

THE UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA
NATIONAL EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL OF TANZANIA
ADVANCED CERTIFICATE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION EXAMINATION

122/1

ENGLISH LANGUAGE 1

(For Both School and Private Candidates)

Time : 3 Hours

ANSWERS

Wednesday, 05 May 2004 p.m.

Instructions

1. This paper consists of sections A, B, C and D.
2. Answer **five (5)** questions choosing **one (1)** question from each of sections section A, C and D and **two (2)** questions from section B.
3. Each question carries 20 marks.
4. Communication devices and any unauthorised materials are **not** allowed in the examination room.
5. Write your **Examination Number** on every page of your answer booklet(s).

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1(a) Give a brief explanation on each of the following language concepts:

(i) The importance/role of language in a society.

Language is important in society because it is the primary tool for communication. It enables people to share ideas, express emotions, and pass on knowledge from one generation to another. It also helps in uniting communities by promoting culture, traditions, and identity.

(ii) Language as a reflection of culture.

Language reflects culture because it carries the values, beliefs, and customs of a community. For example, proverbs and idioms in Kiswahili reflect African wisdom and moral teachings. Through language, people preserve and transmit their cultural heritage.

(iii) Language as a system.

Language is a system because it is organized into structured rules and patterns. It has levels such as phonology (sounds), morphology (word formation), syntax (sentence structure), and semantics (meaning), which work together to create communication.

(iv) A community language.

A community language is the language spoken by a particular group of people within a specific area. It serves as a medium of communication, identity, and belonging. For example, Kiswahili is a community language in East Africa, uniting people across different nations.

(v) Language variation.

Language variation refers to the differences in the way people use language depending on factors such as region, social class, or age. Examples include dialects, slang, and accents. In Tanzania, Kiswahili has regional variations such as Kimvita and Kipemba.

1(b) “Some languages are more superior than others”. Clarify this statement using examples. This statement reflects the perception that certain languages are valued more highly due to political, economic, or cultural dominance. For instance, English is considered superior globally because it is the language of science, business, and international communication. However, this does not mean it is linguistically superior, since all languages have equal expressive power. In Tanzania, English is seen as more prestigious than Kiswahili in education and government, even though Kiswahili is the national and widely spoken language.

2(a) Study carefully the descriptions on literary use of the language below, then identify the literal term defined by each.

- (i) A literary artist who writes plays – Playwright.
- (ii) An expression intended to wind up the feelings of a person especially by saying the opposite of what is being felt – Irony.
- (iii) Words which sound like the meanings or concepts they stand for – Onomatopoeia.
- (iv) Similarity in the initial sounds of words next to or near one another – Alliteration.
- (v) A literary work designed to be acted on the stage or to be read as a play – Drama.
- (vi) An incident within a narrative or play – Episode.
- (vii) The most exciting part or event in which suspense and tension are resolved – Climax.
- (viii) A style of writing in which the narrative begins with the last event – Flashback.
- (ix) The choice and arrangement of works in a narrative or play – Style.
- (x) Indirect reference to something or some social phenomena – Allusion.

2(b) Define briefly the following linguistic concepts, giving relevant examples.

- (i) Situational code-switching.

Situational code-switching is the practice of shifting from one language to another depending on the context. For example, a Tanzanian student may use Kiswahili with friends but switch to English when addressing a teacher.

- (ii) Diglossia.

Diglossia is the use of two distinct varieties of a language within the same community, each with specific functions. In Tanzania, Kiswahili is used for daily communication (low variety), while English is used in education and formal settings (high variety).

- (iii) Spontaneous speech.

Spontaneous speech is natural, unrehearsed speech that occurs in real conversations. For example, two friends chatting casually on the street without preparing their words in advance.

- (iv) Colloquialism.

Colloquialism refers to informal expressions used in everyday conversation. For instance, “gonna” instead of “going to” in English is a colloquial expression.

(v) Onomatopoeia.

Onomatopoeia is the use of words that imitate natural sounds. Examples include “buzz” for the sound of bees and “bang” for the sound of a gunshot.

3(a) Give a brief explanation of the class of each of the underlined words in the sentences below:

(i) Very few items were salvaged from the floods.

The word “items” is a noun because it refers to objects or things.

(ii) The money was hidden in the box behind the wall.

The word “behind” is a preposition because it shows the relationship of position between the box and the wall.

(iii) Our children danced very well but were not rewarded.

The word “well” is an adverb because it describes the manner in which the children danced.

