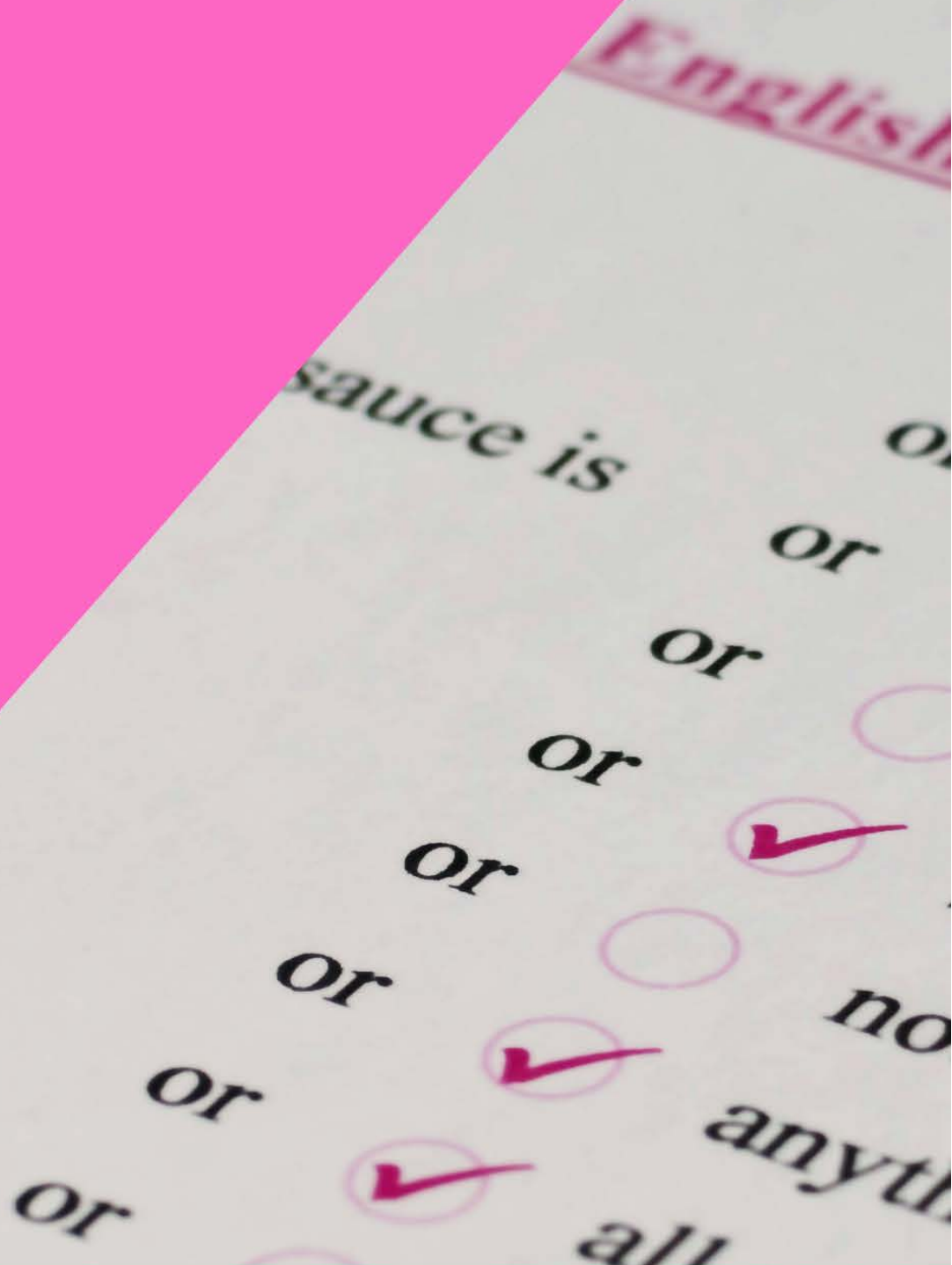


ENGLISH LANGUAGE

For

Senior Secondary School

3



EDUBASE

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SS 3

**FIRST TERM NOTES ON
CIVIC EDUCATION**

TABLE OF CONTENT

FIRST TERM

- WEEK 1: SS3 ENGLISH LANGUAGE FIRST TERM: VOCABULARY
DEVELOPMENT IN CULTURE**
- WEEK 2: SS3 ENGLISH LANGUAGE FIRST TERM: ORAL INTONATION
PATTERN- RISING AND FALLING TONE IN STATEMENTS**
- WEEK 3: SS3 ENGLISH LANGUAGE FIRST TERM: READING
COMPREHENSION**
- WEEK 4: SS3 ENGLISH LANGUAGE FIRST TERM: ORAL CONSONANT
CLUSTERS**
- WEEK 5: SS3 ENGLISH LANGUAGE FIRST TERM: CONJUNCTIONS**
- WEEK 6: SS3 ENGLISH LANGUAGE FIRST TERM: THE SCHWA AS FINAL
UNSTRESSED SYLLABLE**
- WEEK 7: SS3 ENGLISH LANGUAGE FIRST TERM: ENGAGING IN
MEANINGFUL DIALOGUE ON ANY GIVEN SUBJECT MATTER**
- WEEK 8: ARGUMENTATIVE TOPICS, COMPLEX SENTENCE STRUCTURES
AND SUMMARIZING TIPS**
- WEEK 9: DIFFERENTIATION BETWEEN BRITISH AND AMERICAN
SPELLINGS OF COMMON WORDS**

WEEK1

English Language SS 3, First Term

What is Vocabulary Development?

Vocabulary Development can be defined as the process through which human beings acquire words right from infancy. This process typically starts with the babbling of sounds which is associated with babies. Over time, this shifts towards meaningful speech patterns as the babies grow. And by age one, most babies are able to produce their first words. Meanwhile, as you may well know, most infants used their early formative years to build to build up their vocabularies. This is always a gradual and even *slow* process.

Further Explanation: Vocabulary Development in Culture

In order to build their vocabularies, infants begin by learning about the meanings associated with words. This is referred to as **mapping problem**, which is all about how infants are able to correctly attach words to **referents**. They learn this by mere practice- communicating with family members who teach them how to relate with society, and with friends too. As a matter of fact, friends have been noted as playing very vital roles in the vocabulary formation process. This is because in their interactions with peers, children have the opportunity to learn about unique conversational roles.

Phonological Development

Studies related to vocabulary development show that children's language competence depends upon their ability to hear sounds during infancy. Infants' perception of speech is distinct. Between six and ten months of age, infants can discriminate sounds used in the languages of the world. By 10 to 12 months, infants can no longer discriminate between speech sounds that are not used in the

language(s) to which they are exposed. Among six-month-old infants, seen articulations (i.e. the mouth movements they observe others make while talking) actually enhance their ability to discriminate sounds, and may also contribute to infants' ability to learn phonemic boundaries. Infants' phonological register is completed between the ages of 18 months and 7 years.

Children's phonological development normally proceeds as follows:

6–8 weeks: Cooing appears

16 weeks: Laughter and vocal play appear

6–9 months: Reduplicated (canonical) babbling appears

12 months: First words use a limited sound repertoire

18 months: Phonological processes (deformations of target sounds) become systematic

18 months–7 years: Phonological inventory completion

At each stage mentioned above, children play with sounds and learn methods to help them learn words. There is a relationship between children's pre-linguistic phonetic skills and their lexical progress at age two: failure to develop the required phonetic skills in their pre-linguistic period results in children's delay in producing words. Environmental influences may affect children's phonological development, such as hearing loss as a result of ear infections. Deaf infants and children with hearing problems due to infections are usually delayed in the beginning of vocal babbling.

It is important to note that vocabulary development in every culture is inevitable as it is necessary for every child's learning process. Most times, this process occurs naturally while on a few occasions some children may experience difficulties due to certain impairments in their motor skills. In any case, assistance from parents and caregivers go along way in speeding up and helping children to acquire the needful vocabulary and begin the learning process which life is all about. And the interesting thing is that this vocabulary development process never really stops throughout anybody's lifetime as we all keep learning/acquiring new words within our specific cultures until the day we die.

Comprehension: Listening Rudiments on Comprehension to Produce main Points and Ideas in Speeches, Lectures or Discussions

Listening comprehension is the receptive skill needed to decode information in the oral mode. In other words, it has to do with the ability to understand what is being spoken to you. Unfortunately, as simple as these sounds, not many people are able to effectively listen to understand. This is a serious problem in the communication process that is often over-looked if not disregarded as a non-factor. However, in order to be an effective communicator, it is imperative that that you acquire the right listening skills and use them every time you are engaged in any form of verbal communication with people. Enumerated below are some of the rudiments to effective verbal comprehension.

1: Face the Speaker and Maintain Eye Contact: Do your conversational partners the courtesy of turning to face them. Put aside papers, books, the phone and other distractions. Look at them, even if they don't look at you.

2: Be attentive, but relaxed: Now that you've made eye contact with the speaker, you have to stay relaxed and yet focused. In other words, you don't have to stare consistently at the other speaker throughout the duration of his or her speech. You can look away now and then and carry on like a normal person. The important thing is to be attentive. The dictionary says that to "attend" another person means to:

- be present
- give attention
- apply or direct yourself
- pay attention
- remain ready to serve

3: Keep an open mind: Listen without judging the other person or mentally criticizing the things she tells you. If what she says alarms you, go ahead and feel alarmed, but don't say to yourself, "Well, that was a stupid move." As soon as you indulge in judgmental bemusements, you've compromised your effectiveness as a listener.

4: Listen to the words and try to picture what the speaker is saying: Allow your mind to create a mental model of the information being communicated. Whether

a literal picture, or an arrangement of abstract concepts, your brain will do the necessary work if you stay focused, with senses fully alert. When listening for long stretches, concentrate on, and remember, key words and phrases.

6: Wait for the speaker to pause to ask clarifying questions: When you don't understand something, of course you should ask the speaker to explain it to you. But rather than interrupt, wait until the speaker pauses. Then say something like, "Back up a second. I didn't understand what you just said about..."

Summary Writing

A summary is a record in a reader's own words that gives the main points of a piece of writing such as a newspaper article, the chapter of a book, or even a whole book. It is also possible to summarize something that you have heard, such as a lecture, or something that you have seen and heard, such as a movie. A summary omits details, and does not include the reader's interpretation of the original.

Important things to note about summary writing-

1. As you read, underline all the important points and all the important evidence. For example, you could look for all the topic sentences. Words that are repeated several times are likely to be keywords. Transition words can help understanding of the overall structure of a passage.
2. List or cluster the main idea of the whole piece, the main supporting ideas, and the main evidence for each idea. Use of the same keywords or technical expressions is probably unavoidable. However, be careful to express the ideas in your own way, using your own vocabulary and expressions as much as possible, rather than copying or just rearranging. Do not include too much detail.

Features of a good Summary

1. A good summary should give an objective outline of the whole piece of writing. It should answer basic questions about the original text such as "Who did what, where, and when?", "What is the main idea of the text?", "What are the main supporting points?", "What are the major pieces of evidence?". It should not be a

paraphrase of the whole text using your own words. A reference should be made to the original piece either in the title (“A Summary of...”), in the first sentence, or in a footnote or endnote.

2. You should not give your own ideas or criticisms as part of the summary.

However, if you want to comment on a piece of writing it is usual to begin by summarizing it as objectively as possible.

3. A good summary should not include selected examples, details, or information which are not relevant to the piece of writing taken as a whole.

