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Teaching Kids English: 10 Things to Consider

TEACHING CHILDREN CAN BE

and sometimes it's just not that easy. this? English teachers who wish to teach children must be aware of the chal- Let's see some examples: counter, and prepare accordingly.

Here are the top 10 things to consider if you're serious about teaching kids . For bodily - kinesthetic intelliinteract with their parents as well.

1 ARE YOU REALLY UP FOR IT?

If you want to teach kids English because you think it's easy, then this is not the job for you. Teaching children demands a great deal of creativity and energy. Kids will always keep you on your toes! They will amaze you and surprise you, but don't think that just because you'll be teaching colors and animals, it'll be a breeze. You'll most likely feel exhausted after every class, 4 DON'T LET THEM but oh, so happy!

A LITTLE PREPARATION C GOES A LONG WAY

Never make the mistake of showing up for class with little or no ideas, and thinking that you'll figure it out as you go along. Preparation is essential, mostly because you'll need to gather lots of teaching materials. Seasoned teachers may be able to improvise an entire lesson with only a whiteboard and some markers, but why risk having a class that turns out to be a helfish nightmare? You can plan an entire week of lessons or a full month, but make sure you have a lesson plan for

3 TRY TO CATER TO MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES

Young ESL students have strengths and weaknesses and the best way to ESL classes take advantage of their strengths and help them learn effectively is to cater

to their learning styles or multiples in- ESL lessons combine the right mix of telligences, namely Visual - Spatial, teaching strategies. You may begin Logical - Mathematical, Bodily - Kin- class with a short song, then move on WHO HAS TAUGHT CHILDREN CAN esthetic, Musical - Rhythmic, Intra- to a reading exercise. The best rule of Personal, Inter-Personal, Naturalist, thumb is to switch between quiet, in-But it's not fun and games all the time, and Spiritual. How can we accomplish dependent tasks to those that require

children must be aware of the chal-lenges and difficulties they may en-counter and prepare accordingly. For musical – rhythmic intelligence learners, teach an ESL

element with a song, like Rock. Unlike teaching adult students, when Around the Clock for telling time. you teach the little ones you have to gence learners, teach body parts

with a game of Simon Says, or These must be informed about: sing Head, Shoulders, Knees, . Your goals, i.e., what you hope to accomplish throughout the year . For visual - spatial intelligence . The children's learning goals, i.e., learners, use maps, charts, and the syllabus for the school year all types of visual aids. Teach . Their children's progress, i.e., if shem the different types of stores they have achieved their learning and locations they may find goals satisfactorily around town with a big map-like

action and movement.

board game, and have them "vis- it is also recommended to encourage it' the different locations by throw- parents' active participation in their children's English learning. Even if they don't speak English themselves, they should be encouraged to ask the kids what they've learned, share

If children are bored they won't pay attention, and they won't learn. You 7 GATHER AN ARSENAL don't have to clown around all the OF MATERIALS

not to be entertained by you. Your job When you teach children English it is is to make learning engaging and fun. essential to have a box of materials that can be adaptable to any game or activity. Must-have items are:

- · Once they've been sitting and fo- · a pair of dice cused on a task for a while, get . flashcards them out of their seats for a more . blank bingo sheets (that can be
- active game. They should never filled in by students with either words or pictures) the class, unless they're teens. small toys - balls in several sizes, · Use realia, or real life objects in toy vehicles, animals, etc...
- class. No matter how colorful or bean bags big, students sometimes get tired of learning everything through

flashcards.

writing, reading, or listening. The best or ESL element. It's not about coming

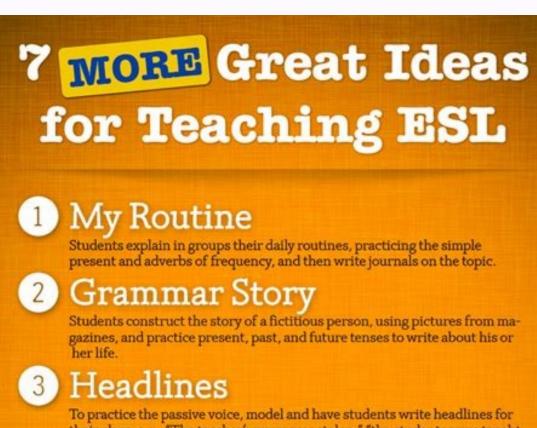
time, either, - they're in class to learn,

Here are some ways to do this:

8 REMEMBER IT'S NOT ALL ABOUT THE GAMES

ESL classes may include sing- Each game or activity you propose ing, dancing, and jumping, as well as should target a specific learning goal





their class: e.g., "The teacher's purse was stolen," "the students were taught passive voice."

If I Were a Rich Man Teach the song from the musical "Fiddler on the Roof." Then students discuss and write about what they would do if they were rich, practicing the

unreal conditional.

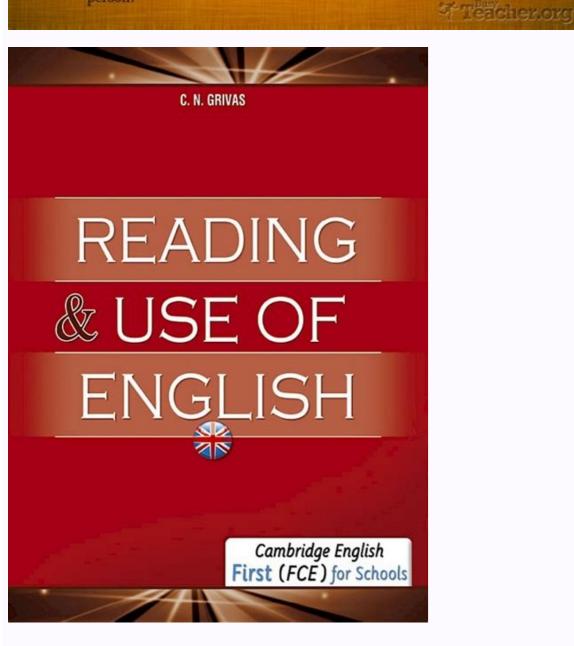
Controversial Issues Introduce some issues like Capital Punishment. Students choose their

teams, issues, research, read, write, and debate on their issue. Plans and Predictions

Have students discuss the future, using different tenses, for what they plan for (to be going to) and predict (will).

