	Latest
3. <i>Clumsily</i>	More clumsily	Most clumsily
4. <i>Often</i>	More often	Most often
5. <i>Lovely</i>	Lovelier	Loveliest

RULES FOR CAPITALISATION

Capital letters are used:

- ✓ For all proper nouns and adjectives.
- ✓ For the singular personal pronoun, "I".
- ✓ For school subjects and those denoting nationality.
- ✓ At the beginning of every sentence.
- ✓ With names of unique sacred beings.
- ✓ With nationalities and languages.
- ✓ The first letter of each new verse.
- ✓ For common nouns used as titles E.g. Brother Julius.
- ✓ For abbreviations of proper nouns and adjectives. E.g. ZESCO.
- ✓ For all titles applied to a particular person in a sentence.

PUNCTUATION: COLON AND SEMI-COLON.

COLON

A colon can be used after:

- ✓ The salutation in a formal letter E.g. ***RE: Application for Employment.***
- ✓ To separate figures used in time for hours and minutes. E.g. *13:30 hrs.*
- ✓ To separate titles and subtitles. E.g. *Africa: The Land of Promise.*
- ✓ When writing the bibliographies.
- ✓ To introduce a list in a sentence.
E.g *She bought a many fruits: apples, oranges, bananas and grapes.*
- ✓ To separate a chapter from a verse. E.g *James 3:2.*
- ✓ When quoting a long passage.

SEMI-COLON

- ✓ Joins parts of a compound sentence if no coordinating conjunction is used.
E.g. *The wind was strong; the sea was rough.*
- ✓ Separate clauses more so when the second clause is closely related to the first.
E.g *Jack climbed on his bicycle bar sitting sideways; I pushed it off.*
- ✓ To set off elements within a sentence where there are commas within the elements. E.g *He bought furniture such as tables, sofas and cabinets; cutlery such as spoons, forks, knives and handles.*

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