4. A good summary of an essay should probably include the main idea of each paragraph, and the main evidence supporting that idea, unless it is not relevant to the article or essay as a whole. A summary does not need a conclusion, but if the original ends with a message to the reader this should not be left out. (A good summary of a chapter should probably include the main idea of each group of paragraphs or each section; a good summary of a book should probably include the main idea of each chapter, or perhaps the main idea of each section of each chapter.)

5. A good summary may use key words from the original text but should not contain whole phrases or sentences from the original unless quotation marks are used. Quotations should only be made if there is a reason for using the original words, for example because the choice of words is significant, or because the original is so well expressed.

6. Rearranging the words used in the original, or keeping the same structure but just substituting different words is not enough. You must express the sense of the original using your own words and structures.

How to Write a Summary of a Short piece of Writing

1. As you read, underline all the important points and all the important evidence. For example, you could look for all the topic sentences. If there is a word or words that are repeated throughout the passage, this is likely to be related to the topic. Transitional words and phrases should help you to understand how the piece is joined together. The main idea should be in the first or second paragraph, probably in a thesis statement at the end of the paragraph, or in the concluding

paragraph. (You could look out for the 5Ws – What?, Which?, Who?, Where?, When?, Why? – and the 1H – How?)

2. List or cluster the main idea of the whole piece, the main supporting ideas, and the main evidence for each idea. Be careful **to use your own words** rather than copying or just rearranging. In other words, try to find your own way of expressing the writer's ideas. Of course, you can use key words or phrases. (For example, if the piece of writing is about digital technology, it is fine to use key technical words that are in the original, such as "digital technology", "binary digit" or "analog".) Do not include too much detail.

3. Change the order if necessary, so that the main idea comes first and is followed by the supporting ideas and evidence in a logical sequence. Omit any repetitions.

4. If the original uses 'I' replace this with the writer's actual surname, "the writer", or "s/he". If the original uses 'you', substitute "people" or "they".

5. You should now be ready to write the summary. Start with a sentence that a) identifies the writer and the piece of writing, for example by giving the writer's name, the title of the piece and where/when it appeared, and b) gives the main idea. Use transition words to join everything together.

Exercise

1. What do you understand by vocabulary development?
2. Which of the following statements is false? (A) During infancy, children's language competence depends upon their ability to hear sounds during infancy (B) During infancy; children's perception of speech is distinct (C) Infants can differentiate between the different sounds of the various languages of the world (D) Infants are language masters
3. Briefly explain a regular infant's phonological development.
4. What are the features of a good summary work?

WEEK2

English Language SS 3, First Term

What is Oral Intonation Pattern?

Oral Intonation Pattern is variation of spoken pitch that is used for a range of functions such as indicating the attitudes and emotions of the speaker, signalling the difference between statements and questions, and between different types of questions, focusing. Oral Intonation Pattern is important in English Language because speaking and understanding the language is not just about using correct grammar and vocabulary. Native English speakers know this all too well considering how they convey **meaning** in their sentences with **pitch**.

There are two types of oral intonation patterns and these are the Rising, Falling and Full-flat tones. Read below to see exactly how these two intonation patterns are best used in sentences-

ASKING QUESTIONS FOLLOWS TWO PATTERNS.

Rising Voice at the End of a Question

If the question is a yes / no question, the voice rises at the end of a question.

Do you like living in Portland?

Have you lived here a long time?

Did you visit your friends last month?

Falling Voice at the End of a Question

If the question is an information question – in other words, if you are asking a question with ‘where’, ‘when’, ‘what’, ‘which’, ‘why’, ‘what / which kind of..’, and questions with ‘how’ – let your voice fall at then end of a question.

Where are you going to stay on vacation?

When did you arrive last night?

How long have you lived in this country?

Examples

The following two sentences contain the same words. But is there a difference in their meanings?

- 1) "She got a dog."
- 2) "She got a dog?!"

In these two simple sentences, the **focus word** of the sentence—the word that gets **the most emphasis**—is "dog".

But what happened **with the sound** of the focus word?

In sentence one, the intonation went **DOWN** to indicate the **completion** of the thought.

- 1) "She got a dog."

In sentence two, the intonation went way **UP**, to indicate **surprise**.

- 2) "She got a dog?!"

The patterns of **ups and downs** of your voice (and your **pitch**) **on and after the focus word**—which is usually at the end of a sentence or question—is called **intonation**.

In English, there are **three intonation patterns**:

- **Rise**
- **Full fall**
- **Partial fall**

Practice the following

The following examples of intonation patterns. The focus word is underlined in each sentence.

*To complete **a thought**/ FALL*

"I got a dog." | FALL

*To ask a **wh-question (what, where, who, why, when, how)** | FALL*

"How are you?" | FALL

To express surprise | RISE

“Your dog speaks English?!” | RISE

Need clarification/repetition | RISE

“WHO got a dog?” | RISE

Make a list | PARTIAL RISE + FULL FALL

“My dog is smart, pretty and sweet.” | PARTIAL RISE (+ FULL FALL)
(notice the pausing between words)

Not finished your thought | NO CHANGE

“I want a dog, but...” | NO CHANGE (FOLLOWING A PARTIAL FALL)

In conclusion, always bear in mind that speaking English isn't just about correct grammar and vocabulary. You must change your pitch — the ups and downs and the musical notes of your voice — to convey proper meaning, emotion and expression.

Composition: Expository (Pay Attention to the indicated parts of this composition)

Topic: Drug Abuse

Introduction: Drug abuse has become a worldwide problem in modern times. As its name suggests, it is the act of misusing drugs. These could be regular prescription drugs (including over the counter medications), or other hard, habit-forming substances which are abused for the sole purpose of deriving pleasure/excitement and getting high. This necessitates negative [abnormal] reactions on the parts of the abusers, including insensitivity and hyperactivity which also often result in criminal activities. Drugs are abused everyday around the world by both youth and the elderly.

The Body: Drug abuse is a problem too difficult to control. This is because several millions of people and billions of dollars are directly involved in drug trafficking. However, the governments of various countries around the world constantly enact

laws that aim at combating the social vice. Moreover, several nonprofit organizations are always putting together awareness campaigns aimed at educating people on the ills of drug abuse.

It is important to emphasize that the campaign against drugs and drug abuse is so because it is quite dangerous; dangerous because they are prepared from harmful substances. Drug is smuggled into India from many countries. Drug is generally prepared from opium and/or other harmful substances and chemicals. This intoxicating evil is introduced in the market under various names.

Why then do people still abuse drugs? When a drug is taken for the first time, it stimulates the pleasure centers of the brain. It is for sake of pleasure that most users first get accustomed to it. They take drugs to forget pain, sorrow, insult, and to escape from reality. There are different types of drugs and they are taken in various forms. Some are taken through injection, some are smoked and some are chewed and swallowed. Drugs are sold in deserted houses, lonely places, hotels, parks, and street corners.

Now there are several direct problems related to drug abuse. You might have heard of reports about people who committed crime because they were high. Sadder still, drug abuse becomes addictive and drug addiction is known for ruining an addict's morality. It may even affect them physically even as it may negatively effect the kidneys and the brain. More still, harmful drugs attacks the nervous system. It causes loss of appetite, brings drowsiness all the time and saps one's strength and stamina.

With all these, the imperative question is- what really are the preventive and remedial measures put in place in the face of the menace that is drug abuse? Well there are certainly some preventive and remedial measures for dealing with the problem of drug abuse as you can see below-

- The Government must use all the media to propagate against the habit of drug-taking.

- Voluntary organizations should pay more attention to instruct addicts how to give up the vice to bring them to the main stream of public life without shame or sorrow.
- Physicians should teach them how to prevent and avoid the evil and how to lead a normal healthy life.
- Parents should pay more care, attention and love to their sons and daughters.
- Reading of moral and religious books is also helpful to addicts.
- The police must act fearlessly to act against the people involved drug traffic.

Conclusion: Let us all decide today that we will never abuse any drug. We should all stand together to fight against this massive problem.

Grammar: Functions of Nouns, Phrases and Clauses

Nouns:

1.It can be THE SUBJECT of a verb.

Examples:

- Mr. Ram leads the team.

“Mr. Ram” is the subject of the verb ‘leads’.

- He is writing.

“He” is the subject of the verb ‘is writing’.

- The monkeys destroyed the garden.

“The monkeys” is the subject of the verb ‘destroyed’.

- The children are playing joyfully.

“The children” is the subject of the verb ‘are playing’.

2.It can function as the direct or indirect object of a verb.

Examples:

- I took the book.

“Book” is the direct object of the verb ‘took’.

- The Government will take the decision.

“The decision” is the direct object of the verb ‘will take’.

- A herd of elephants is crossing the river.

“The river” is the object of the verb ‘is crossing’.

- He gave me the news.

“Me” is the direct object and “news” is the indirect object of the verb ‘gave’.

The third one in Noun-functions is:

3. A noun can be the object of a preposition.

Examples:

- I saw him in his office.

“Office” is the object of preposition ‘in’.

- The girl returns from school.

“School” is the object of preposition ‘from’.

- The meeting will be held at short notice.

“Notice” is the object of preposition ‘at’.

- The children are shouting at the stray dogs.

“Dogs” is the object of preposition ‘at’.

4.A noun can be descriptive of another noun or a pronoun.

That means that the noun can be in apposition with another noun. The word “apposition” means “placed side by side” Or “placed parallel to”

Examples:

- I, the president of this association, will take the decision.

“The President” is in apposition with ‘I’.

- Mr. Ram, the captain, scored only fifty points.

“The captain” is in apposition with ‘Mr. Ram’.

- You, the eldest son of your parents, should assume all the responsibilities of your family.

“Son” is in apposition with ‘You’.

- Everest, the highest peak in the world, is 29000 feet high.

“Peak” is in apposition with ‘Everest’.

- One of the most of US Presidents, Abraham Lincoln was known for his ready wit. “One of the most famous of US Presidents” is said to be used in apposition with the subject of the sentence “Abraham Lincoln”.

Exercise

1. Briefly explain what you understand by oral intonation.
2. A question can either have a rising voice at the end of it or a falling voice. Explicitly explain why this is the case.
3. Briefly summarise the comprehension passage above.
4. What are the functions of nouns, phrases and clauses?

WEEK3

English Language SS 3, First Term

What is Reading Comprehension?

Reading comprehension is as the level of understanding of a text/message. This understanding comes from the interaction between the words that are written, and how they trigger knowledge outside the text/message. Comprehension is a “creative, multifaceted process” dependent upon four language skills: phonology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. Proficient reading depends on the ability to recognize words quickly and effortlessly. It is also determined by an individual’s cognitive development, which is “the construction of thought processes”. Some people learn through education or instruction and others through direct experiences.

There are specific traits that determine how successfully an individual will comprehend text, including prior knowledge about the subject, well-developed language, and the ability to make inferences. Having the skill to monitor comprehension is a factor: “Why is this important?” and “Do I need to read the entire text?” are examples. Lastly, is the ability to be self-correcting to solve comprehension problems as they arise.

Summary- Answering Questions by Picking out Topic Sentences

A **topic sentence** is a sentence that captures the meaning of the entire paragraph or group of sentences. It tells what the passage is mainly about. In other words, a topic sentence summarizes the entire message in every good paragraph ever written. Therefore, when you are required to read, comprehend and then answer questions on a essay during an examination, it does help to identify the topic sentences in said essay as that would assist you. Below are some of the tips for picking out topic sentences-

- **Read the first sentence carefully.** Three times out of five, the topic sentence is the first sentence.