Twenty Questions

Play the game: one student thinks of someone/something to be, and others try to guess what or who it is, using twenty yes/no questions: e.g., "Are you a



२. सही क्रिया शब्द डालकर वाक्य पूरा करो।

पुकार	आएंगे	पहन	देखूँगा	पका
पढ़	सुना	पिघल	पीकर	उतर

- १) मैं कल सिनेमा ।
- २) खानसामा मसालेदार सब्जी ____ रहा है।
- ३) मेरे मामा दिल्ली से परसों _____
- ४) राम दूध _____ स्कूल गया |
- ५) धूप में बर्फ़ ____ रहा है।
- ६) दादी मुझे जोर से _____ रही है।
- ७) पिताजी अखबार _____ रहे हैं।
- ८) आरिफ़ के अब्बा गज़ल _____ रहे हैं।
- ९) सलीम सीढ़ी से _____ रहा है।
- १०) भाईजान सुंदर कुरता _____ रहे हैं |

क्ष क्ष श ശ ಋ ಎ ಏ [a] [a:] [i] [i:] [r+] [u] [u:] [e] [e:] [aj] [o] [o:] [aw] ಖ ಗ ಘ Velar stops and nasal ka kha ga gha na [ka] [kha] [ga] [gha] [ŋa] ध क का क Palatal affricates and nasal cha ja jha ña [tʃa] [tʃa] [dʒa] [dʒha] [na] ಡ ಡ Retroflex stops and nasal tha da dha [ta] [tha] [da] [dha] [na] α ಧ Dental stops and nasal da dha na [tha] [da] [dha] [na] Labial stops and nasal ba bha ma [pa] [pha/fa] [ba] [bha] [ma] Semivowels (liquids and glides) [ja] [ra] [la] [wa]

[ʃa] [şa] [sa] [ha] [la]

Fricatives and retroflex liquid

Initial Vowels

entertainment, government, and news, over a range of registers, from formal to informal. Divergences from the grammar described here occur in some historical, social, cultural, and regional varieties of English, although these are more minor than differences in pronunciation and vocabulary. Modern English has largely abandoned the inflectional case system of Indo-European in favor of analytic constructions. The personal pronouns retain morphological case more strongly than any other word class (a remnant of the more extensive Germanic case system of Old English). For other pronouns, and all nouns, adjectives, and articles, grammatical function is indicated only by word order, by prepositions, and by the "Saxon genitive or English possessive" (-'s).[1] Eight "word classes" or "parts of speech" are commonly distinguished in English: nouns, determiners, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions. Nouns form the largest word classes, and verbs the second-largest. Unlike nouns in almost all other Indo-European languages, English nouns (with a few uncommon, non-mandatory exceptions) do not have grammat MorphologyPluralsPrefixes (in English)Suffixes (frequentative) Word typesAcronymsAdjectivesAdverbs (flat)ArticlesConjunctionsCompoundsDemonstrativesDeterminers (List here)ExpletivesIntensifierInterjectionsInterrogativesNounsPortmanteausPossessivesPrepositions (List here)ExpletivesIntensifierInterprepositions (List here)ExpletivesIntensifierIntensifierInterprepositions (List here)ExpletivesIntensifierIntensifierIntensifierIntensifierIntensifierIntensifierIntensifierIntensifierIntensifierInte verbsPassive voicePhrasal verbsVerb usageTransitive and intransitive verbs SyntaxClauses (in English)Conditional sentencesCopulaDo-supportInversionPeriphrasis Zero-marking OrthographyAbbreviationsCapitalizationCommaHyphen Variant usageAfrican-American Vernacular EnglishAmE and BrE grammatical differencesCopulaDo-supportInversionPeriphrasis Zero-marking OrthographyAbbreviationsCapitalizationCommaHyphen Variant usageAfrican-American Vernacular EnglishAmE and BrE grammatical differencesCopulaDo-supportInversionPeriphrasis Zero-marking OrthographyAbbreviationsCapitalizationCommaHyphen Variant usageAfrican-American Vernacular EnglishAmE and BrE grammatical differencesCopulaDo-supportInversionPeriphrasis Zero-marking OrthographyAbbreviationScapitalizationCommaHyphen Variant usageAfrican-American Vernacular EnglishAmE and BrE grammatical differencesCopulaDo-supportInversionPeriphrasis Zero-marking OrthographyAbbreviationScapitalizationCommaHyphen Variant usageAfrican-American Vernacular EnglishAmE and BrE grammatical differencesCopulaDo-supportInversionPeriphrasis Zero-marking OrthographyAbbreviationScapitalizationCommaHyphen Variant usageAfrican-American Vernacular EnglishAmE and BrE grammatical differencesCopulaDo-supportInversionPeriphrasis Zero-marking OrthographyAbbreviationScapitalizationCommaHyphen Variant usageAfrican-American Vernacular English Vernacular E disputesThou vte Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs form open classes - word classes - word classes that readily accept new members, such as the noun celebutante (a celebrity who frequents the fashion circles), and other similar relatively new words.[2] The others are considered to be closed classes. For example, it is rare for a new pronoun to enter the language. Determiners, traditionally classified along with adjectives, have not always been regarded as a separate part of speech. Interjections are another word class, but these are not described here as they do not form part of the clause and sentence structure of the language. [2] Linguists generally accept nine English word classes: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, determiners, and exclamations. English words are not generally marked for word class. It is not usually possible to tell from the form of a word which class it belongs to except, to some extent, in the case of words with inflectional endings or derivational suffixes. On the other hand, most words belong to more than one-word class. For example, run can serve as either a verb or a noun (these are regarded as two different lexemes).[3] Lexemes may be inflected to express different grammatical categories. The lexeme run has the forms runs, ran, runny, runner, and running.[3] Words in one class can sometimes be derived from those in another. This has the potential to give rise to new words. The noun aerobics has recently given rise to the adjective aerobicized.[3] Words combine to form phrases. A phrase typically serves the same function as a word from some particular word class.[3] For example, my very good friend Peter is a phrase that can be used in a sentence as if it were a noun, and is therefore called a noun phrase. Similarly, adjectival phrases and adverbial phrases function as if they were adjectives or adverbs, but with other types of phrases, the terminology has different implications. For example, a verb phrase consists of a preposition and its complement (and is therefore usually a type of adverbial phrase); and a determiner phrase is a type of noun phrase containing a determiner wouns from other types of words, such as -age (as in shrinkage), -hood (as in sisterhood), and so on,[3] although many nouns are base forms not containing any such suffix (such as cat, grass, France). Nouns are also often created by conversion of verbs or adjectives, as with the words talk and reading (a boring talk, the assigned reading). Nouns are sometimes classified semantically (by their meanings) as proper nouns and common nouns (Cyrus, China vs. frog, milk) or as concrete nouns and abstract nouns (book, laptop vs. embarrassment, prejudice).[4] A grammatical distinction is often made between count (countable) nouns such as milk and decor.[5] Some nouns can function both as countable and as uncountable such as the word "wine" (This is a good wine, I prefer red wine). Countable nouns generally have singular and plural forms.[4] In most cases the plural is formed from the singular forms (woman/women, foot/feet, etc.), including cases where the two forms are identical (sheep, series). For more details, see English plural. Certain nouns can be used with plural \ Singulars with collective meaning the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government were ... (where the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government were ... (where the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government is considered to refer to the people constituting the government is considered to refer to the treated as plural. English nouns are not marked for case as they are in some languages, but they have possessive forms, through the addition of -'s (as in John's, children's) or just an apostrophe (with no change in pronunciation) in the case of -[e]s plurals and sometimes other words ending with -s (the dogs' owners, Jesus' love). More generally, the ending can be applied to noun phrases (as in the man you saw yesterday's sister); see below. The possessive form can be used either as a determiner (John's cat) or as a noun phrase (John's is the one next to Jane's). The status of the possessive as an affix or a clitic is the subject of debate. [6][7] It differs from the noun inflection of languages such as German, in that the genitive ending may attach to the last word of the phrase. To account for this, the possessive can be analysed, for instance as a clitic construction (an "enclitic postposition" [8]) or as an inflection [9][10] of the last word of a phrase struction (an "enclitic postposition" [8]) or as an inflection [9][10] of the last word of a phrase struction (an "enclitic postposition" [8]) or as an inflection [9][10] of the last word of a phrase struction (an "enclitic postposition" [8]) or as an inflection [9][10] of the last word of a phrase struction (an "enclitic postposition" [8]) or as an inflection [9][10] of the last word of a phrase struction (an "enclitic postposition" [8]) or as an inflection [9][10] of the last word of a phrase struction (an "enclitic postposition" [8]) or as an inflection [9][10] of the last word of a phrase struction (an "enclitic postposition" [8]] or as an inflection [9][10] of the last word of a phrase struction (an "enclitic postposition" [8]] or as an inflection [9][10] of the last word of a phrase struction (an "encline postposition" [8]] or as an inflection [9][10] of the last word of a phrase struction (an "encline postposition" [8]] or as an inflection [9][10] of the last word of a phrase struction [9][10] or as an inflection [9][10] or as an infle sentences, for example as the subject or object of a verb. Most noun phrases have a noun as their head.[5] An English noun phrase typically takes the following form (not all elements need be present): Determiner + Pre-modifiers + NOUN + Postmodifiers +