(iv) The police found the gun which was used in the robbery.

The word “which” is a relative pronoun because it introduces a subordinate clause and refers back to “gun.”

(v) They decided to raise their family in Venezuela.

The word “decided” is a verb because it expresses an action of making a choice.

3(b) Identify two subordinate clauses from any of the sentences given in 3(a) above and state their type and syntactic role.

(i) “which was used in the robbery” – This is a relative clause. It modifies the noun “gun,” so it functions adjectivally.

(ii) “but were not rewarded” – This is an adverbial clause because it provides more information about the result of the children dancing.

3(c) Assign a SVOCA analysis to the following sentences:

(i) How much do they sell the books?

S – they, V – sell, O – the books, C – none, A – how much.

(ii) They are asking how much the books are sold.

S – they, V – are asking, O – how much the books are sold, C – none, A – none.

(iii) The open windows shut with a bang.

S – the open windows, V – shut, O – none, C – none, A – with a bang.

4(a) Give a brief description of English word formation processes. Use examples to clarify your description.

English words are formed through different processes such as derivation, compounding, clipping, and blending. Derivation involves adding affixes to words, for example “happy” → “unhappy.” Compounding combines two words to form one, such as “blackboard.” Clipping shortens a longer word, e.g., “advertisement” → “ad.” Blending merges parts of two words, e.g., “smoke” + “fog” → “smog.”

4(b) Using suffixes change the following lexical items into nouns.

(i) embody → embodiment

(ii) reconcile → reconciliation

(iii) corrugate → corrugation

(iv) poor → poverty

(v) eloquent → eloquence

4(c) Negate the following lexical items using prefixes, then state the meaning of each negation.

(i) ceremoniously → unceremoniously (not formal or ceremonial)

(ii) moral → immoral (not moral or unethical)

(iii) alignment → misalignment (incorrect or wrong alignment)

(iv) logical → illogical (not reasonable or irrational)

(v) courteous → discourteous (not polite)

5(a) With examples, differentiate the following verb categories:

(i) Dynamic vs stative verbs.

Dynamic verbs show actions or processes, e.g., “run,” “eat.” Stative verbs describe states or conditions, e.g., “know,” “believe.”

(ii) Intensive vs extensive verbs.

Intensive verbs link the subject with its complement, e.g., “He became a doctor.” Extensive verbs show actions extending to an object, e.g., “She wrote a letter.”

(iii) Current vs resulting copula.

Current copula describes the present state, e.g., “He is happy.” Resulting copula indicates a change, e.g., “He became tired.”

(iv) Primary vs modal auxiliary verbs.

Primary auxiliaries help form tenses, e.g., “be,” “have.” Modal auxiliaries express possibility or necessity, e.g., “can,” “must.”

(v) Transitive vs intransitive verbs.

Transitive verbs take objects, e.g., “She read a book.” Intransitive verbs do not take objects, e.g., “He sleeps.”

5(b) Construct correct sentences (5 in all) using “can” and “would” to express the meaning of the words written after each.

(i) Ability: She can swim very fast.

(ii) Possibility: It can rain later this evening.

(iii) Permission: You can borrow my book if you like.

(iv) Probability: He would probably win the race with more training.

(v) Hypothesis: I would travel abroad if I had enough money.

6(a) Slot the given words below in the table to show the six main kinds of adjectives.

Words: my hut, that boy, many days, whose pen, blue sky, neither, these days, its name, which mountain, every, twenty cats, and clever students.

QUALITATIVE: blue sky, clever students
QUANTITATIVE: many days, twenty cats
DISTRIBUTIVE: every, neither
DEMONSTRATIVE: that boy, these days
INTERROGATIVE: which mountain
POSSESSIVE: my hut, whose pen, its name

6(b) What information can be obtained in a good dictionary? Discuss briefly, drawing examples from things you have learnt.

A good dictionary provides the meaning of words. For example, it defines “education” as the process of receiving or giving systematic instruction.

It gives the pronunciation of words, often using phonetic symbols. For instance, the word “schedule” is shown with its different pronunciations /'ʃedju:l/ and /'skedʒu:l/.

It provides grammatical information such as part of speech. For example, “run” can be shown as both a verb (to move fast) and a noun (a short trip).

It also shows word origin or etymology. For example, “philosophy” is derived from the Greek word “philosophia,” meaning love of wisdom.

A dictionary also provides examples of usage in sentences, which guide learners on how to apply the word correctly in context.