- **Consider what basic property or characteristic the paragraph describes.** This attribute is the paragraph's main idea, so the sentence that expresses it is your topic sentence.
- **Think about the paragraph's purpose.** The paragraph most likely wants to impart a particular piece of information. If you can figure out what that piece is, you know the paragraph's topic and can find the sentence that presents it.

Composition (Letters): Distinguishing between the Features of Formal and Informal Letters

PURPOSES: A formal letter is typically meant for official purposes and as such must be written in formal language. This is the major differentiating factor between a formal letter and an informal letter because unlike the formal letter, an informal is by nature chummy; written to friends and relatives.

OBJECTIVES: In the corporate world as well as in government and any professional environment, there is inevitable need for constant communication. And letter writing is one of the means to ensure that this happens. Therefore, it can be said that the objective for writing formal letters is to ensure professional communication. This is almost similar to informal letter writing whose purpose is to ensure personal communication.

FORMAT: There are distinct formats for writing formal and informal letters. For one, the formal letter must have two addresses, starting with the writer's address which must be on the top right corner of the page, followed by a date. And the second one (belonging to the recipient of the letter) should follow, on the left corner of the page just slightly adjacent the first address. But just in case the writer is writing on a Letterhead, then there would be no need to rewrite the writer's address as it is already on the Letterhead. The purpose of the letter is then written in bold letters and centralized just before the salutation. The body of the letter should be concise and professional. No need talking about irrelevant stuff. It is business so keep it professional, simple and short; unless unavoidably necessary. The closing is equally just as important. Be polite, graceful even but not personal.

On the other hand, when writing an informal letter there is need [only] for one address. Letterheads are typically not used, and there is no for a topic. Greetings are acceptable but always in friendlier tones than in formal letters. In the body you get to talk about all kinds of personal stuff. And you can close by telling your recipient that you love them.

RECIPIENT: Formal letters are written to business partners, universities/employers and organizations etc. On the other hand, informal letters are written to friends, family and acquaintances.

TONE: Formal letters are passive in tone while informal letters are active.

SENTENCE STRUCTURE: When writing formal letter, the preferred sentence structure is for it to be long and complex. But for informal letters, it should be short and simple.

Exercise

1. What is reading comprehension?
2. Read the following passage carefully and answer the questions below-

Public Administration

***Public administration** is the implementation of government policy and also an academic discipline that studies this implementation and prepares civil servants for working in the public service. As a “field of inquiry with a diverse scope” its “fundamental goal... is to advance management and policies so that government can function.” Some of the various definitions which have been offered for the term are: “the management of public programs”; the “translation of politics into the reality that citizens see every day”; and “the study of government decision making, the analysis of the policies themselves, the various inputs that have produced them, and the inputs necessary to produce alternative policies.” Public administration is “centrally concerned with the organization of government policies and programmes as well as the behavior of officials (usually non-elected) formally responsible for their conduct”. Many unelected public servants can be considered to be public administrators, including heads of city, county, regional,*

state and federal departments such as municipal budget directors, human resources (H.R.) administrators, city managers, census managers, state mental health directors, and cabinet secretaries. Public administrators are public servants working in public departments and agencies, at all levels of government.

In the US, civil servants and academics such as Woodrow Wilson promoted American civil service reform in the 1880s, moving public administration into academia. However, “until the mid-20th century and the dissemination of the German sociologist Max Weber’s theory of bureaucracy” there was not “much interest in a theory of public administration.” The field is multidisciplinary in character; one of the various proposals for public administration’s sub-fields sets out six pillars, including human resources, organizational theory, policy analysis and statistics, budgeting, and ethics.

1. According to the passage, what is public administration?
 2. How many paragraphs are there in this passage?
 3. What is the main idea expressed in paragraph two?
 4. Who promoted the American Civil Service Reform, when and how?
3. Write two letters, one to your dad and the other to your principal explaining why you decided to organise a protest in your school.

WEEK4

English Language SS 3, First Term

What are Consonant Clusters?

Consonant Clusters are consonants which have no intervening vowels. In other words, Consonant Clusters are groups of consonants with no vowels between them. In English, for example, the groups /spl/ and /ts/ are consonant clusters in the word *splits*. The longest possible cluster in English is three consonant sounds at the start, such as 'splash', and four at the end, as in 'twelfths'.

It is important to note that Consonant Clusters cause problems for learners whose first language does not allow so many consonants together without intervening vowel sounds.

Example of Consonant Clusters

The tongue twister 'The sixth twisty crisp' has several consonant clusters in it, making it difficult to pronounce.

Composition: Expository Writing

Expository writing is a type of writing that is used to explain, describe, give information, or inform. The text is organized around one topic and developed according to a pattern or combination of patterns. The writer of an expository text cannot assume that the reader or listener has prior knowledge or prior understanding of the topic that is being discussed. Since clarity requires strong organization, one of the most important mechanisms to improve skills in exposition is to improve the organization of the text. The patterns shown below are frequently used to create an expository essay. Additionally, more than one pattern may be used within an expository essay.

Example- How To Prepare Your Favourite Snacks and Desserts

Butter, cake and yoghurt...these are some of the foods teenagers love to eat. I know this so well because I have younger ones at home, one of whom practically eats

everything with butter; including rice and yam. Therefore, considering how much you all love these food items, I figured you may also like to learn about the processes they undergo before they are ready for your consumption. So here served (courtesy of me) are the different ways of preparing your yummy, favourite foods. Enjoy please!

BUTTER: butter is consisted mainly of fat derived from the cream of milk cows produce in their udder. It is delicious by the way and is used for baking, cooking or just eaten with bread. While most of the butter we consume is industrially-produced, you can also make your own butter right in the comfort of your kitchen. Here is a step by step breakdown of how you can accomplish just that. First, get three (or more) cups of cream and then defrost the cream in your microwave until it comes to room temperature. Then proceed to put the cream in a food processor, add $\frac{1}{2}$ cups of water and then turn on the mixer. Leave the mixer running until you begin to see the buttermilk and the thick butter getting separated. By this time, you should be able to see some lumps of butter already forming. Go ahead to strain the butter from the buttermilk, add flavouring such as salt or sugar [if you please] and then store in the refrigeration. Wuala! Your home-made butter is ready for consumption.

YOGHOURT: Yoghourt is produced through the bacterial fermentation of milk. It is a delicious and creamy food item enjoyed by many people of all ages and genders. And just like butter earlier discussed, yoghourts are also industrially-produced but can also be made in the comforts of anybody's kitchen. Here is everything you must have if you'd like to make your own yoghurt in your kitchen. Ingredients include: $\frac{1}{2}$ gallons of milk and $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of commercial yoghurt that contains active cultures. You will also need to have the following equipment: three quart Dutch oven or heavy saucepan with a lid Spatula, a candy thermometer (one that can clip to the side of the pan) and Small measuring cup or small bowl. Once you have these, follow these instructions to get your yoghurt ready for the eating- heat the milk, cool it, thin the yoghurt with milk, whisk the thinned yoghurt into milk, return to the oven and allow to heat and set and allow the yoghurt to cool. And there you have it; your yummy yoghurt!

CAKE: Cakes are typically made of flour, sugar, butter and eggs. It is rich in most food nutrients, always baked in the oven and eaten as desserts. Here are tips on

how to get your cake made in the kitchen. First of all, get the following ingredients- 1/2 cup unsalted butter, 1 1/2 cups sugar 3 large eggs, 2 1/4 cups all-purpose flour, 1 teaspoon salt, 3 1/2 teaspoons baking powder, 1 1/4 cups whole milk, 1 teaspoon vanilla and 2 1/2 cups butter cream frosting. Also, ensure to have the following equipment – 2 9-inches round pans, Stand/hand mixer, Measuring cups and spoons and Cookie scoop or measuring cup, for dividing the batter.

The instructions are as follows- Heat the oven to 350°F, sift together your ingredients (i.e. flour, baking powder and salt) and set aside, prepare your pans by robbing butter in them, beat your butter and sugar together until they become fluffy and soft and then add your eggs at a time. Proceed to beat in half the flour and baking powder, beat in your milk and vanilla, beat in the remaining flour mixture until it is very combined and then divide the batter between panes. Bake for thirty minutes in the oven and allow cooling afterwards. Once cool, frost and assemble the cake with the butter cream.

Please note that these are not scientifically-set procedures for preparing these food items. In other words, recipes and procedures may vary across homes depending on tastes and preferences. In any case, I hope you find these tips helpful.

Best.

Exercise

1. What are consonant clusters? Explain.
2. How does consonant clusters cause problems to some non-native speakers of the English Language?
3. Give several examples of consonant clusters.
4. What is expository writing?
5. Write an expository essay on how to cook fried rice.

WEEK5

English Language SS 3, First Term

What is a Conjunction?

A conjunction is the part of speech that serves to connect words, phrases, clauses, or sentences. The common conjunctions — *and, but, for, or, nor, yet, and so* — join the elements of a coordinate structure.

Types of Conjunctions

1. Subordinating Conjunction: A Subordinating Conjunction is a conjunction that introduces a dependent clause, joining it to a main clause. Also called a *subordinator*. Most subordinating conjunctions are single words (e.g., *because, before, when*). However, some subordinating conjunctions consist of more than one word (e.g., *as long as, except that*).

Common Subordinating Conjunctions

a. Cause

as

because

in order that

since

so that

b. Concession and Comparison

although

as

as though

even though

just as

though

whereas
while

c. Condition

even if
if
in case
provided that
unless

d. Place

where
wherever

e. Time

after
as soon as
as long as
before
once
still
till
until
when
whenever
while

Examples

While the State exists, there can be no freedom. *When* there is freedom, there will be no State.

If everyone demanded peace instead of another television set, then there would be peace.

I can believe anything, *provided that* it is quite incredible

2. Coordinating Conjunctions: Coordinating Conjunction is a conjunction (such as *and*) that joins two similarly constructed and/or syntactically equal words or phrases or clauses within a sentence. The coordinating conjunctions are *and, but, for, nor, or, so, yet*. Compare with subordinating conjunctions, in some cases, as shown in the examples below, a coordinating conjunction may also be used at the beginning of a new sentence.

Examples

I know not with what weapons World War III will be fought, *but* World War IV will be fought with sticks *and* stones.

She must have been tired, *for* she fell asleep the moment she inclined her head.

It's a sad day when you find out that it's not accident *or* time *or* fortune *but* just yourself that kept things from you.

3. Correlative Conjunction: A Correlative Conjunction is a paired conjunction (such as *not only . . . but also*) that links balanced words, phrases, and clauses. The elements connected by correlative conjunctions are usually parallel—that is, similar in length and grammatical form. Each element is called a *conjoin*.

These are the primary correlative conjunctions in English:

both . . . and

either . . . or

neither . . . nor

not . . . but

not only . . . but also

Other pairs that sometimes have a coordinating function include the following:

as . . . as

just as . . . so

the more . . . the less

the more . . . the more

no sooner . . . than

so . . . as

whether . . . or

Examples

By about midnight, the other travelers had found a place to sleep, *either* in the huts of the village *or* under the coach itself

Those who would give up essential liberty to purchase a little temporary safety deserve *neither* liberty *nor* safety

To accomplish great things, we must *not only* act, *but also* dream; *not only* plan, *but also* believe.

Exercise

1. What are conjunctions?
2. List and explain the different types of conjunction that you know.
3. List about fifty common subordinating conjunctions.
4. What are primary correlative conjunctions? Give examples.