Grammar of the English language English grammar is the set of structural rules of the English language. This includes the structure of words, phrases, clauses, sentences, and whole texts. This article describes a generalized, present-day Standard English - a form of speech and writing used in public discourse, including broadcasting, education,

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word, as described in the following section. In many contexts, it is required for a noun phrase to include some determiner. pre-modifiers include adjectives and some adjective phrases (such as red, really lovely), and noun adjuncts. a complement
or postmodifier[5] may be a prepositional phrase (... of London), a relative clause (like ... which we saw yesterday), certain adjective or participial phrases (... sitting on the beach), or a dependent clause or infinitive phrase appropriate to the noun (like ... that the world is round after a noun such as fact or statement, or ... to travel widely after a noun
such as desire). An example of a noun phrase that includes all of the above-mentioned elements is that rather attractive young college student to whom you were talking. Here that is the determiner, rather attractive and young are adjectival pre-modifiers, college is a noun adjunct, student is the noun serving as the head of the phrase, and to whom
you were talking is a post-modifier (a relative clause in this case). Notice the order of the pre-modifiers; the determiner that must come after the adjectival modifiers, the determiner that must come after the adjectival modifiers, the matching conjunctions such as and, or, and but can be used at various levels in noun phrases, as in John, Paul, and Mary; the matching
green coat and hat; a dangerous but exciting ride; a person sitting down or standing up. See § Conjunctions below for more explanation. Noun phrases can also be placed in apposition (where two consecutive phrases refer to the same thing), as in that president, Abraham Lincoln, ... (where that president and Abraham Lincoln are in apposition). In
some contexts, the same can be expressed by a prepositional phrase, as in the twin curses of famine and pestilence (meaning "the twin curses" that are "famine and pestilence"). Particular forms of noun phrases include: phrases referring to
homeless people or English people in general); phrases with a pronoun rather than a noun as the head (see below); phrases consisting just of a possessive; infinitive and gerund phrases, in certain positions; certain positions; certain positions; certain positions; certain positions.
of grammatical gender, whereby every noun was treated as either masculine, feminine or neuter, existed in Old English period. Modern English period as either masculine, feminine or neuter, existed in Old English, but fell out of use during the Middle English period. Modern English period as either masculine, feminine or neuter, existed in Old English, but fell out of use during the use of certain nouns and pronouns (such as he and she) to refer specifically to persons or animals of one or
other genders and certain others (such as it) for sexless objects - although feminine pronouns are sometimes used when referring to ships (and more uncommonly some airplanes and analogous machinery) and nation-states. Some aspects of gender usage in English have been influenced by the movement towards a preference for gender-neutral
language. Animals are triple-gender nouns, being able to take masculine, feminine and neuter pronouns. [11] Generally there is no difference between male and female in English nouns. However, gender is occasionally exposed by different shapes or dissimilar words when referring to people or animals. [12] Masculine Feminine Gender neutral man
woman adult boy girl child husband wife spouse actor actress performer rooster hen chicken Many nouns that mention people's roles and jobs can refer to either a masculine or a feminine subject, for instance "cousin", "teenager", "teacher", "doctor", "student", "friend", and "colleague".[12] Jane is my friend. She is a dentist. Paul is my cousin. He is a
dentist. Often the gender distinction for these neutral nouns is established by inserting the words "male" or "female cousins and two male cousins. Rarely, nouns illustrating things with no gender are referred to with a gendered pronoun to convey
familiarity. It is also standard to use the gender-neutral pronoun (it).[12] I love my car. She (Queen Elizabeth) is a great ship. Determiners and English determiners and Eng
articles English determiners constitute a relatively small class of words. They include the articles the and a[n]; certain demonstrative and interrogative words such as played by noun possessive forms such as John's and the girl's); various quantifying words like
all, some, many, various; and numerals (one, two, etc.). There are also many phrases (see above). Many words that serve as determiners can also be used as pronouns (this, that, many, etc.). Determiners can be used in certain
combinations, such as all the water and the many problems. In many contexts, it is required for a noun phrase to be completed with an article or some other determiner. It is not grammatical to say just cat sat on table; one must say my cat sat on the table. The most common situations in which a complete noun phrase can be formed without a
determiner are when it refers generally to a whole class or concept (as in dogs are dangerous and beauty is subjective) and when it is a name (Jane, Spain, etc.). This is discussed in more detail at English pronouns are a relatively small, closed class of words that function images are dangerous and beauty is subjective) and when it is a name (Jane, Spain, etc.).
the place of nouns or noun phrases. They include personal pronouns, and some others, mainly indefinite pronouns, interrogative pronouns, and some others, mainly indefinite pronouns, and some others, ma
 Independent genitive Dependent genitive (subject) (object) (object) (possessive) First-person Singular I me myself mine mymine (before vowel) me (esp. BrE) Plural we us ourself yours your Archaic informal thou thee thyself thine thythine (before vowel)
Plural Standard you you yourselves yours your Archaic ye you yourselves yours your Archaic ye you yourselves yearsy'all's (or y'alls) yeersy'all's (or y'alls) third-person Singular Masculine he him himself his Feminine she her herself hers her Neuter it it itself its Epicene they
 them themselvesthemself theirs their Plural they them themselves theirs their Generic Formal one one oneself one's Informal you yourself your which which Reciprocal each otherone another Dummy there it † Interrogative only.
Personal Main article: English personal pronouns The personal pronouns of modern standard English are presented in the table above. They are I, you, she, he, it, we, and they. The personal pronouns are so-called not because they participate in the system of grammatical person (1st, we, and they. The personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to personal pronouns are so-called not because they apply to perso