7(a) What do you understand by place and manner of articulation in the production of consonant phonemes?

Place of articulation refers to the point in the vocal tract where the airflow is obstructed to produce a sound, such as bilabial, dental, or alveolar.

Manner of articulation refers to how the airflow is obstructed, such as completely (plosives), partially (fricatives), or through the nose (nasals).

7(b) Show the major difference between the articulation of plosives and fricatives.

Plosives are produced by completely blocking the airflow and then releasing it suddenly, e.g., /p/ and /b/.

Fricatives are produced by narrowing the airflow so that it passes with friction, e.g., /f/ and /s/.

7(c) Explain the role of the following speech organs in speech production.

(i) The brain – It controls all speech activity by sending signals to the articulators and coordinating language use.

(ii) The larynx – It contains the vocal cords which vibrate to produce voiced sounds.

(iii) The tongue – It shapes and modifies airflow to produce different sounds, especially vowels and consonants.

(iv) Lips – They control sounds such as /p/, /b/, and /m/, and also shape vowel sounds.

7(d) Differentiate active articulation from passive articulators.

Active articulators are movable parts of the mouth that help shape sounds, such as the tongue and lips.

Passive articulators are fixed parts of the mouth where active articulators make contact, such as the teeth, alveolar ridge, and palate.

8(a) Provide a brief description of an open syllable and a closed syllable.

An open syllable ends in a vowel sound, such as “go” or “me.”

A closed syllable ends in a consonant sound, such as “cat” or “dog.”

8(b) What is the meaning of stress? Using the pairs of words below, show how stress can be used to differentiate meaning.

Stress is the emphasis placed on a particular syllable in a word, which can change its meaning.

(i) export vs export

– Noun: EXport (the goods)

– Verb: exPORT (to send abroad)

(ii) estimate vs estimate

– Noun: ES-timate (approximation)

– Verb: es-TI-mate (to approximate)

(iii) reject vs reject

– Noun: RE-ject (something discarded)

– Verb: re-JECT (to refuse)

(iv) convict vs convict

– Noun: CON-vict (a prisoner)

– Verb: con-VICT (to find guilty)

9(a) Using examples, explain what the following types of meaning stand for:

(i) Ambiguous meaning – This is when a word or phrase has more than one possible interpretation. Example: “Visiting relatives can be boring” (it may mean relatives who visit or the act of visiting them).

(ii) Connotative meaning – This is the emotional or cultural association of a word beyond its literal meaning. Example: “home” connotes comfort and family.

(iii) Denotative meaning – This is the literal, dictionary definition of a word. Example: “home” means a place where one lives.

9(b) Differentiate the following linguistic terms, using examples:

(i) Homophones/homographs.

Homophones are words with the same sound but different meanings and spellings, e.g., “two” and “too.”

Homographs are words spelled the same but with different meanings, e.g., “lead” (to guide) and “lead” (a metal).

(ii) Polysemy/superordinate.

Polysemy refers to a word with multiple related meanings, e.g., “head” (of a person, of a company, of a table).

Superordinate refers to a general category word, e.g., “animal” is a superordinate of “dog,” “cat,” and “lion.”

9(c) List down your own phrasal verbs using each of the adverb particles, then use the phrasal verbs to construct meaningful sentences.

- (i) in – break in. Sentence: Thieves tried to break in last night.
- (ii) on – carry on. Sentence: Despite the noise, the teacher carried on with the lesson.
- (iii) out – figure out. Sentence: I cannot figure out this math problem.
- (iv) up – give up. Sentence: She refused to give up despite many failures.
- (v) away – throw away. Sentence: Do not throw away useful items.

10(a) What is the meaning of each of the underlined auxiliary verbs?

- (i) should – obligation or advice. “It’s lunch time; he should be eating.”
- (ii) must – certainty. “He’s limping; he must have broken his leg.”
- (iii) would not – past refusal. “The teacher would not allow me in.”
- (iv) may – possibility. “You may try jogging.”
- (v) may – permission. “May I use your pen for a while?”
- (vi) mustn’t – prohibition. “You mustn’t forget your passport.”
- (vii) must – necessity. “Students must be in the classroom.”
- (viii) shall – suggestion. “Shall we go for a cup of tea?”

10(b) Give two possible interpretations suggested by the modal “may” in the sentence: “The road may be blocked.”

One interpretation is possibility – It is possible that the road is blocked.

Another interpretation is uncertainty – The speaker is not sure, but suspects the road might be blocked.