WEEK 6

English Language SS 3, First Term

Understanding the Schwa

The reduced vowel sound called schwa is the most common vowel sound in spoken English. Schwa is a quick, relaxed, neutral vowel pronunciation very close to a 'short u' /ʌ/. The purpose of schwa is to allow unstressed syllables to be said more quickly so the main beats of spoken words are easier to place on the stressed syllables.

Schwa does not have an exact and standard pronunciation. Due to the near-identical pronunciation of schwa and *short u*, many dictionaries merge the transcription of the two sounds and strictly use /ə/. Separate symbols are retained here to indicate whether a vowel sound falls on a stressed or unstressed syllable.

Schwa occurs in two different circumstances:

1. in an unstressed syllable of a multi-syllable word
2. as a reduced vowel sound in a function word

What is the Unstressed Syllable?

To better understand what an unstressed syllable is all about, it is important to first understand what a syllable is. That said, a syllable is the smallest unit of word which is also often considered as the "building blocks" of words. It influences the rhythm or stress patterns in words. All syllables must have a vowel or a vowel sound, and in most single-syllable words, the vowel sound is very distinct (long, short, r-controlled, etc.).

In words that are more than one syllable, one of the syllables will have a vowel sound that is neutral or [more] muted. This is referred to as the "unstressed syllable" in the word. The vowel sound heard in the unstressed syllable is frequently the schwa (short u or short i sound) and is represented in the dictionary with the upside-down *e*. This is a contrast to the stressed syllables which are often perceived as being more forceful than non-stressed syllables. An example of the unstressed syllable would be the word, open. It is pronounced "O-pun" and the

second syllable is the unstressed syllable in the word. The unstressed syllable or schwa sound in multi-syllabic words is not “sloppy” English; rather correct pronunciation for word vocabulary.

In other words, for words with more than one syllable, not every syllable is given equal emphasis when spoken. Three levels of syllable stress are possible and these include-

1. stressed /●/
2. secondarily stressed /●/
3. unstressed /•/

Every multi-syllable word has a single stressed syllable. The single stressed syllable of the word has the most emphasis. The remainder of the syllables may have a secondary stress or may be unstressed.

The word *emphasize* has all the levels of stress. The first syllable is stressed, the second syllable is an unstressed syllable pronounced as schwa, and the third syllable has a secondary stress.

Grammar Modals

Grammar Modals (also known as **modal verbs**, **modal auxiliary verbs**, **modal auxiliaries**) are special verbs which are known to behave irregularly in English language. They are different from normal verbs such as “work, play, visit...” And their work is to give additional information about the **functions** of the main verbs that follow them. In other words, they have a great variety of **communicative functions**.

Characteristics of Modal Verbs

- *They never change their form. You can't add “s”, “ed”, “ing”...*
- *They are always followed by an infinitive without “to” (e.i. the bare infinitive.)*
- *They are used to indicate modality allow speakers to express certainty, possibility, willingness, obligation, necessity, ability*

*Modals (also called **modal verbs, modal auxiliary verbs, modal auxiliaries**) are special verbs which behave irregularly in English. They are different from normal verbs like “work, play, visit...” They give additional information about the **function** of the main verb that follows it. They have a great variety of **communicative functions**.*

List of Modal Verbs

Here is a list of modal verbs:

can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must

*The verbs or expressions **dare, ought to, had better, and need not** behave like modal auxiliaries to a large extent and may be added to the above list*

Uses of Modal Verbs

Modal verbs are used to express functions such as:

- 1. Permission*
- 2. Ability*
- 3. Obligation*
- 4. Prohibition*
- 5. Lack of necessity*
- 6. Advice*
- 7. possibility*
- 8. probability*

Examples of Modal Verbs

Here is a list of modals with examples:

Modal Verb	Expressing	Example
Must	Strong obligation	You must stop when the traffic lights turn red.

	logical conclusion / Certainty	He must be very tired. He's been working all day long.
Must not	prohibition	You must not smoke in the hospital.
Can	ability	I can swim.
	permission	Can I use your phone please?
	possibility	Smoking can cause cancer.
Could	ability in the past	When I was younger I could run fast.
	polite permission	Excuse me, could I just say something?
	possibility	It could rain tomorrow!
May	permission	May I use your phone please?
	possibility, probability	It may rain tomorrow!
Might	polite permission	Might I suggest an idea?
	possibility, probability	I might go on holiday to Australia next year.
Need not	lack of necessity/absence of obligation	I need not buy tomatoes. There are plenty of tomatoes in the fridge.
Should/Ought to	50 % obligation	I should / ought to see a doctor. I have a terrible headache.
	advice	You should / ought to revise your lessons
	logical conclusion	He should / ought to be very tired. He's been working all day long.
Had Better	advice	You 'd better revise your lessons

Composition: Report Writing, Types and Example

Report Writing is the process of putting together an informational work that is made with the specific intention of relaying information or recounting certain events in a widely presentable and scrutinized form. There are several types of report writings some of which are listed below-

Some examples of reports are:

- Annual Reports
- Auditor's reports
- Book Reports
- Bound Reports
- Retail Reports
- Census Reports
- Credit Reports
- Demographic Reports

Exercise

1. What is the Schwa sound in English Language?
2. The schwa sound can occur in either of two ways; true or false?
3. What do you understand by an unstressed syllable?
4. How is an unstressed syllable different from a stressed syllable? Explain.
5. Explain what you understand by grammar modals and enumerate the characteristics.
6. What are the uses of grammar modals?
7. Write a report on any preferred topic of you.

WEEK7

English Language SS 3, First Term

What is a Dialogue?

Dialogue (also spelt as *dialog* in U.S. English) is a written or spoken conversational exchange between two or more people, and a literary and theatrical form that depicts such an exchange. It can also be defined as a focused and intentional conversation, a space of civility and equality in which those who differ may listen and speak together.

How to Engage in meaningful Dialogue on any Given Subject Matter

1. Deep listening: In its most simple form, deep listening derives from the conscious choice to listen. It involves quietening the voice in our heads so that we can hear the true story of the person to whom we are listening. As we listen to understand their whole story we literally stay quiet and just listen. In exercises that we conduct on listening, people often report that they are amazed at how much they can hear when they know that all they have to do is listen. Instead of readying him/herself for when it is their turn to speak, the listener focuses instead on understanding the [current] speaker. Deep listening can occur anywhere, anytime. It could be with a team member while walking down a corridor. It might be with a customer in a busy department store or on the telephone. It might even be with our own partners! Imagine the difference that enhanced listening could make in that domain! The common element in all listening examples is the genuine choice to listen. It is both powerful and important if deep listening is to occur.

2. Respecting others: “I disapprove of what you say, but I will defend to the death your right to say it.” The above is a quote by a man called Voltaire who was a French Philosopher. This perspective of his on dialogue lies at the heart of respecting others. Clearly this is particularly difficult to do when we interact with people who have contrasting views to our own. Practicing this dialogue skill therefore becomes

imperative if we are to develop the true capacity to dialogue. While respecting others does not mean that you have to agree with them, it does mean that you will allow them the time and space to have their say and you will see it as a perspective that while you may not understand it, it is a perspective that is valid in the context that it contributes, even if only in a small way, to our understanding of the 'complete' picture of whatever is our area of focus at the time.

3. Inquiry: This is the capacity to ask genuine questions. As such it encourages the use of open questions that enhance our understanding of different perspectives, or assist in the deeply held mental models that lie behind many perspectives to come to the surface. The blog *The Art of Skilful Questions* provides a range of insights and suggestion to assist with developing improved questioning skills.

4. Voicing Openly (Advocacy): Many of us are quite talented in this skill, at least in part. Voicing openly is the capacity to say what you think *and* to be able to explain why you think what you think. Unfortunately many people struggle to share their view. All views, if they exist, are important for the development of a true understanding of a situation. If those views are not shared, then a part of the picture is missing which is why voicing is so important in the context of dialogue.

5. Suspending assumptions & judgement: The capacity to explain why we hold the views that we hold lies at the heart of suspending assumptions & judgements. Much like we hang our clothes on a line for them to dry, suspending means that we 'hang out' our reasons for our views. This allows people to look at them, question them and assist us in developing a deeper understanding of our perspectives. To suspend your assumptions & judgements illustrates a willingness to be vulnerable which is a key attribute of servant leaders (see the blogs *Dee Hock – an example of a Servant Leader* and *The Paradoxes of Servant Leadership* if you are not aware of servant leadership). Should we discover that our views are not useful through the act of having suspended them before others, we have the opportunity to adopt new ones. This experience is often described as true learning.

6. Balancing Voicing and Inquiry: This is as simple and complex as balancing sharing our view and why we have it with asking genuine questions to better understand another person's view, or to allow the group to talk about issues that will enhance the whole group's collective understanding of a topic. To practice this skill involves utilising all the skills listed above; deep listening, respecting others, inquiry, voicing openly and suspending assumptions & judgements. Even if the other people with whom you are conversing are not trying to dialogue, practicing this skill significantly enhances the quality of your contribution to the conversation. People will notice your enhanced communication skills because the quality of the conversations within which you participate will be enhanced by your contributions to them.

7. Reflecting: Our fast paced world offers little time to reflect. However the capacity to reflect is a big rock (see the blog The Rocks and the Jar) and enhances our communication skills and capacity to dialogue through considering how we have just practiced our skills. In team environments it is worth holding a reflection at the end of an attempted dialogue to recognise where the skills of dialogue were used effectively and where they could be improved.

Quick Exercise: Now try to dialogue with someone on either of the following topics- Drug Abuse, Child Abuse, Core Values and Discipline. Ensure to apply all the rules of effective communication as enumerated above.

Grammar: Prepositions

Simply put, prepositions are words (often short words) which expresses the relationship between two other nearby words. In the examples below, each preposition shows us the relationship between the word *book* and the word *wizard*.

- The book **about** the wizard
- The book **by** the wizard
- The book **near** the wizard
- The book **behind** the wizard
- The book **under** the wizard

The Functions of Prepositions

Prepositions precede the nouns (or pronouns) to show the nouns' (or the pronouns') relationships to other words in sentences. In the examples above, the preposition preceded the noun *wizard* to show that noun's relationship with the noun *book*.

Here are some more examples-

1. It is a container **for** butter. Here, the preposition *for* shows the relationship between *butter* and *container*.

2. The eagle soared **above** the clouds. The preposition *above* shows the relationship between *clouds* and *soared*

Object of a Preposition

The word (or words) that follows a preposition is called the object of a preposition. If there is a preposition, there will always be an object of the preposition. A preposition cannot exist by itself.

Prepositional Phrase

A prepositional phrase is made up of a preposition and the object of the preposition (including any modifiers). Prepositional phrases are very common. They function as either adjectives or adverbs. For example (prepositional phrases highlighted):

1. It is a message **from Mark**.

(Here, the prepositional phrase *from Mark* is functioning like an adjective because it is describing *message*.)

2. Mark is trapped **on the island**.

(Here, the prepositional phrase *on the island* is functioning like an adverb because it is modifying the verb *is trapped*)

Pitfalls with Prepositions

For native English speakers, serious grammatical errors involving prepositions are rare. The most common questions involving prepositions are shown below:

- Can you end a sentence in a preposition?
- Is the preposition absolutely necessary?
- What follows a preposition?

Exercise

1. What is a dialogue?
2. Briefly explain the right way to dialogue with someone or people.
3. Choose a partner and engage in a dialogue for five minutes on any preferred topic, putting into consideration all the rules guiding a good conversation.
4. What are prepositions?
5. Briefly explain the importance/functions of prepositions in English grammar

WEEK8

English Language SS 3, First Term

What are Argumentative Topics?