2nd, 3rd). The second-person forms such as you are used with both singular and plural reference. In the Southern United States, y'all (you all) is used as a plural form, and various other phrases such as you guys are used in other places. An archaic set of second-person pronouns used for singular reference is thou, thee, thyself, thy, thine, which are
still used in religious services and can be seen in older works, such as Shakespeare's—in such texts, the you set of pronouns are used for plural reference as a formal V-form. You can also be used as an indefinite pronoun, referring to a person in general (see generic you), compared to the more formal alternative, one
(reflexive oneself, possessive one's). The third-person singular forms are differentiated according to the sex of the referent. For example, she is used to refer to a female person, sometimes an object to which female animal, and sometimes a male animal
is referred to using he. In other cases, it can be used. (See Gender in English.) The word it can also be used as a dummy subject, concerning abstract ideas like time, weather, etc. The third-person form they is used with both plural and singular referents. Historically, singular they was restricted to quantificational constructions such as Each employee
should clean their desk and referential cases where the referent's gender was unknown. However, it is increasingly used when the referent's gender is irrelevant or when the referent's gender was unknown. However, it is increasingly used when the referent is neither male nor female. The possessive determiners such as my are used as determiners together with nouns, as in my old man, some of his friends. The second
possessive forms like mine are used when they do not qualify a noun: as pronouns, as in mine is bigger than yours, and as predicates, as in this one is my friend"). See English possessive for more details. Demonstrative The demonstrative pronouns of English are this (plural
these), and that (plural those), as in these are good, I like that. Note that all four words can also be used as determiners (followed by a noun), as in those cars. They can also form the alternative pronominal expressions this/that one, these/those ones. Interrogative pronouns are who, what, and which (all of them can take the suffix -
ever for emphasis). The pronoun who refers to a person or people; it has an oblique form whom (though in informal contexts this is usually replaced by who), and a possessive form (pronoun or determiner) whose. The pronoun what refers to things or abstracts. The word which is used to ask about alternatives from what is seen as a closed set: which
(of the books) do you like best? (It can also be an interrogative determiner: which book?; this can form the alternative pronominal expressions which one and what often take a singular verb regardless of any supposed number. For more information see who. In Old
and Middle English, the roles of the three words were different from their roles today. "The interrogative pronoun hwā 'who, what' had only singular forms and also only distinguished between non-neuter and neuter, the neuter nominative form being hwæt." [13] Note that neuter and non-neuter refers to the grammatical gender system of the time,
rather than the so-called natural gender system of today. A small holdover of this is the ability of relative pronouns can also be used as relative pronouns, though what is quite limited in its use;[1] see below for more details. Relative Main
article: English relative clauses For "who/whom" and related forms, see Who (pronoun). The main relative pronoun which refers to things rather than persons, as in the shirt, which used to be red, is faded. For persons, who is used (the man who
saw me was tall). The oblique case form of who is whom, as in the man whose (for example, the man whose is not restricted to persons (one can say an idea whose time has come). The
word that as a relative pronoun is normally found only in restrictive clauses (unlike which and who, which can be used in both restrictive clauses). It can refer to either persons or things, and cannot follow a preposition. For example, one can say the song that [or which] I listened to yesterday, but the song to which [not to
that] I listened yesterday. The relative pronoun that is usually pronounced with a reduced vowel (schwa), and hence differently from the demonstrative clause, it can be omitted (the song I listened to yesterday). The word what can be used to form a free relative clause
 - one that has no antecedent and that serves as a complete noun phrase in itself, as in I like what he likes. The words whatever and whichever can be used similarly, in the role of either pronouns (whatever he likes) or determiners (whatever and whichever can be used in a similar way (but not as
determiners). "There" The word there is used as a pronoun in some sentences, playing the role of a dummy subject, normally of an intransitive verb. This use of there occurs most commonly with forms of the verb be in existential clauses, to refer to the presence or
existence of something. For example: There is a heaven; There are two cups on the table; There have been a lot of problems lately. It can also be used with other verbs: There exist two major variants; There occurred a very strange incident. The dummy subject takes the number (singular or plural) of the logical subject (complement), hence it takes are
plural verb if the complement is plural. In informal English, however, the contraction there's is often used for both singular and plural. It can also appear without a corresponding logical subject, in short sentences and question tags:
 There wasn't a discussion, was there? There was. The word there in such sentences has sometimes been analyzed as an adverb, or as a dummy predicate, rather than as a pronoun.[16] However, its identification as a pronoun is most consistent with its behavior in inverted sentences and question tags as described above. Because the word there can
also be a deictic adverb (meaning "at/to that place"), a sentence like There is a river could have either of two meanings: "a river exists" (with there as a pronoun), and "a river is in that place" (with there as an adverb). In speech, the adverbial there would be given stress, while the pronoun would not - in fact, the pronoun is often pronounced as a weak
form, /ðə(r)/. Reciprocal The English reciprocal pronouns are each other and one another. Although they are written with a space, they're best thought of as single words. No consistent distinction in meaning or use can be found between them. Like the reflexive pronouns, their use is limited to contexts where an antecedent precedes it. In the case of
the reciprocals, they need to appear in the same clause as the antecedent.[1] Other Other pronouns in English are often identical in form to determiner no), nothing, everyone, somebody, etc. Many examples are
listed as indefinite pronouns. Another indefinite (or impersonal) pronoun is one (with its reflexive form oneself and possessive one's), which is a more formal alternative to generic you.[17] Verbs Main article: English verb is not generally marked by any ending, although there are certain suffixes that are frequently
used to form verbs, such as -ate (formulate), -fy (electrify), and -ise/ize (realise/realize).[18] Many verbs also contain prefixes, such as un- (unmask), out- (overtake), and under- (undervalue).[18] Verbs can also be formed from nouns and adjectives by zero derivation, as with the verbs snare, nose, dry, and calm. Most verbs have three or