In essay writing or during debates, *argumentative topics* typically requires the student to first thoroughly investigate a topic by collecting or generating evidence and evaluating said evidence in order to establish a position on the topic albeit in a concise and logical manner. It is of uttermost importance that every student master the rudiments and skills of effective argumentation; hence the need for argumentative topics.

Arguing Given Topics effectively on selected Argumentative or Expository Topics

Play fair: It's important to avoiding upsetting your opponent during an argument; that is if you truly wish to have an civil argument. Resolve that no matter how upset he or she makes you, you will *not* say the one thing you know would push the argument over the edge.

Attack ideas, not the person they're attached to: When you argue with someone, you should remember to only attack that person's ideas, not the person themselves. That means you shouldn't call the person stupid for thinking what they think, and you shouldn't devolve to attacks on their physical appearance either.

Admit when you are wrong: When you make a mistake, admit it. Admit that you misunderstood or were misinformed. Being wrong doesn't make you a lesser person but admitting you're wrong does make you the bigger person.

Be open to new ideas: The best way to argue positively is to be open to new ideas. You don't want to be wrong in an argument again, do you? Open yourself to the possibility of a better way of thinking or new, fascinating information.

Make your opponent feel smart. When you make people feel stupid, that makes them shut down and tends to quickly lead an argument nowhere. Make them feel smart and you'll have an easier time turning the argument in your favor.

Use evidence tailored to the argument and audience: Evidence from reliable sources that specifically supports and deals with what you're arguing about can be one of the easiest ways to win an argument. You should also tailor the type of evidence you use to what kind of person they are, using more logical or more emotional evidence based on what you think they'll respond to best.

Complex Sentence Structures

A complex sentence has one independent clause and at least one dependent clause. An independent clause (unlike a dependent clause) can stand alone as a sentence. In other words, a *complex sentence* contains an independent clause and at least one dependent clause. An independent clause can stand alone as a *sentence* and makes a complete thought and a dependent clause cannot stand alone, even though it has a subject and a verb.

Examples of Complex Sentences

Below are examples of complex sentences-

- Stay in the bath until the phone rings.
- The car swerved to miss Mrs Jackson, who had slipped off the pavement.
- Both the cockroach and the bird would get along very well without us, although the cockroach would miss us most.
- Leave while you can.
- When a distinguished but elderly scientist states that something is possible, he is almost certainly right. When he states that something is impossible, he is very probably wrong. (Arthur C. Clarke)

(This is two complex sentences.)

The Four Types of Sentence Structures

A complex sentence is one of four main sentence structures, all of which are shown below. In these examples, the independent clauses are shaded.

A Complex Sentence. A complex sentence has an independent clause and at least one dependent clause. For example:

- The human brain never stops working until you stand up to speak in public.

A Compound Sentence. A compound sentence has at least two independent clauses. For example:

- I always wanted to be somebody, but I should have been more specific. (Jane Wagner)

A Simple Sentence. A simple sentence has just one independent clause. For example:

- Curiosity killed the cat.

A Compound-Complex Sentence. A compound-complex sentence has at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause. For example:

- I stopped believing in Santa Claus when he asked for my autograph in a department store, but I still want to believe in him.

How to Summarize by Answering Questions after Reading a Passage

Summarizing teaches students how to discern the most important ideas in a text, how to ignore irrelevant information, and how to integrate the central ideas in a meaningful way. Teaching students to summarize improves their memory for what is read. Summarization strategies can be used in almost every content area. Below are tips on how to summarize by answering questions after reading a passage-

1. First and foremost, read the passage carefully.
2. Use a pencil to highlight or underline what you take to be the main point of the original text, or make notes in the margins or on another sheet of paper.
3. If you're summarizing an entire essay, outline the writer's argument.

WEEK9

English Language SS 3, First Term

Introduction

British English is more popular in Nigeria compared to American because of our colonial heritage. As a matter of fact, for academic purposes, Nigeria officially speaks and write British. Yet, some people (especially the youth) often confuse British and American English by using them together even in the same sentences. The truth however is that there are major differences between Standard British English and Standard American English especially in the areas of spelling, vocabulary and pronunciation.

4. Identify the following- the main ideas are, the crucial details necessary for supporting the ideas, what information is irrelevant or unnecessary
5. Have them use key words or phrases to identify the main points from the text.

Exercise

1. Briefly explain what you understand by an argumentative essay.
2. How can you effectively argue any given topic?
3. Define a complex sentence and give five examples other than the ones already given in the lesson.
4. What are the four types of sentence structure that you know?

Here is an overview of the main differences between British and American spellings:

**Endings change to *or*
colour > color**

BRITISH

Armour

Armoury

Behaviour

AMERICAN

Armor

Armory

Behavior

Candour	Candor
Clamour	Clamor
Colour	Color
Demeanour	Demeanor
Endeavour	Endeavor
Favourite	Favorite
Flavour	Flavor
Glamour	Glamor
Harbour	Harbor
Honour	Honor
Humour	Humor
Labour	Labor
Neighbour	Neighbor
Odour	Odor
Rancour	Rancor
Rigour	Rigor
Rumour	Rumor
Saviour	Savior
Savour	Savor
Savoury	Savory
Splendour	Splendor
Valour	Valor
Vapour	Vapor
Vigour	Vigor

***re endings change to
theatre > theater***

BRITISH

Amphitheatre
Calibre
Centimetre
Centre

AMERICAN

Amphitheater
Caliber
Centimeter
Center

Fibre	Fiber
Kilometre	Kilometer
Litre	Liter
Louvre	Louver
Lustre	Luster
Manoeuvre	Maneuver
Meagre	Meager
Metre	Meter
Millimetre	Millimeter
Sabre	Saber
Sceptre	Scepter
Sombre	Somber
Spectre	Specter
Theatre	Theater

Note: These words are spelled with *-re* in both Britain and the USA:

Acre *Massacre* *Mediocre* *Ogre*

ogue* endings change to *og
catalogue* > *catalog

BRITISH

Analogue
Dialogue
Catalogue
Epilogue
Monologue
Prologue
Travelogue

AMERICAN

Analog
Dialog
Catalog
Epilog
Monolog
Prolog
Travelog

/ endings do not double in US spellings
traveller > traveler

BRITISH	AMERICAN
cancelled	canceled
counsellor	counselor
equalled	equaled
fuelling	fueling
fuelled	fueled
grovelling	groveling
jeweller	jeweler
jewellery	jewelry or jewelery
levelled	leveled
libelled	libeled
marvellous	marvelous
modelling	modeling
panelled	paneled
quarrelling	quarreling
revelled	reveled
woollen	woolen

Some British English words ending in one / may have double// in the USA spelling:

appal	appall
distil	distill
enrol	enroll
enthral	enthrall
fulfil	fulfill
instil	instill
skilful	skillful
wilful	willful

ae and *oe* words change to *e*
encyclopaedia > encyclopedia

BRITISH	AMERICAN
diarrhoea	diarrhea
oestrogen	estrogen
foetus	fetus
manoeuvre	maneuver
mementoes	mementos
anaemia	anemia
caesarean	cesarean
gynaecology	gynecology
haemorrhage	hemorrhage
leukaemia	leukemia
palaeontology	paleontology
paediatric	pediatric

ise endings change to *ize*
 apologise > apologize

Some words are
 the same in both
 countries:

BRITISH	AMERICAN
appetiser	appetizer
authorise	authorize
capitalise	capitalize
characterise	characterize
civilise	civilize
colonise	colonize
criticise	criticize
dramatise	dramatize
emphasise	emphasize
equalise	equalize
mobilise	mobilize
naturalise	naturalize
organise	organize
popularise	popularize

size
 capsizе
 prize
 seize

 advise
 surprisе
 advertisе

realise	realize
recognise	recognize
satirise	satirize
standardise	standardize
symbolise	symbolize
vaporise	vaporize

analyse	analyze
paralyse	paralyze

Note: Some British spellers do use the *-ize* ending – either is correct – but the American spelling is almost always *-ize*.

You may remember these *-ce* and *-se* words earlier. In some of them, the spelling depends on whether the word is a noun or a verb.

BRITISH	AMERICAN
defence	defense
offence	offense
pretence	pretense
vice (workbench tool)	vises
licence (as a noun): I've lost my driving licence.	license (noun and verb)
license (as a verb) is the same in both countries: He is licensed to drive large trucks	
practise (as a verb): I practise the piano every day.	practice (noun and verb)
practice (as a noun) is the same in both countries: Get some practice in these words.	

Some more examples of spelling differences:

Spelling change

<i>ph > f</i>	sulphate sulphide sulphur	sulfate sulfide sulfur
<i>ugh > f or w</i>	draught plough	draft plow
<i>y > i</i>	tyre (on a wheel) gybe	tire jibe
<i>ou > o</i>	mould moult smoulder	mold molt smolder
<i>mme > m</i>	programme	program
<i>que > ck</i>	cheque (money)	check
	chequer (game)	checker
	acknowledgement	acknowledgment
<i>ge > g</i>	ageing	aging
	judgement	judgment
Miscellaneous:	aluminium	aluminum
	axe	ax
	cosy	cozy
	kerb (edge of road)	curb
	furore	furor
	grey	gray
	carat	(gold) karat
	liquorice	licorice
	moustache	mustache
	nought	naught
	pyjamas	pajamas
	sceptic	skeptic
	phial	vial
whisky	whiskey	

The lists above show the most common spellings that are different in Britain and the USA. With the growth of the Internet, it is likely that the American spellings will become the most used. However, for all your academic purposes, you are advised to use British spellings.

Exercise

1. What do you understand by British and American English?
2. What are the major differences between British and American English?

SS 3

**SECOND TERM NOTES ON
ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

TABLE OF CONTENTS

SECOND TERM

- WEEK 1:** SS3 ENGLISH LANGUAGE SECOND TERM: REVISION ON
STRUCTURES & CLAUSES AND SUMMARY WRITING
- WEEK 2:** SS3 ENGLISH LANGUAGE SECOND TERM: REVISION ON
DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH
- WEEK 3:** SS3 ENGLISH LANGUAGE SECOND TERM: REVISION ON
FINITE AND NON-FINITE CLAUSES
- WEEK 4:** REVISION ON PRONOUNS AND DETERMINERS AND
WRITING A PLAY
- WEEK 5:** REVIEWS ON VOWELS/CONSONANTS, EXAMINATION
HINTS AND CLICHÉS
- WEEK 6:** REVISION ON INTONATION, MODAL VERBS AND
EXAMINATION HINTS

WEEK 1

English Language SS3 Second Term

Contents:

Grammatical Structure: Revision on Sentences and Clauses

Writing a Summary

Grammatical Structure: Revision on Sentences and Clauses

You have learned something about clauses and how they function in sentences and how to build up sentences using different types of clauses. Here are some basic points:

- A clause is a group of words containing a verb and its subject (When he met me yesterday is a clause; five hundred naira is a phrase)
- A clause is a part of a sentence and a simple sentence is just one clause (He met me yesterday is a simple sentence and it is also a clause)
- Sentences can be simple or they can be compound or complex or a mixture of both; and if they are not simple they are a mixture of both.

Compounds and complex sentences

A compound is said to be compound when it comprises two or more clauses that are of EQUAL importance. Each is called a main clause. They are linked together with one of these conjunctions: and, or, but (sometimes while)

Example: Racheal has catarrh and Moses has a cough

Can I see you or Am I too late?