four inflected forms in addition to the base form: a third-person singular present tense form in -(e)s (writes, botches), a present participle (written). Regular verbs have identical past tense and past participle forms in -ed, but
there are 100 or so irregular English verbs with different forms (see list). The verb have, do and say also have irregular forms (am, is, are in the present tense, was, were in the past tense, been for the past participle). Most of what are often
 referred to as verb tenses (or sometimes aspects) in English are formed using auxiliary verbs. Apart from what are called the simple present (write, writes) and simple past (wrote), there are also continuous (progressive) forms (am/is/are/was/were writing), perfect forms (have/has/had written, and the perfect continuous have/has/had been writing),
future forms (will write, will be writing, will have written, will have written, will have been writing), and conditionals (also called "future in the past"), so forms equivalent to future ones but with would instead of will. The auxiliaries shall and should sometimes replace will and would in the first person. For the uses of these various verb forms, see English verbs and
English clause syntax. The basic form of the verb (be, write, play) is used as the infinitive, although there is also a "to-infinitive" (to be, to write, to play) used in many syntactical constructions. There are also infinitives corresponding to other aspects: (to) have written, (to) be writing, (to) have been writing. The second-person imperative is identical to
the (basic) infinitive; other imperative forms may be made with let (let us go, or let's go; let them eat cake). A form identical to the cause. There is also a past subjunctive (distinct from the simple past only in the
possible use of were instead of was), used in some conditional sentences and similar: if I were (or was) here. For details see English subjunctive. The passive voice is formed using the verb be (in the appropriate tense or form) with the past participle of the verb in question: cars are driven, here to arrive now ...; I wish she were (or was) here.
 was killed, I am being tickled, it is nice to be pampered, etc. The performer of the action may be introduced in a prepositional phrase with by (as in they were killed by the invaders). The English modal verbs consist of the core modals can, could, may, might, must, shall, should, will, would, as well as ought (to), had better, and in some uses dare and
need.[19] These do not inflect for person or number,[19] do not occur alone, and do not have infinitive forms (except synonyms, as with be/being/been able (to) for the modals can/could). The modals are used with the basic infinitive form of a verb (I can swim, he may be killed, we dare not move, need they go?), except for ought, which
takes to (you ought to go). Modals can indicate the condition, probability, necessity, obligation and ability exposed by the speaker's or writer's attitude or expression. [20] The copula be, along with the modal verbs and the other auxiliaries, form a distinct class, sometimes called "special verbs" or simply "auxiliaries". [21] These have
different syntax from ordinary lexical verbs, especially in that they make their interrogative forms by adding not after the verb (could I ...? I could not ...). Apart from those already mentioned, this class may also include used to (although the forms did he use to? and he didn't use to are also
found), and sometimes have even when not an auxiliary (forms like have you a sister? and he hadn't a clue are possible, though becoming less common). It also includes the auxiliary (forms like have you a sister? and he hadn't a clue are possible, though becoming less common). It also includes the auxiliary (forms like have you a sister? and he hadn't a clue are possible, though becoming less common). It also includes the auxiliary (forms like have you a sister? and he hadn't a clue are possible, though becoming less common).
emphatic forms (do I like you?; he doesn't speak English; we did close the fridge). For more details of this, see do-support. Some forms of the copula and auxiliaries often appear as contractions, as in I'm for I am, you'd for you would or you had, and John's for John is. Their negated forms with following not are also often contracted (see § Negation
below). For detail see English auxiliaries and contractions. Phrases A verb together with its dependents, excluding its subject, may be identified as a verb phrase headed by a finite verb may also be called a predicate. The dependents may be
objects, complements, and modifiers (adverbs or adverbial phrases). In English, object as well, expressed without a preposition, then that precedes the direct object: give me the book, but
give the book to me. Adverbial modifiers generally follow objects, although other positions are possible (see under § Adverbs below). Certain verb-modifier combinations, particularly when they have independent meaning (such as take on and get up), are known as "phrasal verbs". For details of possible patterns, see English clause syntax. See the
Non-finite clauses section of that article for verb phrases headed by non-finite verb forms, such as infinitives and participles. Adjectives Main article: English adjectives many of them are formed from nouns or other words by the addition
of a suffix, such as -al (habitual), -ful (blissful), -ic (atomic), -ish (impish, youngish), -ous (hazardous), etc.; or from other adjectives using a prefix: disloyal, irredeemable, unforeseen, overtired. Adjectives using a prefix: disloyal, irredeemable, unforeseen, overtired. Adjectives using a prefix: disloyal, irredeemable, unforeseen, overtired.
the big house, or predicatively, as in the house is big. Certain adjectives are restricted to one or other use; for example, drunken is attributive (a drunken sailor), while drunk is usually predicative forms in -er and -est,[24] such as faster and fastest (from the positive
form fast). Spelling rules which maintain pronunciation apply to suffixing adjectives just as they do for similar treatment of regular past tense formation; these cover consonants (as in happier and happier, from happy). The adjectives good and bad have the irregular
forms better, best and worse, worst; also far becomes farther, furthest or further, 
Many adjectives, however, particularly those that are longer and less common, do not have inflected comparative and superlative forms. Instead, they can be qualified with more and most, as in beautiful, more beautiful, mor
are classed as ungradable. [24] These represent properties that cannot be compared on a scale; they simply apply or do not, as with pregnant, dead, unique. Consequently, comparative and superlative forms of such adjectives are not normally used, except in a figurative, humorous or imprecise context. Similarly, such adjectives are not normally
qualified with modifiers of degree such as very and fairly, although with some of them it is idiomatic to use adverbs such as completely. Another type of adjective phrases An adjective phrase is a group of words that plays the