A sentence is said to be complex when one clause, the main clause is more important than the other or others attached to it, which are therefore 'subordinate' or 'dependent' clauses. For example:

Although Sani had just a good breakfast, he still felt hungry.

Here two ideas are expressed in two clauses. The more important idea is that Sani felt hungry; so the second clause is the main clause and the first is the subordinate

or dependent clause. The first sentence cannot stand on its own but the second can.

A sentence can be a mixture of compound and complex.

Practice:

Identify the main and subordinate clauses in these complex sentences

1. She lends money to anyone who asks for help
2. If corruption is not tackled, this country will go under
3. However hard he tries, he always gets his calculations wrong
4. That businessman , who does not keep proper records, will not succeed
5. That you have lost your savings book doesn't not surprise me
6. I know you have done your best for me

Practice 2:

We quite often find one clause completely embedded in another.

For example:

The company he set up last year has collapsed

Here, the subordinate clause 'he set up last year' is embedded in the main clause, 'The company has collapsed'.

Now identify main and subordinate clauses in the following sentences:

1. He said that if corruption is not tackled this country will go under
2. She was sacked because she was behaving as if the company she headed was her private property
3. The shares you bought last year will go down in value unless there is general economic recovery in the country
4. I am certain that provided he gives more time to his studies and does not watch so many films he will pass all his subjects at one sitting
5. The dog that hangs around our house belongs to our neighbours and I think they feed him only when they have some left food

Clauses and Punctuation

Have you noticed something wrong in the above practice questions, they have no internal punctuation. We could improve the first sentence by adding comma like this:

He said that, if corruption is not tackled, this country will go under.

Now do the same for sentences 2 – 5.

Note –

- A comma is the right punctuation mark to separate one clause from another. Often an embedded clause will have one comma at the beginning and one at the end.
- Commas should never the less be used sparingly. It is not necessary always to use them to separate clauses, and sometimes it is definitely not correct to use them
- A semi-colon is stronger than a comma, and is used to divide a sentence into parts that are really separate sentences though related in meaning e.g. Funds are not available; if they were, we would sponsor your project.

Common Error

Here is a very common error:

Although, the pirates spent six months in prison, soon they were doing their work again.

No comma is required after Although; and the same applies if Though is used instead. rewrite the sentence correctly.

Although or Though is a conjunction here, introducing a clause. A comma can only be used after though (and one is also needed before it) when the meaning is 'however', e.g.

The Pirates spent six months in prison. Soon, though, they were doing their dirty work again.

Clause Types

Adjectival (or relative) clauses

These describe or modify a noun in another clause. They usually begin with who, which, whom, whose or that.

For example:

He has built a house on land that is too marshy

The builder (whom/that) you approached has a good reputation. (What are the three ways of writing this sentence?)

Charles is the friend I chiefly rely on. Or: Charles is the friend on whom I chiefly rely.

Adverbial clauses

They modify a verb in another clause. There are many different types, including the following.

Reason:

Many children do not go to school because their fees cannot be paid. (Or:..... since as)

Time:

After I finish secondary secondary, I will go to university. (Or: When, As soon as.....). Other time clauses can be formed with: before, until, while.

Manner:

He boasts as if he is the Governor of the Central Bank

Concession or Contrast:

Although she spends a lot on bleaching cream, it doesn't seem to have much effect.

Condition:

If we can end corruption, Nigeria will become a great country. (Here the writer or speaker is hopeful about ending it.).

If we could end corruption, Nigeria would become a great country. (Here the writer or speaker is not very hopeful about ending it.)

If we had known, we wouldn't have invited him. (We did invite him. We didn't know he was a pick pocket)

Purpose:

Come to my office tomorrow so that I can explain things to you

Result:

She was so beautiful that all the men were gazing at her. (Or, of course: He was so handsome that all the women were gazing at him)

Comparison:

He is less upset by her rejection of him I expected.

Noun clauses

Less has been said about these in earlier books. They function like nouns: as the subject, object or complement of a verb, or in 'apposition' to another noun. Many noun clauses begin with that.

For example:

Subject clause:

That you don't like music surprises me

Object:

He said that we must work for sustainable development

Complement:

The truth is that we depend too much on the government

Apposition:

The idea that we can overcome poverty in just a few years is unrealistic.

Writing a Summary

Follow these four steps

1. **Understand:** These four steps are strongly recommended – (a) survey (b) a quick read (c) read the question carefully (d) a careful read of the passage
2. **Choose:** Choose those parts of the text relevant to the question. If the book is yours, mark it in pencil; make rough notes – a list of points will do
3. **Rough draft:** Write a rough draft of your answer, and compare it with the question. Alter as necessary. Don't worry if you make several false starts.
4. **Final Version:** Write out your corrected answer and check it through for any careless errors.

Exercise

1. Briefly explain what you understand by clause.
2. Differentiate between compound and complex sentences.
3. Here is a different type of exercise. You will find three simple sentences below, combine them into one sentence in a suitable way and you can make changes or add joiners where necessary.

They could not carry out the contract

Government awarded them a contract

The contract has been revoked

These can be combined into one:

4. Since they could not carry out the contract Government awarded them, the contract had been revoked.

Now try these: Some hints are given

1. He was celebrating his birthday. It had taken place on February 1st. He invited many friends to a party. (Begin with Since... or As....)
2. You may not like the product. You can take it back to the company. You should not do this too often. (Begin with If.... and introduce do; also use but)
3. He claimed his last salary had not been paid. The magistrate dismissed the claim. (Begin with Although)
4. Book piracy must be tackled. It is a scourge to the publishing industry. No good-quality books will be around very soon. (Begin with Unless... or use If.... not; introduce which.)

What is wrong with the following sentences? Correct the errors.

1. He said that if corruption is not tackled this country will go under
2. She was sacked because she was behaving as if the company she headed was her private property
3. The shares you bought last year will go down in value unless there is general economic recovery in the country
4. I am certain that provided he gives more time to his studies and does not watch so many films he will pass all his subjects at one sitting

5. The dog that hangs around our house belongs to our neighbours and I think they feed him only when they have some left food

WEEK 2

English Language SS3 Second Term

Contents:

Grammatical Structure: Direct and Indirect Speech

Writing Skill: How to be more original in your writing

Grammatical Structure: Direct and Indirect Speech

The word 'reported' is often used for the second type; but the truth is that we can 'report' EITHER by using 'direct speech' OR by using 'indirect speech'. The difference is that with direct speech we reproduce the actual words of a speaker; with indirect speech we do this 'indirectly'.

Changes involved in direct and indirect speech

Direct Speech

Indirect Speech

Present tenses

Past tenses

Past tenses

Past perfect tenses

1st/2nd person pronouns

3rd person pronouns

Less important changes are that *this, these* may change to *that, those; here to there; now to then; today to that day* e.t.c

Remember that auxiliaries also have present and past forms

Forms of auxiliaries

Present

Past

Am, is

Was

Are

Were

Has, have

Had

Do, does

Did

Can

Could

May

Might

Will

Would

Shall

Should

For *must*, use *had to* in the past; *ought* does not change.

Practice 1

The following sentences containing direct speech are to be changed into indirect speeches

Example: 'Which of your characters do you take everywhere?' she asked him

This becomes

She asked him which of his characters he took everywhere

1. 'It is not good to get too attached,' he said.
2. 'How have Americans received the book?' she asked him
3. 'As for me, I love my book,' he said.
4. 'As long as people connect with the characters, then I am happy,' he said.
5. 'What are your greatest fears?' I asked

Now take note of some important points, which are illustrated by the examples.

1. For direct speech, quote marks (" " or ' ') are put around the actual words being reported; for indirect speech, no quote marks are used.
2. For both types of speech, various 'reporting verbs' can be used. The most common ones are say and ask; others are tell, reply, argue, add e.t.c The reporting verbs and the subjects are called the narrators comment. For indirect speech, this comes at the beginning of the sentence. For direct speech, it may come at the beginning, or at the end, or even in the middle.
3. In reporting, a direct statement corresponds to an indirect statement, a direct question corresponds to an indirect question. Sentences with different types of indirect speech have different structures. For example: you are not allowed to say she asked me that....
4. For indirect statement, no comma should normally be put after the reporting verbs (E.g. He said that, he was happy is wrong). For direct question, a question mark is not used.

	Direct	Indirect
Statement	'Many people like my book,' he said.	He said that many people liked his book

Questions	1. 'Are you happy?' she asked him. 2. 'Why are you afraid?' she asked him.	1. She asked him if he was happy. 2. She asked why he was afraid.
Command	1. 'Read the book right through,' he said. 2. 'Read the book right through,' he told me.	1. He said I should read the book right through. 2. He told me to read the book right through.

Practice 2

Rewrite the sentences changing direct into indirect speech

1. 'I have never been to America,' she told him.
2. 'How many books have you written?' she asked me.
3. 'The meeting was very stressful,' she told me.
4. 'I will send you an email tomorrow,' I assured her.
5. 'Can you reduce the price a little?' I asked the book seller.

Skill Focus: How to be more original in your Writing

In your English examination, you will often be giving a choice of subject on which to write.

1. When in doubt, choose the subject that you are most familiar with. We all write best about things closest to our own experience.
2. Whatever you do, do not try to get by with a 'rehearsed answer' – i.e. a composition that you have memorised. Such answers are quickly spotted by examiners and they earn no marks.
3. When choosing, and writing on, a topic in an exercise, or in an examination, try to think of an unusual approach to the topic. You will earn marks for originality!
4. Certain topics may strike a 'creative cord' in you: You may at times see opportunities for using your imagination – and the resources of the language.

For example, although adjectives are very useful on their own, they seldom enable the writer to give a really vivid and memorable expression. For that something more necessary. Compare sentence 1 with sentence 2.

1. Hanifah was fat.

2. Hanifah was as fat as a house.

The second sentence is clearly much better. Even this sentence could be improved in itself, the fatness of Hanifah is not particularly interesting. It only becomes interesting when we can imagine it more clearly; when we can understand what Hanifah felt like to be fat; what other people's attitude to her fatness were and finally what Hanifah was really like in character. Interesting!!!

Fat Hanifah

Here is an extract from John Munonye's novel *Obi*, which does all these jobs very well.

The convent was a literacy centre and marriage trading home. The white sisters from Ania had started it. They went back shortly after leaving the place in the charge of the lame woman they had brought with them

Her name was Hanifah though most people simply called her Miss Fat Hanifah! Her size was enormous. In true brotherly spirit, the catholic community of Ossa refrained from making open comments but not so the rest. they would say 'Imagine her running a race' or, 'No wonder she can not find a husband'. She is two people put together and church men are not allowed to marry more than one; and she wouldn't marry a heathen, either'. Hanifah knew that heathens of Ossa said such things about her, but she refused to be ruffled. She was a good-natured and even-tempered woman; and besides she consigned the idolaters and their tongues to the category of the devil works, calculated to ruin their mission in the town. In her many years at Ossa, only once she known to have been seriously upset. That was the day someone suggested not accurately in her hearing that she was well over 45, she shared tears on that day and some of pupils wept too, in sympathy. They all loved Hanifah so much as indeed she loved them.

Exercise

1. Differentiate between direct and indirect speech.
2. Give three examples of direct and indirect speeches.
3. How can be original in your writing?

WEEK 3

English Language SS3 Second Term

Contents:

Grammatical Structures: Revision on finite and non-finite clauses

Skill Focus: Avoiding Common errors

Vocabulary Development: Register of Science

Grammatical Structures: Revision on finite and non-finite clauses

What is the structure of the following sentence?