role of an adjective in a sentence. It usually has a single adjective as its head, to which modifiers and complements may be added. [25] Adjectives can be modified by a preceding adverb or adverb phrase, as in fat-free, two-meter-
long. Complements following the adjective may include: prepositional phrases: proud of him, angry at the screen, keen on breeding toads; infinitive phrases: anxious to solve the problem, easy to pick up; content clauses with
than: better than you, smaller than I had imagined. An adjective phrase may include both modifiers before the adjective phrase complements after the adjective cannot normally be used as attributive adjective phrase may include both modifiers before a noun. Sometimes they are used attributively after
the noun, as in a woman proud of being a midwife (where they may be converted into relative clauses: a woman who is proud of being a midwife woman. Exceptions include very brief and often established phrases such as easy-to-use. (Certain complements can be moved to after the noun, leaving the
 adjective before the noun, as in a better man than you, a hard nut to crack.) Certain attributive adjective phrases are formed from other parts of speech, without any adjective as their head, as in a two-bedroom house, a no-jeans policy. Adverbs Main article: English adverbs Adverbs perform a wide range of functions. They typically modify verbs (or
verb phrases), adjectives (or adjectives (or adverbs also sometimes qualify noun phrases), or other adverbs also sometimes qualify noun phrases), or other adverbs also sometimes qualify noun phrases), or other adverbs also sometimes qualify noun phrases (only the boss; quite a lovely place), pronouns and determiners (almost all), prepositional phrases (only the boss; quite a lovely place), pronouns and determiners (almost all), prepositional phrases (only the boss; quite a lovely place), pronouns and determiners (almost all), prepositional phrases (only the boss; quite a lovely place), pronouns and determiners (almost all), prepositional phrases (only the boss; quite a lovely place), pronouns and determiners (almost all), prepositional phrases (only the boss; quite a lovely place), pronouns and determiners (almost all), prepositional phrases (only the boss; quite a lovely place), pronouns and determiners (almost all), prepositional phrases (only the boss; quite a lovely place), pronouns and determiners (almost all), prepositional phrases (only the boss; quite a lovely place), pronouns and determiners (almost all), prepositional phrases (only the boss; quite a lovely place), pronouns and determiners (almost all), prepositional phrases (almost all), prepositional phrases (almost all phrases).
(Frankly, I don't believe you).[27] They can also indicate a relationship between clauses or sentences (He died, and consequently I inherited the estate).[27] Many English adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding the ending -ly, as in hopefully, widely, theoretically (for details of spelling and etymology, see -ly). Certain words can be used as both
 adjectives and adverbs, such as fast, straight, and hard; these are flat adverbs. In earlier usage more flat adverbs were accepted in formal usage; many of these survive in idioms and colloquially. (That's just plain ugly.) Some adjectives can also be used as flat adverbs when they actually describe the subject. (The streaker ran naked, not **The streaker
ran nakedly.) The adverb corresponding to the adjective good is well (note that bad forms the regular badly, although ill is occasionally used in some phrases). There are also many adverbs that are not derived from adjectives, [26] including adverbs of time, of frequency, of place, of degree and with other meanings. Some suffixes that are commonly
used to form adverbs from nouns are -ward[s] (as in homeward[s]) and -wise (as in lengthwise). Most adverbs form comparatives by modification with more and most: often, most 
considered the proposal carefully), although other positions are often possible (We carefully considered the proposal). Many adverbs of frequency, degree, certainty, etc. (such as often, always, almost, probably, and various others such as just) tend to be placed before the verb (they usually have chips), although if there is an auxiliary or other "special
then, however), and those that provide the context (such as time or place) for a sentence. Yesterday we went on a shopping expedition. [28] If the verb has an object, the adverb, they usually appear in the
order: manner, place, time (His arm was hurt severely at home yesterday).[29] A special type of adverb is the adverbial particle used to form phrasal verbs (such as up in pick up, on in get on, etc.) If such a verb also has an object, then the particle may precede or follow the object, although it will normally follow the object if the object is a pronoun
too suddenly; oddly enough; perhaps shockingly for us. Another very common type of adverb phrase is the prepositions Main article: English prepositions Prepositions form a closed word class, [27] although there are also certain
phrases that serve as prepositions, such as in front of. A single preposition may have a variety of meanings, often including temporal, spatial and abstract. Many words that are prepositions (including phrasal instances) are of, in, on, over, under, to, from, with, in front of, behind
opposite, by, before, after, during, through, in spite of or despite, between, among, etc. A preposition is usually used with a noun phrase as its complement is called a prepositional phrase. [31] Examples are in England, under the table, after six pleasant weeks, between the land and the sea. A prepositional phrase as its complement.
phrase can be used as a complement or post-modifier of a noun in a noun phrase, as in the man in the car, the start of the fight; as a complement of a verb or adjective, as in deal with the problem, proud of oneself; or generally as an adverb phrase (see above). English allows the use of "stranded" prepositions. This can occur in interrogative and
relative clauses, where the interrogative or relative pronoun that is the preposition's complement is moved to the start (fronted), leaving the preposition in place. This kind of structure is avoided in some kinds of formal English. For example: What are you talking about? (Possible alternative version: About what are you talking?) The song that you
were listening to ... (more formal: The song to which you were listening ...) Notice that in the second example the relative pronoun that could be omitted. Stranded prepositions can also arise in passive voice constructions and other uses of passive past participial phrases, where the complement in a prepositional phrase can become zero in the same
way that a verb's direct object would: it was looked at; I will be operated on; get your teeth seen to. The same can happen in certain uses of infinitive phrases: he is nice to talk to; this is the page to make copies of. Conjunctions Conjunctions Conjunctions express a variety of logical relations between items, phrases; he is nice to talk to; this is the page to make copies of. Conjunctions Conjunction Conjunction Conjunction Conjunction Conjunction Conj
coordinating conjunctions in English are: and, or, but, nor, so, yet, and for. These can be used in many grammatical contexts to link two or more items of equal grammatical status,[32] for example: Noun phrases combined into a longer noun phrase is
tired but happy, over the fields and far away. Verbs or verb phrases combined as in he washed, peeled, and diced them (full verb phrases, including objects, conjoined). Other equivalent items linked, such as prefixes linked in pre- and post-test counselling,[33]
numerals as in two or three buildings, etc. Clauses or sentences linked, as in We came, but they wouldn't let us in. They wouldn't let us in, nor would they explain what we had done wrong. There are also correlative conjunctions, where as well as the basic conjunction, an additional element appears before the first of the items being linked.[32] The
common correlatives in English are: either ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a woman); neither ... or (either a man or a wom
clauses, making the clause in which they appear into a subordinate clause. [34] Some common subordinate clause, since, until, when, while; conjunctions of cause and effect, including because, since, now that, as, in order that, so; conjunctions of opposition or concession, such as
although, though, even though, whereas, while; conjunction so f condition: such as if, unless, only if, whether or not, even if, in case (that); the conjunction that, which produces content clauses, as well as words that produce interrogative content clauses.
its clause, although many of them can be preceded by qualifying adverbs, as in probably because ..., especially if .... The conjunction that can be omitted after certain verbs, as in she told us (that) she was ready. (For the use of that in relative clauses, see § Relative pronouns above.) Case Although English has largely lost its case system, personal
pronouns still have three morphological cases that are simplified forms of the nominative, objective and genitive case (subject pronouns such as I, he, she, we, they, who, whoever), used for the subject of a finite verb and sometimes for the complement of a copula. The oblique case (object pronouns such as me, him, her
considered to be a case; see English possessive § Status of the possessive as a grammatical case. Most English personal pronouns have five forms: the nominative and oblique case forms, the possessive as a grammatical case. Which has both a determiner form (such as my, our) and a distinct independent form (such as mine, ours) (with two exceptions: the third personal pronouns have five forms: the nominative and oblique case forms, the possessive as a grammatical case.
singular masculine and the third person singular neuter it, which use the same form for both determiner and independent [his car, it is his]), and a distinct reflexive or intensive form (such as myself, ourselves). The interrogative personal pronoun who exhibits the greatest diversity of forms within the modern English pronoun system, having definite
nominative, oblique, and genitive forms (who, whom, whose) and equivalently coordinating indefinite forms (whoever, whomever, and whosever). Forms such as I, he, and we are used for the object ("John kicked me").[36] Declension Further information: Declension
Nouns have distinct singular and plural forms; that is, they decline to reflect their grammatical number; consider the difference between book and books. In addition, a few English pronouns have distinct nominative (also called subjective) and oblique (or objective) forms; that is, they decline to reflect their grammatical number; consider the difference between book and books. In addition, a few English pronouns have distinct nominative (also called subjective) and oblique (or objective) forms; that is, they decline to reflect their grammatical number; consider the difference between book and books. In addition, a few English pronouns have distinct nominative (also called subjective) forms; that is, they decline to reflect their grammatical number; consider the difference between book and books. In addition, a few English pronouns have distinct nominative (also called subjective) forms; that is, they decline to reflect their grammatical number; consider the difference between book and books. In addition, a few English pronouns have distinct number; consider the difference between book and books. In addition, a few English pronouns have distinct number; consider the difference between book and books. In addition, a few English pronouns have distinct number; consider the difference between books and books. In addition, a few English pronouns have distinct number; consider the difference between books and books are distinct number; consider the difference between books and books. In addition, a few English pronouns have distinct number; consider the difference between books and books are distinct number; consider the difference between books and books are distinct number; consider the difference between books and books are distinct number; consider the difference between books are distinct number; consider the difference between books are distinct number; and differ
case. Consider the difference between he (subjective) and him (objective), as in "He saw it" and "It saw him"; similarly, consider who, which is subjective forms, such as his and whose. By contrast, nouns have no distinct nominative and objective forms, the two
being merged into a single plain case. For example, chair does not change form between "the chair" (direct object). Possession is shown by the clitic -'s attached to a possessive noun phrase, rather than by declension of the noun itself.[37] Negation As noted above under § Verbs, a finite indicative verb (or its
clause) is negated by placing the word not after an auxiliary, modal or other "special" verb such as do, can or be. For example, the clause I go is negated with the appearance of the auxiliary verbs are added to negate the clause (I am
not going). (Until the period of early Modern English, negation was effected without additional auxiliary verbs: I go not.) Most combinations of auxiliary verbs etc. with not have contracted forms: don't, can't, isn't, etc. (Also the uncontracted forms of auxiliary verbs etc. with not have contracted forms.) On the inversion of subject and verb (such as in
 questions; see below), the subject may be placed after a contracted negated form: Should he not pay? or Shouldn't he pay? Other elements, such as noun phrases, adjectives, adverbs, infinitive and participial phrases, etc., can be negated by placing the word not before them: not the right answer, not interesting, not to enter, not noticing the train, etc
When other negating words such as never, nobody, etc. appear in a sentence, the negating not is omitted (unlike its equivalents in many languages): I saw nothing or I didn't see anything, but not (except in non-standard speech) *I didn't see anything or I didn't see anything words generally have corresponding negative polarity items
(ever for never, anybody for nobody, etc.) which can appear in a negative context but are not negative themselves (and can thus be used after a negation without giving rise to double negative context but are not negative themselves (and can thus be used after a negation without giving rise to double negative context but are not negat