*Deterred by the lack of future job prospects,
many Nigerian secondary school students avoid science subjects.*

The sentence contains two clauses, and what follows the comma is the main clause. But what about the clause preceding the comma, 'Deterred... prospects'? The explanation requires some understanding of the difference between finite and non-finite clauses.

So far you have only learned about finite clauses. A finite clause is one that contains a finite verb form, which in turn means one that can function as the predicate of a sentence.

For example:

She *wrote* a message

She *was writing* a message.

Here *wrote* and *was writing* are finite verb forms and they appear in meaningful sentences. Non-finite verb forms are ones that can not, just by themselves function as predicates. For the verb *write* the non-finite forms are infinitives (*to write, to have written*) and the participles *writing* and *written*. When we say that they cannot function as predicates, we mean that, for example, *She to write* or *She writing* or *She written a message* is not acceptable as a sentence, and really has no meaning.

However, non-finite forms CAN appear in dependent clauses. In addition to one example that is given at the beginning of this section, look at the following:

To speak many languages is a great asset

They accused him of *having stolen it*

Delivered by the Vice-principal, the welcome address was much appreciated.

In the first sentence, '*To speak many languages*' is a non-finite noun clause, functioning as the subject of '*is*', in the second sentence, '*having stolen it*' is a non-finite clause, functioning as the object (or complement) of the preposition '*of*', in the third sentence, '*Delivered by the Vice-principal*' is a non-finite adjectival clause that describes or qualifies '*the welcome speech*' in the main clause.

Let us look at another example more carefully:

Seeing the bus in front of him, Samuel applied the brakes

The non-finite clause is '*Seeing ... him*'. What type of clause is it? It surely gives the reason why Samuel applied the brakes; hence it is an adverbial clause of reason.

Analysing non-finite clauses is harder than analysing finite clauses because a finite clause has a word at the beginning that serves as a clue to the type it is: e.g. *who* indicates an adjectival clause of condition. *Seeing*, however, could indicate an adverbial clause of reason, as here; but sometimes it can indicate an adverbial clause of time. How will you know? You have to exercise your own judgement.

Infinitive Forms

One of the non-finite is 'the infinitive'. An infinitive form sometimes begin with *to*, sometimes without it.

Various forms of infinitives can be used as follows

1. After certain other verbs (usually with *to*) and some nouns and adjectives:

Human beings like to understand the world around them

The dust laden air made me to cough

The technology of today makes books easy to produce

It is better to have loved and lost than never to have loved at all.

2. After modal verbs:

We will go

They must have gone

He may have been calling you

3. As a subject:

To err is human, to forgive is divine

Formation of INFINITIVES and PARTICIPLES

	Active	Passive
Infinitives		
Present Simple	(to) take	(to) be taken
Present Continuous	(to) be taking	–
Perfect Simple	(to) have taken	(to) have been taken
Perfect Continuous	(to) have been taking	–
Participles		
Present	Taking	Being taken
Past	Taken	Taken
Perfect	Having taken	Having been taken

Skill Focus: Avoiding Common errors

There are many common errors that you need to be aware of and avoid if possible, both in speech and writing.

Here are a few of them:

Of recent. The right expression is *'of late'*, or *'lately'*, or *'recently'*.

No any. You can only say *'no'* or *'not any'*, e.g. *'I have no money'*, *'I haven't any money'*, NOT *'I have no any money'*.

Wrong use of of -d or -ed. *'Did he arrived late?'* is wrong : Arrive does not need -d after it because it has the auxiliary *did* before it.

Omission of -d or -ed. For example: *'The road is close for repairs'* or *'Their plans have reached an advance stage'*. The right verb (participial) forms here are *closed* and *advanced*.

More better, more superior. The words *'better'* and *'superior'* cannot be used with *'more'* because they already mean *'more than ...'*

Occassion. Only one *'s'* is correct not double *'ss'*.

Try to read the book common errors in English by David Jowitt and Silas Nnamonu.

Exercise

1. What do you understand by a finite clause?
2. Instruction: Join the following pairs of sentences together making one of them a non-finite clause. Some words will need altering but make minimal changes.
(a) say what type of non-finite dependent clause you have used in each sentence. b) say what the function of that clause is.

1. I needed more money. I went to the bank.
2. She started with a capital of €50,000. Now she has a turn over of millions
3. The man was overwhelmed by numerous debts. He shot himself
4. The dog heard voices. It began barking
5. Abuja is situated in a very central position. It is accessible from all parts of Nigeria

3. Fill in the empty spaces using options from the words listed in the box below- Genetics is a biological (1) ___ that is concerned with the study of heredity and variation. The law of (2) ___ states that it is the (3) ___ of the offspring to possess (4) ___ similar to either or both its parents. This is because the (5) ___ organism (6) ___ itself in the offspring by causing the latter to organise in the same definite way. It is because of heredity that individuals related by (7) ___ resemble one another. The law of variation states that there is a tendency for the (8) ___ to be different from their ancestors and from one another. It is because of variation that differences exist between members of the same family and individuals of the same (9) ___. These (10) ___ and variations can be transmitted from one (11) ___ to another. Genetics is the study of the nature of these similarities and variations, what causes them and what (12) ___ from them.

	A	B	C	D	E
1	Subject	Study	Science	Investigation	Section
2	Inheritance	Heredity	Variation	Transmission	Genes
3	Duty	Inclination	Tendency	Misfortune	Privilege
4	Characteristics	Markings	Achievements	Elements	Interests
5	Patriarchal	Original	Paternal	Genetic	Parental
6	Renews	Recovers	Restores	Reproduces	Represents

7	Decency	Community	Communion	Descent	Degenerates
8	Members	Offspring	Variables	Products	Species
9	Species	Organization	Area	Nucleus	Gender
10	Identities	Differences	Similarities	Distinctions	Characters
11	Line	Theory	Stage	System	Generation
12	Results	Obtains	Arises	Follows	Occurs

WEEK 4

English Language SS3 Second Term

Contents:

Grammatical Structures: Pronouns and Determiners

Writing a Play

Grammatical Structures: Pronouns and Determiners (Revision)

Pronouns and Determiners are word classes in which we find some of the most common and useful words in English. The difference between them is that a pronoun is used in a place of a noun and a determiner is followed by a noun (or by an adjective, then by a noun).

1. Pronouns come in different groups including:

- personal pronouns with different forms that you can find set out in table 4.2 below
- indefinite pronouns (someone, something, anyone, anything, no one, nothing, everyone, everything)
- relative pronouns (who, which, that)
- interrogative pronouns (who? what? which?)

2. Determiners include these group:

- articles (the definite article the, the indefinite article a which comes before a consonant and an which comes before a vowel)
- possessives (see table 4.2)

However there are other groups which can function either as pronoun or as determiners namely:

- numerals (one, two, three e.t.c, first, second, third e.t.c.)
- demonstratives (this, that; these, those)
- quantifiers (some, much, many, more, most, all, both)

Study these examples with much:

He doesn't have much (determiner) hope

Much (pronoun) is expected of you

Table 4.2 Personal Pronouns/ Determiners

Person	Subject	Object	Possessive		Reflexive
			Determiner	Pronoun	
1 st singular	I	Me	My	Mine	Myself
2 nd singular	You	You	Your	Yours	Yourself
3 rd singular	He	Him	His	His	Himself
3 rd singular	She	Her	Her	Hers	Herself
3 rd singular	It	It	Its	Its	Itself
1 st plural	We	Us	Our	Ours	Ourselves
2 nd plural	You	You	Your	Yours	Yourself
3 rd plural	They	Them	Their	Theirs	Themselves

Reflexive pronouns should not be confused with reciprocal pronouns each other (referring to two people) and one another (more than two).

Compare these sentences

- Oke and Tony blamed themselves for losing the goat (Oke blamed himself and Tony blamed himself)
- Oke and Tony blamed each other for losing the goat (Oke blamed Tony and Tony blamed Oke)

Problems with quantifiers

Many students misuse quantifiers. Note the following:

Most: Use this when you want to say 'nearly all', NOT when the right word is 'many'

E.g. Most of my class mates own a mobile phone (This means that if their number is 50, at least 40 of them own a mobile phone – but not if only 30 own one)

A few/Few: Use these quantifiers with countable nouns in the plural only. Both mean 'a small number', but while A few is positive in tone, Few is negative. For example

A few students have registered for Physics (That's good)

Few students have registered for Physics (What a pity)

A little/Little: They behave just like a few/few but are used with uncountable nouns.

Writing a Play

It is quite sufficient to choose some very small incident or anecdote. You should probably only attempt this topic if you have a brainwave – a sudden, very good idea of what your play could be about. Make your dialogue as natural as possible – but take care that it does not become too long or too boring.

When you are writing play, it is perfectly acceptable to make up a relevant subtitle. Try to brainstorm and then draw some kind of outline plan.

Example:

Possible Plan: My part in the school play

Paragraph 1

Introduction. Previous dramatic experience; reasons why I went in for the play

Paragraph 2

What happened at the audition: how i felt before, during and after. My feelings about my part.

Paragraph 3

The rehearsals: what happened; how i got on with the producer/other actors

Paragraph 4

The dress rehearsal: feeling of nervousness, etc. Worry about forgetting lines.

Things that went wrong

Paragraph 5

The First Night.....

Possible Plan 2: My outing to see Shehu Umar

Paragraph 1

Introduction: Why I wanted to see the play Shehu Umar, and who I went with

Paragraph 2

Arrival in the hall; where I sat; What I saw in the programme; gradual build-up of excitement

Paragraph 3 At last the curtain rose! Brief description of what the play is about

Paragraph 4 Brief account of how the play was performed: the set, the actors, the costumes, the music

Paragraph 5 After the play was over

Exercise

1. What is the difference between pronouns and determiners?
2. Pronouns come in different groups. List and explain them.
3. Instruction: use the words from table 4.2 to fill the gaps in the following scene from a play

The characters F- Franca, D- Dora, G – a Guard YM – a Young Man

F: Look, ___'re lucky! The train hasn't gone yet! Hurry up, Dora, ___ will go without ___!

D: ___ can't run

G: ___ tickets, please. Show ___ tickets.

D: Here's ___

F: Oh, where's ___? ___ can't find ___. Please, let ___ through

G: ___ ticket, ___ ticket

F: Oh please, just help ___! ___ know ___ always pass this way

D: There goes the whistle! Hurry up, Franca. Look, the platform's deserted

G: ___ can show ___ ticket at ___ destination, but ___ must find ___

F: Oh, thanks! Now, Dora, run!

Later inside the train, they work through one compartment after another looking in vain for two empty seats together

D: There just aren't any. ___'d better just stand here near the door

F: (*still searching for her lost ticket*) How could ___ have lost ___ ticket when I bought ___ at the booking office just now?

D: ___'re always losing things. ___'m glad ___ don't have a brain like ___.

A young man in a tie approaches the girls on his way from the rear of the train. He speaks first to Dora.

YM: Oh, are ___ the owner of this ticket? ___ must have dropped ___ near the barrier. The guard asked ___ to give ___ to ___.

D: (Indicating Franca) It's not ___, it's ___. ___'s the careless one.

F: Thank ___ sir.

WEEK 5

English Language SS3 Second Term

Contents:

Speech Work: Revision of Vowels and Consonants

Examination Hints: Paper testing

Clichés

Speech Work: Revision of Vowels and Consonants

Vowels:

/i:/	'ee' in greet, 'ea' in treat
/i/	'i' in simple, cripple
/e/	'e' in bet, set, let
/æ/	'a' in mat, cat
/u:/	'oo' in moon
/ʊ/	'oo' in look, 'u' in bush
/ɔ:/	'a' in fall, 'or' in lord
/ɒ/	'o' in hot, 'a' in what
/ɑ:/	'a' in father
/ʌ/	'u' in stuff, 'o' in love
/ɜ:/	'ir' in first, 'ur' in burn
/ə/	'e' in happen, 'o' in reason, 'a' in plural
/ei/	'a' in late, 'ai' in pain
/iə/	'ear' in clear
/eə/	'air' in fair, 'are' in rare
/aʊ/	'ou' in mouth, 'ow' in now
/ɔi/	'oi' in oil, 'oy' in boy
/ai/	'i' in time, 'igh' in night
/əʊ/	'o' in go, 'ow' in flow
/ʊə/	'oor' in poor, 'ur' in sure

Consonants:

/p/	'p' in pay
/b/	'b' in beat
/t/	't' in take
/k/	'k' in keep, 'c' in come
/d/	'd' in do
/g/	'g' in get
/tʃ/	'ch' in check
/dʒ/	'j' in just, 'dg' in ledge
/f/	'f' in first
/v/	'v' in very
/s/	's' in so, 'ss' in miss
/z/	'z' in zero, 's' in has
/ʃ/	'sh' in rush
/ʒ/	's' in measure
/θ/	'th' in think, both
/ð/	'th' in the, that
/n/	'n' in no
/m/	'm' in my
/ŋ/	'ng' in sing
/l/	'l' in lip
/r/	'r' in run
/w/	'w' in we
/j/	'y' in you
/h/	'h' in help

Examination Hints: Paper testing

What is Paper Testing?

Essay writing is 'a test of the candidates' ability to communicate in English through the medium of writing.

Apart from AMPS (Audience, Medium, Purpose and Style), you will need to pay attention to the following:

1. **Content:** the ideas, the points, the details that you need to include in your essay
2. **Expression:** the words you use to express these points
3. **Mechanical Accuracy:** this refers to grammar, spelling and punctuation
4. **Organisation:** the way you organise your information in paragraphs

The common complaints by chief examiners include the following:

- Some candidates write their answers in one long paragraph – there is no attempt to arrange the information in paragraphs at all
- Some candidates attempt to include paragraphs but on a random basis, there is no understanding that each paragraph should be on a certain topic to which all sentences are related
- Some candidates write every sentence as a paragraph: one-sentence paragraphs should almost always be avoided.

How to do the examination

1. Go into the exam hall with a good eraser, a pencil, and a ball-point pen. You will need the pencil and eraser for rough work.
2. You have to choose one topic out of a choice of six. Make an informed choice, taking into account your own special interests. For example, if you like letter writing, look at the letter writing topic carefully. Make sure that you understand the situation and that you can relate to the audience.
3. Once you have chosen your topic, make a plan.

- **Brainstorm:** read, understand and think ‘Mind maps’ or ‘spider diagrams’ may help you to ‘bounce a few ideas around’ inside your head, before you start to plan in a more orderly fashion
- Plan each paragraph
- If you have time, write out your short version in pencil. If not, draft the the important paragraphs, especially the introduction and conclusion
- Write out a neat fair copy, re-read it carefully, correcting any mistakes and cross out the rough draft.

- Try to leave 5 minutes at the end for a careful check. Remember that you have only this one essay to show your writing ability.

Clichés

A cliché is a type of collocation that is defined in the dictionary as ‘a phrase or idea that has been used so much that it no longer has much meaning and is not interesting’. A good example is the last straw that broke the camel’s back, meaning ‘the final event in a series of events, which made the general situation unbearable’. Thus a woman may have found living with her husband very difficult, for all kinds of reasons, until finally, one day, she discovers that he is having an affair with their neighbour’s wife. She tells a friend: ‘That was the last straw that broke the camel’s back’. And she decides to ‘pack out of the matrimonial home’.

Other expressions which can be regarded as clichés are: *be that as it may, dispense justice without fear or favour, go down memory lane, every Tom, Dick and Harry, ladies of the night, a canker-worm eating deep into the fabric of society.*

We are often advised to avoid clichés, and to find other expressions to use instead. This is because relying on clichés is an evidence of lazy thinking: by using them we are just echoing phrases we have heard other people use, instead of trying to be creative in our own language use.

So our advice is: try to avoid clichés.

Exercise

1. How many vowels and consonants are there in English language?
2. What is the purpose of essay writing as a form of examination?
3. How can you successfully write a good essay during an examination?
4. What do you understand by clichés?

WEEK 6

English Language SS3 Second Term

Contents:

Spoken English: Revision on Intonation

Grammatical structure: Modal verbs

Examination Hints: Comprehension

Spoken English: Revision on Intonation

There are many different intonation patterns, but the key element in each one is a certain type of tone or change in pitch – falling (↓), rising (↑) or falling-rising (↓↑). An arrow here indicates the tone of the following syllable.

1. **Falling:** This is used with statements, commands and questions beginning with a *wh-* word. The voice falls, usually on the last stressed syllable (i.e. the last syllable in the sentence carrying primary stress), and continues on a low pitch. – Examples: He wasn't wearing a ↓ CRASH helmet. Why are the roads so ↓ DANgerous?
2. **Rising:** This is used Yes/No questions, and statements used as questions. The voice rises on the last stressed syllable and then continues going up. – Examples: Is the accident rate in ↑ CREASing? Surely he had a ↑ CRASH helmet?
3. **Falling – Rising:** This is used for implications or emotional overtones that are not stated. It may come all on one syllable, or may be spread over several syllables. – Examples: Nothing's wrong with the ↓ ENG ↑ ine! Don't park in front of the ↓ ↑ GATE!

When a speaker wants to use 'emphatic' or 'contrastive' stress in a sentence, the syllable with a fall, rise e.t.c may be other than the last stressed one:

There's ↓ NOTHing wrong with the engine!

Revision: Modal Verbs

We constantly have to use modal verbs or modal auxiliaries in English. They include such important little words as *may* and *must*. Can you identify a modal verb in a sentence? Make sure that you can properly form phrases that begin with a modal.

The vital point is that a modal is followed by an infinitive form of an ordinary verb; and there are many different infinitive forms. With the modal may and the ordinary verb write as our example, we find these phrases:

may write

may be writing

may have written

may have been writing

may be written

may have been written

Use of Modal Verbs

Idea Expressed	Modal(s) used	Examples
Ability	Can (could)	I can drive. I told him I could drive
Permission	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May (might) • Can (could) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You may come in now • You can finish the meat • He said I could finish the meat • Could I have a look at that book? (very polite)
Obligation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Must • Should/ought to 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They must pay for the damage(whether they like it or not) • They ought to pay for the damage • That building will soon collapse
Prediction (of future events willingness)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Will/shall (would/should) • Will (would) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He said the building would soon collapse • I will show you the way • Would you pass me the salt, please?
Degrees of Possibility	Must-may-might/could-can't	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It must be raining (very certain) • It may be raining (less certain) • It can't be raining (impossible)

Modals and Politeness

Some of the modals are very important for making polite requests or when offering somebody something.

Can I look at your newspaper?

May I look at your newspaper?

Could I look at your newspaper?

All of these are more polite than saying: 'Give me your newspaper', which in fact sounds very rude. Can I...? is less polite than Could I...? while May I...? is very formal.

Another very polite form is:

Would you mind lending me your newspaper?

We also use Would you...? when making an offer, e.g.: Would you like something something eat?

This is more polite than 'Have something to eat'

Another polite form is Shall I...? It is used when you are absolutely certain that someone would like you to do something.

For example, a son may say to his father:

Shall I put the generator on?

Practice:

In pairs, practise making polite requests based on these situations.

- carrying a heavy bag;
- explaining a maths problem;
- lending a mobile phone;
- going to the post-office;
- going through an assignment.

Other modal verbs

There are a few more modal or modal-like verbs that you need to know and use

1. Have to (have/has/had to): This is very much like must, and expresses a strong obligation or necessity.

He has to pay for the damage, whether he likes it or not

2. Be to (am/are/is/was/were to): This expresses a future arrangement

e.g. Abel is to have another injection next week

3. Be (am/are/is/was/were): This is a very common way of referring to the future

e.g. Abel is going to have another injection next week

This meaning is slightly different from the last example – Abel intends to have the injection; It's not just that the doctor has told him to come for it.

4. Need (to): This shows that some need or necessity is felt to be present (needn't means its absence). Need can be followed by to and then behaves like an ordinary verb: needn't is never followed by to.

Study these examples:

a. 'Need I go to the market today?' asked Cecilia. 'I went there only yesterday.' (We could also say: 'Do I need to go...?')

b. 'You must do this exercise again,' said the teacher, 'but you needn't bring it to me – I will assume you've done it.'

c. 'You needn't have washed the car, Joseph – Cletus did it only yesterday.'

5. Dare (to): This means 'have the courage to ...' and is more common in the negative:

He didn't dare to argue.

He hardly dared to argue.

In the negative, dare can be used without **to** following it

Examination Hints: Comprehension

Comprehension takes up the first of the two sections of Part B of Paper 1 and accounts for 15% of the total examination mark. Candidates are advised to spend about 45 minutes on the section as a whole, or 20-25 minutes on each passage and its questions.

The syllabus states that the questions will test the candidate's ability to:

1. find equivalents for selected words and phrases
2. show understanding of the factual content
3. draw conclusions from the language used
4. show understanding of the emotions or attitudes expressed (either those of the writer or of persons being reported by the writer)

5. identify and name grammatical functions of words, phrases and clauses as used in the passage
6. re-form sentences or parts of sentences so that they have the same meaning but a different grammatical structure
7. identify and understand the figurative use of language

If you have followed this course from the beginning, you ought to by now have developed a high standard of comprehension skills relevant to your examination. The reading plan of comprehension and summary passages is as follows:

1. Survey the passage
2. Quickly read the passage
3. Look at the questions and keep them in mind as you come to stage 4
4. Slowly read the passage
5. Answer the questions
6. Re-read and if necessary correct your answers. (Re-reading anything you write nearly always helps you to improve it)

Here are a few hints about answering comprehension questions

1. Answer the questions as briefly and as clearly as you can
2. As far as possible, use your own words
3. Write your answers in complete sentences unless the question clearly tells you to do otherwise
4. Your understanding of the meaning of individual words and phrases is likely to be tested in two ways
 - a. You may be required to replace the word or phrase with a word or phrase of the same meaning (otherwise known as synonym)
 - b. Alternatively, you may be asked to explain the word or phrase as used in the passage.

Type a expects you to give a short simple answer while Type b expects you to explain. e.g. If you are asked to replace a word 'strolling', your answer would be 'walking slowly'- Type a but for type b, if you are asked to explain strolling, your answer would be 'walk slowly or casually' probably Yusuf was relaxing or wasn't in a hurry.

Exercise

1. Differentiate between rising and falling tones and give examples of both.
2. What are modal verbs?
3. Choose the most suitable answer

1. The country ___ make progress unless we all work harder

2. won't

3. could

4. wouldn't

5. mustn't

6. You ___ obtain the JAMB form at once and send it off – that's my advice to you

7. must

8. should

9. would

10. may

11. It ___ have been Peter you saw outside. He's just entered the house

12. must

13. ought to

14. can't

15. may

16. She told me I ___ call after we have finished the work

17. could

18. would

19. be able to

20. ought

21. I ___ try to read unless I wear those glasses. That's what the doctor ordered.

22. mustn't

23. should

24. wouldn't

25. can't