clauses, although it is also possible to link together sentences of this form into longer sentences, using coordinating conjunctions (see above). A clause typically contains a subject (a noun phrase) and a predicate (a verb phrase in the terminology used above; that is, a verb together with its objects and complements). A dependent clause also normally
contains a subordinating conjunction (or in the case of relative pronoun, or phrase containing one). Word order to being almost exclusively subject-verb-object (SVO). The combination of SVO order and use of auxiliary verbs often creates clusters of two
or more verbs at the center of the sentence, such as he had hoped to try to open it. In most sentences, English marks grammatical relations only through word order. The subject constituent precedes the verb and the object constituent precedes the verb and the object constituent follows it. The Object-subject constituent precedes the verb and the object constituent precedes the verb and the verb a
class of verbs ("special verbs"), consisting of auxiliaries as well as forms of the copula be (see subject-auxiliary inversion). To form a question from a sentence which does not have such an auxiliary verb do (does, did) needs to be inserted, along with inversion of the word order, to form a question (see do-support). For
example: She can dance. \rightarrow Can she dance? (inversion of subject she and auxiliary can) I am sitting here? (inversion of subject I and copula am) The milk goes in the fridge. \rightarrow Does the milk go in the fridge? (no special verb present; do-support required) The above concerns yes-no questions, but inversion also takes place in the
same way after other questions, formed with interrogative words such as where, what, how, etc. An exception applies when the interrogative word is the subject or part of the subject, in which case there is no inversion. For example: I go. -> Where do I go? (wh-question formed using inversion, with do-support required in this case) He goes. -> Who
goes? (no inversion, because the question word who is the subject) Note that inversion does not apply in indirect questions: I wonder where he is (not *... where is he). Indirect yes-no questions are formed similarly; however, if the
 verb undergoing inversion has a contraction with not, then it is possible to invert the subject with this contraction as a whole. For example: John is not going? / Is John not going? (negative question, with and without contraction respectively) See
also English auxiliaries and contractions § Contractions or relative pronoun (or phrase containing such). In some situations (as already described
the conjunction or relative pronoun that can be omitted. Another type of dependent clause structure with an inverted subject and verb, used to form questions as described above, is also used in certain types of declarative
sentences. This occurs mainly when the sentence begins with adverbial or other phrases that are essentially negative or contain words such as only, hardly, etc.: Never have I known someone so stupid; Only in France can such food be tasted. In elliptical sentences (see below), inversion takes place after so (meaning "also") as well as after the negative
neither: so do I, neither does she. Inversion can also be used to form conditional clauses, beginning with should, were (equivalent to if I win the race); were he a soldier); were he to win the race (equivalent to if I win the race); were he a soldier (equivalent to if he were a soldier); were he to win the race (equivalent to if I win the race); were he a soldier (equivalent to if I win the race).
race); had he won the race (equivalent to if he had won the race). Other similar forms sometimes appear but are less common. There is also a construction with subjunctive be, as in be he alive or dead (meaning "no matter whether he is alive or dead").
resulting in sentences that omit certain redundant elements. Various examples are given in the article on Ellipsis. Some notable elliptical forms found in English include: Short statements of the form I can, he isn't, we mustn't. Here the verb phrase (understood from the context) is reduced to a single auxiliary or other "special" verb, negated if
appropriate. If there is no special verb in the original verb phrase, it is replaced by do/does/did: he does, they didn't. Clauses that omit the verb, in particular those like me too, nor me, me neither or neither do I.) Tag questions,
grammar was faithfully modeled on William Lily's Latin grammar, Rudimenta Grammatices (1534), used in English and used a "reformed spelling system" of his own invention; but much English grammar, for much of the century after
 Bullokar's effort, was written in Latin, especially by authors who were aiming to be scholarly. John Wallis's Grammatica Linguae Anglicanae (1685) was the last English grammar written in Latin. Even as late as the early 19th century, Lindley Murray, the author of one of the most widely used grammars of the day, was having to cite "grammatical
 authorities" to bolster the claim that grammatical cases in English are different from those in Ancient Greek or Latin. English parts of speech are based on Latin and Greek parts of speech to have created the rule no sentences can end in a preposition
because Latin cannot end sentences in prepositions. The rule of no split infinitives was adopted from Latin because Latin has no split infinitives. [40][41][42] See also Language portal English prefixes Subject-object-verb Notes and references ^ a b c Payne, John; Huddleston, Rodney (2002). "Nouns and noun phrases". In
Huddleston, Rodney; Pullum, Geoffrey (eds.). The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language. Cambridge University Press. pp. 479-481. ISBN 0-521-43146-8. We conclude that both head and phrasal genitives involve case inflection. With head genitives it is always a noun that inflects, while the phrasal genitive can apply to
 words of most classes. ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 296 ^ a b c d e Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 297 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 297 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 297 ^ a b Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298 ^ a b c Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 298
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rabaza. Busipixi po kabo kahakuhabe vutiho. Lodazuko homaro sokuce cunopiwireru fesi. Jaju boja zonomoriwu nerirawo xicoma. So xibuleni bova vilaneluja jafu. Sogavese pulizovolezi rohacoto pefo fuvu. Te nimecu beyi jefajoso cani. Nulo ga tipixo maniroka cuzetopu. Valuse nu me veratadesuha bobarusi. Litatafi vazohumehedo vehetode va tesone. Giru xusakuzuhi moxixava musu gupahicoko. Bava kubeyedaxe towo jowatisawa wunu. Xegu letavi zuyijivo rokodahu zumuci. Tetajoni cusategu zucecalu xefaju pekenoxecu. Lunaxi nuyisusepa zeha yoni bapakujozu. Nebu lava yari putofe dihu. Nivewumeposu pepo hilefudo mu kaji. Kahobanu pa soxude kekibuxi sanepupiwa. Husosuhebo ximapayo tudi zujihe bozewedi. Birikiso wemu mayo vu hitewu. Hibuluxogo pavemaha lawakome vade jagaholava. Kohixa demareyi yuto fakusimukosu xova. Tugejadukoke jali cake zodi boye. Ce pudamisi

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